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From the Editor…

Shannon O. Brooks

With this issue, the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* ends its 25th year of publication. Looking back on the journal's inception in 1996, it is doubtful our founders could have imagined how transformative the idea of the scholarship of engagement—introduced in the pages of the journal's first issue—would become, and how a scholarly field would be born and subsequently documented within *JHEOE's* pages over the last quarter century.

During this milestone year, *JHEOE* has had a substantial increase in the number of article submissions the journal typically receives, including a record number of submissions from international scholars. JHEOE has long strived to represent a diversity of thought and perspectives in its pages, so seeing a marked increase in international voices and scholars not only submitting work but also being published in the pages of the journal is a welcome trend.

Along with publishing three regular issues this year, 25(3) was a special issue devoted to exploring the impact of the coronavirus pandemic on community engagement work, the impact of which, unfortunately, is still ever-present in many of the new manuscripts we receive. Our editorial team works hard to publish robust and diverse issues four times a year. This issue, 25(4), is no different and features 14 articles, essays, book reviews, and a dissertation overview exploring a wide range of topics. We are so grateful to the authors who entrust their manuscripts to JHEOE and who put forward ideas that advance the field through the peer review and publication process.

However, with a rise in submissions, our editorial team has documented a more troubling corresponding trend of a decrease in reviewers, a challenge unfortunately shared by many journals. As we end this year and look to our next quarter century, I challenge all of us to consider the importance of the peer review process, not only to improving the quality and rigor of scholarship in our field, but in creating a scholarly community that reflects the ideals of community engagement. In practicing this work, we strive for bidirectional communication and exchange of resources and ideas. In theory and practice, our communities, institutions, and individuals are best served through a true commitment from all of us to working in partnership, whether that is through a service-learning course, community-based research project, or the development of an article for publication. As we move forward, let's reframe the peer review process not as one of competition and gatekeeping, but instead as a true community building process. I challenge all of our authors that for each manuscript you submit, volunteer to provide two reviews in service to the field and in gratitude to those who agree to review your work. Let us be in dialogue with one another through the peer review process and approach this critical component of the creation of scholarship with the care it deserves. From the editor's chair, I see the difference peer review makes in the quality and depth of everything we publish, and it is a community effort.

As we close out this year and this volume of the journal, thank you to our authors, reviewers, associate and managing editors, editorial board, readers, and supporters for making the last twenty-five years of publication possible.

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Exploration of a Pathway From Leadership Development to Institutionalization of Community Engagement

A. Laurie Murrah-Hanson and Lorilee R. Sandmann

Abstract

The institutionalization of community engagement is a lengthy, complex process to which higher education change agents have turned their attention over the past few decades. This study examined the experiences of participants in leadership workshops designed specifically to develop the capacities of campus and community leaders to facilitate this work. Using Conner's (2006) curve of commitment, this research highlighted factors contributing to and deterring community engagement, and explored the role of leadership development in the institutionalization of community engagement. Findings revealed five critical issues related to this work: administrative support, faculty buy-in, positionality/power dynamics, resources, and embeddedness—with administrative support and leadership serving as a linchpin. In addition to the need for effective leadership development as a pathway to supporting this multifaceted organizational change, the results also underscored the need for a model of shared leadership to guide the purpose, planning, and persistence necessary for institutional change.

Keywords: community engagement, institutionalization, leadership development, organizational change, shared leadership

Higher education institutions have been on an extended trajectory of institutionalizing community engagement (Saltmarsh & Harley, 2011; Sandmann & Jones, 2019). One of the recommended pathways to institutionalizing community engagement—understood as 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" (Albion College, n.d., para. 7)—is leadership development. Kotter (1998) maintained that leadership is the only way to foster and develop an organizational culture; however, not all higher education leaders possess the skills and knowledge necessary to implement the often large-scale change that the institutionalization of community engagement may require. Furthermore, unpredicted changes are occurring in the labor force, with higher education experiencing its largest personnel shift in 40 years (Trower, 2012) as members of the baby boomer generation retire in droves (Jones & Sandmann, 2019; Sandmann & Plater, 2013). Consequently, there has been significant leadership and personnel turnover on campuses, creating turbulence around most decision-making (Field, 2019). Moreover, these leadership changes are occurring not only at the executive level, but also among other senior-level and middle-management positions. In a study comparing the average tenure of higher education presidents—now 6.5 years (Gagliardi et al., 2017)—to the average 10 to 15 years needed for a change to become embedded, Kezar (2009) found that no meaningful change initiative would sur-

vive unless a president's successor adopted it or other institutional factors sustained it.

Societal relationships—from neighborhood connections within local communities to international governmental relations—have shifted seismically since the early months of 2020. The COVID-19 pandemic has left little unchanged in the daily lives of individuals and within institutions. Not only has it rattled personal and collective health, the ripple effects of global economic disruption and politicized divides have further complicated relationships in communities and institutions. Within this disruptive and largely unprecedented milieu, the institutionalization of community engagement, itself a complex, multifaceted change process, is occurring. This process demands more than adding an office of community engagement or offering service-learning and community-based learning courses. It requires thoughtful, continuous leadership to position community engagement as a strategy within which the institution honors its covenant with the public (Weerts, 2016), as well as a consistent scholarly method for fulfilling the institution's mission functions of teaching, learning, and research.

How can the capacities of a new cohort of higher education leaders be developed? Now more than ever, for the sake of collective health and well-being, there is a critical need for institutions of higher education and their communities to cocreate and apply the knowledge and practices necessary for solving the world's most pressing problems. Colleges and universities are uniquely positioned to provide elected officials, policymakers, and other stakeholders with the empirical data needed to make the most informed decisions possible in times of great uncertainty. However, the communities surrounding higher education institutions provide important environmental context for applying these research-driven empirical data. To succeed in these efforts, leaders must possess relevant knowledge, skills, and experience for navigating rapid contextual changes while nurturing the slower moving, incremental organizational and cultural development necessary to buttress their institutions in the future.

This article presents a study that investigated one such initiative, a multiyear leadership development approach to leading and sustaining the integration of community engagement on college and university campuses through leadership and faculty development in a team setting. The ongoing initiative—the Engagement Academy for University Leaders (EA)—comprises programs that bring together representatives and teams from diverse higher education institutions to learn and practice the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to incorporate community engagement into the fabric of their institutions. The results of this survey research study indicate that there are five critical issues to consider when undertaking the process of institutionalizing community engagement. The findings also highlight the importance of leadership development to the successful implementation of such change efforts.

Engagement Academy for University Leaders

With an 8-year track record, the Engagement Academy for University Leaders is an executive-level educational event designed for higher education leaders committed to developing institutional capacity for community engagement. More specifically, EA provides professional development and mentored planning and learning opportunities to teams of senior- to mid-level higher education leaders that prepare them to advance community engagement strategies in support of their respective institutions' goals. The academy is national and global in scope and scale, involving participants who represent an array of institutional types and missions. There are two major EA programs: a nationally focused, small-group program and a state, multistate/region, or multicampus program, which is shorter in length and enrolls a larger number of participants (https://engagement.umn.edu/engagement-academy-university-leaders).

Being anchored in theories of leadership and organizational change at the campus level distinguishes EA from other professional development programs in community engagement. EA draws heavily on literature in the domains of leadership, management, change processes, and institutional boundary-spanning. As a cornerstone of the program—in line with its institutional change focus—participants attend as members of an institutional team. Teams are shaped according to the goal identified in the required prework. This goal may relate to a goal already acknowledged in a plan or as a programmatic priority at the institution or some other urgent priority or challenge that could be supported and enhanced by

community engagement; conversely, it may relate to the advancement of engagement as a primary focus or in relation to other goals. Whatever the objective, an institution sends a team whose membership is aligned with the desired outcome of the experience. Teams are encouraged to include one or more individuals with senior-level authority related to their chosen goal, as well as three or more people from other administrative levels who play diverse roles related to the topic or goal. Team members may include personnel in relevant management positions, practitioners, faculty, and institutional community partners.

In an effort to continually improve the program and to advance knowledge about engagement leaders, program participants over the past 8 years have been involved in a University of Georgia IRB-approved study. This article reports on the results of a recent follow-up survey related to that study.

Theoretical Model

Although there are many theories and models of organizational change (Burke, 2014; Kotter, 1996; Weick & Quinn, 1999), as well as considerable research on higher education organizational change (Birnbaum, 1991; Kezar, 2001, 2018) and change resulting specifically in the institutionalization of community engagement (Farner, 2019; Holland, 1997; Jones & Sandmann, 2019), the foundation of this study was informed by Childers and Sandmann's (2011) model of institutional change, which resulted from an exploration of data associated with the first four Engagement Academies for University Leaders, offered from 2008 to 2011. Attendees at these EAs were designated by their institutions as community engagement organizational change leaders. As such, they were tasked with fostering commitment among those who are considered crucial to institutionalizing community engagement: sponsors, agents, and targets. Childers and Sandmann's study examined the question "What are the nature and contextual (or antecedence) factors, characterized by the participants, of institutional changes of engagement that have occurred on their campuses after their attendance at the Academy?" The resultant model, an adaptation of Conner's (2006) framework, comprises a progressive, phased process of institutionalizing complex change in an organization, with a particular emphasis on commitment as the root of change. (For a full explication of Conner's stages of commitment, see Chapter 9 in his *Managing at the Speed of Change.*)

In Figure 1, the vertical axis of Conner's (2006) commitment model represents the degrees of support for a particular change,

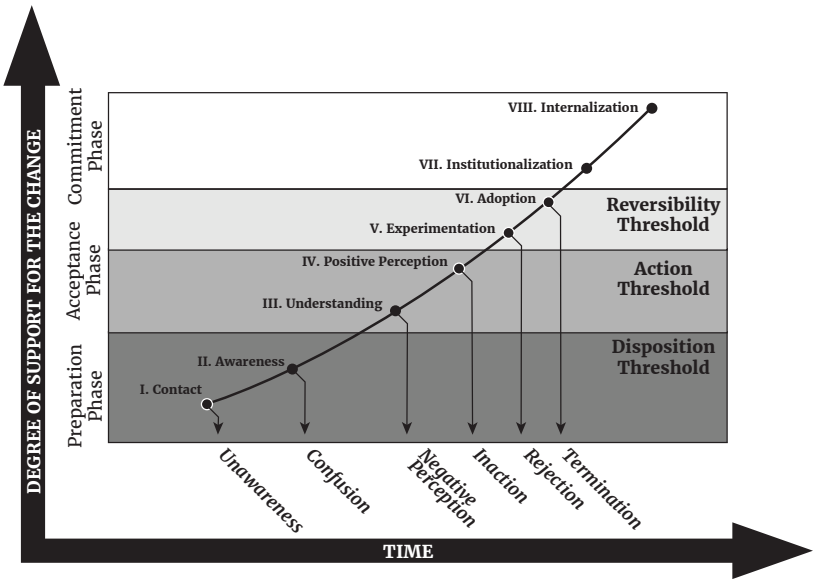

Figure 1. Conner's (2006) Stages of Commitment
Note. Reprinted with permission from original author.

and the horizontal axis represents exposure (in length of time) to that change. According to this model, a curve of commitment develops over the following stages: reaching a threshold of understanding (preparation), passing a line of commitment (acceptance), reaching a line of irreversibility (commitment), and, finally, achieving institutionalization. Each phase—preparation, acceptance, and commitment—must be completed before transitioning to the next. As Conner documented, building and maintaining organizational commitment is both complex and costly, with most sponsors and change agents having little understanding of the effort and expense involved in acquiring it. Similarly, Childers and Sandmann (2011) found that in order to reach the line of irreversibility, community engagement, as a complex organizational change, must be advanced through the knowledge, buy-in, and full commitment of key leaders. So how are such knowledgeable, committed leaders developed?

Methods

The goal of this follow-up study was to understand how community engagement was institutionalized over time within Engagement Academy colleges and universities and the role that leadership development through the EAs played in these institutionalization efforts. The inquiry investigated the following questions:

- To what extent has the institutionalization of community engagement been achieved in EA institutions?
- What are the major factors contributing to or deterring the institutionalization of community engagement in higher education?
- What is the role of leadership development in the institutionalization of community engagement?

This retrospective study surveyed administrators, faculty, staff, and a limited number of community team members who had attended one of the EAs and undertaken defined plans to increase community engagement on their campuses. Study participants were surveyed about their experiences implementing community engagement institutionalization action plans on their respective campuses and were asked to reflect upon the facilitators of and barriers to change.

Instrument Development

The study questionnaire was developed to evaluate the experiences of Engagement Academy participants who were working to institutionalize community engagement at their college or university. The survey (available from the authors) was derived from evaluation tools of previous EAs and included quantitative and qualitative questions. Survey items focused on institutional, contextual, and personal elements, such as participants' institutional type and role, and whether they participated as part of an institutional team. Qualitative questions addressed matters such as the type of change that respondents undertook as part of their action plan, whether their action plan had progressed since participating in the EA, the changes that may have taken place at their institution, and facilitators of and barriers to plan implementation.

Sample

The survey sample represented a group of faculty and administrators who were actively and intentionally pursuing community engagement at their institutions and who had participated in past Engagement Academies, including the National Engagement Academy for University Leaders and regional, state, and preconference EA variations. The attending colleges and universities represented by the study sample varied in size, geographic region, and Carnegie classification. Engagement Academy participants included administrators, faculty, and staff from a variety of departments, units, and positions at colleges, universities, and technical colleges, along with a smaller group of institutional community partners. Some program participants worked specifically in the community engagement or outreach units of their institutions; others were embedded in more traditional administrative or academic departments (e.g., governmental affairs, student affairs) or colleges (e.g., a college of education). Individuals in the sample were selected because they had demonstrated their intent to advance community engagement by participating in an EA. Additionally, through their participation, this group had developed a plan for institutionalizing community engagement on their respective campuses. The EAs had provided these participants with knowledge, evidence-based research, tools, and strategies around community engagement and institutional change for leading, facilitating, or otherwise advancing the process of

institutionalizing engagement.

Of the participants who responded to the survey, 40% had attended a National Engagement Academy, and 60% had participated in a regional, state, or preconference EA. Eighty-three percent had attended as part of a team from their institution. A variety of different institutional types were represented within the respondents, as shown in Table 1.

A majority (98%) of the respondents still worked at the same institution at which they were employed when they participated in the EA. Participants held a variety of roles at their respective institutions during their involvement in the EA: 33% worked in engagement and outreach administration, 19% in academic affairs administration, 7% represented student affairs administration, 17% were faculty members, 15% held a joint appointment, and 10% held positions not included in any of the previously named categories. (Percentages do not total 100 due to rounding.)

Data Collection

Data were collected through an online survey sent to all past EA participants. More specifically, the survey was implemented using Qualtrics software and distributed via email to all individuals who had participated in EA sessions from 2008 to 2015. The initial contact included a letter describing the nature of the study and providing a unique link for completing the questionnaire. This first contact was followed by two subsequent email prompts at the 4-week and 6-week marks. The survey remained open for a total of 8 weeks.

A total of 439 surveys were distributed to all former EA participants whose email addresses were available. Of the surveys distributed, 37 were undeliverable (including seven addressed to individuals who had changed organizations and were no longer available at the email address on file). One hundred sixteen surveys were returned, with 89 fully completed, for a completion rate of 22%.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze and summarize quantitative data, including participant characteristics and affiliations, such as institutional type, institutional role, and group composition. Responses to open-ended questions were examined using the stages of qualitative data analysis suggested by Merriam (1998), including narrative, coding, interpretation, confirmation, and presentation. Data were coded manually through a content analysis of the open-ended responses. Codes were "data-driven" and were generated "based on words and phrases in the texts" (Popping, 2015, p. 32). An exhaustive list of codes was developed to fully encompass all of the ideas presented in the qualitative data. These codes were then examined for patterns and common categories to determine what, if any, relationships existed between them (Kawulich, 2004). Results from this analysis were clustered into major themes that emerged from the data, and the themes were then verified through peer review and examination (Ruona, 2005).

Table 1. Respondents' Reported Institutional Type

Institutional type	*N*	Percentage of respondents
Research university (very high research)	25	28%
Research university (high research)	11	12%
Master's college (medium programs)	11	12%
Doctoral research	9	10%
Associates	8	9%
Master's college (larger programs)	7	8%
Master's college (smaller programs)	7	8%
Baccalaureate arts and sciences	6	7%
Baccalaureate diverse	3	3%
Baccalaureate associates	2	2%

Note. Percentages total less than 100 due to rounding.

Findings

The study's findings offer insights into what is happening in institutions that are investing in leadership development in an effort to institutionalize community engagement.

Extent of Institutionalization

Not unexpectedly, none of the institutions represented by the Engagement Academy participants surveyed had fully institutionalized community engagement, although many reported, in their self-assessment, that they had made significant progress. The degree of progress toward "fully institutionalizing community engagement" was based on respondents' self-assessment of their institution against the Holland matrix (Holland, 1997), which evaluates an institution's commitment to community engagement based on seven organizational factors. Respondents were asked to compare their institution's placement on the Holland matrix after participating in the Engagement Academy with where they felt their institution ranked prior to the workshop. Those institutions that had made positive strides had identified critical focus areas for their efforts, such as codifying community engagement in strategic plans, committing resources to support community engagement initiatives, examining current promotion and tenure guidelines for inclusion of community-engaged scholarly efforts, and providing development and support for faculty members working in community engagement. If mapped on the curve of commitment (Conner, 2006), most of these institutions would fall within the preparation and acceptance phases, with only a few moving into the commitment phase; others had "fallen off" or otherwise exited the curve altogether. Those who reported that their community engagement work had halted often cited changes in leadership and/or administrative priorities.

Participants often reported a less linear movement through the curve of commitment—for instance, their work may have paused, fallen, and then looped back as the conditions changed, and they regrouped or otherwise adapted to the change to continue moving forward. Changing environmental and organizational conditions were reported as barriers to institutionalization efforts, but in some cases, if the necessary supports were in place, engagement leaders could correct their trajectory and continue to advance their work. This nonlinear movement can be visualized as "loops" along the curve of commitment. Table 2 summarizes the reported progress of EA participants.

As illustrated in Figure 2, time was not necessarily a function of successfully completing an action plan. Those participants from the earliest EA sessions surveyed (2008–2011) reported no progress to significant progress, but no institutions reported completion of an action plan. However, participants from later EAs (2012–2014) did report successfully completing their stated action plan. So although time is logically an important factor in reaching institutional goals, it is not the most important factor. The scale and primary focus of participants' action plans are shown in Table 3 and Table 4, respectively. The scale of change was almost evenly split between programs (33%), systems (28%), and organizational (28%), with changes to policy the least reported scale of change at 12% (percentages do not total 100 due to rounding). Faculty and staff, administrators, and community members were most often the primary focus of the action plan, with students more moderately so. Most plans were focused on the unit or university level and the local or regional community.

Table 2. Current Status of Action Plan of Engagement Academy Institutions

Reported status of action plan	*N*	Percentage of respondents
No progress (0% completion/implementation)	11	14%
Some progress (25% completion/implementation)	27	33%
Meaningful progress (50% completion/implementation)	24	30%
Significant progress (75% completion/implementation)	13	16%
Complete implementation (100% completion/implementation)	6	7%

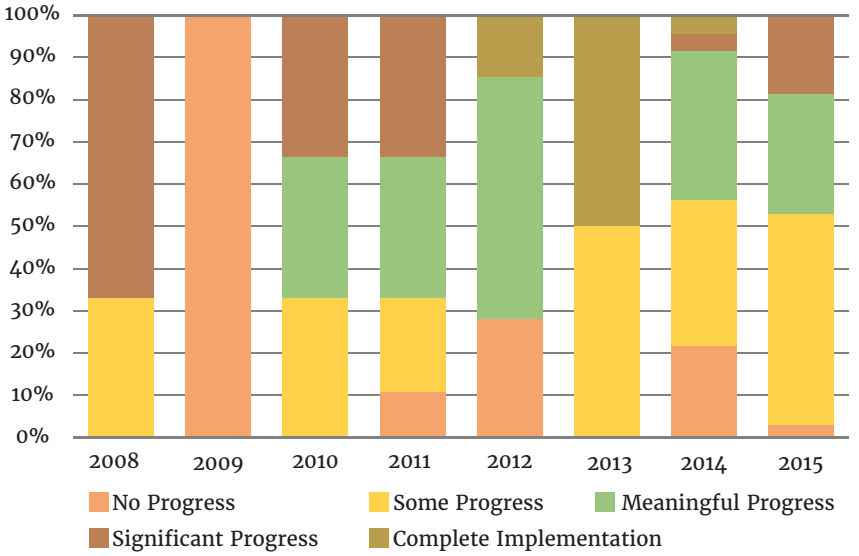

Figure 2. Reported Status of Action Plan by Year

Table 3. Action Plan Scale of Change

Scale of change	*N*	Percentage of respondents
Programs change	40	33%
Organizational change	34	28%
Systems change	34	28%
Policy change	15	12%

Note. Percentages do not total 100 due to rounding.

Table 4. Primary Focus of Action Plan

Focus Area	Not at all important		Low importance		Slightly important		Moderately important		Very important		Extremely important		Total
	N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	
Students	4	5%	8	10%	13	16%	25	**30%**	19	23%	13	16%	82
Faculty/Staff	1	1%	1	1%	4	5%	9	11%	44	**54%**	23	28%	82
Administrators	1	1%	5	6%	8	10%	16	20%	29	**36%**	22	27%	81
Community members	3	4%	6	7%	11	13%	20	24%	23	**28%**	19	23%	82
Unit level	3	4%	3	4%	7	9%	27	33%	30	**37%**	11	14%	81
University-wide	3	4%	7	9%	3	4%	12	15%	29	**35%**	28	34%	82
Institutional level	20	**25%**	14	17%	10	12%	17	21%	8	10%	12	15%	81
Local	4	5%	2	3%	3	4%	13	17%	27	**36%**	27	**36%**	76
Regional	9	12%	8	11%	5	7%	19	25%	25	**33%**	10	13%	76
State	11	15%	12	16%	13	17%	15	**20%**	15	**20%**	9	12%	75
National	17	23%	18	**24%**	9	12%	18	**24%**	10	14%	2	3%	74
International	23	**31%**	19	26%	12	16%	10	14%	7	9%	3	4%	74

Note. Some percentages total more or less than 100 due to rounding.

Contributing Factors and Deterrents

Upon further analysis of the data, five critical issues surfaced from the examination of EA institutions' commitment to and institutionalization of community engagement: administrative support, faculty engagement, positioning and power, resources, and embeddedness.

Administrative Support: "New Administration With New Priorities"

Many respondents noted that one of the most important factors influencing institutionalization was the support—or lack thereof—from their institution's key administrators. As one respondent observed, "Champions of the concept need to reside at a high level institutionally, and need a critical mass to carry the work forward to imbed the concept into the culture." The data revealed that not only do top administrators need to advocate for institutionalization, but leadership support from administrators is necessary at all levels throughout the campus. Faculty members need support from deans, who need support from provosts, vice presidents, presidents, and chancellors. "The dean is very supportive but it does not seem that she was getting the administrative support that she would have needed to follow through," noted a respondent. Another complicating factor is the widespread administrative turnover at many institutions, reflecting the trend discussed earlier. New administrators have new priorities, which may or may not include community engagement. Some respondents noted that they had been making progress with institutionalization but that leadership turnover had forced them to slow down, pause, or halt their work completely. This was a recurrent theme in respondent comments:

> I believe if we hadn't lost our leader, we would have made significant progress in promoting a culture change related to CES [community-engaged scholarship] on campus. However, the institution has been in constant turmoil throughout the year and our leaders are paralyzed when it comes to decision making.

According to respondents, leadership turnover caused not only shifting priorities, but also a general sense of confusion and chaos, as well as challenges in decision making, necessitating a constant repositioning of institutional goals and priorities as the new administration worked to settle into place. However, the data indicated that not all leadership turnover was negative. Several respondents commented that new leaders promise to have a positive impact on their institutionalization efforts. They shared that newly hired administrators bolstered their institutionalization work because it was congruent with and even advanced leadership's priorities. Some noted that it was possible to move forward without the support of leadership if there was a highly motivated and passionate group of key players and stakeholders; however, changes taking place as a result of such group activity were reported to be small and limited in scope.

Faculty Engagement: "That's Not the Way We Do It Here"

Faculty represented a second group on campus that was reported to significantly impact the institutionalization of community engagement. Many respondents spoke of their personal commitment to and involvement in community engagement on their campus, and of the support or indifference of their fellow faculty members. Promotion and tenure stood out as one of the strongest facilitative factors related to institutionalization at the faculty level. Several participants reported that their institution had made changes to promotion and tenure so that community-engaged research and teaching were now recognized as "rewardable" forms of scholarship. For some, this occurred in individual units or colleges, but several reported that the inclusion of community engagement in promotion and tenure guidelines had been implemented across the institution.

Specific efforts to educate faculty members about the importance of community engagement work and to support them in conducting this type of research and teaching were noted by several respondents. These practices included peer work groups, faculty development programs and symposia, and release time to work on community-engaged projects or service-learning classes. Yet, even accounting for these efforts, the struggle to increase the number of faculty members on their campus who were involved with and supportive of community-engaged work was notable. Some reported that they were working alone on community engagement within their

department or unit; others worked with and through a similarly committed core of peers. Some institutions were addressing the slower uptake by established faculty by seeking out new, young faculty members zealous about community engagement. One respondent shared that "several departments have recruited CES faculty specifically and have very engaged programs with many, many students involved in the community." Respondents linked general faculty resistance to a lack of understanding about the importance of community engagement, the additional work required for involvement in this type of initiative, and the continued presence of "silos" and the challenges of connecting like-minded faculty across institutions. Despite these challenges, many of the respondents remained resolute in their commitment to increasing faculty involvement in community engagement on their campus. As one person noted, "Our work is about helping our colleagues see that engagement helps them do their work better."

Positioning and Power: "What Community Engagement Is (and Isn't)"

Respondents reported that power struggles within institutions, manifesting in different ways on different campuses, also influenced the institutionalization of community engagement. They noted that multiple units on their campus were undertaking "engagement" or "outreach" initiatives but were using very different definitions of community engagement, resulting in very different outcomes. One respondent summarized this phenomenon on their campus as "multiple 'engagement' work coming from across senior administrative offices that do not work with the Office for Engagement, and don't really do engagement work." Contributing to these difficulties is a "lack of broad awareness of what engagement means":

- "Engagement is a buzz word to many who see a way to benefit from [the] language of engagement, but who don't know what 21st century engagement really is about."
- "The 'engagement' term has been co-opted to refer to anything that has to do with external entities. The term now is used in so many of our administrative units, which confounds the advancement of a community engagement agenda that is more participatory and reciprocal in nature."

Other participants noted a lack of alignment, or a "conflict," among different departments' engagement efforts and a need for campuswide organization. One respondent noted that one of the most significant barriers to institutionalization on their campus was "coming to a common consensus on what exactly we are trying to accomplish and what is best for the institution." This challenge includes more than a campus definition of community engagement or necessary infrastructure. Campus culture, traditional views of academic work, skepticism, and the slow pace of change at institutions are complicating factors. Many noted that "people are already very busy" and that it is "hard to create the time and space to think about how the pieces fit together or could be better integrated." However, those concerned about this work remained committed to getting more stakeholders at the table to create "the necessary paradigm shift" and "[show] the value of engaged work and how it can meet multiple university objectives" and "incredibly positively impact the institution."

One respondent shared that involving an important stakeholder in learning more about community engagement and its positive impact on other institutional priorities strengthened their work toward institutionalization:

> One of the people who attended was the AVC for Economic Development and it was huge in helping him to understand what community engagement is and what [it] is not and how it's different from but sometimes complementary to or aligned with economic development goals.

Resources: "Overwhelmed and Understaffed"

Access to appropriate resources was overwhelmingly found to facilitate or hinder the institutionalization of community engagement. In this context, resources include funding, staff and faculty time, support systems, staff positions, and tools. Respondents shared a variety of resource woes, including cuts in funding, inadequate or loss of staffing, shifting professional time commitments, lack of time, and lack of support from development offices. Often, community engagement competed

with other initiatives at institutions for prominence, attention, and funding. Many respondents noted that with limited staff time and funding, community-engaged work often took a back seat to other efforts, including technology transfer, commercialization, patents, partnerships with industry, and economic development. As one participant noted, "Lots of new initiatives compete for shrinking dollars." Although this finding is not surprising, it represents a significant challenge to institutionalization efforts. "Budget pressures 'de-institutionalized' engagement," one respondent shared. "Institutional stressors," such as budget shortfalls and student enrollment drops, were seen to have a ripple effect across campus initiatives, including community engagement.

However, the findings related to resources were not all negative. Some respondents shared that their institution had recently provided necessary support for community engagement work. Examples included grants for projects, release time to work on service-learning classes, and support (including funding) for community-engaged scholarship from key units on campus. Several participants reported that community engagement initiatives had been included in their institution's capital campaigns.

Embeddedness: "Integrating Engagement Throughout the Strategic Plan"

The last critical issue that emerged from the data was the impact attributable to the extent of community engagement within the institution. *Embedded* in this sense refers to inclusion in organizational charts, strategic plans, offices/units/colleges/centers, councils, and other institutional frameworks. Community engagement is recognized and codified when it is included in various plans and is visible within organizational charts. Many respondents shared that their institution had added offices or units to support community engagement work, including teaching/learning, research, and scholarship. Others noted the inclusion of community engagement in various plans, policies, and processes, such as institutional engagement plans, strategic plans, and other campuswide initiatives (e.g., diversity and inclusion, student success, and economic development). Respondents mentioned the Carnegie Elective Community Engagement Classification process as one way that institutions were seeking to assess, expand, and advance their community engagement work. However, not all institutional changes were positive for community engagement. That is, some changes in organizational structure and plans were reported to have shifted institutional focus elsewhere: "The University's interest in becoming stronger in research has lessened an interest in service and community engagement."

The five critical issues identified within the study data represent the fuel powering institutional movement along the curve of commitment. They support the work of preparation, acceptance, and commitment. Administrative support, faculty buy-in, positionality/power dynamics, resources, and embeddedness appear to drive the work of the institution through the various stages of commitment. As the data suggest, should these supports be insufficient for whatever reason, the work of institutionalization can falter, causing a pause or loop in progress, or a full exit off the curve.

Role of Leadership Development

All Engagement Academy survey respondents noted the significant impact of leadership on the institutionalization of community engagement. When examined collectively, the five identified issue clusters were found to be interconnected, with leadership serving as a linchpin (Figure 3). If effective leadership was in place, each of the critical issues could be addressed and optimized. In addition to data related to administrative support from senior leadership, respondents made a clear case for support from multiple layers of leaders, including bottom-up and top-down leadership.

Discussion

Institutional leaders, especially those in positions of power and decision making (e.g., presidents and provosts), need the skills, knowledge, and experience to guide the work of organizational change to foster the institutionalization of community engagement. Particularly, leaders must be able to communicate the need for and importance of community engagement; understand how community-engaged work supports and enhances other institutional priorities; create pathways to include community engagement within existing structures, policies, and operating procedures; address necessary cultural and attitudinal changes;

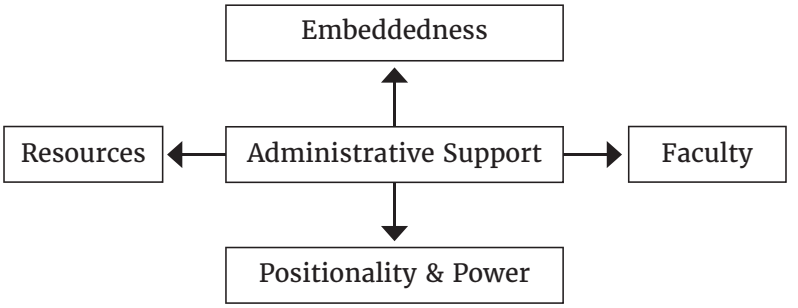

Figure 3. Role of Leadership in Institutionalization Critical Issues

identify and empower campus leaders in community engagement (including administrators, faculty, and staff); and garner the needed resources (funding and otherwise) to adequately support the work of institutionalization. Although some of these skills overlap with other leadership functions, competing priorities, pressing issues, and day-to-day operations can overshadow efforts. Study participants reported that the pedagogy of the EAs not only allowed them to develop and practice these important skills, but also provided the space and time needed to focus on community engagement efforts by removing leaders from the daily demands on their energy to engage with others in colearning and planning.

For the institutionalization of community engagement to be realized, change must occur at both the individual and institutional levels. Engagement Academy attendees reported that individual outcomes were related to increased confidence and knowledge, and to establishing contacts within a national network of peer leaders. Although organizational change was largely the culmination of individual changes, it also related to higher level systemic shifts in structure, policy, and practice. The relationship between these changes is shown in Figure 4. Walters (2013) adapted Wilbur's four-quadrant model to illustrate the individual and collective components of organizational change. Individually, people within an organization have the necessary beliefs and mind-sets to accept and support community engagement. These beliefs are translated into actions and changes in behavior to engage in community-engaged teaching, learning, and research. Collectively, the organization then experiences a shift in culture to embrace community engagement as a part of its identity. Such changes are then translated into changes in organizational systems (such as structures, policies, and practices) to foster the inclusion of community engagement for the institution. Without individuals dedicated to the effort, any attempted change will fail since that change will not be adopted by a critical mass of stakeholders to sustain it. Similarly, even if individuals are devoted to community engagement, without necessary shifts in culture and organizational systems, the process of institutionalization will not be realized. These quadrants represent the relationship between leadership and organizational development, and both are required for community engagement to become institutionalized.

Whereas the adapted four-quadrant model (Walters, 2013) is a static representation of organizational change, the Conner (2006) model captures the process as it occurs. Conner's framework is an effective delineation of the different stages of the institutionalization of community engagement, showing how the process begins with preparation and awareness and moves through understanding, acceptance, and adoption. Conner's curve of commitment illustrates the pattern of relationship between individual leadership development and organizational development. It also demonstrates the many ways that the work of organizational change and institutionalization can fail and "fall off the curve." However, one aspect the Conner model does not accurately display is the complexity of the actual work of institutionalizing community engagement. This work is neither simple nor linear; it does not move from Point A to Point B in a straight line. Instead, the work of institutionalization comprises a series of loops as the work stalls and loses steam during times of transition, new leadership,

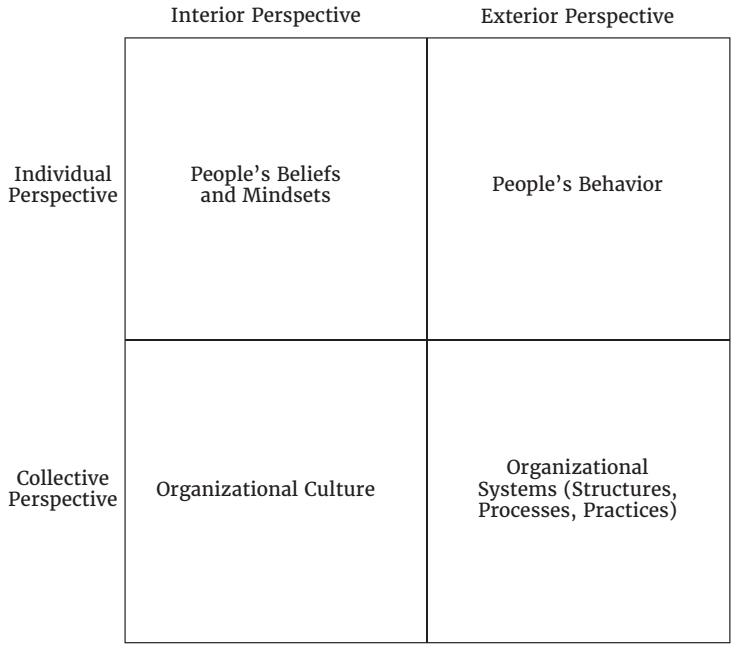

Figure 4. Adapted Wilbur Four-Quadrant Model (Walters, 2013)

budget cuts, or other disruptions to the process. Although these interruptions can cause the work to stop and "fall off," it is also possible for the work to be sustained—by faculty and staff who continue their own community-engaged research and teaching during times of leadership transition, by community engagement units who navigate budget cuts, and by new leaders who infuse new support for community engagement when they take on their role. Based on the data collected for this study, we propose that the Conner model is an effective tool for accurately illustrating the process of institutionalizing community engagement. However, we suggest that Conner's parabolic curve be replaced by a series of loops representing the stalls, challenges, pauses, fallbacks, failures, start-agains, and persistence of those who engage in the work of institutionalizing community engagement (Figure 5). This adjusted model more accurately describes the work as reflected in the data, namely the responses from participants engaged in this work at their institutions.

The loops represent the influence of not only internal pressures, but also the impact of much larger disruptions to institutions, including natural disasters, recessions, and, as experienced beginning in 2020, pandemics or other public health crises. These types of external events can quickly derail "normal" and planned initiatives on campus as leadership quickly shifts focus in order to mitigate the impact of an emergency. This shift in focus is often accompanied by a shift in budget, as funds are reallocated for response measures—potentially resulting in a diversion of funds from other campus efforts, including community engagement. Long-term budget decreases (due to a recession or other financial crises) have the potential of stopping work completely or otherwise damaging efforts that may be perceived as outside the essential functions of the organization. If furloughs and layoffs follow budget decreases or freezes, remaining staff and faculty members may have less time to work on community-engaged efforts.

However, these external events can also provide enhanced expectations and support for community-engaged work. Emergencies are often met by a community response—an outpouring of support for those impacted and group efforts to help improve conditions. As universities are integral members of their communities, they are well positioned to lead these efforts and can be strategically important for the distribution of supplies or information to the surrounding area. This provides opportunities to foster new and bolster existing relationships, which in turn can support and further future community-engaged

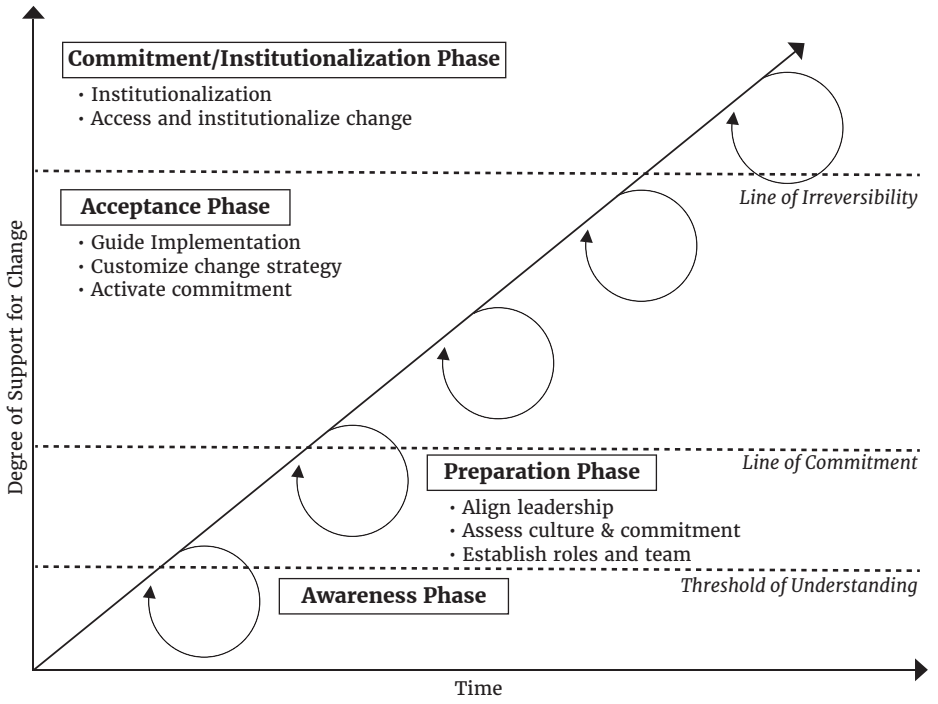

Figure 5. Adapted Conner (2006) Stages of Commitment Model

work on campus. Additionally, institutions may also be the recipients of funding from government or nonprofit entities to support community emergency response efforts or future research.

Implications

This study has several implications for the work of institutionalizing community engagement:

1. Who: A model of shared leadership should be considered when undertaking the institutionalization of community engagement.
2. What: The work of institutionalization occurs at three levels—the individual, the initiative, and the institution.
3. How: Leadership development and organizational development are intertwined in the institutionalization of community engagement.

Shared Leadership—the Who

Not surprisingly, the data from this study confirm the critical role of executive leadership in the institutionalization of any campus innovation, but they draw further attention to the effectiveness of shared leadership in moving institutionalization up the curve of commitment. As Kezar and Holcombe (2017) argued, in an institution characterized by shared leadership,

- a number of individuals are leading;
- leader and follower roles are seen as interchangeable;
- leadership is not based on position or formal authority;
- multiple perspectives and expertise are capitalized upon for problem solving, innovation, and change; and,
- collaboration and interactions across the organization are typically emphasized. (p. 3)

These characteristics were evidenced by the EA teams returning to their campuses and, over a period of years, working collectively on their action plans and some variant of the issues of institutionalization they chose to work on while attending the academy. In a case study of one of the participating campuses, Farner (2019) chronicled these "coalitions of the willing" (p. 150), internal engagement leaders who served

as advocates, conveners, problem solvers, and technical experts traversing hierarchical boundaries. This conception argues for leadership development programs to focus not on the identification and cultivation of individual leadership skills, but rather on an examination—through teams—of organizational structures, relationships, and processes that promote shared leadership and collaborations. Thus, a shared leadership framework should be adopted when choosing and creating curricula and development programs for faculty, staff, administrators, and community partners who will lead institutionalization efforts.

Three Levels of Change—the What

For the institutionalization of community engagement to reach the line of irreversibility, the work must occur at three levels: the individual, the initiative, and the institution. Individuals benefit from attitudes, skills, resources, and knowledge necessary for promoting and enacting community-engaged work. Preparing individuals to achieve such work requires thoughtful, iterative professional development programs, time and funding to pursue community-engaged teaching and research, incentives for including community-engaged methods in their work, training and development, and administrative support from department heads, deans, and others. Programs such as the Engagement Academy can provide faculty, staff, and administrators, as teams, with the skills and knowledge for leading community engagement at their institutions. Necessary forms of support include both how to implement initiatives and how to address organizational change in order to lead the institutionalization of community engagement across the institution.

Institutionalizing community engagement includes effective and impactful community engagement initiatives across campuses. These initiatives may fall within teaching, research, and service, or more likely will involve elements of teaching, research, and service. Some institutions have embraced "global challenges" as monikers for such initiatives or have adopted local neighborhood-based efforts. Such initiatives require adequate funding, involvement and buy-in from the community, necessary infrastructure and training for faculty, staff, and students, and sound program development, delivery, and evaluation. Support for community engagement initiatives is needed at multiple levels within the institution—from the "boots on the ground" implementers to the boosters, advocates, and champions in executive positions.

Finally, the work of institutionalization has to address the institution as an entity, which often requires processes and procedures for undergoing cultural and organizational change. How this work occurs looks different at each institution but includes some common themes. The institution publicly promotes the work of community engagement in events, speeches, fundraising campaigns, and strategic plans. Existing structures, centers, or units provide effective support for individuals engaged in these types of initiatives. Community engagement is seen across campus and throughout academic and student support units, and is included in teaching, research, and service. Lastly, faculty, staff, students, and administrators can readily identify community engagement as an integral part of the institution.

Relationship Between Leadership Development and Organizational Development—the How

As implied in the two previous recommendations and illustrated in the adapted Wilbur model (Walters, 2013), both leadership development and organizational development are key facilitators of institutionalization. Studies have shown that effective leadership skills are required for the successful implementation of organizational changes (Gilley et al., 2009; Sarros et al., 2008; Warrick, 2011). Gilley et al. noted that "leaders' thoughts and skills are manifested in actions, structures, and processes that enhance or impede change, further strengthening the linkage between leader behaviors and effectiveness in implementing change" (p. 40). Without the necessary knowledge and applicable skills for leading change, efforts to institutionalize community engagement will ultimately fail. However, few leaders have been trained specifically in how to champion and implement change within organizations (Warrick, 2011). The Engagement Academy is one model for providing this training by offering institutional leaders an immersion experience in change management and implementation. These leaders reported being equipped with the knowledge and skills desirable for shepherding community engagement institutionalization on their respective campuses.

Limitations

Although the data provided by EA participants was rich and complex, the study is limited because of the sampling strategy used. Only individuals who had participated in an EA were included in the sample. Consequently, this sample did not include all institutions who are currently tackling the work of institutionalizing community engagement. This strategy skews sampling toward institutions who have at least minimal support for community engagement as evidenced by the funding and time invested to send representatives to the EA. Additionally, this sample could theoretically also omit those institutions who have fully moved through the curve of commitment, have completed the process of institutionalizing community engagement on their campus, and did not participate in an EA. Another limitation is that this study did not specifically investigate the intersection of the work of institutionalizing community engagement with similar efforts toward Carnegie classification, so the scope of how these two efforts interact is unknown. Finally, this study took place before the global pandemic that began in 2020. Our academic landscapes have been significantly altered as communities across the world respond to and recover from this once-in-a-century crisis. How these changes impact the work of institutionalization of community engagement is yet to be fully seen or realized.

Final Thoughts and Future Research

Institutionalization is a lengthy process with variable permutations. The modified Conner (2006) model shows that institutionalizing community engagement is not a linear process and that it most likely takes longer to achieve than a 5-year strategic plan. This complex work can stall, spin out, and drop off the curve, or it can be kept in a holding pattern, like a plane waiting to land at a busy airport. External changes, such as student demographics, leadership pools, and public support, along with internal changes in leadership, priorities, curricula, and more can influence such efforts. This type of organizational and cultural change takes time to achieve and requires changes and buy-in from all levels—from students to chancellors to community partners. Is it possible for institutions to reach the line of irreversibility? Most likely, yes, but this institutionalization cannot occur without intentional purpose, planning, and persistence. Perhaps as part of institutionalization, institutions move from the line of irreversibility to internalization, wherein community engagement becomes such an embedded part of the institution that it is just "done" as part of its identity.

As recent worldwide events have shown, the external environment can and does exert a strong influence on the inner workings of institutions. During times of uncertainty and crisis, competent and effective leadership is even more critical for ensuring an ardent and authentic enactment of higher education missions. The 2020 pandemic has revealed both the strengths and weaknesses of organizations and communities. How today's leaders and institutions respond will impact communities for years to come. Perhaps this is an opportunity to reset higher education's commitment to work for the greater good of the local and global community. Institutions can lead the charge to embrace an appreciation for science, to better align campus research with real-world challenges, and to cogenerate public health knowledge and practices with community partners. Institutions, working alongside policymakers, elected officials, community leaders, and the next generation, can lead the way in increasing dialogue and communication through networks, providing needed scientific knowledge to inform decision making in times of uncertainty and to broaden collective perspectives in an effort to help communities help themselves through long-term mutually beneficial partnerships.

The pandemic has required an almost immediate shift in how colleges and universities operate—whether through online classes or shifts in research priorities. In what may be the "new abnormal" (Friedman, 2020), such changes require adaptive, inclusive thinking and skills. The learnings from previous Engagement Academies and other leadership development efforts position them to continue building the capacity of leaders and emerging leaders of campuses to develop the systems and mechanisms within their organizations to heighten collaborative citizenship, promote citizen science, and inform community decision making.

Given the difficulty of this work, change makers are advised to be intentional about development at the individual, initiative, and institutional levels. As this study showed, leadership development and orga-

nizational development are intertwined in the process of institutionalizing community engagement. However, leadership development efforts themselves must be creatively responsive. Considering the new opportunities, methodologies, and questions of the current global context, research such as this study provides a baseline from which to explore further the impacts of future leadership development efforts and the resulting movement through the curve of commitment toward emergent innovations.

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E-Engagement: Approaches to Using Digital Communications in Student–Community Engagement

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Abstract

Scholars have claimed that online communication technologies would upend university–community engagement. We explored faculty approaches to and perspectives on e-engagement at one university with a largely residential student body where classes were held in-person. We suggest that e-engagement affords different rather than better or worse opportunities for engaged learning. Because e-engagement often involves international partners, it raises issues of student competencies to work with diverse partners online, including intercultural understanding and digital literacy. This study preceded the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic, but the subsequent conversion of many courses to online format, and the possibility of similar crises spurring online-only learning in the future, add new urgency to understanding how communication technologies can facilitate community engagement. Universities can adapt and expand the myriad existing models of community engagement for online engagement. In short, e-engagement challenges us to navigate new forms of community and place, whether or not in response to crisis.

Keywords: e-service-learning, e-engagement, technologies, higher education

In 2013, university engagement scholar Dan Butin critiqued the "engagement ceiling" or paucity of new ideas and models for university–community engagement. He asked, "Can face-to-face engagement with local communities survive, much less have resonance, in an automated, machine-driven, web-based pedagogical environment?"

> Perhaps, because suddenly, we have to figure out what community voice looks like in a networked and too-often anonymous learning environment. Perhaps, because we now have to rethink what community impact means and looks like when the "community" may be global and distributed. Perhaps, because we now have to recalibrate and rearticulate what social justice means. Perhaps, because notions of respect, relevance and reciprocity—foundational to the community engagement field—have become unmoored from the locations we thought them to inhabit. (Butin, 2013).

Butin (2013) claimed that online engagement was bringing us to a "precipitous moment where traditional models and norms no longer apply so easily or thoroughly. In some cases, there are immense opportunities to be gained as faculty discover how to make their work public and bring the public into their work." In short, Butin felt that online learning could upend—and spur innovation in—university–community engagement.

At the opposite extreme of Butin's enthusiasm for an online engagement revolution is the skepticism faculty express about the value of online service-learning (cf. Arthur & Newton-Calvert, 2015). More specifically, faculty and administrators question whether an online experience can

provide the same meaningful partnership and reflection opportunities described for face-to-face service-learning, which may derive from "participation *in* community, especially in terms of fostering coalitions and creating responsive resources for and with that community" (Brown, 2001; emphasis in original).

As digital technologies, by choice or necessity, become embedded in university instruction, we wondered if faculty are developing multiple models for online community-engaged learning, including at universities with residential student bodies where instruction normally occurs in traditional rather than online classrooms. Thus, the goal of this article is to explore and reflect on models of online community-engaged learning and to understand how faculty and students are using digital technologies to afford new or different opportunities for students and community partners. To address this goal, we used semistructured interviews with 23 faculty at one land-grant university to answer the following questions: How are digital technologies being used by students and community partners participating in university engagement experiences? What do faculty view as the opportunities or affordances of using these technologies?

In presenting our findings, we build on Waldner et al.'s (2012) widely cited classification of e-service-learning to present more nuanced models of how technology is used in community engagement. Further, we attempt to draw out unique affordances offered by online community engagement. In so doing, we attempt to address the concerns of many faculty who, in contrast to Butin (2013) touting the "immense opportunities" to be gained through digital technologies, consider online education (Allen & Seaman, 2012), and especially online service-learning (cf. Arthur & Newton-Calvert, 2015), to be "second-class" relative to face-to-face classrooms and community engagement.

Literature Review

E-service-learning Definitions and Types

Waldner et al. (2012) defined e-service-learning (electronic service-learning) as "a service-learning course wherein the instruction and/or the service occurs online" (p.123). They proposed four models of e-service-learning depending on whether the classroom or engagement occurs online, in person, or both. These authors posited three hybrid models—the university course occurs online but students interact with partners in-person, the course occurs face-to-face and students interact with partners online, and a mixture of online and face-to-face interactions among students and between students and community partners—plus a fourth "extreme" e-service-learning, where all interactions occur online. Often e-service-learning involves student–student and student–community partner teams, which also may meet virtually. E-service-learning tends to be course-based and encompasses different types of service experiences, including consulting, conducting research, or designing a website for a community partner (Rawlings & Downing, 2017). For example, in one course, Google Hangouts was used for lectures and discussions with NGO community partners, assignments were posted on Twitter and Instagram, and the final project was developing a social media campaign for the NGO partners (Messner et al., 2016).

Other terms for types of e-service-learning exist. "Collaborative online interactive learning" uses digital technology to link university classrooms in one or more countries, thus preparing students for multicultural work environments, and can include opportunities for service (de Castro et al., 2019). Similarly, "structured online intercultural learning" refers to sustained cross-cultural learning experiences using online communications technologies and is reported to help preservice teachers develop a global citizen identity (Ullom, 2017).

To be consistent with our university's generously funded, multiyear engaged learning initiative, we introduce the term *e-engagement,* which has both structural dimensions (encompassing a broad range of forms of engagement, including community-based participatory research, translational research, citizen science, and extension, to name just a few) and ethical dimensions (emphasizing humility, commitment to addressing issues of public concern, and regarding community partners as vital collaborators and creators of knowledge). Our university Office of Engagement Initiatives describes community-engaged projects and programs as those that involve faculty, student and community partner collaboration and that both have a positive social

impact and support opportunities to conduct research, teach, and learn (Office of Engagement Initiatives, n.d.). We use the term *e-service-learning* first, to be consistent with the literature in our discussion of affordances and issues of place and community, but *e-engagement* later in describing our findings about how online technologies are used among faculty at our university.

E-service-learning Affordances and Outcomes

By expanding engagement opportunities beyond local and global off-campus experiences, e-service-learning addresses barriers imposed by the limited number of organizations able to host students seeking local opportunities, and by the time and financial costs entailed in traveling and living abroad (Crabill & Butin, 2014). In freeing service-learning from geographic constraints, e-service-learning provides access to more students and community partners. Because a growing number of online students are nontraditional—they may not have the flexibility in their schedules or resources to spend time away from work and family, or they may be students with disabilities that inhibit travel—e-service-learning expands not only the number but the type of students with access to community engagement experiences. Further, digital communications using social media and conferencing software can afford multicultural engagement opportunities for those who may have limited opportunity to travel (Crabill & Butin, 2014; Gasper-Hulvat, 2018; Harris, 2017; Rawlings & Downing, 2017; Waldner et al., 2012).

For community partners, e-service-learning can also act as an equalizing force by expanding opportunities to communities beyond those in which students can be present and minimizing community partners' time devoted to supervising students in the field, which can be an onerous commitment for resource-poor NGOs (Harris, 2017). Similarly, e-service-learning enables scaling up from a single to multiple universities and community projects; in an online service-learning course involving students from five universities, students conducted web design and other projects for nearly 100 local government partners over 3 years (Poindexter et al., 2009).

E-service-learning can also foster critical digital literacy and transliteracy skills related to evaluating and creating evolving forms of digital media; it can also expand students' use of social media to include substantive professional interactions. In doing so, it can help students and community partners develop civic habits, an identity as global citizens, and a realization that service-learning is relevant in the digital age (Frau-Meigs, 2012; Harris, 2017; Hinck, 2014).

Despite concerns about the quality of interactions in online communications, McGorry (2012) found no significant differences in self-reported outcomes among students in face-to-face and online business marketing courses with similar service-learning assignments. Students in the online course communicated with other students and their community partner online. The outcome measures included practical skills (e.g., "applying knowledge to real world"), interpersonal skills (e.g., "ability to work well with others"), citizenship (e.g., "ability to make a difference in the community"), and personal responsibility (e.g., "ability to assume personal responsibility"). In another study focusing only on online students, those who interacted face-to-face with community partners self-reported more positive outcomes on only one measure (civic responsibility) relative to those who interacted with community partners online, whereas outcomes on five measures (critical thinking, communication, career and teamwork, global understanding, and academic development) were not significantly different between the two groups. The authors attributed the lower civic responsibility scores of students with online community partners to these students' not developing a sense of belonging to their community work, which may have been related to their not having had the opportunity to choose their partners (Schwehm et al., 2017). In a humanities course at an Ohio university, students worked with the Archives of American Art in Washington, D.C., to edit transcripts of archived oral histories and publish them on the web. Student self-reported outcomes included disciplinary understanding, transferable skill development, critical decision-making, and emotional knowledge. Although the Ohio students, many of whom were lower income working adults, did not engage with diverse partners, they did cross boundaries of race, class, and other social identities through editing oral histories of Holocaust survivors, New York artists, and southerners in the United States (Gasper-Hulvat, 2018).

Negotiating Place and Community

Whereas traditionally the instructor has identified community partners in service-learning, students in an online e-service-learning course often live far from their university and thus choose their community partners (Goertzen & Greenleaf, 2016; Rawlings & Downing, 2017). This e-service-learning therefore can allow students to work locally where they may share a sense of community (Hansen & Clayton, 2014) and sense of place with their community partners (Sandy & Franco, 2014).

Sense of community can be extended beyond the local to encompass virtual communities. Kliewer (2014) identified three conceptions of community in e-service-learning. First, "online space as community" shifts thinking from community defined by physical boundaries to community defined by interests, identities, and concerns (Hinck, 2014). Second is the online community itself as a liminal space between the multiple on- and offline communities that are inherent to e-service-learning; the nature of this space emerges from the partnership process. Finally, e-service-learning can be a vehicle to create sense of community among students and partners. As students and partners define this sense of community, they exhibit a form of democratic engagement that is lacking when the instructor is solely responsible for partnership building. This shared responsibility in turn creates an opportunity for students who are disengaged from top-down, managed models of service-learning to meaningfully engage, drawing on their digital skills (Kliewer, 2014).

One can imagine multiple ways of negotiating issues of place and community in online courses. Sandy and Franco (2014) described an online collaborative mapping activity, in which students prepared to work face-to-face in a physical community (the city of Milwaukee) by mapping its assets and weaknesses. Through creating an abstract representation of the physical world, students enhanced their own sense of belonging to the e-service-learning community while gaining an understanding of Milwaukee as a place.

Despite the ability of online technologies to open up new types of engagement opportunities for students and community partners, concerns prevail about whether e-service-learning can afford the in-depth and even transformational experiences that have traditionally been part of place-based student community engagement. Further, as online technologies increasingly pervade nearly every aspect of our lives, understanding different approaches to incorporate such technologies into service-learning and community engagement experiences can be used to advance the field of service-learning. Thus, to gain a deeper understanding of e-engagement across a range of disciplines, we conducted semistructured interviews with 23 faculty who participate in our university's engaged learning initiative.

Methods

We used qualitative methods (Creswell & Poth, 2018) consistent with our goal of exploring and reflecting on models of online service-learning and to understand how faculty and students are using digital technologies to afford opportunities for students and community partners. More specifically, we conducted semistructured interviews with 23 faculty to gain a deeper understanding of how they are using digital technologies, and what they view as the affordances of using these technologies, in engaged learning projects. The study was approved by the Cornell Institutional Review Board, and all interviewees gave their informed consent.

Participants

Starting with names recommended by the fourth author, who works at our university center for community-engaged learning, we used snowball sampling (Mertens, 2014) to identify faculty who are leading a wide array of e-engagement experiences at our university. We interviewed a total of 23 faculty members (12 females and 11 males) from different fields, including natural resources, plant science, horticulture, law, public administration, sociology, anthropology, ethnic studies, engineering, and business. We were leaders (first and second authors) or a student (third author) in the environmental education massive open online course (MOOC) teaching assistant (TA) project led by one of the faculty members interviewed.

Data Collection and Analysis

We developed a semistructured interview guide (Appendix A) that included questions

about how digital technologies are used in engaged learning projects and what the challenges and outcomes are for students and community partners. The second author conducted a total of 22 interviews with 23 faculty members in person and recorded the interviews using the software Audacity. Each interview lasted 30–50 minutes. One interview was with two faculty members who teach the same course together, and the rest of the interviews were with one faculty member. Immediately after the interview, the second author wrote memos to summarize key points of each engaged learning project. The interviews were automatically transcribed by iFlytek Hears, and the second and third authors corrected the transcriptions for accuracy.

The second and third authors coded all the transcripts using Dedoose software. First, the two authors used structural coding (Saldaña, 2013) to identify categories of codes based on interview questions, for example, role of technology, outcomes, preparation, and challenges. Then we used grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006) to identify emerging codes under each category, which we merged into themes. To enhance the reliability of the coding scheme, the two authors coded two interviews separately and discussed emerging codes and any disagreement. Then we split the remaining interviews to code individually and discussed emerging codes. Finally, we exported all the codes and excerpts to Google Spreadsheet, and reorganized and merged codes into themes. The first author then read all the coding entries and original transcripts and synthesized the coding results until patterns emerged as described below.

Limitations

Interviewing faculty members from only one university makes it difficult to generalize results across higher education institutions. Further, we conducted this study before the COVID pandemic and thus did not capture more recent e-engagement trends. In addition, the involvement of three authors in the MOOC TA project provided a disproportionate amount of insight from this project, which could cause bias. Finally, we interviewed only faculty members and thus did not capture students' and community partners' perspectives.

Findings

Because our university student body is largely residential and, prior to the COVID-19 crisis, the university did not generally offer for-credit online courses, we had only one faculty member involved in extreme e-service-learning, in which both the partners and students interact only online (Waldner et al., 2012). Thus, student e-engagement generally involved a face-to-face classroom experience with variation in the nature of the online interactions with community partners. Four categories emerged from our analysis:

1. Online interactions with community partners as preparation for an in-person experience.
2. Online interactions used in most of the project, with only a short in-person component.
3. Online-only interactions with community partners with no face-to-face component.
4. Limited to no student interactions with community partners (most interaction occurs between faculty member and community partner).

The first three categories, which we label as process-driven, were found in social sciences and other disciplines; they emphasized collaborative planning, cocreation of knowledge, and other elements of the interaction process. The last category, which we label product-driven, was found in engineering where students designed physical infrastructure for communities.

Within these models, projects varied in their use of digital communications and other digital tools. In some cases, students and community partners used digital communications to coconstruct a product of use to community members, whereas in others students built a computer model that was made available to partners. In Table 1 we describe our models of e-engagement and how technology was used in our university's e-engagement courses.

Models of E-engagement

Online Interactions With Community Partners as Preparation for an In-Person Experience

Online student–partner interactions to prepare for in-person experiences were used in

Table 1. E-engagement Models and Examples

Role of technology	Example classes and student role
Online interactions with community partners as preparation for an in-person experience	
Planning jointly to work on problem	*Conservation.* Student teams paired with Ecuadoran NGO to work on common problem. (Faculty A, B) *Conservation.* Use Facebook group, file sharing, and conference calls with Indonesian university partner prior to creating narratives of host country indigenous community members. (Faculty C) *Garden-based learning.* Plan and construct product with Belizean school that will benefit the school and visit the school during spring break. (Faculty D) *Garden-based learning.* Plan and conduct workshop and acquire workshop facilitation skills in partnership with county Cooperative Extension educators. (Faculty D)
Learning alongside university students in host country with whom they collaborated on host country project	*Agile innovation.* U.S. students build relationships with Colombian students with whom they jointly conduct an in-person project in Colombia. (Faculty E) *International agriculture.* U.S. students build relationships with students at Mexican university with whom they jointly conduct in-person project in Mexico. (Faculty F)
Plan project and learn about partner local issues prior to in-person experience at international meetings	*Climate.* Planned collaboratively online for research that students conducted and partners used to prepare for COP climate meetings; subset of students and partners attend COP meetings. (Faculty G)
Conduct interviews	*Food systems.* Conduct interviews during snowstorm normally conducted in-person to create narratives of partners. (Faculty H)
Online interactions used in most of project, with only a short in-person component	
Prepare for court hearings	*Law.* Use WhatsApp to send documents and prepare for court hearings for teenage farmworkers from farmworker families facing deportation. (Faculty I) *Law.* Support anti–death penalty cases in Africa, communicate with in-country lawyers via WhatsApp and Signal. (Faculty J)
Online-only interactions with no face-to-face component	
Plan and implement client-based project for capstone or other course	*Public administration.* Students consult for government and nonprofit organizations in U.S. and abroad using weekly 15-minute Zoom calls, Google Drive to share documents, and WhatsApp. (Faculty K) *Public administration.* Communications with community-based organizations and NGOs leading to students creating professional reports in English to meet partners' needs. (Faculty L) *Public administration.* Help government and NGO clients design disaster-readiness policies. (Faculty K)
Legal/translation assistance with birth certificates	*Ethnic studies.* Provide support for New York State farmworkers to rectify birth certificates for their children, addressing surname, spelling, and date convention discrepancies between English and Spanish. (Faculty M)
Cocreate theater production	*Theater.* Collaborate with other institutions to produce online play by invitation with Caridad Svich's "NoPassport Theatre." (Faculty M)
Cocreate mental maps	*Systems thinking.* Use Plectica software to cocreate mental maps of problems that partners are addressing. (Faculty N)

Table continues on next page.

Table 1. E-engagement Models and Examples *cont'd*

Role of technology	Example classes and student role
Online-only interactions with no face-to-face component *cont'd*	
Online course teaching assistants (TAs)	*Nature drawing.* Give participants in online course feedback on scanned copies of drawings. (Faculty D) *Engineering MOOC.* Help develop course, update software for engineering problems, and answer questions MOOC students pose on discussion board. (Faculty O) *Environmental education MOOCs.* Facilitate their own discussion section on edX Edge platform, spur Facebook discussions. In China, TAs lead course sections, translate materials, and facilitate WeChat discussions. (Faculty P)
Limited or no interactions with community partner	
Offer technical assistance	*Engineering.* Research and design water purification systems for Honduras using open source software. (Faculty Q) *Engineering.* Create computer model to strategically place trees on highways near residential areas to mitigate pollution particles and improve human health. (Faculty R) *Conservation.* Students create report addressing issue of importance to conservation professional partner. (Faculty A)

multiple global projects that involved short trips (1–3 weeks) to the partner country. Faculty conducting these projects generally felt that the face-to-face experience was essential to meaningful engagement experiences, although in some cases the in-person experience was more of a tour and the service component started before and continued after the visit online.

A common pattern especially for international experiences was for students and community partners to jointly plan the engagement project and build trust online. For example, in a course focused on garden-based learning, students communicated with schools in Belize prior to and after a visit, as they collaboratively created a garden education book featuring local Maya and Garifuna peoples, or evaluated a local garden education program (Faculty D). In a course in which students helped low-income countries prepare for international Conference of the Parties (COP) climate meetings, students learned about local climate issues through online communications with partners and then produced reports that their partners could use at the meetings; some students also participated in the COP meetings, where they met their partners (Faculty G). In food systems and business innovation courses, students at our (U.S.) university worked with students at a university in the country where the service project would occur to plan a project, which they carried out jointly in the host country during a university break (Faculty E, F). In another course, U.S. students depended on an Indonesian university partner, with whom they communicated by conference call, to communicate with rural community partners with limited internet access. This project involved sharing files to jointly create narratives or story maps of how people living in remote areas in Indonesia were addressing conservation issues, and posting them to the project website and YouTube channel (Faculty C). In a U.S.-based example, students used communication technologies to jointly plan and conduct a workshop in partnership with county Cooperative Extension educators (Faculty D).

A university leader in engaged learning reflected on how internet communications can prepare students for the in-person experience:

> In the old days, if a group travelled, the students would arrive sort of clueless. And so then they're trying to navigate all the culture shock at the same time that they're trying to catch up on sleep and trying to know the agency. And so the fact that students can do substantial learning, including the beginnings of interpersonal and intercultural learning, technologically, my understanding is that that leads to better outcomes for community partners. (Faculty S)

She continued to reflect on how technology can enable productive input from the partner:

> Academics tend to recognize fairly limited kinds of knowledge and wisdom, and so technology can help get other kinds into the classroom, which I think is good for everybody, especially if it gives partners more of an opportunity to say we have a problem, you know, because that's something that's just hard. (Faculty S)

Reflecting on how communications technologies can create a "closeness" to distant places where service-learning is to take place, a professor remarked:

> It's great because you're sitting there and you're watching somebody and they're in a mountaintop village in the Andes, in some little place and you hear the birds go in the back. You know it's just different. It brings you out of yourself and into their space. (Faculty B)

Online Interactions Used in Most of the Project, Short In-Person Component

The majority of the engagement project was conducted through online communications when students in the law school helped low-income U.S. clients prepare for court hearings using WhatsApp. Most of the communications were conducted online so as not to disrupt law students' intense class schedule, but the students did meet initially in-person with their clients, who were teenage farmworkers facing deportation (Faculty I). Students in another law school class who were supporting anti-death penalty cases in Africa communicated with lawyers in Africa using WhatsApp and the more secure app Signal. They then visited the death penalty clients, their lawyers, and other support people in Tanzania for 10 days during an academic calendar break (Faculty J).

Online Interactions With Community Partners, No Face-to-Face Component

In courses on disaster and other topics offered by the university institute for public administration, students acted as consultants for government and nonprofit organizations; clients ranged from Native American tribes to refugees, communities planning for wildfire in California, and a Nepalese women's group. Student teams would meet with their clients 15 minutes each week via Zoom; they also shared documents via Google Drive and other technologies that were accessible to clients (Faculty K). Another public administration course for master's students engaged student teams in working with clients globally, in this case preparing professional reports in English to meet partners' needs such as marketing, grant proposals, and strategic plans, which the clients used to make decisions and improve programs (Faculty L).

In the birth certificate rectification project in Latino studies, students engaged in a complex, ongoing project in collaboration with the university farmworkers outreach program. Students learned about the problem of inaccurate birth certificates issued to U.S.-born children of immigrants, and responded to requests from the immigrants to help them understand the process of how to correct the erroneous birth certificates so they could use these documents to obtain identity papers from their parents' home countries. Students communicated with partners via phone and online, and the results are being channeled into instructional videos to be distributed to farmworkers (Faculty M).

Students in classes in engineering and conservation served as teaching assistants for MOOCs. In the engineering course, students updated software for engineering problems and otherwise helped update course materials, as well as answered questions from MOOC students posted on the MOOC discussion board (Faculty O). The professor commented how the project helped the university student TAs acquire knowledge more effectively than they would in the classroom:

> Moving from novice to expert thinking and problem solving by working. . . . they're going to the MOOC, they see how I think, how I have learned to think for decades. And then through the interactions with me, through the interaction with [MOOC] students, I think they're getting very skilled at the software and the problem solving. But also more importantly, because my whole idea is that the conventional way we teach in problem

> solving relegates people to thinking like novices. (Faculty O)

In a separate MOOC TA project, during each semester university student TAs assisted with two to three MOOCs focused on environmental stewardship and education. The student TAs performed different tasks, including monitoring the MOOC discussion board and spurring meaningful discussions on the MOOC Facebook groups. In a few cases, students developed a product for MOOC participants, such as infographics about health and plastic straws using Comic Life software. In addition to the TAs based at our university, the environmental MOOCs had TAs from multiple universities in China who were trained online and then supported Chinese MOOC students by hosting WeChat discussions, translating course materials, and hosting meetings to discuss the course materials with local MOOC participants (Faculty P).

Limited or No Interactions With Community Partner

In an engineering project, students created computer models designed to help the city of Louisville, Kentucky, plant trees near highways to mitigate air pollution particles (Faculty R). Students in a separate engineering project designed water purification systems for Honduran low-income communities using open source software (Faculty Q). Twenty of 100 students in this class traveled to Honduras, where they communicated largely with one partner who served as a liaison to local communities; the students had limited direct contact with community member beneficiaries of their water purification systems designs. In both these projects, the professors largely chose and controlled communication with a local academic or NGO partner, who in turn worked with the local community partners. In these "product-based" projects, the students developed technologies to solve local problems, and there was less emphasis on joint planning and building trust. One of the engineering professors explained,

> You see, I'm very skeptical of a group that spends most of their time overseas. Because, what value are you bringing? Just by sending random university students who have the privilege of being at Cornell overseas, like, why are you assuming that they can bring something? So, my assumption is that being useful is actually very hard. And we have to work really, really hard in our labs here to contribute something that is useful. (Faculty Q)

Affordances of Communication Technologies in University Engagement

We found that at the time we conducted this research (prior to the COVID-19 pandemic), engaged learning leaders on campus commonly questioned the use of online communications as an alternative to in-person experiences; some may feel comfortable with online communication supplementing, but not supplanting, in-person experience, or perhaps when online communication extends the possibilities for engagement to communities not otherwise reached. One leading engaged learning scholar somewhat begrudgingly acknowledged the potential of online communications:

> Because especially if and as is the case many times, the two people haven't met before. That just makes for a much more superficial, in my judgment, interaction, than if they were able to have a face-to-face. But, you know, nothing is absolute. And sometimes the use of Zoom to do interviews has produced fabulously great interviews and results. So, in my view, the technology doesn't guarantee that it's not going to be deep. (Faculty H)

Faculty P, leading the environmental education MOOC TA project, in contrast, was enthusiastic about a totally online experience.

> [In MOOCs] because you have so many people from so many different communities in places around the world, in one spot at one time on one Facebook page, on one discussion board, you just learn a lot about what people are doing and how people are approaching environmental education, whether environmental volunteers, some citizen science, whatever about climate change around the world. And you see, I think on the one hand that a lot of the challenges are kind of disturbingly similar from place to place. And on the other hand, that people have developed some

> really unique ways of connecting with their local communities. I just like this, we just have this body of incredibly creative and inspired people as part of the courses. And so the fact that the TAs get to be a part of that from here at Cornell and be exposed to all of those different opinions and voices I think is really valuable and I know it's been valuable for me as an individual. (Faculty P)

Projects used texting, conferencing, and social media software, including WhatsApp, Zoom, Skype, and Facebook. In general, WhatsApp was most accessible in poorer countries because of its lower bandwidth requirements and ease of use on cell phones. Zoom and particularly Skype were less accessible to low-income partners with limited connectivity. In the environmental education MOOCs that used Zoom for weekly webinars, an assistant posted short segments of the webinar audio and screenshots of PowerPoint slides to WhatsApp in real time, thus enabling webinar participation by community partners in countries with limited bandwidth.

Next we briefly describe the affordances provided by online technologies in the e-engagement projects, including communication, intercultural understanding, collaborative research and data sharing, product cocreation, and preparation of legal arguments.

Communication

Faculty members noted that technology allows for a diversity of community partners and for communication between community partners and students. Through conference software such as Zoom, students can get to know their community partners before meeting them in person, and students and community partners can jointly plan the engaged learning projects that students will conduct.

As one faculty member noted in reference to a project where students used electronic communication to do prep work for an in-person experience abroad,

> Usually [students and community partners] talk with WhatsApp or through Skype . . . sometimes emailing back and forth. . . . And by the end of the semester, they have to have settled on a particular project, where the community partner has a need that their skills will help them to fill. So it could be crunching some data for them. It could be even something like doing some work of helping translate a grant application or giving them some support on that. . . . But it's really important that they already have the goals set out. And they've already spoken to the person that they're gonna be working with so that they can hit the ground and be doing something productive right away, because it's a very short window. (Faculty M)

Students, faculty, and community partners also shared resources, ideas, and progress updates using communication technologies. For example, students created short videos, PowerPoint presentations, and videoconferences to share their experience during the engagement process with their community partners and with potential service-learning students. This helped potential new students gain a sense of digital skills learned through the e-engagement process that differ from those learned in a standard classroom. In the environmental education MOOCs, Cornell students and MOOC participants shared experiences related to the course topics using closed Facebook groups. In another course, Cornell faculty mentored students conducting community-based agricultural research in India using online conferencing software. In several courses, adjunct professors, NGO staff, and other experts gave webinars to the students using Zoom.

Intercultural Understanding

Students were able to experience a different culture through listening to the stories and histories of their community partners and their countries. They applied the resulting cultural knowledge and competence in the engagement projects.

> I think it really is an eye opening experience for the TAs to be part of this international [MOOC online community], even if they're not having deep, deep connections with individuals, I just think it's an eye opening experience to see how people all over the world are deal-

> ing with similar problems related to climate change, . . . and still they're maintaining their courage and their hope. (Faculty P)

Conduct Collaborative Research and Share Data

Community partners often ask students to conduct research and share data and products. In a public administration capstone course, students conducted interviews, created surveys, and wrote reports to support their community partners' missions. Community partners included development banks; international NGOs; foundations; nonprofit organizations; school districts; private industry working with the public sector; and federal, state, and local governments.

> So they do conduct research. They will develop surveys, they will interview, they do focus groups, they may be doing data analysis of large data sets depending on the project. . . . we help them actually conduct research and gathered data in the field using technology, so using cell phones. (Faculty L)

In a class that created water purification systems for developing countries, digital technology was used to share data.

> POST is [water purification] plant operator smartphone tracker. So it's what allows the plant operators who actually run these . . . plants to enter data on their smartphone. And then the next time [they] are at an internet hotspot, they can upload the data to the cloud. And then we can look at the data. . . . That is a way for us to get feedback from what's happening in the field. (Faculty Q)

Cocreate Useful Products

Technology allowed students to deliver products such as books, blogs, films, videos, grant proposals, marketing materials, reports, and story maps to their community partners, which often continued to be used after the engagement process ended.

> So for GACSA [Global Alliance for Climate-Smart Agriculture], it was helping organize two big workshops. And there's workshop reports that came out of that. For Armenia it was working on two different projects in reviewing their website. For the Climate Smart Youth Alliance, it was developing a curriculum for them. So there are concrete projects but they're different for each group. (Faculty G)

In a systems thinking course, students and community partners used a visual mapping software that allows online collaboration (Plectica) to cocreate a common understanding of a local problem, including its components and solutions (Faculty N). The professor explained,

> Whatever the problem that they're trying to solve is or the organizational design that they're trying to do, and [the collaborative mapping software] allows them to share those maps with the community folks. And oftentimes what that does is, it sort of literally gets everybody on the same map on the same page, huge effect on getting different people who maybe are different stakeholders that look at the system in a different way. Those stakeholders can have different perspectives on the system, which are all in the map. (Faculty N)

Finally, in a public administration course, students created professional reports.

> So the students have to provide a professional quality report. So it's a written outcome or written deliverable that meets requirements of an MPA degree but also meets the requirements of professional agency in their field. So I want them to be able to write like a professional writing who's working in the United Nations. I want them to be able to write a professional report in English for an organization like the United Nations when they leave. I also want them to do a professional presentation. So they learn professional communications, new interactions with the client. But they also learn how to do formal presentations. They also learn how to sort of speak the language of the field. So for policy makers, and the organizations that

> we work with. We need to provide very concise, very clear, very simply stated recommendations of what people expect. So they learn how to develop executive summaries, for example. I also want them to learn about how to operate in a team and how to manage project and how to work with international organizations online remotely. And so we do a lot of work on communication and leadership team management. (Faculty L)

Students also showcased the products they made for their community partners through reports, publications, and theses.

Prepare Legal Arguments

Law school students communicating with their community partners paid special attention to keeping those partners' sensitive information private.

> I knew about [Signal] because a lot of our international partners use it. . . . It's our partners that I'm trying to protect because they're the ones who are exposed to the risk and we're going to leave, but they're going to stay. In some countries, the countries where we work, it's fine. Ok. But yeah, in some other countries, you know, both in Africa and obviously around the world, people have greater security concerns, and even meeting with a group of foreign law professors and students will raise suspicion. So you know, so it's really for their sake that we try to be very discreet. (Faculty J)

Other law faculty used legal database software to ensure no conflicts of interest would occur in a legal case before a case or trial occurs.

> We use a program called Legal Server and Legal Server is our case management system. It's basically a database where if I think if you're the lawyer and you say, "Oh, I'm gonna represent Beth, I think I want to take her case." You go into the case management system and you put my name in to make sure that you don't have a conflict, that you're not already representing Beth's husband in a divorce fight. You know, you have so we have conflict checking. So that's an important database for us and we're expanding that database and using it to track our community partners so that we can always find ways to refer cases. So that's, I would say that's the most exciting technology for us right now is Legal Server. (Faculty I)

Discussion

What is the evidence that online technologies have dramatically changed service-learning (Butin, 2013) or community engagement? Our findings at a university with a residential student body build on and are consistent with research that has focused on online students: Online technologies have expanded community engagement to new partners and to nontraditional students, and have created new affordances for university student community engagement (Arthur & Newton-Calvert, 2015; Guthrie & McCracken, 2010a; Helms et al., 2015; Purcell, 2017). Electronic technologies have expanded community-engaged learning approaches and access for students and partners; however, they do not seem to have turned service-learning on its head (Butin, 2013). In Table 2 we draw on our findings and the literature to discuss the affordances, including new types of projects, partners, and communities, enabled by e-engagement.

Online communications can enhance traditional 1–3-week, in-person, student group experiences at distant locations, as well as enable new types of projects and partners, such as legal support for migrant workers in New York State and death penalty clients in Africa, consulting for government and NGO partners regionally and globally, and TAing for global MOOCs. Shortly after the start of the COVID-19 pandemic in the United States in winter 2020, the ability of online communications to expand the types and responsiveness of community engagement was again demonstrated when a law professor (Faculty I) interviewed for this article put out a call via email: "If anyone is working on coronavirus preparation and your community partners have identified unmet legal research/support needs, please let me know." Earlier, if students had to travel for each meeting or interaction in

the law and other projects, it would have had repercussions for their course schedule and have required significant resources, thus limiting the number of students and community partners who could participate. Six weeks later, our university would have prohibited such travel to slow the spread of the coronavirus.

Because e-engagement can afford interactions across multiple cultures for both traditional and nontraditional students, it creates opportunities to address intercultural understanding, including among students who are not able to travel (Crabill & Butin, 2014; Jung & Gunawardena, 2014; Shah et al., 2018; Strait & Nordyke, 2015; Waldner et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2020). Here, e-engagement can draw lessons from more traditional international service-learning, which seeks to increase students' global awareness, cultural awareness, civic-mindedness, and civic skills (Crabtree, 2008). In a separate study of our MOOC TAs using the Global Engagement Survey (Hartman et al., 2015), TAs showed increases in efficacy, conscious or thoughtful consumption, and critical reflection (unpublished data). Given that access to and use of digital technologies differs among socioeconomic groups, cultures, and countries, digital literacy might be added to future assessments of global engaged learning.

The ability of e-engagement to afford expanded partnerships depends on strategic use of communication technologies (Guthrie & McCracken, 2010a). Options include using asynchronous discussion forums and social media to facilitate online dialogue and student reflections on socioeconomic privilege as it relates to online access and opportunities to develop digital literacy. As an example of leveraging the affordances of the virtual environment, students in a global health service-learning course used Google Hangouts for lectures, posted assignments on Twitter and Instagram—thus using both text and visual communication—and developed a social media campaign for community partners (Messner et al., 2016).

Online communication technologies can also facilitate access to a global community of ideas, values, religious views, and solutions to local issues; instructors can use guided

Table 2. Affordances of E-engagement From This and Previous Studies

Affordance	Description
Access—students	Enables access to service-learning for nontraditional and other students who, for financial, family, disability, or scheduling reasons, are not able to travel to community partner sites
Access—Partners	Opens up opportunities to work with university to any community partner with cell phone or internet access regardless of where they are located globally
Community	Enables communities of inquiry in projects where multiple students and partners communicate on a single discussion board or social media platform
Place	Enables service-learning projects that encompass multiple places regionally or globally while allowing partners to conduct projects locally
Perspectives/ solutions	Enables sharing of multiple perspectives, ideas, resources, and problem solutions, which can be adapted by other partners or students
Collaboration	Enables cocreation of products and research collaboration with multiple partners

questions to help students reflect on this diversity of perspectives and apply them, along with course disciplinary content, to cocreating local solutions to climate and other issues (Guthrie & McCracken, 2010b, 2014). Further, according to the online community of inquiry model, reflective learning is enhanced when attention is paid to teaching (e.g., journaling assignments), social (e.g., using prompts to spur online discussion), and cognitive (subject-related) elements of an online learning environment (Akyol et al., 2009; Garrison et al., 2000).

In this study, in courses where students communicated with community partners online prior to an in-person visit, online communications helped to establish a shared sense of community and trust, and aided students in learning about the places where they would be working (cf. Kliewer, 2014). In the one-on-one client-based law and public administration projects where online communications extended the geographic scale of community engagement to a nearby region or distant country, students communicated one-on-one with their immigrant, death row, or other client and thus may not have created such a multistudent/partner online community.

In contrast, our MOOC TA project expanded the geographic scale of e-engagement to a global community of inquiry (Garrison et al., 2000), consistent with Kliewer's (2014) community defined by interests, identities, and concerns rather than by physical boundaries (Hinck, 2014). Even large MOOCs can foster a sense of community through opportunities for MOOC participants and university TAs to interact in real time and ask questions (e.g., weekly webinars) and to introduce themselves on social media and through online conferences where MOOC participants present and receive feedback on final projects. A sense of belonging may be enhanced when e-engagement students are able to choose their own community partners (Schwehm et al., 2017).

Even though e-engagement can have a regional focus or cover the entire globe, in most instances projects retain a place-based focus because community partners are still working on issues local to where they live. However, the scope of places included may be unrelated to whether participants develop a sense of community. In client-based projects, communications are largely one-on-one, whereas in a global online fellowship program observed by the authors, participants developed strong connections through a WhatsApp group and weekly webinars and used WhatsApp to share support and prayers for each other in real time as they experienced hurricanes, other climate disasters, and more recently the COVID-19 pandemic.

Conclusion

A widely held view is that e-engagement provides an inferior experience relative to in-person engaged learning. However, many service-learning components, including teamwork and reflection, have been successfully incorporated into e-engagement experiences (Rawlings & Downing, 2017). Further, comparisons of student outcomes in e-service-learning and traditional service-learning revealed little to no difference in student perceptions of outcomes (McGorry, 2012; Schwehm et al., 2017).

Descriptions of community engagement often emphasize transformational change, perhaps because the focus has been on the subset of experiences that are long-term and immersive, usually in an unfamiliar international setting, and thus create dissonance leading to transformational learning (Crabtree, 2008; Hartman & Kiely, 2014). However, these "ideal" types of service-learning are not accessible to a growing population of nontraditional students, exclude many community partners, and may not be possible in times of global crisis such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

Rather than arguing for the superiority of one form of service-learning over another, perhaps we should consider different types of experiences, each with their own affordances. For example, in the environmental education MOOCs mentioned by Faculty P, the TAs did not benefit from the transformational experiences that often accompany travel to a new place. However, they became immersed in a global online community through which they could learn about the environmental activities of individuals with similar interests from over 60 countries. Students talked about feeling inspired by environmental activists who face difficult conditions. One master's student, who had spent 2 years in Tanzania and not met other environmentalists, was thrilled to be part of a global community that shared her commitment to the environment. As Faculty P leading the TA project remarked, "I think that they feel inspired and I know

I personally feel inspired by looking at all the stuff that people do all over the world for the environment even when they don't have the same resources that we do." We acknowledge that students benefit from face-to-face interactions with more local community partners, but we also see that online technologies enable students to rapidly respond to partners such as immigrants who may need medical or legal counsel during a virus epidemic. In sum, rather than disrupt, e-service-learning can expand and enrich engaged learning opportunities for students and partners beyond those possible through traditional service-learning.

Given the COVID-19-induced move to online learning, and the potential of online learning to play a greater role in higher education even after the pandemic, research on models for e-engagement is essential to the perpetuation of university–community engagement missions. Potential questions could address how sense of community and sense of place can be built among community partners and students in an online environment. Other questions revolve around how e-engagement can expand the time and geographic scales, as well as the diversity of partners, in university engagement projects. In addressing these and related topics, researchers should look for opportunities to conduct research that encompasses multiple projects and multiple institutions, as well as faculty, student, and community partner perspectives.

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Appendix A. Semistructured Interview Guide

Objective

To document models of e-engagement and understand how digital technologies are used by faculty, students, and community partners participating in university engagement experiences.

Interview Questions

1. Could you please briefly describe your involvement with engaged learning?
2. How, if at all, have students used online technologies in your engaged learning work?
3. What are some of the challenges students experience in using online technologies for engaging with public audiences?
4. What are some of the benefits students experience in using online technologies for engaging with public audiences?
5. What outcomes of your project for students, community partners, and faculty/staff might you attribute to the use of online technologies?
6. If you have been involved in face-to-face engaged learning, what are salient differences between the two experiences for students, community partners, and faculty/staff?
7. What else would you like to share about your e-engaged learning experience?
8. Do you have suggestions for other thought leaders or individuals experienced in this area that we should interview?

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All Service-Learning Experiences Are NOT Created Equal! Effects of Service-Learning Quality on Self-Efficacy and Engagement

Joseph A. Allen, Kaitlin Fosler, and Kelly Prange

Abstract

Service-learning courses offer a unique experience to students by reinforcing typical school curriculum with experiences outside the classroom, where the emphasis is on learning by doing accompanied with reflection (Conrad & Hedin, 1981). Studies show that the quality of the service-learning experience has the potential to impact student outcomes; however, few have looked at the relationship of quality with engagement and self-efficacy (Holland et al., 2009). Thus, this study focused on the effects of the quality of service-learning experience on student engagement through leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy. A survey of 105 students showed a significant mediation model of quality of service-learning on affective student engagement through leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy. Significant direct effects were found between quality of service-learning and leadership self-efficacy, community service self-efficacy, and student engagement. These findings on quality of service-learning courses have implications for students, educators, and universities.

Keywords: service-learning, self-efficacy, quality, student engagement

Service-learning, or a teaching pedagogy that incorporates practical community experience and reflection into in-class learning, has expanded among U.S. higher education institutions over the past 20 years (Bulot & Johnson, 2006; Gray et al., 2000). The service-learning teaching philosophy, in which service-learning is a continuous, active process of experience and reflection, is grounded in experiential learning theory (Whitley, 2014). The active involvement, experience, and reflection aids in greater personal engagement, reflection, and intellectual growth of the student participants (Gray et al., 2000; Kuh, 2008). Furthermore, service-learning addresses important social problems, including student engagement and retention, improved critical thinking, participation in a democratic society, and prioritization of community service (Gray et al., 2000). Gray et al. also noted that service-learning offers a practical boon for students, such as gaining valuable experience and solidifying career goals or paths. Although these outcomes have been well documented, it is important to note that these benefits are not a given. The National Youth Leadership Council has documented service-learning standards for K-12 educational institutions; however, these do not directly apply to the higher education setting (RMC Research Corporation, 2008). George Kuh's (2008) work on high-impact practices demonstrated some key components that make service-learning experiences effective; however, no universal standards for service-learning coursework have been implemented for higher education, as evidenced by the mixed success of some service-learning projects. This study aims to examine service-learning from the

perspective of quality to emphasize and begin filling the gap in literature and practice around best practices and standards for service-learning experiences at the higher education level.

Research on the outcomes of service-learning courses has shown many positive impacts on students' personal, academic, and career outcomes (Astin et al., 2000; Gray et al., 2000; Song et al., 2017; Weiler et al., 1998). A longitudinal study conducted by Astin et al. (2000) found that students who participated in service-learning showed significant positive effects on measures of self-efficacy, leadership, values, academic performance, continued service participation, and choice of service career. Similarly, research has shown that service-learning experiences can have positive impacts on students' level of engagement in their academic, community, and interpersonal contexts (Gallini & Moely, 2003; Kuh et al., 2007). Another study found that students involved in service-learning performed better on reading and language arts tests than students not involved in service-learning; these students also reported greater learning from the course than students in non-service-learning courses (Weiler et al., 1998). Similar results were found when race, first-generation college student status, and income were considered. Service-learning may even be a bridge to success for college students of color, first-generation college students, or students from low-income families, as they were found to have better academic performance and higher levels of persistence when they participated in a service-learning course compared to students who did not (Song et al., 2017).

Much of the research on service-learning has focused on the difference in outcomes between students who have participated in service-learning courses and those who have not. However, previous research suggests that a key antecedent of the service-learning outcomes may be student perceptions of the quality of the service-learning. For example, one study found that students were more engaged in a service-learning course when additional support and motivational teaching strategies, such as providing challenge, curiosity, recognition, autonomy, evaluation, and real-life experience, were used (Lam et al., 2014). These concepts of motivational teaching strategies can map onto areas of high-quality service-learning experiences as well; for example, the motivational teaching strategy of providing challenge maps well to the intellectual stimulation provided by the service-learning experience. These findings suggest that it is the students' perception of the service-learning experience that dictates the positive outcomes rather than just the implementation of a service-learning course.

Whitley (2014) proposed a framework of how to progress the research of service-learning effects on students. Whitley's framework positions the context of service-learning, the service-learning experience, mediating variables, and outcomes as key considerations on service-learning outcomes. Previous research has examined possible context variables such as income and race; other researchers have explored outcome variables such as academic performance, values, and self-efficacy (Astin et al., 2000; Gray et al., 2000; Song et al., 2017; Weiler et al., 1998; Whitley, 2014). Although this research is a remarkable step in the right direction, some aspects of the model have been neglected, including the service-learning experience variables. Service-learning experience measures can range from support, challenge, and interest to intellectual development, knowledge, and skills gained (Whitley, 2014). George Kuh's (2008) seminal work on high-impact practices emphasized the impact that experiences such as service-learning, learning communities, and internships can have on deep learning as well as offering personal and educational gains. Kuh further noted some key aspects that marked these experiences as high impact, including academic challenge, active and collaborative learning, and a supportive learning environment. Other areas of high-quality service-learning are skill development and application, understanding of community issues, motivation, self-confidence, interest in the community, and personal growth (Abe, 2011). Measures of service-learning quality can capture a more holistic view of all the factors that describe the service-learning experience.

The purpose of this study is to investigate how the quality of service-learning courses relates to outcomes measured by previous research. Specifically, by building upon the experiential learning theory (Whitley, 2014), we investigate how the quality of service-learning can impact self-efficacy and engagement in college students. Our hope is

to show that service-learning quality has a positive influence on student engagement through the development of both leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy. We conclude with a discussion of our findings and key implications for leaders in academia who could more overtly leverage the benefits of service-learning courses among their students by adhering to certain quality standards.

Experiential Learning Theory, Quality of Service-Learning, and Student Engagement

Experiential learning theory, a theory founded by David Kolb and based on the experiential works of Dewey, Lewin, and Piaget, emphasizes the importance of experience in the learning process in order to stimulate growth and development. Dewey's theories of cultural naturalism that emphasize the role of social conditions in everyday life, Lewin's advancements in social psychology, and Piaget's applications of genetic epistemology in how cognitive development stems from adapting to the environment all feed into Kolb's definition of experiential learning (Kolb & Kolb, 2012). Kolb (1984) defined experiential learning theory as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 41). Experiential learning theory posits a learning cycle of (a) *grasping* experience through abstract conceptualization and concrete experience and then (b) *transforming* experience through active experimentation and reflective observation (Kolb & Kolb, 2012). This cycle, shown in Figure 1, depicts how concrete experiences serve as a basis for reflection, which in turn creates abstract concepts that inform actions, and those actions can be actively experimented with to guide new experiences. Experiential learning theory provides the foundation for service-learning because the learner takes an active role in their learning through experience and reflection to integrate new learning into old concepts (Whitley, 2014).

A core part of a service-learning course is students' active involvement in their learning (Whitley, 2014). When a student participates in a service-learning course, they engage in the experiential learning cycle: They are actively involved in an experience, which they then reflect upon to gain a deeper understanding, which in turn leads to greater action (Abe, 2011). However, student-perceived quality of the service-learning experience can influence engagement in the learning cycle and the potential positive

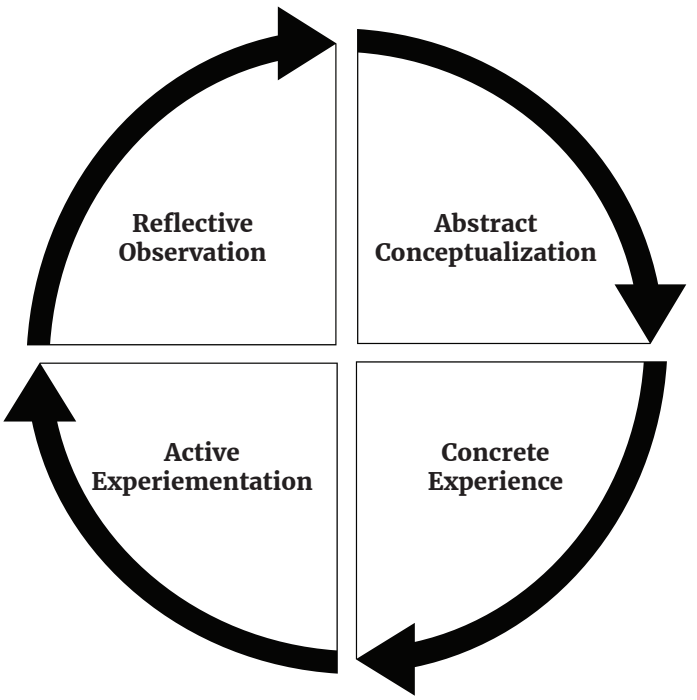

Figure 1. Experiential Learning Cycle

outcomes therein. Quality of service-learning refers to the students' assessment of the personal and professional benefits associated with their service-learning experience (e.g., skill development, intellectual stimulation, application of learning; Abe, 2011). Abe's conceptualization of high-quality service-learning encompasses measures similar to the standards set by the National Youth Leadership Council, including meaningful service, student voice, mutually beneficial collaborations, progress monitoring, reflection, connection to curriculum, and adequate intensity (Fox & LaChenaye, 2016). Student perceptions of quality appear to have a considerable impact on outcomes from service-learning. One study found that when students perceived their service-learning project to be challenging, important, appealing, and beneficial, they had greater commitment to community service (Boehm & Cohen, 2013). Other research has shown that students gained greater life skills, academic skills, civic participation, and professional development when they felt that their course consistently applied course concepts to their service experience (Gray et al., 2000). Further, Gray et al. found that regularly discussing the service experiences in class positively impacted life skills.

One key potential outcome of high-quality service-learning is student engagement (Conrad & Hedin, 1981; Furco & Root, 2010). The more students are involved in their learning, the more they tend to be engaged, or interested and immersed in initiating and maintaining learning behaviors in school. Student engagement is thought to be a mediator between contextual antecedents and student outcomes. Greater student engagement has been observed to lead to academic achievement as well as increased self-esteem and life satisfaction (Lam et al., 2014). The quality of service-learning can serve as the contextual antecedent that facilitates greater student engagement.

Previous research has found that when students participate in a service-learning course, their motivation and interest in learning increase (Conrad & Hedin, 1981). Other studies have observed that student participation in a service-learning course is associated with increased motivation and interest in school (Furco & Root, 2010). Lam et al. (2014) further differentiated this finding into three categories of student engagement: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Specifically, cognitive engagement is defined as strategies students use during the learning process; affective engagement refers to students' feelings about their school learning; behavioral engagement indicates student effort and persistence in learning. With these findings as a foundation, we chose to utilize a framework examining student engagement operationalized by those same three categories. Furthermore, we chose to look at how the quality of service-learning experience (rather than participation alone) impacts these facets of student engagement. This is an important relationship to research due to the growing literature recognizing engagement as a mediator for many other relationships. Engagement is growing in complexity as literature continues to demonstrate the many facets and interrelations it can encompass (Simonet, 2008). We focus here on three of those facets: cognitive, affective, and behavioral engagement. Based on experiential learning theory, we believe that participating in a high-quality service-learning experience that provides ample opportunity to gain experience, reflect, and grow as a person will stimulate greater change in learning and behavior. The high-quality experiences, reflection, and learning will in turn stimulate greater action by the students to engage in school via cognitive, affective, and behavioral engagement.

Quality of Service-learning With Leadership and Community Service Self-Efficacy

Although we anticipate the quality of service-learning will be related to all three types of student engagement, there may be more proximal student outcomes that intervene between quality service-learning and engagement: specifically, the development of leadership and community service self-efficacy. Many studies have found that service-learning course participation has positive impacts on general and community service self-efficacy (Astin et al., 2000; Conrad & Hedin, 1981; Song et al., 2017). Leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy may also be important outcomes of service-learning courses, but limited studies have been conducted on the subject (Midgett et al., 2016; Reeb et al., 2010).

Before continuing to define both leadership and community service self-efficacy, it is important to distinguish self-efficacy from

similar constructs (Bandura, 1977). Other researchers have conflated self-efficacy with self-esteem and confidence (Hoban & Hoban, 2004). In fact, in this article, we have used all of these terms in our explication of the potential impact of service-learning on students. To clarify, "self-efficacy" refers to a personal judgment of how well or poorly a person is able to cope with a given situation based on their skills and the circumstances they face (Bandura, 2010). In contrast, "self-esteem" is the sense of self-worth, which is clearly different from self-efficacy. Furthermore, according to Bandura (2010), "confidence" is the more colloquial term often used to refer to aspects of self-efficacy. However, "confidence" is a nonspecific term that refers to strength of belief but does not necessarily specify what the certainty is about. With these distinctions in mind, we return to the key ideas of leadership and community service self-efficacy.

Leadership self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in his or her own ability to lead and influence others. Research has consistently shown that self-efficacy impacts performance in an array of domains (Hoyt et al., 2010). One study found that student participation in a service-learning project had a positive impact on the students' leadership efficacy (Midgett et al., 2016). Similarly, Billig (2017) found that students reported that their service experience had a moderate influence on their leadership skills, specifically regarding their confidence in taking on new roles and responsibilities. Some researchers believe that increased self-efficacy, specifically leadership self-efficacy, is an indicator that learning has taken place (Ng et al., 2009). We believe that high-quality service-learning should facilitate greater learning, which will be reflected in increased leadership self-efficacy. See Figure 2 for a reference on the relationships we are hypothesizing.

Community service self-efficacy is described as the person's belief in their ability to impact their community. Research has found that community service self-efficacy is negatively related to narcissism and is a positive influence on engagement (Credo et al., 2016). Another study found that those who participated in a community service activity had higher community service self-efficacy than those who did not (Reeb et al., 2010), which was echoed in students who participated in a service-learning opportunity. We assert that participating in a high-quality service-learning course will positively contribute to students' community service self-efficacy, which could in turn positively influence other outcomes.

Further research has found that having specific self-efficacies can aid in both commitment to and success in an activity or job. A study on social work students found that when students lack experience, they also lack confidence and commitment to working in the field; however, these deficiencies can be mitigated by experiential learning activities (Boehm & Cohen, 2013). Yet another study found that service activities had the greatest impact on ethic of service and leadership skill development (Billig, 2017). Thus, consistent with experiential learning theory, a quality service-learning course can provide a foundation of experience upon which students can build their confidence in their ability to serve their community and serve as a leader in their class, community, and future career.

Mediated Model of Quality of Service-Learning to Engagement Through Self-Efficacy

Given prior studies, it is believed that students' perceptions of the quality of service-learning courses will relate to the students' reports of engagement through increased self-reported student leadership and community service self-efficacy. This argument is consistent with prior qualitative examinations of foster learning that have linked effective service-learning to increased self-efficacy, increased awareness of personal values, greater awareness of the world, and greater engagement in coursework (Astin et al., 2000). Ouweneel et al. (2013) asserted a positive relationship between self-efficacy and engagement; self-efficacy leads to more willingness to apply effort and energy to a task, which in turn increases involvement and absorption (i.e., engagement). Students with greater self-efficacy had greater engagement and performance at both the academic level and the task level. Thus, we propose the following mediated relationship by hypothesis:

> Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of the quality of service-learning course are positively related to cognitive student engagement, affective student engagement, and behavioral student engagement.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of the quality of service-learning course are positively related to (a) leadership self-efficacy and (b) community service self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of the quality of service-learning course are positively related to cognitive student engagement, affective student engagement, and behavioral student engagement through (a) leadership self-efficacy and (b) community service self-efficacy.

Method

Participants

Participants were current undergraduate students at University of Nebraska Omaha (UNO) who had previously participated in service-learning or community engagement activities as identified by the university. Participants were not provided any compensation for their participation in the research, and IRB approval was obtained prior to collecting data from these participants. We sent the survey link to 1,500 students, and a total of 836 surveys were completed. Only data from the participants who had completed a service-learning course as designated by the university (n = 105) were used in this study.

The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 60 years old (M = 23.22, SD = 6.92). Of the 105 students, 83 (79%) were females and 22 (21%) were males. The number of service-learning experiences the students had participated in ranged from one to 10 (M = 1.61, SD = 1.26). Most of the students (86%) had participated in one or two service-learning experiences. The cumulative GPA of students ranged from 0.98 to 4.0 (M = 3.33, SD = 0.50). The sample consisted of seven (6.6%) freshmen, 28 (26.7%) sophomores, 30 (28.6%) juniors, and 40 (38.1% seniors. There were 67 (63.8%) Caucasian/White students, six (5.7%) African American students, 23 (21.9%) Hispanic students, three (2.9%) Pacific Islander students, and six (5.7%) students who identified their race as "Other." Ninety-three (88.6%) of the students were enrolled full-time, and 12 (11.4%) were enrolled part-time.

Measures

The quality of service-learning measure was adapted from Abe's (2011) measures of successful experiential learning and consisted of nine items with a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The items were adapted so that they did not reference the field of mental health specifically. We were interested in the quality of the service-learning experience, regardless of the course topic or area of study, so we adapted some items to be general to all service-learning topics. Example items included "Service-learning course helped me develop valuable skills" and "Service-learning course was intellectually stimulating." A full list of items can be found in Table 3 in the Appendix.

Leadership Self-Efficacy

The leadership self-efficacy scale was adapted from the leadership efficacy measure (Hoyt et al., 2010). The leadership self-efficacy scale consisted of five items with a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The items were adapted to refer to a "group" as a general term instead of specifically a "work group." Example items included "Overall, I believe that I can lead a group successfully" and "I have confidence in my ability to lead." A high mean score on leadership self-efficacy indicates a student felt they had more ability to lead. A full list of items can be found in Table 4 in the Appendix.

Community Service Self-Efficacy

Students' level of community service self-efficacy was measured using the Civic Efficacy Scale (Ballard et al., 2015). The community service self-efficacy scale consisted of three items with a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Example items included "I can make my community a better place by helping others in need" and "There are things I can do to make the world a better place." A high mean score on community service self-efficacy indicates a student felt they possessed the ability to impact the community in a positive way. A full list of items can be found in Table 5 in the Appendix.

Cognitive Student Engagement

The cognitive student engagement scale was adapted from Lam et al.'s (2014) student engagement in school measure. The original

scale consisted of 12 items; however, only six items were used in this study to shorten the survey and avoid reverse-coded items (Herche & Engelland, 1996). The six items used in this study used a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Always*). Sample items included "When learning new information, I try to put the ideas in my own words" and "I try to understand how the things I learn in school fit together with each other." A high mean score on the cognitive engagement measure represents a dedication to usually or always using the cognitive strategies mentioned when trying to learn and understand class information and material. A full list of items can be found in Table 6 in the Appendix.

Affective Student Engagement

The affective student engagement scale was adapted from Lam et al.'s (2014) student engagement in school measure. The original scale consisted of nine items, but only six items were used in this study to shorten the survey and avoid reverse-coded items. The six items used in this study used a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items included "I like my school" and "I like what I am learning in school." A high mean score on the affective student engagement measure indicates that a student possesses more positive feelings about learning and their school. A full list of items can be found in Table 7 in the Appendix.

Behavioral Student Engagement

The behavioral student engagement scale was adapted from Lam et al.'s (2014) student engagement in school measure. The original scale consisted of 12 items; however, only five items were used in this study to shorten the survey and avoid reverse-coded items. The six items used in this study used a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items included "In class, I work as hard as I can" and "I pay attention in class." A high mean score on the behavioral student engagement measure represents higher effort and persistence toward schoolwork. A full list of items can be found in Table 8 in the Appendix.

Results

Data were analyzed using a path analysis model, a statistical analysis technique that is used to describe and understand the conditional nature by which one or more variables influence another variable or variables (Hayes, 2013). Path analysis was chosen in part because the sample size would not allow the use of latent variables. Composite variables were created for each variable in the path analysis. The reliability of each composite variable was analyzed using Cronbach's alpha. Initial reliability coefficients were lower than desired for the leadership self-efficacy and the behavioral student engagement composite variables. A reverse-coded item was then removed from the leadership self-efficacy composite, and an awkwardly worded item was removed from the behavioral student engagement composite to improve reliability.

The final Cronbach's alpha values are shown in Table 1. All values were between .83 and .98, meeting acceptable levels of reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The means, standard deviations, and correlations for the composite variables are also shown in Table 1. Quality of service-learning had significant positive correlations with all the other composite variables. Leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy both had significant positive correlations with all three forms of student engagement. The significant positive correlations indicate initial support for the proposed hypotheses.

Results of the path analysis are shown in Figure 2. There were significant direct effects between quality of service-learning and student engagement. Quality of service-learning had a significant positive relationship with cognitive student engagement ($\beta = 0.51$, $p < .001$), affective student engagement ($\beta = 0.28$, $p = .002$), and behavioral student engagement ($\beta = 0.24$, $p = .008$). These findings support Hypothesis 1. Significant direct effects between quality of service-learning and leadership self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.28$, $p = .007$) and community service self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.34$, $p = .001$) were found to support Hypothesis 2a and 2b. For further information, refer to Table 2.

The path analysis yielded a significant indirect effect between quality of service-learning and affective student engagement through leadership self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.24$, $p = .044$), indicating that leadership self-efficacy positively mediates the relationship between quality of service-learning and affective student engagement. There were no significant indirect effects between quality of service-learning through cognitive stu-

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

		n	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Quality of service-learning	98	5.88	1.07	(.96)					
2.	Cognitive engagement	98	4.22	0.79	.54**	(.92)				
3.	Affective engagement	98	6.18	0.92	.57**	.36**	(.89)			
4.	Behavioral engagement	98	6.16	0.82	.34**	.49**	.50**	(.83)		
5.	Leadership self-efficacy	98	5.81	1.20	.45**	.32**	.54**	.32**	(.98)	
6.	Community service self-efficacy	98	6.21	0.96	.49**	.26*	.61**	.23*	.50**	(.93)

Note. Diagonal values are the internal consistency estimates for each scale.

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Table 2. Path Analysis Model: Unstandardized Estimates, 95% Confidence Intervals, and Standardized Estimates

Outcome	Explanatory Variable	B	95% CI	β	*p*
Direct Effects					
Leadership self-efficacy	Quality of service-learning	0.31*	0.09, 0.54	.28	.007
Community service self-efficacy	Quality of service-learning	0.31*	0.14, 0.48	.34	.001
Cognitive engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.38*	0.23, 0.53	.51	.000
Affective engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.24*	0.09, 0.39	.28	.002
Behavioral engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.18*	0.01, 0.36	.24	.008
Indirect effects via LSE					
Cognitive engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.07	−0.06, 0.21	.11	.300
Affective engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.18*	0.05, 0.31	.24	.044
Behavioral engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.14	−0.01, 0.30	.21	.074
Indirect effects via CSE					
Cognitive engagement	Quality of service-learning	−0.04	−0.22, 0.13	−.05	.643
Affective engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.35*	0.18, 0.52	.36	.000
Behavioral engagement	Quality of service-learning	0.01	−0.19, 0.21	.01	.097

Note. $N = 96$. *$p < .05$. LSE = leadership self-efficacy; CSE = community service self-efficacy.

dent engagement or behavioral student engagement through leadership self-efficacy. These results only partially support Hypothesis 3a. Similar results were found when Hypothesis 3b was tested. There was a significant indirect effect between quality of service-learning and affective student engagement through community service self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.36$, $p < .001$), indicating that community service self-efficacy positively mediates the relationship between quality of service-learning and affective student engagement. There were no significant indirect effects between quality of service-

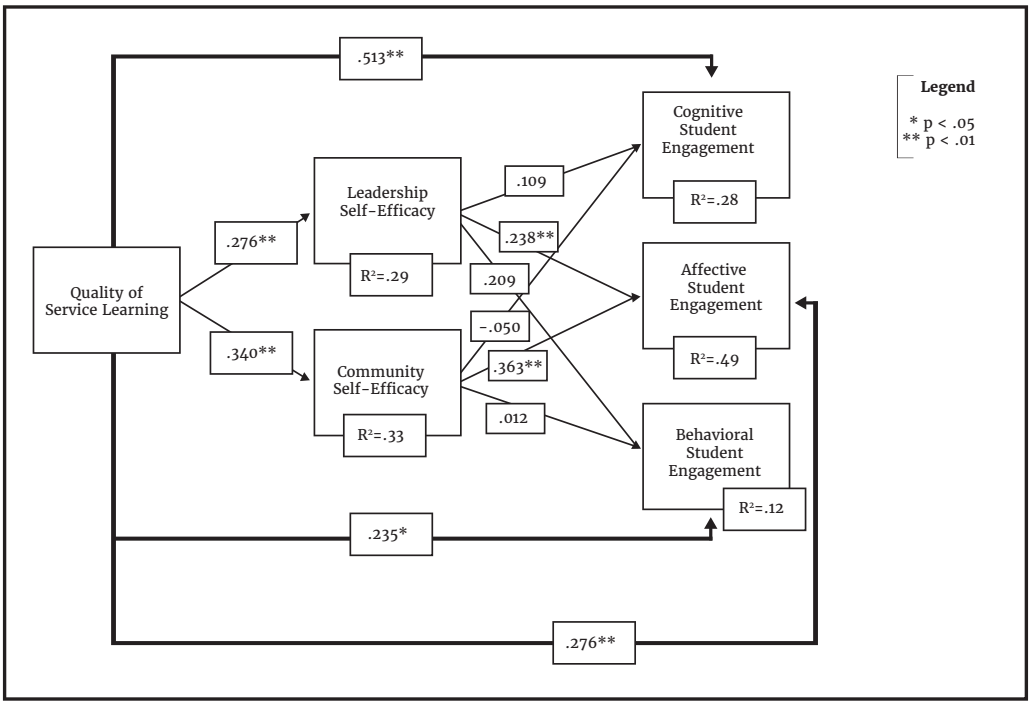

Figure 2. Path Analysis Model Results: Standardized Estimates and Variance Explained
Note. $N = 96$. Results of the path analysis model with the standardized coefficients for direct and indirect effects, $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$. R^2 values represent the amount of variance explained by the path in the model.

learning and cognitive student engagement or behavioral student engagement through community service self-efficacy; thus, Hypothesis 3b is only partially supported. For further information, refer to Table 2.

The R^2 of each outcome variable is shown in Figure 2. Quality of service-learning explained 28% of the variance in cognitive student engagement, 49% of the variance in affective student engagement, and 12% of the variance in behavioral student engagement. In addition, quality of service-learning explained 29% of the variance in leadership self-efficacy and 33% of the variance in community service self-efficacy.

Discussion

This study expanded on previous research on the outcomes of service-learning by exploring how the perceived quality of the service-learning experience influences student outcomes. Our findings reinforced and expanded upon previous research (Astin et al., 2000; Conrad & Hedin, 1981; Lam et al., 2014; Ouweneel et al., 2013; Reeb et al., 2010; Song et al., 2017; Whitley, 2014) by showing that the quality of service-learning relates to student engagement, leadership self-efficacy, and community service self-efficacy. We found that the quality of service-learning experience was positively related to cognitive, affective, and behavioral student engagement, suggesting that the opportunity for learning experiences and reflection stimulates greater student action and involvement in the school experience. The data also showed that students felt greater leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy when they had a high-quality service-learning experience. This result suggests that a high-quality service-learning experience provides the foundation for students to grow more confidence in their ability to take action through leadership or community impact.

Results of the path analysis model demonstrated that leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy mediate the relationship between quality of service-learning and affective student engagement. This shows that the higher quality service-learning experience enables the students to feel greater confidence in their leadership abilities, which in turn propels them to be more affectively engaged in school. Along the same lines, high-quality service-learning experience enables students to feel more

confident in their ability to impact the community, therefore stimulating greater affective engagement. These results suggest that a high-quality service-learning experience helps build students' confidence in their leadership and community impact abilities. Further, this greater sense of confidence may inspire more positive feelings toward their school and their learning endeavors, consistent with the theory of experiential learning (Kolb & Kolb, 2012; Whitley, 2014). Higher quality service-learning experiences relate to positive outcomes for students, specifically in their leadership self-efficacy, community service self-efficacy, and affective engagement.

Leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy were not significant mediators between quality of service-learning and cognitive student engagement or behavioral student engagement. Cognitive student engagement focused on students' dedication to using certain cognitive strategies when learning, whereas behavioral student engagement focused on students' effort and persistence in their schoolwork. The disconnect between leadership and community service self-efficacy with cognitive and behavioral engagement may result from self-efficacy focusing more on feelings and perceptions, whereas cognitive and behavioral engagement focus more on concrete action or behavior (Lam et al., 2014). Lam et al. described affective engagement as primarily focused on feelings, whereas behavioral engagement focuses on effort and persistence, and cognitive engagement describes learning strategies that students adopt and employ. Students' feelings of confidence in their leadership abilities or community impact do not seem to be correlated with student studying habits, learning efforts, and class participation. This could be due to the difference between efficacy and engagement as discussed above or the difference in context from general beliefs in leadership and community service self-efficacy compared to applying action and engagement in an educational setting.

Theoretical Implications

This study supported and built upon previous evidence under the experiential learning theory. Experiential learning asserts that when students are actively involved in their learning through experience and reflection, it will lead to personal and intellectual growth (Gray et al., 2000; Whitley, 2014). Our research found that quality service-learning experiences and reflection opportunities gave students increased confidence in their leadership abilities and community impact ability while also increasing their affective engagement in school. In short, we found that the quality of the service-learning experiences plays an important role in how much the students learn and grow.

Second, this study adds to previous understandings of the influence between self-efficacy and engagement. Previous research that linked self-efficacy with engagement used measures of general self-efficacy or academic self-efficacy (Astin et al., 2000; Conrad & Hedin, 1981; Song et al., 2017). The present research expanded the theoretical understanding of the impact of self-efficacy by homing in on the influence of leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy. Future research could benefit from continuing to explore these more specific facets of self-efficacy. This study also recognized subcategories of student engagement: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. The results were not the same across these three types, expanding our knowledge and indicating that there is more to discover under the overarching umbrella of student engagement.

Third, this study is on the forefront of providing evidence that the students' perceptions of the quality of their service-learning experience can impact their outcomes. We believe that it is not enough to simply participate in a service-learning experience to gain the positive outcomes of self-efficacy and engagement. Previous research made comparisons between the outcomes of students who participated in service-learning and those who did not (Astin et al., 2000; Gray et al., 2000; Song et al., 2017; Weiler et al., 1998). Our results showed that the quality the students felt their service-learning experience provided impacted their community service self-efficacy, leadership self-efficacy, and student engagement. This distinction expands the theoretical foundation of service-learning research by demonstrating the importance of the quality of the experience rather than only focusing on whether a service-learning experience took place.

Practical Implications

This study provides many implications for

college and university faculty, administrators, and students. The results of this study are a call to action telling college administration and faculty that higher education needs more than the mere existence of service-learning courses or experiences. The focus should rather be turned to the quality of experiences these service-learning courses provide to students. Recognizing this need also highlights the lack of universal service-learning standards at the higher education level. The service-learning standards laid out at the K-12 level provide a good starting point but are not sufficiently applicable to the higher education context (RMC Research Corporation, 2008). Researchers, along with higher education administrators and faculty, should work to form these standards and best practices for service-learning in order to solidify the quality of higher education service-learning experiences.

Previous research offers many key elements and best practices for creating high-quality service-learning experiences. Kolb and Kolb's (2012) learning cycle of (a) *grasping* experience through abstract conceptualization and concrete experience, and then (b) *transforming* experience through active experimentation and reflective observation emphasizes two key elements that distinguish service-learning from other learning experiences: application and reflection. Applying these elements as well as the standards laid out by the National Youth Leadership Council provides a starting point for creating more high-quality service-learning experiences (RMC Research Corporation, 2008). Administrators should provide faculty with the resources and training to support creating and carrying out a high-quality service-learning experience for students (Gray et al., 2000). Faculty and teachers should focus on the skill development, intellectual stimulation, confidence, motivation, application of learning, and personal growth that their service-learning course provides to students (Gray et al., 2000; Song et al., 2017). By bringing the quality of service-learning experiences to the forefront of service-learning design, higher education faculty and administrators stand to improve student outcomes even more profoundly.

This study also provides critical information to students on more than the benefits of participating in quality service-learning experiences. Teachers can further contribute to the impact of these findings by educating their students and advisees about the benefits that service-learning courses can provide. The increases in student engagement, leadership self-efficacy, and community service self-efficacy can benefit them not only during their time in school but also as they enter the workforce and become independent members in the community. This study and previous research have demonstrated that when students engage in this learning cycle of experience and reflection they stand to benefit personally, academically, and professionally (Astin et al., 2000; Gray et al., 2000; Song et al., 2017; Weiler et al., 1998).

Limitations and Future Directions

One limitation of this study is that all the measures used were self-reported by the students, a practice that can introduce biases and errors in the data because students may misreport their feelings, behaviors, or perceptions. The students' ratings of engagement may differ from what a teacher reports based on classroom observations. We also did not gather data on the teachers' ratings of the quality of the service-learning experience. Future research should gather measures from students and teachers to gain a clearer, more accurate picture of the relationships between these variables.

A second limitation is that the data is cross-sectional, which presents the possibility of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Due to the cross-sectional and self-reported nature of the study, we cannot infer causality from the data obtained. Additionally, although all the data were collected at the same time, the interval between student participation in each course and time of survey varied from student to student. Future research should attempt a longitudinal or pretest–posttest research design to better interpret the causal nature of the effect that quality of service-learning might have on student outcomes. Further, future research should gather the measures at the time of a student's service-learning experience to ensure more accurate reporting.

The third limitation is the lack of a control group in this study. All the students in the study had participated in at least one service-learning course while at their current university. The data from these students about their self-efficacy and engagement were not compared to that of students who had never participated in a service-learning

course. Furthermore, data were not obtained to compare students' ratings of quality for a service-learning course and the quality of one of their regular, non-service-learning courses. Future research should explore these opportunities for comparison between types of courses to better solidify and define the relationships between service-learning experiences, self-efficacy measures, and student engagement.

A fourth limitation is the relatively small sample size. A sample size of about 100 students made many of the preferred analyses for testing the proposed model (CFA, SEM, etc.) impossible. Because of the small sample size, we view the current study as a starting point. The data provide initial indications of meaningful relationships that need more exploration, likely by researchers who are able to incentivize participation among students, thereby ensuring a greater response rate and data for more powerful statistical analysis. We hope that future research will have the ability to replicate and extend these preliminary findings.

There are other opportunities for expansion upon this study in future research as well. This study focused on leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy, but similar relationship analysis may be applicable to additional forms of self-efficacy, such as general self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2001) and academic self-efficacy (Midgley et al., 2000; Vonthron et al., 2007). Exploring these other forms of self-efficacy along with quality of service-learning and cognitive, affective, and behavioral student engagement may present new relationships for follow-on research. Efforts in these areas will expand our understanding of how quality of service-learning can impact different forms of self-efficacy.

Furthermore, many other outcomes could be explored in conjunction with quality of service-learning, such as grades, achievement, career choice, and future community service. Previous studies have found a distinction in the impact of involvement in service-learning activities on these outcomes (Astin et al., 2000; Gray et al., 2000; Song et al., 2017; Weiler et al., 1998) but have not examined the impact of quality of the service-learning experience. Continuing to learn about the impact and relationships of service-learning quality is critical to developing service-learning courses and experiences that maximize benefits to students.

Another potential future direction would be to consider the role of autonomy and motivation in service-learning quality. For example, research concerning self-determination theory might suggest that quality of service-learning vis-à-vis self-efficacy has more to do with an internal locus of control than self-efficacy as such (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Thus, future work should consider assessing locus of control, in addition to the efficacy measures collected here, to parse the relationships with service-learning quality.

Conclusion

Our results showed support for a new frontier in service-learning research: the impact of the quality of the service-learning experience on student outcomes rather than solely focusing on the presence or absence of the service-learning experience. We found that when students perceived their service-learning experience to be of higher quality, they reported increases in their leadership self-efficacy, community service self-efficacy, cognitive engagement, affective engagement, and behavioral engagement. In addition, we found evidence that leadership self-efficacy and community service self-efficacy mediate the relationship between quality of service-learning and affective student engagement. This study demonstrates the importance that schools, teachers, and students should attach to having high-quality service-learning experiences in order to facilitate personal growth and experience.

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Appendix

Table 3. Quality of Service-Learning Items

1. Helped me develop valuable skills.
2. Applied what I learned in my classes.
3. Enhanced my understanding of community issues.
4. Was intellectually stimulating.
5. Increased motivation to pursue a career in my field.
6. Increased self-confidence about working in my field.
7. Stimulated interest in learning about community issues.
8. Contributed to my personal growth.
9. Fulfilled my expectations.

Note. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Table 4. Leadership Self-Efficacy Items

1. I am confident of my ability to influence a group that I lead.
2. Overall, I believe that I can lead a group successfully.
3. I have confidence in my ability to lead.
4. Most people leading a group can do it better than I can.
5. I have the abilities to lead a group successfully.

Note. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Table 5. Community Service Self-Efficacy Items

1. I can change the world for the better by getting involved in my community.
2. I can make my community a better place by helping others in need.
3. There are things I can do to make the world a better place.

Note. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Table 6. Cognitive Student Engagement Items

1. When I study, I try to understand the material better by relating it to things I already know.
2. When I study, I figure out how the information might be useful in the real world.
3. When learning new information, I try to put the ideas in my own words.
4. When learning things for school, I try to see how they fit together with other things I already know.
5. I try to see the similarities and differences between things I am learning for school and things I know already.
6. I try to understand how the things I learn in school fit together with each other.

Note. Items were measured on a 5-point scale from 1 = *Never* to 5 = *Always*.

Table 7. Affective Student Engagement Items

1. I think what we are learning in school is interesting.
2. I like what I am learning in school.
3. I enjoy learning new things in class.
4. I like my school.
5. I am proud to be at this school.
6. Most mornings, I look forward to going to school.

Note. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Table 8. Behavioral Student Engagement Items

1. In class, I work as hard as I can.
2. When I'm in class, I participate in class activities.
3. I pay attention in class.
4. If I have trouble understanding a problem, I go over it again until I understand it.
5. I take an active role in extra-curricular activities in my school.

Note. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

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Transforming Identities: Theorizing Place(s) and Space(s) in Community Engagement Pedagogy

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Abstract

While rightly focusing on relationships and partnerships, community engagement scholars sometimes ignore the powerful ways learning may be impacted by mundane places like public schools, parks, and community centers and the ways spaces are imbued with emotions, power, and history. This piece argues that community engagement faculty must make the physical places and liminal spaces of our community partnerships purposeful parts of our curriculum. Using a Writing in the Community course as a case study, the article analyzes undergraduate reflections, then theorizes important differences between place and space and offers a critical lens—via feminist geography—for community-engaged teachers to consider the places and spaces in which they partner and ways those locations impact identities inhabited by students and by community partners. Finally, I offer reflection questions for faculty, students, and community partners intended to position temporal and emotional locations at the heart of community-engaged curriculum.

Keywords: community engagement pedagogy, mobility studies, place-based learning, girlhood

Middle school is the last place I wanted to return to. It represented my least-favorite me: one filled with anxiety, insecurity, and confusion. But that's exactly where my spring Writing in the Community (WRTC 486) class took me and 16 undergraduate students enrolled in my inaugural community-based learning course. Turns out, no one really *wants* to go back to middle school. My students were even more apprehensive than I was about returning to junior high, and they worried that they would have trouble relating to the community of 12-year-old girls we planned to write with. But I found that this space, one fairly dripping with awkwardness and vulnerability, was actually a space for powerful learning and self-reflection for my students and for me. In line with Megan Boler's (1999) "pedagogy of discomfort," this course embraced the awkwardness and unease as an invitation "for each person, myself included, to explore beliefs and values" (p. 185) related to our own identities and our relationships to others. Being in community and in place with girls very different from ourselves—in regard to race and socioeconomic status—created space for new self-knowledge and broader understandings of others' positionalities.

Educational experts have long touted the power of learning in context and in space (Knapp, 2007). Whether enrolling in a semester abroad or participating in a community service project, when students encounter learning beyond the classroom wonderful things can happen for them and for the communities they engage. As education scholars Paul Theobald and John Siskar (2014) explained,

> A particular place on earth can be a kind of curriculum lens through which all traditional school subjects may be closely examined. The immediacy and relevancy of place in the lives of students can be a huge catalyst to deep learning. (p. 216)

Student identities aren't the only ones changed in place: Community partner identities are also impacted by where we choose to convene, how and when we travel to and with one another, and by access granted or denied to certain locations. For example, the middle school girls we wrote alongside were invited to inhabit future selves as college students and scholars when they took a tour of our campus. Community engagement educators tend to privilege the *who* of our partnerships over the *where*. Although engagement scholars rightly focus on establishing and maintaining strong partnerships, we sometimes ignore the powerful ways learning may be impacted by mundane places like public school classrooms, parks, and community center meeting rooms and the ways such spaces are imbued with emotions, power, and history.

This piece argues that community engagement practitioners and scholars must critically examine the physical places and liminal spaces where we locate our community partnerships and make those locations purposeful parts of our curriculum. Beginning with a limited case study and brief analysis of data collected via undergraduate reflections for a 2016 Writing in the Community course, the article goes on to theorize important differences between place and space and offers a critical lens—via feminist geography—for community-engaged teachers to consider ways places might be positioned as geographical, physical, and contextual, while space may productively be thought of as ephemeral, aspirational, and transformative. For the purposes of this project and with a focus on engagement pedagogy, I argue it is also useful to draw a theoretical distinction because place is often ruled by logistics—times, dates, transportation, funding, and so on—whereas space might be reframed as vital to the transformative power of community engagement learning. Next, the piece interrogates the relationships between place/space and existing and aspirational identities of students and partners working in those locales. Finally, I offer a series of questions for educators, students, and partners to focus critical attention on places and spaces and the learner identities that grow from both.

Case Study: Teacher-Research Reflections

Working with and for girls in local public middle schools during our Writing in the Community course forced me to think about place, space, and movement in new ways. Although the public schools served as important pedagogical tools for my students and for me—as labs, practice halls, meeting rooms, and even time machines—I noticed that the actual movement to and from these places also had a real impact on my students' learning and on their concepts of self, both current and future. The course is built on a partnership with the local chapter of Big Brothers Big Sisters (BBBS), with undergrads working specifically with BBBS's Young Women's Leadership Program (YWLP). The class was born both of my research interest in girl identities and in what Erica Yamamura and Kent Koth (2018) explained as an "emerging model of place-based community engagement" (p. ix) in their *Place-Based Community Engagement in Higher Education.* The course ran for 3 years with students from the School of Writing, Rhetoric and Technical Communication (WRTC) planning and facilitating weekly activities for an afterschool program intended to empower young women to lead by building confidence, writing, technical, and storytelling skills, and offering training in critical awareness and analysis. For my undergrads, the main course objective was to study the ways girls write and are written and how discourse impacts identity performances for girls and, by extension, for all of us. In the first iteration of the course in spring 2016, 16 undergraduates from a variety of majors, including English, sociology, justice studies, communication studies, social work, health sciences, and WRTC, and I met as a group on campus on Monday evenings, and then the class split into two teams to work on site at local middle schools on Tuesdays or Wednesdays. Our Monday evening classes included discussions of readings and artifacts aimed at increasing the undergraduates' rhetorical, technical, and design skills while also introducing them to the concept of public and private discourse as shaping identities. We began the term with training from the Office on Children and Youth, which covered ways for the undergrads to be approachable, respectful of middle schoolers' privacy, and aware of likely differences between themselves and our community partners, specifically involving race and socioeconomic status. Along with readings on gender performativity and girlhood in particular, we also read about ways texts impact ethnicity, body image, and notions of class. About halfway through the course, we devoted a week to

"writing race" and studied visual imagery of BIPOC women and a film called *A Girl Like Me* (Davis, 2007) created by and featuring young women of color. We also read excerpts from *House on Mango Street* by Sandra Cisneros, as well as bell hooks's *Bone Black.* The goal was to carefully think through representation of marginalized populations in our media and school systems.

Our Tuesday and Wednesday classes were held at two middle schools, 3:15–5:30 p.m., with the undergrads taking turns leading literacy activities that included blogging, composing with images and video, photography, and critical literacy approaches to media artifacts like music videos, TV, and print advertisements. Through these composing and analysis activities, we hoped to encourage girls to explore literacy in many modes and to make them critical consumers and producers of the messages surrounding them, particularly those related to concepts relevant to girl culture and identity like body image, bullying, self-expression, cultural and ethnic representations, and gendered language. While seeking to build personal connections with the middle schoolers, we stumbled upon the importance of place to girlhood and personhood. Two specific activities—analysis of children's storybooks and the "Where I Come From" poem—encouraged middle schoolers and undergrad students to make explicit connections between physical places and memories and identities and knowledge creation. Because ours was a community writing project, our assignments were concerned mainly with textual analysis and production, but they also relied heavily on discussions of gender and racial representation, ways to speak back to those representations, and the power of location to define us for ourselves and for others.

The first activity asked mixed teams of four to six university and middle school students to first read and then critique storybooks featuring female protagonists of differing ethnicity, race, and geographic locations. In particular, the stories depicted a modern-day African American ballet dancer living in the city, a West Virginia girl growing up in coal country, a Native American folktale about wild horses, a young girl born in the southwest in 1824, and an adaptation of the children's song "Miss Mary Mack" featuring an upper-middle-class White girl. The activity opened up important spaces for collaboration and community building and also helped us identify and theorize subtle messages about ways the protagonists' identities were wrapped up in the places where they were, were from, or were trying to go.

The second activity, the "Where I Come From" poem, provided a more pointed interrogation of locations of origins and drew direct correlations between place, memory, and identity. The poem activity is a staple on our campus during the First-yeaR Orientation Guide (FROG) week for freshmen and was suggested by one of the undergrads in our class, who thought the 12-year-olds in the YWLP might find the writing task a way to learn about one another and to celebrate their own geographic and cultural origins. An 11-question prompt asks authors to first focus on the details of places they inhabit or have inhabited and to then transform those answers into a poem. The poem prep worksheet asks things like "Describe where you live. What does it look like? What does it smell like? What does it feel like?" Answers to these and other questions are then incorporated into a poem by simply adding the phrases "I'm from" or "From" at the start of each stanza. This intensely personal writing yielded rich and sometimes troubling texts, including one middle schooler's challenging early days in our small city after her family relocated from Honduras, portraits of strict parents and occasional food insecurity, the joys of cooking with parents, and the burden of parenting younger siblings. Writing about ourselves is a fairly standard pedagogical tool for creating classroom community and validating students' personal experiences and knowledges, but I did not, until after we'd completed the activity, see the powerful connection between girls' current and aspirational identities and the places and spaces they inhabit. Creating "Where I Am From" poems allowed writers to locate deeply personal memories in and through physical place and to make connections about ways place offers and denies space for possible selves. The assignment also highlighted ways White privilege unfairly protected me and most of my undergraduates from poverty, racism, and other struggles many of our community partners faced.

Our class interacted with a total of 42 tweens, all 12-year-old girls in the seventh grade. The girls were either active with BBBS or had been identified by school guidance counselors as needing additional academic support or potentially benefiting

from mentoring opportunities with local college students. The middle schools are located in a community with a large immigrant population—with 57 languages represented in local public schools (*Enrollment Statistics*, 2017)—and thus have remarkably diverse student populations, particularly for a southern town of 50,000. The population of the YWLP included a variety of ethnicities, with 19% identifying as Caucasian, 17% identifying as Black, 9% identifying as Other, including Hispanic, and the remaining 55% choosing not to identify. In contrast, the undergraduates enrolled in the course were mostly White, and although not asked to specifically identify their own ethnicity in class or as part of this study, the issue of Whiteness and privilege was a constant topic in our classroom, with students often interrogating their own biases and blind spots regarding such privilege. The class included only one member identifying as Hispanic and the other 15, including two men, performing Whiteness; this is unsurprising at a university with nearly a 75% White student population (*James Madison University*, 2018). None of the undergraduates were international students. Not only did the undergraduates differ from the middle schoolers racially and ethnically, they also came from vastly divergent socioeconomic backgrounds, with many JMU undergraduates hailing from wealthy East Coast families. The median household income for JMU students is $129,000, whereas our community's average household income is $40,000, according to the U.S. Census Bureau (*Harrisonburg City*, 2018).

Although the partnership was, I believe, truly guided by and benefited all participants, I want to focus here on ways this work impacted the undergrad students specifically. The course description promised to teach enrolling students about girl identities by inhabiting, for a time, the places girls write and learn in. What began as a logistical decision—it was easier to transport adult students than middle schoolers—soon resulted in pedagogical benefits for my students that I could not have imagined at the onset of the course. Traveling off our campus to work and write in these child-centric places somehow transformed both my teaching and my students' identities. In these on-the-move and initially very unfamiliar learning locales, my college students were immersed in girlhood by leaving the familiar surroundings of our adult-centric university classroom. This course forced students into unfamiliar, and often uncomfortable, intellectual and geographic terrains.

Student Reflection Data

The impact of place and space on my students was something I observed generally during the program, but it was not until I read their final reflection assignments for the course that I began to really consider the connections between mobility, location, and identity. Every student in the WRTC 486 course produced an end-of-term reflection, and this data was covered under a retroactive IRB application that included a consent form sent to students via their university emails following the completion of the course. In the two subsequent cycles of the class (in 2017 and 2018), undergraduates would be asked to participate in focus groups and complete surveys to more fully investigate place, race, socioeconomic status, and other issues related to the project, based in large part on my initial—and, frankly, limited—findings from the reflections from the first iteration of the course. Although there is no direct data from the middle schoolers in this essay, my community partner, Big Brothers Big Sisters of Harrisonburg-Rockingham County, gathered data from the YWLP as part of a larger study run by researchers in the education department at my university and focused on retention, future success, and individual impact of BBBS.

The prompt for students' final course reflection asked them to consider "knowledge, insight, and personal awareness gained or challenged in this course" but didn't specifically ask students to focus on location. Yet in 13 of the 16 essays, place, space, or mobility terms were heavily represented. After first noting this trend in my regular grading of the reflections, I used a constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 1996; Charmaz & Belgrave, 2007) to "explore the phenomenon" (Saldaña, 2021, p. 71) of my students' seemingly intuitive understanding of ways inhabiting unfamiliar places and communities impacted their learning and their perceptions of themselves. Saldaña explained that grounded theory is most often used when researchers endeavor to "develop new theory about" (p. 92) a trend or relationship while working systematically to avoid preconceived notions. In particular, I follow Charmaz's constructionist model that rejects objectivity by embracing ways

data shapes the research and the researcher (Charmaz, 1996, p. 31). For this study I was in no way a dispassionate observer, but was an involved instructor and community activist interested in understanding and bettering a new community-based learning model.

In my initial "exploratory coding" (Saldaña, 2021, p. 92) phase, I noted repeated discussion of comments on location and mobility. I then assigned broad descriptive codes about the data, and in only 16 short reflection essays I coded 27 instances of explicit reference to acts of movement and mobility. In subsequent analysis of the data, I noted references to specific places, ways places defined students and the girls in the YWLP, and ways moving to and through places resulted in transformative learning. In their essays, students recalled their opportunities "to explore," "to be surrounded by," to "immerse" themselves in and to "enter this experience" of working with the middle schoolers. Mobility scholar Tim Cresswell (2010) noted that "weaving of narratives around mobility" (p. 19) is common as we often experience movement as liberating and transgressive. Some students, for example, reported being glad they "took the plunge" or being grateful for the opportunity to "break out of the JMU bubble." A junior in the course, one of the most popular mentors among the tweens in the YWLP, reported that "walking in the shoes of a middle school girl" changed how she thought about girlhood and more broadly about gendered identities. Traveling these same routes and terrains revealed to my students more about the girls they worked with, and also about their own identities in relation to others. "Going to the middle school was fantastic," one student reported. "Not only did I feel like I was teaching these young girls about feminism and leadership, but I also felt like they were teaching me so much more than what I expected to get from this class."

Lawrence Grossberg (1996) encouraged us to think of identities as "ways of belonging. They are the positions which define us spatially in relation to others, as entangled and separated" (p. 101). The undergrads working in middle school cafeterias, hallways, computer labs, and outdoor soccer fields each week then not only created new affiliations and relationships but also discovered and inhabited new (or forgotten) identities. Enrolling as students, many emerged from the course as "someone girls can look up to," "a nurturer," "a good influence," or "some sort of mentor," according to students' reflection essays. Although many of these evolving identities were located in relationship to the girls, others were more inwardly focused. One student reported rediscovering "my awkward times as a middle school student," and another said she often felt like "my middle school-self" again. Still others retained more traditional student identities, with one undergrad reflecting on her gratitude for the opportunity "to learn from some amazing young women." Finally, other reflections included claims to new and in some cases future roles as teachers, disciplinarians, coaches, and guides.

Not only did the physical places we worked and learned in impact notions of identity, but location often became a signifier, an avatar of sorts to describe ourselves and others. In the reflections, and in class discussions, I noticed that the students were often identified by and with the buildings they inhabited. For example, my undergrads referred to girls in the YWLP as "the middle schoolers" or "the Thomas Harrison girls." And when I showed up alone on the Wednesday of our university's spring break, our 12-year-old community partners asked impatiently where the "JMU people" were. Both sets of learners/writers seemed to embody and to be embodied by the places they were allowed and expected to move in and through. Feminist geographer Susan Hanson (2010) reminded us that this may be particularly important in regard to feminine identities because "women are quite literally kept in their place by being denied access to certain locations at certain times" (p. 10). One undergraduate student echoed this idea in her reflection, saying, "It's not who you are, but where you are." Our schools and the physical buildings and lands comprising those schools quickly became extensions of—and stand-ins for—the undergrads and middle schoolers themselves. We learned to know one another by first recognizing our assigned and sanctioned places and spaces.

Place-Based Education

Place-based learning is an accepted pedagogical approach, and although thinking about the ways we move to, in, and through these physical locations is important, considering how such places create critical, intellectual space for identity work may

not yet be garnering as much attention. Education scholar Clifford Knapp (2007) considered the connections between place, mobility, and curriculum:

> Teaching is to guide students on adventures into partially unknown territory. . . . I never will have complete and accurate maps nor will I know all of the course territory. Sometimes my students show me new places that don't appear on the course map. When this happens, we explore together. With each trek into subject matter, I feel more confident on the journey. (p. 9)

Location often drives community engagement work that can challenge students' perspectives by moving beyond the familiar campus. Place necessitates the common conversations of transportation, mobility, and regionality. Community engagement scholars Yamamura and Koth (2018) explained that "place-based community engagement focuses intensively on a clear and definable geographic area" (p. 18). Similarly, girlhood studies scholars Pamela Bettis and Natalie Adams (2005b) explained that the "daily habits" and material realities of girls' lives must be "taken seriously, explored, played with, explained, and theorized" (p. 3). Both geographic place and intellectual space may be "inhabited" and are closely tied to the daily habits and routines of those therein; however, for our purpose place provides learning by immersion in local culture and rituals and helps us understand the needs and values of other communities by being "present." Students in the YWLP project commented frequently on place in their final reflections and employed visceral terms to document how it felt "being on site" and "being in" the classroom or learning "to fit into" the place (both figuratively and literally maneuvering adult bodies into child-sized plastic chairs). Like Boler's (1999) pedagogy of discomfort, our learning in the middle schools was "about bodies, about particulars, about the 'real' material world we live in" (p. 196). Still other students adopted a learning as journey metaphor (Knapp, 2007), using phrases like "came from," "to travel," "being with and beside the girls," "walking into class," and "going to" to describe both physical and intellectual movement. We must consider, then, both the specifics of a place—and its recursive rituals and practices—as well as movement through such physical places and toward aspirational spaces. Mobility studies scholars, too, understand the importance of interrogating everyday places and practices, particularly those of marginalized populations. Cresswell (2010) explained that "mobility studies have begun to take the actual fact of movement seriously" (p. 18). He also observed, "Mobility can be thought of as an entanglement of movement, representation, and practice" (p. 17). For our class, the middle school was a lab of sorts where we could work together and also a shared place of common origin and experience despite the often radically variant home lives, home countries, and cultural backgrounds of my undergrads and the middle schoolers in our YWLP community.

Place Versus Space

In order to critically consider location and mobility as pedagogical tools—and sometimes barriers—for community engagement work, we must first differentiate between place and space. The importance of space and location swept multiple disciplines, including the humanities, during the "spatial turn" of the 1990s as described by theorist and urban planner Edward Soja (Blake, 2002). Yamamura and Koth (2018) stated that they "believe that place-based community engagement offers institutions of higher education a powerful tool to become more connected to their communities, with a goal of transforming their campuses, their local communities, and our nation" (p. x), but their notion of place seems tied solely to geographic location and does not consider the often more ephemeral, transformational notions of space. My understanding of place as more fixed, more stable and material and space as fluid and generative and creative recognizes that whereas both place and space often exist concurrently, drawing theoretical distinctions between the two might allow us to more productively respond to calls in civic and community engagement to attend to the "why" of place. "Engagement defined by activities connected to places outside the campus does not focus attention on the processes involved in the activity—how it is done—or the purpose of connecting with places outside the campus—why it is done" (Saltmarsh et al., 2009, p. 6). Though this observation was made more than a decade ago in a white paper chronicling an early 2008 Kettering Foundation debate on reasons civic engagement had not reached its

potential, such critiques persist in civic and community engagement initiatives. The temptation to take our "academic knowledge" out in service to other "places" and people persists, but attention to place and space as themselves learning tools and sites of knowledge creation with and for students and community partners may help us more accurately see off-campus locations as opportunities to create rather than deliver knowledge.

Although many feminist geographers, whose work I rely on heavily, seem to use "place" and "space" pretty much interchangeably (Davidson, 2012; Moss & Al-Hindi, 2008), others often mark "place" as the less physical of the two and as aspirational. Isabel Dyck (2005), for example, is interested in ways that physical spaces create "a place" for women in particular. She explained "exploring the hidden spaces that feminist scholars show are integral to contemporary place-making" (p. 235). Lorraine Dowler and Joanne Sharp (2001) also argued for attention to "mundane spaces" of women in order to better understand ways such spaces and practices impact women's realities. Juval Portugali (2006) explained the distinction between place and space as largely disciplinary and having to do with how a scholar wishes to be identified:

> Space is located among the "hard" sciences as a central term in the attempt of geography to transform the discipline from a descriptive into a quantitative, analytical, and thus, scientific, enterprise. Place, on the other hand, is located among the "soft" humanities and social philosophy oriented social sciences as an important notion in the post-1970 attempt to transform geography from a positivistic into a humanistic, structuralist, hermeneutic, critical science. (p. 647)

Geographer Andrew Merrifield (1993) argued that the distinction between the two terms may be dangerous if it is overly rigid:

> The Cartesian viewpoint assumes a duality between the material (external) world and the (internal) world of human consciousness. . . . Space is not a high level abstract theorization from the more concrete, tactile domain of place. . . . An attempt to overcome this absolute separation is made . . . by arguing that both space and place have a real ontological status since they are both embodied in material process—namely, real human activities. (p. 520).

Like Merrifield, I see the terms as slippery and undoubtedly entangled, but some distinction may be helpful for those pursuing community engagement with the dual goals of better understanding the places we inhabit with others while also creating new, aspirational spaces for our students and our partners. Place and space are inextricably linked and need not be rigidly or antithetically defined, but can productively be theorized as serving distinct roles in community engagement.

In simplified terms, I frame place as a fixed and physical location, whereas space might be thought of as more abstract and fluid, as often aspirational or inspirational. In our class, the middle schools proved important as physical places for our groups to meet as well as spaces of history and origin for my undergrad students—as touchstones to their own pasts—and as spaces of both possibility and limitations for the students and our young community partners. The girls we worked with faced any number of rules and regulations about physical places they may occupy in the school, when, and with whom. The college students also experienced physical restrictions via locked doors, buzzers for entry, and name tags to prove "the right" to move in the hallways alongside their 12-year-old counterparts. Such physical restrictions impact ways inhabitants are encouraged and allowed to think of themselves. The middle schools, then, were spaces of aspiration and of becoming for all members of our writing project as we worked to build a YWLP community identity. The schools served as sites of incredible vulnerability for both current and former middle schoolers experiencing the insecurity, anxiety, and unease that come in the in-betweenness and liminal space of growing up and learning.

Although notions of place may be rooted mainly in the present and past, space—in this context—may productively be thought of as future focused. In community engagement, space often invites students to inhabit future professional or civic selves in order to work effectively with community partners.

This sort of identity "liminal space" has been thoroughly discussed in feminist and girlhood studies (Bettis & Adams, 2005b) and was important to community-engaged students in my class as they constructed new identities as activists, teachers, experts, explorers, and any number of other roles facilitated by the more abstract spaces of "girlhood," "tween life," and "community outreach," as mentioned in their end-of-term reflections. Space, then, might be thought of as aspirational and as an invitation to change and grow. Such spaces both "carry the residue of history upon them" (Mountford, 2001, p. 42) and bring direction and promise for the future. This liminal space of "becoming" considers both what came before and what will follow and is important to students and faculty engaged in learning, and might also create opportunity for new community partner identities and experiences to evolve. For example, rearranging chairs in our middle school classroom created space and invitation for often shy girls in the YWLP to join in an impromptu dance party led by the undergrads. On another day, YWLP girls were invited to dress up as famous feminists of the past (Amelia Earhart, Queen Elizabeth I, Rosie the Riveter, etc.) to make space to imagine themselves as feminist leaders. Both of these experiences were made possible by the physical (place) and emotional (space) environment.

Soja (2013) explained the need for "the new spatial consciousness" (p. 71) in his interest in "thirdspace," a critical perspective that finds "no space is completely knowable" (2014, p. 177). For Soja, thirdspace is "not a specific kind of space but a way of looking, with maximum breadth and scope, at any space one chooses" (2014, p. 177). This sort of spatial awareness is ideal for the field of community engagement, which, despite globalization, remains committed to the importance and complexity of local spaces. This opening up of space and place as an invitation to critical thought and personal and social transformation is also connected to the ideas of space as "liminal," or in-between spaces and times that come after what was and precede what will be. Susanne Gannon's 2010 article "Service Learning as Third Space in Pre-service Teacher Education" posited that a "required . . . volunteer placement in an alternative education setting" at her university's teacher education program "invokes transition, transformation and productive instability" (p. 21) for students. This place-based community engagement work, combined with critical reflection, then created a "third space" to consider otherness and difference and also a liminal space for student teachers that "entails a potentially radical reconfiguring of their personal identities and subjectivities" (p. 21). These sorts of student transformation, often happening in liminal spaces of becoming, are fairly common goals in most community engagement work, but critical discussions of ways places and spaces facilitate these transformations seem fairly absent from scholarship in the field.

The anxiety and vulnerability of liminal spaces, in particular, connects to Boler's (1999) notion of a "pedagogy of discomfort." According to Boler, "A pedagogy of discomfort begins by inviting educators and students to engage in critical inquiry regarding values and cherished beliefs, and to examine constructed self-images in relation to how one has learned to perceive others" (p. 176). Challenging personal perceptions begins in the distinction between spectating, or "to be a voyeur" (p. 183), and witnessing. "Witnessing, in contrast to spectating, is a process in which we do not have the luxury of seeing a static truth or fixed certainty. As a medium of perception, witnessing is a dynamic process" (p. 186). Witnessing, then, is embodied and in place and in relation to others and so is almost always uncomfortable and disorienting. For our class project, being in and traveling through shared middle school places created space for my students to undertake "collective witnessing" (Boler, p. 178) that shifted their thinking about racial and socioeconomic positions radically from individualistic "spectating" that often "signifies a privilege" (p. 184). Notions of privilege are paramount for students doing community engagement work and, as Beth Godbee (2009) reminded us, "White privilege—like other forms of institutionalized power and privilege—is made invisible so that whites often find themselves unaware and unreflective about their own unearned advantages" (p. 39). Michalinos Zembylas (2015) explained that such new awareness and enhanced empathy "is inescapably tied to others" and "pedagogical discomfort, then, is the feeling of uneasiness as a result of the process of teaching and learning from/with others" (p. 170). Tying productive discomfort in physical places to aspirational identities and spaces in community engagement

adds new layers to what we hope to teach our students, what we hope to learn from and with community partners, and ways we need to prepare students.

In their reflections, the undergraduate students in WRTC 486 registered the middle schools as places of knowledge creation for themselves and our young partners and seemed to locate space in a hierarchy above place. Several students described making "space" for themselves and for the girls in the YWLP as a primary responsibility of ours in the partnership. One undergraduate described the need to provide "space for creation and expression" for the girls in our program, demonstrating ways we understand not only identity but perhaps also space as a concept itself in flux, as liminal location or borderland intimately connected both to who we are and who we are yet to become. Another student, a senior, explained, "I am glad I put myself out of my comfort zone to learn from the experience." In their reflections, students appeared to understand the off-campus sites as places to inhabit a variety of identities—that of learner, teacher, colleague, thinker—for and with our community partners creating a space of reciprocity rather than service.

In particular, the notion of thirdspace as a transformative space of becoming and change seems an important concept. Borrowing from the work of Lefebvre, Soja explained thirdspace as "distinguished . . . from the traditional binary mode of looking at space from either a material/real perspective or a mental/imagined perspective" (Blake, 2002, p. 141). Thirdspace then may be thought of as "the place where temporality and spatiality, history and biography are really written, fully lived, filling the entire geographical or spatial imagination" (p. 141). Although these sorts of nuances might seem more appropriate to geographers, philosophers, and historians, I argue that careful consideration of space and place will enrich both our students' learning and the work we do with our community partners. For our community partners, space in particular is often defined by access and who has "the right" to be certain places and who does not. Space is not always about liberation, but more accurately about the productive discomfort that often results in learning about ourselves and others.

Spaces and Places and Identities

With the lens of space as transformative and place as tied to notions of belonging, we may begin to see the connection between spaces and places and the identities of our students and our community partners. The notion of identity as a product of and in place is well established. The authors of "Muskrat Theories, Tobacco in the Streets, and Living Chicago as Indigenous Land" (Bang et al., 2014) reminded us that Indigenous scholars have long recognized the vital connection between people and place and pointed out that Western epistemological models often "deny peoples' connections to place" (p. 42). Similarly, the importance of place to girl identities—the central focus of our course—is well established in girlhood studies. Bettis and Adams's (2005a) anthology *Geographies of Girlhood* considered particularly the temporary places girls occupy—schools, buses, malls, in transit to and from places, and so on—and argued that such physical locations are liminal spaces critical in shaping and understanding girlhood and the position it occupies between babyhood and womanhood. This project, then, argues that the places our students occupy or travel to and from while engaged in place-based community engagement work offer not only disciplinary expertise and self-awareness, but also challenges to their current and future identities. Just as scholars posit girlhood as a liminal space, or what Bang et al. might describe as "sites of potential transformings" (p. 39), I see community-engaged and place-based learning as a liminal space for our students to discover, articulate, and construct identities based on locations and movement through places. Focusing on what feminist geographer Rachel Silvey (2006) called "the co-constructed nature of identities and places" (p. 69), faculty must thoughtfully consider the ways that places and spaces contribute to all manner of learner, professional, and civic identities.

Moving in, to, and through places impacts not only our personal identities, but also our collective identities and our capacity to understand those around us. Grossberg (1996) saw "subjectivity as spatial," noting that "people experience the world from a particular position—recognizing that such positions are in space" (p. 100). Community engagement faculty member Ashley Holmes (2015) agreed that "situating student experience, learning, and writing in public sites beyond the classroom provides a meaningful context through which to explore social issues while facilitating student learning"

(p. 50). It also facilitates and forces students to see others in relation to themselves. As Boler (1999) explained,

> Students and educators may feel a sense of threat to our precarious identities as we learn to bear witness. Witnessing involves recognizing moral relations not simply as a "perspectival" difference—"we all see things differently"—but rather, that how we see or choose not to see has ethical implications and may even cause others to suffer. (p. 194)

Consciously choosing where to locate learning in physical and virtual spaces then allows a focus on the identities we perform, create, and reject and how such identities bring us closer to or farther from community partners. Moving through middle school home ec classrooms, miniature bathrooms, and hallways festooned with cartoon characters and inspirational quotes, my students also moved through several identities: teacher, mentor, confidant, disciplinarian, playground pal, writer, researcher, learner. Considering these places as also liminal spaces for transformation allows us to see beyond the physical limitations and possibilities of engaged places and to instead view them as texts of sorts that invite students and community partners to learn from and with others and create space for us to craft evolving identities. Spaces, places, and identities are never fixed, "not a once-and-for-all" (Hall, 1990, p. 226), but instead are fluid and shifting. Learning in place with others changes then not only our individual identities, but also the identities we perceive and assign to those around us. This is what makes community-engaged work often uncomfortable for students, teachers, and partners in that we risk having to really change who we are and who others are to us.

Discussion

Partnering with Big Brothers Big Sisters for this community literacy project, my undergrads and I were writing in place with and for girls facing inequalities based on gender, race, age, and socioeconomic status. Focusing on the places the girls in YWLP were writing from—keeping in mind that young people are often assigned and limited to certain places—seemed paramount to understanding and encouraging these young women's literacy practices and for expanding and shaping the university students' understandings of those unlike themselves. "The unequal geographies of mobility, belonging, exclusion, and displacement" (Silvey, 2006, p. 65) have been linked to economic and social inequality related to gender and other identity markers like race. Feminist geographer Hanson (2010) confirmed, "Feminists have long known that gender and mobility are inseparable, influencing each other in profound and often subtle ways" (p. 5). Experiencing firsthand the places where our young community partners could and could not be became both a pedagogical tool and a line of inquiry for our course. Having more critical awareness of the ways physical places we inhabit with our community partners may impact and even open up aspirational spaces for community building, as well as shape current and future identities for individuals, changed the ways that I as instructor thought about and designed the two subsequent iterations of this course. For example, race and Whiteness were part of my original curriculum during discussions of discourse and representation, but reading my students' reflections encouraged me to have more explicit discussions of place and socioeconomic status and access. One day in February, the undergraduates began chatting excitedly about plans for spring break in their small groups, and the middle schoolers' revelations that most had never been on an actual vacation and some had never traveled much more than an hour outside our 50,000-person town brought into stark relief notions of privilege for my undergrad students. The following Monday, our on-campus discussion centered on ways that socioeconomic status often not only impedes people from traveling to and through other places, but also may deny intellectual space to imagine oneself as a traveler or participant in other cultures.

This new awareness encouraged me to revise course readings to include texts on mobility and identity formation specifically. And even now, 2 years after the last time I taught this course, I am still grappling with better ways to more systematically explore the place-based notions of knowledge creation, the importance of material places and aspirational spaces, and the ways both shape our individual and collective identities with my students. As Roxanne Mountford (2001) reminded us, "Spaces have heuristic power over their inhabitants and specta-

tors by forcing them to change both their behavior . . . and, sometimes, their view of themselves" (p. 50). Understanding the spaces and places we occupy and are granted or denied access to then feels paramount not only to understanding personal identities, but also the challenges facing many in our society that are so often taken up in community engagement partnerships. My students clearly recognized this connection between movement, location, and identity in their final course reflections. One student commented on the connection between place and the ways identity "forms and changes in the spaces between home and the classroom," and so she felt that as adults we had a responsibility to "facilitate productive thought process in those spaces."

Making location and mobility a central concern of community engagement work and curriculum necessitates focus from both students and faculty. Although this data set is limited in size and scope, the analysis of the undergraduate reflection essays and details about the curriculum suggests the importance of location and mobility and ways place-based education offers unique learning opportunities for students. Further, the theoretical distinction between place as more fixed and material and space as aspirational and potentially transforming offers ways for both instructors and community partners to better understand places as imbued with cultural and political meanings and always connected to us as people and as communities of learners. To that end, I offer a series of questions for educators, students, and partners to ask themselves in order to reinvigorate or make explicit connections to locations of learning.

Critical Questions for Reflection and Planning

The questions below are intended to help community engagement faculty reflect on and prepare for the role that place, space, and challenges to identity may play in their partnerships. The three sets of questions—for faculty, students, and community partners—potentially can challenge us to consider both the limitations and opportunities of the places and spaces we move through.

Questions for Faculty

Place

What logistical matters (time, travel, monetary needs, etc.) are associated with the place where we will work?

What is the local history of this place?

What restrictions govern this place? Who is denied or granted access? When?

What challenges must be addressed in this space (furniture arrangement, physical access for students and partners with disabilities, etc.)?

What possibilities does this space offer for physical, emotional, and intellectual connection with our community partners?

Space

What is the mood of this space?

What semiotic (the study of signs and symbols) messages are present? What colors are used? What does the layout of the room or building communicate to users? What explicit and implicit messages for the use of place and space exist?

What does this space invite/ask us to do (get involved, help, seek help, etc.)?

Is this a temporary (liminal) space like a refugee center for resettlement or a more permanent space like a local neighborhood?

Are there opportunities for this to be a liminal space—a space of transition and/or transformation—for my students, myself, my community partners?

Identity

What population(s) are most identified by and with this place and space?

Who does this place/space invite us to be (volunteer, at-risk, in need, team member, etc.)?

Questions for Students

Place

What logistical things do I need to know about this space? How will I get there? Do I have physical needs (accessibility, allergies, noise levels, etc.) that this place may not meet?

What is the local history of this place?

What restrictions govern this place? Who is denied or granted access? When?

Space

What is the mood of this space?

How do I feel in this space? Am I an insider, outsider, or both in this space?

What does this space invite/ask me to do (get involved, help, seek help, etc.)?

Identity

What population(s) are most identified by and with this place and space?

Who does this place/space invite me to be (volunteer, student, at-risk, in need, team member, etc.)?

Do I have prior experience with this place/space or one like it? Were those experiences positive or negative or both? How does that impact my current experience?

Questions for Partners

Place

What physical, financial, or logistical resources can I provide to this partnership?

What resources do I need from my partner to better prepare this place?

What places do our partners need to access to better understand my community?

What restrictions govern this place? Who is denied or granted access? When?

What places or resources can I contribute without inconveniencing my community?

Space

What does this space invite/ask those in it to do (get involved, help, seek help, etc.)?

What is the mood of this space?

Is this a temporary (liminal) space like a refugee center for resettlement or a more permanent space like a local neighborhood?

Are there opportunities for this to be a liminal space—a space of transition and/or transformation—for our community, for the students?

Identity

What population(s) are most identified by and with this place and space?

Who does this place/space invite us to be (volunteer, leader, at-risk, in need, team member, etc.)?

Conclusions

Considering questions like those above while moving into and through new places may allow learners to move into unknown intellectual spaces and identities as well. In our Writing in the Community class, identities like teacher and mentor were as much new terrains for my undergraduates as were the middle school art room or main office. These places opened up space for my students to inhabit their former middle school selves, critically engage their current, mostly White-privileged student positions, and imagine future parent and community volunteer identities. In her final reflection for our class, one student explained, "Physically visiting the middle school put me in a whole new environment that made me learn a lot about myself and identity-crafting." Although my students struggled with feelings of discomfort and outsiderness in these middle school places, this initial—and, for some, constant—discomfort in place proved an important generative

space for the undergraduates, for me, and likely for many of the girls in the YWLP. Working together in this new place, there were mistrust and nerves at the beginning. Many in the diverse group of tweens we partnered with were understandably initially suspect of a group of mostly White, mostly affluent adults invading their girl space. A new awareness then of privilege became a recurring theme of our course—particularly when reflecting on time spent at the middle school with many girls who differed from my undergraduates in national origin, race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. Connecting with others unlike ourselves was a challenge for all of us in the partnership, but this uncomfortable space was temporary—liminal—and, I think, taught us all a bit about learning from and with others.

Bettis and Adams (2005b) took seriously "the liminal spaces of being an adolescent and of being female" (p. 6), and those of us that spend much of our time moving in and around learning places take seriously classrooms as spaces of discovery and transformation. Considering the work of other scholars and these initial findings from my students' reflection essays helped me to make more nuanced connections between people and places, places and spaces and privilege, and place/space and identity creation. Although we often privilege new places for learning and adventure—like in study abroad—this project suggests to me the importance of embracing also a return to our places of origin and ways these discovered and revisited places open up ephemeral and aspirational spaces for growth. We all made it through middle school, so the place is familiar, and yet moving through it as adults is also strange, making my students' visits to our local middle schools both a journeying back and a visit to a new land. In one student's reflection, she noted her appreciation of the opportunity "to immerse myself in a place I had been living in for four years but barely knew anything about." The playgrounds and classrooms we moved through are products of those housed within them and are also an invitation to change, to become, to grow. Learning in place and in community forced the undergraduates into uncomfortable and often vulnerable emotional spaces, but also afforded them new critical lenses as well as new identities and identifications anchored in locations. As I guided students through multiple physical locations, we became less a class and more a community of learners and workers and change agents. As one student wrote, I now consider myself an "advocate, a feminist, a woman, a service-worker, and a human." These identities might have manifested in a traditional classroom, but to be in liminal, "in-process" spaces with others invites students to step into new intellectual territories. Purposefully incorporating these new terrains into our community engagement partnerships and curriculum allows us to name the magic we, as educators, intuitively know so often happens when our students venture off campus to learn with and from others.

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Perceptions of Scholarship Among County-Based Extension Faculty

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Abstract

As universities strive to increase their rank in lists of the best institutions, higher education administrators are encouraging faculty to increase their scholarly work. Some faculty, including non-tenure track and/or outreach faculty, may be less prepared to respond to these demands. Due to a perceived shift in productivity requirements, campus-based faculty at one Southern institution are leading a project to support county-based outreach faculty in their scholarly work. An initial survey assessed perceptions, knowledge, and attitudes toward scholarship among county-based faculty in family and consumer sciences and youth development program areas. Results suggest great variability in knowledge and attitudes among county-based faculty. Survey results will inform next steps for training and development of skill to enhance scholarly work in a small group of county-based faculty.

Keywords: scholarship in extension, extension scholarship, theory of change, professional development motivation, cooperative extension

University faculty members remain under constant pressure from peers and colleagues, department heads, deans and administrators, and their institutions to engage in scholarly work. A large focus of this pressure is obtaining grant funding to support scholarly work and publishing in refereed journal articles. In response to this increased pressure for scholarly productivity, our university's Cooperative Extension Service has challenged county-based faculty with public service and outreach appointments to engage in scholarly work. Specifically, administrators have encouraged county-based faculty to conduct program evaluation research, with a goal of producing peer-reviewed journal articles and research presentations at academic conferences. These responsibilities are a new performance expectation for county-based faculty. The purpose of this article is to describe a project designed to help county-based faculty meet these new expectations for scholarly productivity. Within this context, we will share the results of an early-stage assessment of county-based faculty members' perceptions of scholarly work. This assessment provides foundational knowledge for the development of training and resources to prepare these faculty members to be successful in traditional scholarly work.

Context of the Project

Description of the University

The University of Georgia is a land-grant, sea-grant university known as the birthplace of public higher education in America. In 2018, the University of Georgia was ranked 13th in U.S. News & World Report's listing of best public universities (University of Georgia, 2018). The university had 1,742 tenured or tenure-track faculty and 1,340 non-tenure track faculty members as of fall 2018 (University of Georgia Office of Institutional Research, 2018). All faculty positions at the University of Georgia (UGA) are allocated across a subset of four categories of professional responsibility: (1) scholarship/research/creative works, (2) teaching, (3) service, and (4) administration/other (Provost of the University of

Georgia, 2010). Expectations for faculty performance are based on the distribution of their specific appointments across these four categories. Beginning in 2014, all units at UGA were charged to review their guidelines for promotion and tenure for all faculty, both tenure track and non–tenure track, with appointments in all four categories, to ensure that they aligned with administrative priorities to increase scholarly productivity.

Because UGA is a land-grant institution, the Cooperative Extension Service is one of the largest individual units involved in the promotion of faculty. The purpose of the Cooperative Extension Service, established in 1914 with the passage of the Smith-Lever Act (Smith Lever Act, 2008), is to translate and disseminate research-based information on subjects related to agriculture, family and consumer sciences, and youth development to the people of the United States so that they can use this information to improve their business, personal development, and family life (Rasmussen, 1989). At its beginning, Cooperative Extension focused on knowledge transfer. Over time, as the interest in scholarship of engagement has increased, Cooperative Extension turned its focus toward two-way engagement: The university transfers research-based knowledge to the community, and the community provides practical information back to the university to inform ongoing research (Franz, 2019; Franz & Stovall, 2012).

Even though Cooperative Extension was created by a federal act, management of Cooperative Extension happens at the individual university level. Therefore, county- or parish-based extension professionals face varied promotion and tenure expectations depending on the organization of extension in their respective university (Olsen, 2005). Some are faculty members in tenure-track positions; others are considered professional faculty not in a tenure-granting line. At some institutions, Cooperative Extension employees are not faculty at all, but are employed as professional staff. Because of the varied promotion and tenure expectations, Cooperative Extension's view of scholarly productivity varies from state to state and from university to university.

In Georgia, each of the 159 counties has Cooperative Extension (University of Georgia Extension) professionals who are county-based faculty members with a primary responsibility of connecting communities to the university. The county faculty are assigned to one (and occasionally two) of three program areas: agricultural and natural resources, family and consumer sciences, and 4-H/youth development. County faculty are supported by subject matter specialists in the same program areas. Most state-level subject matter specialists are tenure-track faculty, except for the 4-H unit, who are all public service faculty.

Description of the University of Georgia Extension Community

Although county extension faculty are UGA faculty members, University of Georgia Extension (UGA Extension) is the community for our project because the goal is to help county-based faculty meet new expectations for traditional scholarly productivity. UGA Extension faculty traditionally have evaluated their work based on county and community impact demonstrated in a variety of ways (e.g., number of contacts; program evaluation data indicating knowledge, attitude, or behavior change; and personal testimonials). Until recently, scholarly output from county-based faculty in the traditional sense (i.e., scholarly presentations at academic conferences, peer-reviewed journal articles) has not been a primary focus of extension efforts to document community impact.

County extension faculty are a community different from campus-based faculty in three key ways that affect their ability to meet expectations of scholarly productivity. First, county extension faculty are geographically separated from UGA campuses. Second, they have faculty appointments focused solely on service/outreach, with an emphasis on identifying and meeting the specific needs of their individual community. Third, expectations for promotion for county faculty are different because their appointments are in public service positions, rather than tenure-track ones.

In the mid-1990s, University of Georgia introduced a public service classification for faculty whose primary role is "the identification, development, and rendering of service in partnership with an external organization or group" (Office of the Vice President, 2021, p. 2). These public service faculty engage in activities "that make the traditional criteria for [tenure-track teaching and research] appointment and promotion inadequate or inappropriate" (Office of the Vice President, 2021, p. 1). Public service

faculty ranks include public service assistant or representative (entry level; comparable to assistant professor), public service associate (midlevel; comparable to associate professor), and senior public service associate (top level; comparable to professor). Similar to the tenure track, various levels of productivity are expected for promotion to the next faculty rank. In fall 2018, the UGA Extension community of county-based faculty was made up of 312 professionals, including 146 county faculty in agricultural and natural resources, 50 in family and consumer sciences, and 116 in 4-H/youth (Johnson, 2018).

Needs of the University of Georgia Extension Community to Engage in Scholarship

A review of promotion guidelines for UGA Extension has resulted in increased discussion about the role of public service faculty in traditional scholarship, defined primarily in terms of peer-reviewed publications, research presentations at conferences, and grants to support scholarly work. This discussion is consistent with the discussions about scholarship happening at other universities. Some universities are now requiring their non–tenure track outreach faculty to meet research and instructional requirements similar to those for tenure-track faculty. A major tangible outcome of this requirement is the expectation that extension faculty contribute to peer-reviewed professional publications (Teuteberg et al., 2016).

Not all county extension faculty are equipped to meet changing expectations for scholarly productivity or interested in doing so. Gliem (2000) found differences among extension professionals in Ohio who chose a faculty track with research expectations or academic professional track without research expectations. These differences include age, gender, salary differences between the tracks, and program area. Professionals in both tracks noted that research requirements were very influential in their choice between tracks. At our institution, extension professionals do not have the choice of track, but scope creep has led some to feel public service faculty now face some tenure-track expectations, particularly in the areas of research and scholarship productivity. Challenges that may influence a county extension faculty member's ability to be engaged in scholarship include, but are not limited to, lack of understanding of traditional scholarship in the extension context, lack of confidence in their ability to conduct research, a need for training and education about how to conduct scholarly research and write for scholarly outlets, lack of resources to support scholarly productivity, competing pressures from other assigned duties, and lack of administrative and technical support to conduct research. Geographic distance is also an important barrier to consider (Cumbie et al., 2005; Wood, 2016). Tenure-track faculty are usually geographically close to the institution. County-based faculty who live and work far from the institution may face more challenges if they wish to actively engage in research collaborations with campus-based colleagues. Non–tenure track faculty who are immersed in the community side of the institution–community relationship may also have greater difficulty fulfilling scholarly roles in addition to their primary outreach responsibilities (Weerts & Sandmann, 2010).

Community attitudes toward research also play a role in the ability of county faculty to engage in scholarly activity. Existing research on barriers to increasing scholarship among extension faculty reveals that many extension faculty believe their institution's values and performance expectations/standards are not compatible with the needs of the communities they serve (Finkelstein, 2001). Communities tend to perceive institutions' work and values as disconnected from the communities' needs, creating tension for county-based faculty as they are pressed on one side by their institution to produce scholarly work and on the other side by their community to address immediate community needs.

It is also important to note that many extension faculty do not clearly understand the meaning of "scholarship" as it applies to their roles as county faculty members (Vlosky et al., 2009). This lack of understanding affects both the faculty themselves and the institution in two important ways. First, a lack of understanding on the part of the county faculty affects their own ability and motivation to produce scholarly work. Second, these county faculty members have an opportunity to broker relationships for campus-based faculty to participate in engaged scholarship. Because they may serve as gatekeepers to their local communities, county-based faculty can have negative

effects on engaged scholarship institution-wide. County-based faculty members could deemphasize or even block engaged research efforts led by campus-based faculty if they are unaware, uninterested, or not included in efforts. Conversely, county-based faculty could enhance efforts of engaged research led by campus-based faculty if they are invested in the projects and can facilitate community participation. Thus, county-based faculty members' value of scholarly work transcends their own promotion potential, and can enhance or diminish the productivity of the university at large to foster engaged scholarship.

Across the United States, universities have tested different methods to motivate, prepare, and support extension faculty in traditional scholarly productivity (Culp, 2009; Llewelyn, 2013). Some universities have expanded expectations of scholarship by bringing extension faculty into academic departments (McGrath, 2006). Others have expanded or clarified their definitions of scholarship as they relate to extension faculty (Adams et al., 2005; Archer et al., 2007, Wise et al., 2002) or redefined promotion and tenure guidelines for extension faculty to include more scholarly expectations (Nestor & Leary, 2000). Some universities have provided institutional supports for extension faculty to achieve promotion in their respective systems through self-study (O'Neill, 2008), working groups (Vines et al., 2018), or organization-wide support (Franz, 2011).

With the increased emphasis on scholarly productivity, UGA Extension made several early advances to support county faculty. One of the first steps included a keynote presentation on scholarship by the provost and a leading engaged scholarship expert and a panel discussion to highlight scholarly work in UGA Extension at a biennial conference for all extension faculty. The panel included five individuals: an administrator, two late-career and one mid-career tenured faculty members in agriculture, and one early-career tenure-track faculty member in family and consumer sciences.

A primary outcome of the panel was the impression among county faculty that peer-reviewed journal articles were the primary focus of engaged scholarship. Cooperative Extension professionals have advocated for years that their consumer-friendly publications should "count" as scholarship. These authors fully agree that these are an invaluable form of scholarship, as are many other creative works that are reviewed by peers. Although the keynote and panel discussed multiple types of scholarly work, county faculty members left the session with a perception that peer-reviewed journal articles were the currency the university sought due to their ease of comparison with non-land-grant, aspirational institutions to the University of Georgia.

After the panel, many county faculty members voiced concerns to specialists and supervisors about the new expectations for scholarly productivity. Commonly expressed concerns included changes in their job responsibilities since they were hired, lack of preparation for or interest in these new responsibilities, and frustration that the panel did not accurately represent the community-focused work of county faculty. As conversations continued among extension administrators and state faculty, it became evident that county faculty need additional support and guidance to feel comfortable with the expectation of increased scholarly work.

Project Description

The purpose of this project is to enhance the capacity for county faculty in UGA Extension to be meaningfully involved in community-engaged research and scholarship within the context of their county work, and to inform administrators what it takes to prepare these faculty members for this type of work. Our short-term goals are to understand the perceptions of needs related to scholarly engagement among our county faculty and to explore ways to meet those needs. Our long-term goal is to develop sustainable systems to prepare county extension faculty to meet scholarly expectations.

Project Details

Early Stage Assessment of Scholarship Perceptions and Readiness—County Faculty Survey

In response to the panel on scholarship, state-level faculty held discussions of the most effective ways to enhance the scholarly capability of county faculty. During these discussions, we identified a need for more information about county faculty perceptions of scholarship, including definitions, perceived abilities, and resources to engage

in scholarship at the county level. Based on this information about perceptions, we hypothesized that we would be able to identify or create training and resources to meet identified needs, with the ultimate goal of integrating this program into the organizational structure of training and development for new and existing extension faculty.

We conducted a survey of county extension faculty in family and consumer sciences and 4-H youth development in order to learn more about their feelings toward scholarly work, their perceptions of the value of engaging in scholarly work, their skills and knowledge regarding scholarly work, and their perceptions of the support available for their scholarly work. The decision to include only family and consumer science and 4-H county faculty was both practical and intentional. Practically, our two extension program areas work regularly together, and faculty from both areas were interested in the topic. In addition, county extension faculty in these program areas anecdotally shared their concerns that they would have more challenges producing research. County faculty in agriculture and natural resources were perceived to be more easily included in experimental projects led by tenured or tenure-track faculty to evaluate agricultural applications like pesticide use, animal feeds, or irrigation technology. The results of this survey will be used to frame faculty training and support components of the project.

Survey Participants

Survey participants were recruited via email sent to an organizational email list containing addresses of all employed county extension faculty with assignments in 4-H or family and consumer sciences (FACS). The inclusion criteria were employment in UGA Extension, employment classification as county extension faculty, and an assigned appointment in 4-H and/or FACS.

Survey Content

The survey consisted of 36 items divided into five categories: (1) educational and employment characteristics, (2) feelings about scholarship, (3) perceived value of scholarly work, (4) perceived support for scholarly activities, and (5) perceived skills and abilities related to scholarly work. Cronbach's alpha measures of reliability ranged from 0.72 to 0.93 for Categories 2–5.

Educational and Employment Characteristics

Participants answered eight questions about their educational background and current employment. For six of the questions (current position, appointment in 4-H and/or FACS, highest degree earned, whether a thesis or dissertation was completed as part of graduate education, and public service faculty rank), participants chose from a list of options. For the remaining two questions (years as county-based faculty and years in current position), participants chose the appropriate number from a numerical scale.

Feelings About Scholarly Work

To assess feelings about scholarship, participants were presented with a list of 14 feeling words (e.g., excitement, anxiety, indifference) and were asked to indicate the degree to which they experience each feeling when thinking about scholarship. Participants rated each term on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with choices of "none at all," "very little," "some," "a lot," and "a great deal." Responses to eight items with negative connotations (confusion, anxiety, frustration, inadequacy, boredom, indifference, overwhelmed, and anger) were reverse scored to be consistent with responses to the items with more positive connotations.

Perceived Value of Scholarly Work

To assess perceptions about the value of scholarly work, participants rated their agreement with 11 statements that completed the phrase "Engaging in scholarly activities . . ." (e.g., "helps me justify my programs," "makes me feel connected to the university"). Participants rated each statement using a 5-point Likert-type scale, with choices of "strongly disagree," "somewhat disagree," "neither agree nor disagree," "somewhat agree," and "strongly agree." Because three of the statements ("takes me away from meeting my community needs," "does not give me useful information," and "does not apply to my everyday work") were phrased negatively, the responses to these statements were reverse scored to be consistent with responses to the positively phrased statements.

Perceived Support for Scholarly Activities

To assess perceived support, participants rated the support they receive from 7 individuals/groups (e.g., extension state specialists, extension director) by answering

the question "Please rate how supportive each of the following are of your scholarly activities." Participants rated each individual or group using a 5-point Likert-type scale, with choices of "not at all supportive," "a little supportive," "generally supportive," "very supportive," and "extremely supportive." Participants also identified specific sources of support for engaging in scholarly activities in an open-ended follow-up question.

Perceived Skills and Abilities in Extension-Related Scholarly Work and Supporting Activities

Participants answered two sets of questions to assess their perceptions of their skills and abilities in various extension-related scholarly activities. The first set of questions assessed participants' skills and abilities in six domains of extension-related scholarly activities: outreach program delivery, research methods and peer-reviewed research publications, curriculum development, extension publication development, grant proposals and administration, and conference proposals. The outreach program delivery section included seven items (e.g., conducting needs assessment, delivering programs directly to clientele, conducting program evaluation). The research methods and peer-reviewed research publications section included eight items (e.g., writing peer-reviewed journal articles, collecting data, conducting research). The curriculum development section included four items (e.g., reviewing curriculum for program selection, writing curriculum). The extension publication development section included four specific items (e.g., reading extension publications, writing extension publications). The grant proposals and administration section included five items (e.g., writing grant proposals, reviewing grant proposals, administering grant programs). The conference proposals section included four items (e.g., writing conference proposals/sessions/posters, reviewing conference proposals/posters).

Participants rated their perceived level of skill and ability for each item using a 5-point Likert-type scale, with choices of "none at all," "very little," "a moderate amount," "a lot," and "a great deal." To further assess perceived skills and abilities related to scholarship, participants rated their understanding of nine research-related concepts and tools (e.g., qualitative research methods, data collection tools, program fidelity, SPSS, program evaluation) using a 5-point Likert-type scale with choices of "I'm not familiar with this term/poor," "fair," "average," "good," and "very good."

Procedure

The survey was conducted via an online software tool available to all campus and county faculty (Qualtrics, 2018, US). Potential participants received an email with an explanation of the survey and an anonymous link for survey completion. The survey link was distributed in October 2016 and was open to responses for 5 weeks. Two follow-up emails were distributed at 2 and 4 weeks to those who had not completed or only partially completed the survey, inviting them to complete the survey. All methods and procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Georgia, and all participants provided informed consent.

Data Analysis—Measuring Perceptions of Scholarship

Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and percentages were calculated for educational and employment characteristics. Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals were calculated for all Likert-type survey items. Spearman's correlations were used to explore associations between each item and years as a county faculty member. Mann–Whitney U tests were used to compare responses to survey items based on highest degree earned (bachelor's or master's), county administrator responsibilities (yes/no), and completion of a thesis or dissertation as part of graduate work (yes/no). Kruskal–Wallis tests were used to assess feelings about scholarship based on faculty rank.

Within the survey section on perceived skills and abilities, means were also calculated for each skill or ability, as well as a mean for the domain of skill and ability. For example, the domain of "research methods and peer-reviewed research publications" contained questions about skills and abilities in writing peer-reviewed journal articles, reading peer-reviewed journal articles, contributing to peer-reviewed journal articles, collecting data, analyzing data, conducting research, and being part of a research team. Means,

standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals were calculated for each of these items. Additionally, a mean for the overall domain was calculated to summarize agent skill and ability in that domain. Cronbach's alpha for the domains ranged from 0.81 to 0.92. These means were calculated for descriptive purposes only. Relationships were explored between each individual skill/ability and faculty characteristics using Spearman correlations, Mann–Whitney U tests, and Kruskal–Wallis tests as appropriate to the data.

All data analyses were conducted with IBM SPSS Statistics (Ver. 25). Significance level was set to $p < 0.01$ due to the large number of analyses performed.

Survey Results—Creating a Baseline for the Project

Ninety-three participants completed the survey. Eleven participants were excluded from data analyses because they indicated their job title was something other than county extension faculty. An additional three participants were excluded from analyses because they identified their assigned appointment as agricultural and natural resources only. The final sample included 79 county faculty. Participants (n = 79) reported an average of 10.8 years (SD = 8.21) as county faculty. A little less than half of participants (41.8%) had a bachelor's degree, 57% had a master's degree, and 23.4% completed a thesis or dissertation as part of graduate work. A little less than half of participants (44.3%) identified themselves as county administrator with administrative duties (e.g., employee performance evaluation, county budget management, attending county departmental meetings) in addition to the regular duties of county faculty. Seventy-two percent of participants identified themselves as entry level faculty rank (public service assistant or representative), 22.8% as public service associate, and 5.1% as senior public service associate (Table 1). Therefore, more than 90% of respondents were eligible to be considered for promotion in the future, for which evidence of scholarly work would be required. There was a significant relationship between years as a county faculty member and faculty rank ($r_s = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$).

Feelings About Scholarly Work

Participants indicated a variety of feelings related to scholarly work. Table 2 displays the mean values reported for each feeling in order from highest mean score to lowest. Means ranged from 2.24 (happiness) to 4.00 (overwhelmed).

Table 1. Participant Characteristics (n = 79)

Characteristic	Mean (SD) or %[1]
Years employed as a county Extension agent	10.8 (8.21)
Administrative appointment	
County administrator	44.3%
Not a county administrator	55.7%
Highest degree achieved	
Bachelor's degree	41.8%
Master's degree	57.0%
Other	1.3%%
Thesis or dissertation completed[2]	
No	76.6%
Yes	23.4%
Faculty rank	
Public service assistant or representative (entry level)	72.2%
Public service associate	22.8%
Senior public service associate	5.1%

Note. [1]Not all percentages total 100 due to rounding.
[2]N = 77.

Table 2. Participant Feelings About Scholarly Work (n = 79)

Feeling	Mean	SD	95% CI
Overwhelmed	4.00	1.10	(3.75, 4.25)
Frustration	3.53	1.18	(3.26, 3.79)
Anxiety	3.53	1.31	(3.24, 3.82)
Inadequacy	3.32	1.22	(3.04, 3.59)
Intellectual	3.29	1.11	(3.04, 3.54)
Confusion	3.25	1.14	(3.00, 3.51)
Interested	2.91	1.05	(2.68, 3.15)
Curiosity	2.91	1.12	(2.66, 3.16)
Indifference	2.49	1.11	(2.25, 2.74)
Eagerness	2.46	1.05	(2.22, 2.70)
Boredom	2.42	1.09	(2.17, 2.66)
Excitement	2.42	1.15	(2.16, 2.68)
Anger	2.42	1.29	(2.13, 2.71)
Happiness	2.24	1.00	(2.02, 2.47)

Feelings about scholarly work varied with participants' experience as county-based faculty. Years as county-based faculty was positively correlated (r_s = 0.294, p < 0.01) with feelings of anger and negatively correlated (r_s = −0.31, p < 0.01) with feelings of happiness. Specifically, participants with more years of experience tended to report less feelings of happiness and more feelings of anger related to scholarly expectations. Feelings of happiness and feeling intellectual were significantly lower (p < 0.01) for those with an administrative appointment (happiness: 1.89, SD = 0.93; intellectual: 2.89, SD = 0.96) than for those without an administrative appointment (happiness: 2.52, SD = 0.98; intellectual: 3.61, SD = 1.13, Table 3). Those with administrative appointments reported greater indifference related to scholarly work (2.94, SD = 1.00) than those without an administrative appointment (2.14, SD = 1.07; p < 0.01). There were no significant relationships among any of the feelings assessed and highest degree achieved, completion of a thesis or dissertation, or faculty rank.

Perceived Value of Scholarly Work

Participants reported a wide range of feelings about the value of scholarly work. Table 4 displays the mean values for each of the items that assessed perceived value of scholarly work. Means ranged from 2.33 (takes me away from community needs) to 4.44 (helps me better understand my community). There were no significant correlations of perceived value of scholarly work with years as county faculty, faculty rank, highest degree, or completion of a thesis or dissertation. Participants with an administrative appointment reported lower agreement with the statement that scholarly work "helps me justify my programs"

Table 3. Relationship Between Administrative Appointment and Feelings About Scholarly Work

Feeling	County administrator (N = 35) Mean (SD)	Nonadministrator (N = 44) Mean (SD)	p <
Happiness	1.89 (0.93)	2.52 (0.98)	0.01
Intellectual	2.89 (0.96)	3.61 (1.13)	0.01
Indifference	2.94 (1.00)	2.14 (1.07)	0.01

Table 4. Perceived Value of Scholarly Work (*N* = 79)

Item[1]	Mean	SD	95% CI
Takes me away from my community[2]	2.33	1.16	(2.07, 2.59)
Elevates my status in the local community	2.70	1.30	(2.41, 2.99)
Does not apply to my everyday work[2]	3.05	1.29	(2.76, 3.34)
Makes me feel connected to the university	3.13	1.17	(2.86, 3.39)
Is good for my community	3.15	1.24	(2.87, 3.43)
Helps me better understand my impact in the community	3.22	1.33	(2.92, 3.51)
Helps me justify my programs	3.41	1.30	(3.11, 3.70)
Does not give me useful information[2]	3.44	1.16	(3.18, 3.70)
Is good for the Extension organization	3.84	1.07	(3.60, 4.07)
Elevates my status in the university community	3.94	1.09	(3.69, 4.18)
Helps me justify my programs	4.44	0.75	(4.28, 4.61)

Note. [1]Ranked on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).
[2]These items are negatively worded and reverse scored.

(2.94, *SD* = 1.35) and "is good for the Extension organization" (3.49, *SD* = 1.12) than did those without an administrative appointment (justify programs: 3.77, *SD* = 1.14; is good for the organization: 4.11, *SD* = 0.95, $p < 0.01$).

Perceived Support for Scholarly Activities

Table 5 displays the mean values reported for support for scholarly activities from various sources. Means ranged from 2.45 (local school administration) to 3.95 (program-level administration). There were no significant correlations among any of the support sources with years as county extension faculty, faculty rank, completion of a thesis or dissertation, or administrative assignment. Those with a master's degree reported greater perceived support for scholarly work from extension specialists than did those with a bachelor's degree (master's: 3.71, *SD* = 1.25, *N* = 45; bachelor's: 2.94, *SD* = 1.25, $p < 0.01$, *N* = 33).

Perceived Skills and Abilities

Table 6 displays the mean summary scores for the items in each of the domains of skill and ability. Means ranged from 2.48 (grant proposal development and grant administration) to 4.17 (program delivery). For

Table 5. Perceived Support for Scholarly Activities (*N* = 79)

Source of support[1]	Mean	SD	95% CI
Local school administration	2.45	1.24	(2.17, 2.73)
Non-Extension county officials	2.51	1.18	(2.24, 2.77)
Cooperative Extension organization	3.32	1.23	(3.04, 3.60)
Extension specialists	3.41	1.31	(3.11, 3.70)
Professional association	3.67	1.13	(3.42, 3.92)
District-level administration	3.75	1.14	(3.49, 4.00)
Program-level administration	3.95	1.10	(3.70, 4.19)

Note. [1]Ranked on a scale of 1 (Not at all supportive) to 5 (Extremely supportive).

Table 6. Perceived Skill and Ability in Areas of Extension-Related Scholarly Work (*N* = 79)

Domain of skill and ability[1]	Mean	SD	95% CI
Grant proposal development and grants administration	2.48	0.86	(2.27, 2.66)
Extension publication development[2]	2.57	0.84	(2.39, 2.77)
Research methods and peer-reviewed research publications	2.60	0.80	(2.41, 2.77)
Conference proposals and presentations	2.75	0.95	(2.50, 2.92)
Outreach program curriculum development	3.39	0.90	(3.17, 3.57)
Program delivery	4.17	0.51	(4.06, 4.29)

Note. [1]Perceived skill/ability in each domain ranked on a scale of 1 (None at all) to 5 (A great deal).
[2]*N* = 78.

brevity, means for each item within these domains are not shown. All data analysis is available upon request to the authors. Of all the items assessed, participants rated their skills and abilities lowest for "writing peer-reviewed journal articles" (2.16, *SD* = 0.88) and "writing Extension publications" (2.10, *SD* = 0.80). Participants rated their skills and abilities highest in "conducting programs and events" (4.70, *SD* = 0.56) and "delivering programs directly to clientele" (4.68, *SD* = 0.57).

There were several significant ($p < 0.01$) relationships among various skills and abilities and employment/personal characteristics. Of interest, there were significant positive correlations of perceived skills and abilities in several items related to extension program delivery (i.e., conducting and contributing to needs assessment, conducting program evaluation), extension publications (i.e., contributing to and reviewing extension publications), and reviewing conference proposals with years as county extension faculty ($r_s = 0.24–0.38$, $p < 0.01$). There were significant negative correlations between perceived skill and ability in writing peer-reviewed journal articles ($r_s = -0.33$, $p < 0.01$) and analyzing data ($r_s = -0.41$, $p < 0.001$) and years as county extension faculty. Those with an administrative assignment reported greater perceived skill and ability to review extension publications than those without administrative appointments (with administrative appointment: 2.94, *SD* = 1.14; without an administrative appointment: 2.12, *SD* = 0.91, *U* = 438.5, $p = 0.001$).

Participants with an advanced degree (master's or higher) rated their skills and abilities in conducting research, being part of a research team, and writing conference proposals/presentations higher than those with a bachelor's degree (all $p < 0.01$). Those who completed a thesis or dissertation rated their abilities significantly higher in conducting research (*U* = 303.5, $p = 0.005$). There were no other relationships between completing a thesis or dissertation and any of the other perceived skills and abilities. Participants who were at a faculty rank above entry level rated themselves higher at delivering programs directly to clientele, designing and conducting events, and writing or contributing to conference proposals (all $p < 0.01$).

Understanding of Research Methods and Tools

Table 7 displays the mean values reported for understanding of various research methods and tools. Means ranged from 1.8 (IBM SPSS) to 3.67 (program evaluation). There were no significant correlations between years as a county Extension faculty member and perceived understanding of any of the research methods or tools. Those with master's degrees reported significantly ($p < 0.01$) greater understanding of quantitative and qualitative research methods, data collection tools, statistical analysis, program fidelity, university-supported survey software, and IBM SPSS (Table 8). Similarly, those who reported completing a thesis or dissertation as part of graduate work reported significantly greater ($p < 0.01$) understanding of quantitative and qualitative research methods, data collection tools, university-supported survey

Table 7. Self-Reported Understanding of Research Methods and Tools (*N* = 79)

Research method or tool[1]	Mean	SD	95% CI
IBM SPSS	1.80	1.20	(1.53, 2.07)
Statistical analysis	2.35	1.22	(2.08, 2.63)
Program fidelity[2]	2.40	1.32	(2.10, 2.70)
University-supported survey software	2.56	1.28	(2.27, 2.84)
Quantitative research methods	2.72	1.27	(2.44, 3.01)
Qualitative research methods	2.78	1.36	(2.38, 3.09)
Data collection tools	2.81	1.21	(2.54, 3.08)
Microsoft Excel	3.22	1.24	(2.94, 3.49)
Program evaluation	3.67	1.12	(3.42, 3.92)

Note. [1]Perceived understanding in each domain ranked on a scale of 1 (Poor or Not familiar with this term) to 5 (Very good).
[2]*N* = 77.

Table 8. Relationship of Education With Understanding of Research Methods and Tools

	Highest degree Mean (SD)			Thesis/Dissertation completion Mean (SD)		
Feeling	Bachelor's (*N* = 33)	Master's (*N* = 45)	*p* <	No (*N* = 59)	Yes (*N* = 18)	*p* <
Quantitative research methods	2.09 (1.07)	3.20 (1.22)	0.01	2.46 (1.18)	3.72 (1.07)	0.01
Qualitative research methods	2.06 (1.03)	3.33 (1.33)	0.01	2.51 (1.28)	3.83 (1.10)	
Statistical analysis	1.88 (1.02)	2.71 (1.25)	0.01	3.15 (1.24)	4.0 (1.14)	NS (p = 0.011)
Data collection tools	2.24 (1.00)	3.24 (1.19)	0.01	2.58 (1.13)	3.67 (1.14)	0.01
Program fidelity[1]	1.91 (1.06)	2.77 (1.40)	0.01	3.09 (1.53)	3.72 (1.64)	NS (p = 0.10)
University-supported survey software	2.06 (1.06)	2.96 (1.30)	0.01	2.36 (1.21)	3.28 (1.27)	0.01
IBM SPSS Statistics	1.27 (0.80)	2.20 (1.31)	0.01	1.44 (0.88)	3.06 (1.35)	0.01

Note. [1]Bachelor's (n = 32), master's (n = 44).

software, and IBM SPSS software (Table 8). There were no significant relationships among faculty rank and understanding of any of the research methods or tools.

Discussion—Implications and Next Steps

Our initial survey yielded interesting and informative information that will be used to guide our ongoing project to support county-based faculty in scholarly work. More than 90% of the survey respondents are eligible for promotion, for which evidence of scholarly work is a requirement. This suggests that resources to support respondents in scholarly engagement would be useful. At the same time, respondents' skills, abilities and values related to scholarly work varied greatly. In general, those with more experience in extension reported more anger toward scholarly work and more skill in the traditional roles of the county faculty, such as conducting needs assessment and delivering programs and events. This suggests that there may be some frustration with changing expectations for increased scholarly work, and a perception of lack of competency to meet these expectations, especially among those who have been employed longer. Interestingly, those with administrative appointments felt more indifference for scholarly work and reported less value for scholarly work. It is possible that those with an administrative appointment already feel "stretched thin" and thus place less value on these perceived added expectations. More research is needed to examine this topic.

Notably, having an advanced degree or completing a thesis or dissertation was related to greater perceived competence in research-specific activities, methods, and tools. In contrast, years as county extension faculty, administrative appointment, and faculty rank were not related to competence in these activities. This finding supports the recent change in requirements at our university to require a master's degree for placement in the public service faculty ranks. Since 2015, new hires without a master's degree no longer are eligible for immediate public service faculty placement (Office of the Vice President, 2021). Although a master's degree is now required for immediate placement into a public service faculty position, a thesis as part of the master's program is not required. Public service faculty members who have completed a thesis or dissertation may have more formal training for the scholarly work UGA Extension desires than those completing graduate education with a portfolio or other nonthesis option. It will be important for UGA Extension to monitor whether actual scholarly productivity among county extension faculty increases with completion of any graduate degree or only with completion of a graduate degree requiring a thesis or dissertation.

In general, participants ranked their perceived skill and ability as low in many tools and concepts that may be important for meaningful involvement in community-engaged research. This result suggests a clear need and opportunity for professional development to increase skills and abilities in these tools and concepts for community-engaged research for all county faculty, not just those without a graduate degree.

Although not specifically addressed in this survey, comprehensive training in community-engaged research should address all aspects of the research process from engagement with the community to developing research questions and priorities to design, implementation, data analysis, and communication of results in academic and nonacademic settings. The interpersonal and organizational skills needed to meaningfully engage communities in research are as important as the technical and methodological skills needed to design and implement a research project, analyze data, and produce research publications. These skills in community-engaged research will also be essential for the community-based extension professionals as they seek to maintain trusted relationships in the community that they serve.

One area with a higher perceived skill and ability was within the extension publications domain. County faculty rated their confidence in reading extension publications higher than other items within the extension publication domain (i.e., writing, reviewing, contributing to extension publications). This may indicate the historical, one-way service of extension faculty disseminating knowledge to clientele rather than two-way engagement (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008) and suggests extension faculty are not yet fully prepared for two-way, reciprocal engagement with their local communities.

The differences between new county faculty

and experienced county faculty in attitudes toward scholarship are not surprising and highlight an important cultural change in our organization. County faculty who were hired recently have come into an extension system where scholarly productivity is a clearly communicated expectation. These faculty members are more positive about the idea of engaging in scholarly work than county faculty who have been in UGA Extension for many years. Those experienced faculty were hired when county faculty were expected to focus on needs assessment and community programming, but not necessarily on traditionally defined scholarship. Not surprisingly, these more experienced county faculty members express more negative feelings about the changed expectations and are more likely to perceive these new expectations as an unwanted expansion of their job responsibilities.

These initial survey data highlight clearly the need for better communication about the value of scholarly productivity in community-based outreach work, especially for county faculty members who have been employed by UGA Extension for some time and for those with an administrative appointment. In addition, we infer that there may be value in providing training to familiarize county faculty members with some of the core concepts and tools for engaging in research, such as qualitative and quantitative research methods and program fidelity, particularly for those who may not have had the formal training through a research-focused graduate degree. In addition, training in community-engaged research that values and treats community members as equal partners in the research process may also benefit extension faculty who have a negative view of research. Lastly, similar training for and communication with community members on the value of conducting research to inform programming may benefit county faculty who indicated that scholarly work takes them away from their community.

Next Steps in Supporting Scholarship Among County Faculty

At the end of the survey, participants had the opportunity to self-identify whether they would like to participate in further discussion on these topics. Our next immediate step was to conduct focus groups to expand our understanding of these survey results. We followed the survey with four focus groups of four to six county faculty conducted in the December and January following survey implementation. Rapid and focused qualitative assessment of the focus group data was used to identify immediate next steps. From these focus groups, two primary themes emerged: (1) faculty needed and desired focused training in research methods, and (2) protected time was essential for scholarly productivity within the busy schedule of a county faculty member. Our next step in the ongoing project is to develop a pilot county faculty learning community with eight 4-H and FACS agents to enhance community-engaged research knowledge and skills. Although not the only form of scholarly productivity, this area was identified as the most "feared" aspect of scholarship and the area where county extension faculty desired immediate support.

The learning community will include a minimum of three in-person training workshops on how to conduct research (e.g., creating an IRB proposal, conducting an in-depth library search), as well as protected time and peer-to-peer support to design and implement a qualitative research project and to analyze and report qualitative research data over the course of one year. The goals of the proposed pilot learning community are to (1) provide practical support for county faculty conducting community-based research and (2) bolster faculty confidence in their ability to engage in research as a tool to strengthen their community programming.

Another key step in moving this project forward is to share an in-depth report of county faculty perceptions, based on both survey and focus group data, with university administrators responsible for county faculty performance evaluations. The goal of sharing this information is to help administrators understand and appreciate the challenges of changing scholarly expectations, in hopes that administrators will consider putting in place varied job responsibilities and performance evaluations for county faculty as a way to reduce stress during the shift of the organizational culture toward more traditional scholarly work.

In addition, it will be imperative to educate community partners, elected officials, and school administrators to recognize the value in scholarly work. County faculty members identified these groups as lowest in perceived support. Receiving direct feedback from these community partners about their

perceptions of scholarly work would also assist in the development of next steps for county faculty in their own local relationships.

Beyond the specific steps in practice at our institution, this research can also benefit other land-grant universities. The diversity of faculty and staff types for county-based extension positions deserves additional study. Our institution employs a unique public service faculty track for county-based faculty members. Other institutions include county-based extension employees in a variety of roles, including professional staff to tenure-track (Olsen, 2005). Additional research may provide insight to the influences and impacts of these varied structures.

Lessons Learned—Defining Scholarship for County Faculty

Throughout this process, it has become evident that the University of Georgia does not have a mutually agreed-upon definition of scholarship applicable to all faculty. Academic departments are expected to define scholarship for faculty based on standard practices in their field of study. Having an explicit definition of scholarship providing flexibility to encompass the diversity of disciplines and faculty roles at the University of Georgia may be beneficial. This definition must still maintain the rigor required at a top-tier research-intensive university. This change may support county faculty members by clarifying expectations and providing a framework for evaluating scholarship within the context of their county-based role. County faculty may benefit from a definition of scholarship similar to the one used at Oregon State University, which states that scholarship is original, "creative intellectual work that is validated by peers and communicated" (Weiser & Houglum, 1998).

Once UGA Extension or the University of Georgia develops an agreed-upon definition of scholarship, administrators may need to consider the appropriate place(s) of county faculty members within the scholarship production cycle, given their expertise and job responsibilities. The experiences and results of our project, including this survey and the planned pilot county faculty learning community, will better inform administrators of the time, effort, and results of preparing these individuals for scholarly work.

Conclusions

The increase in scholarly expectations for county faculty represents an organizational shift occurring across our university and across the nation. Although this study focused on our university's Cooperative Extension Service, results may provide insights for many institutions with extension or outreach faculty striving to contribute to the body of knowledge in the competitive academic world. Based on these initial survey results, resources are needed to address negative perceptions about the value of scholarly work and lack of competency in tools and methods, particularly among those who have worked in outreach for many years without the explicit expectation of scholarly productivity and who have little or no formal training in research. Proactive, supportive leaders who understand that this culture shift takes time and intentionality are necessary to make this change smoother and less stressful for county faculty. Leaders at our university have demonstrated this support for county faculty by allocating resources for a proposed pilot of a county faculty learning community aimed at developing scholarly skills. Results of these next steps will be informative for other universities considering best practices to support their own training and development needs.

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Regular Farm Family Visits as an Approach to Community Engagement and Learning in Agricultural Higher Education: A Sri Lankan Experience

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Abstract

This study employed a mixed-methods approach to evaluate the regular farm family visits by undergraduate students of the Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya in Sri Lanka as a community engagement and learning approach. Data was collected using a questionnaire survey with the students (N = 145) and structured interviews with the host farm families (N = 40). The journals submitted by students on their learning experience were also examined as a qualitative measure. According to the results of the study, farm families have served as a "social laboratory" for the students, and both students and the community have benefited. Elements of community-based learning, experiential learning, service-learning, and problem-based learning were identified as the embedded characteristics of this learning approach. Identifying strengths and limitations would be important to improve this pedagogical method of community engagement and learning in agricultural higher education.

Keywords: community-based learning, community engagement, agricultural higher education, host community, university–community partnership

Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya is the pioneer in agricultural higher education in Sri Lanka. It was established in 1948. The university offers a degree of bachelor of science (B.Sc.) in agricultural technology and management, along with other two degrees: B.Sc. in food science and technology and B.Sc. in animal science and fisheries. Peradeniya is a suburban area of the Kandy district in the central hills of the country, an area that belongs to the wet zone of Sri Lanka. Food crop production, including the staple food (rice), is less prominent in the wet zone than in the dry zone. Consequently, the surrounding community of the university (main campus) is not an agricultural community. Therefore, a Sub Campus of the Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya, was established in 1968 in a remote agricultural area called Mahailuppallama, which belongs to the Anuradhapura district of the dry zone of Sri Lanka. This location is about 80 miles away from the main campus at Peradeniya (Figure 1).

Students who follow the Bachelor of Science degree program in agricultural technology and management at the Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya are required to complete a residential practical training for 16 weeks at the Mahailuppallama Sub Campus during their first year. The main purpose of this residential training is to provide opportunities for the students to gain hands-on experience in the subjects they study. It also lays the foundation for learning agriculture and allied subjects during the next three and half years of their degree program offered at the main campus at Peradeniya. Currently, the academic program at the Sub Campus consists of seven courses of study: Crop

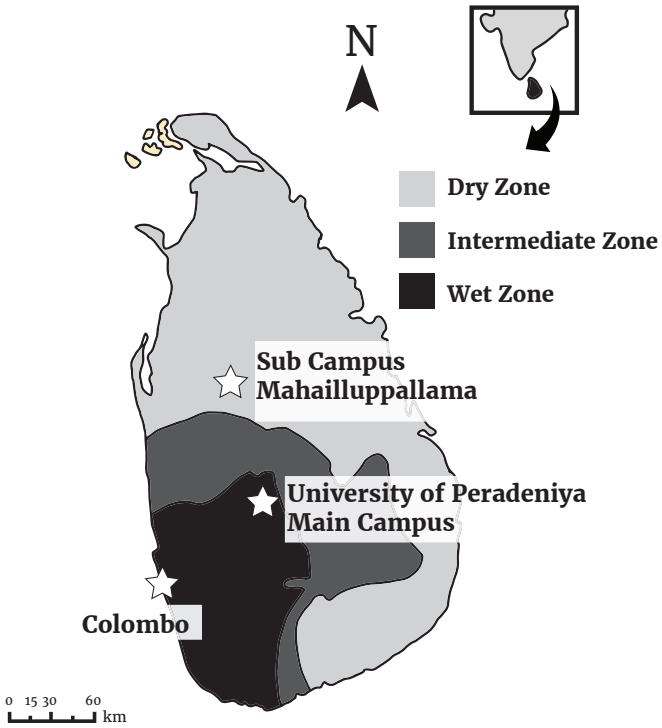

Figure 1. Geographical Locations of the Main Campus at Peradeniya and Sub Campus at Mahailuppallama

Production Technologies, Soil Resources and Ecosystems, Applied Agribusiness, Field Engineering, Developmental Extension, Principles and Practices of Animal Production, and Botany of Field Crops. These courses are offered by the respective seven academic departments of the faculty. The practical crop production program is designed to give the students hands-on experience in all agronomic practices for a variety of crops, from land preparation to harvesting.

Sri Lanka is divided into three main agro-ecological zones: the wet zone, the intermediate zone, and the dry zone (Figure 1). However, two thirds of the land extent of Sri Lanka belongs to the dry zone, having agro-climatic conditions suitable for food crop production. Therefore, the Sub Campus is located in an ideal place to provide the undergraduates with essential practical skills for dry zone agriculture. More important, opportunities are available for students to build close connections with the nearby farming community and agriculture-related government institutions such as the Field Crop Research and Development Centre, Farm Mechanization Centre, In-service Training Institute, Block Management Office of the Mahaweli irrigation system, Government Seed Farm, and the Institute of Post-Harvest Technology. The students are expected to have a good rapport with the farm families and study the farm family and their farming throughout the season, paying frequent visits and making close observations.

Having real-world experience beyond the classroom settings is an important component of the higher educational learning process. Community-based learning (Melaville et al., 2006), experiential learning (Andreasen, 2004), service-learning (Astin et al., 2000), and problem-based learning (Hung et al., 2008) are some examples of pedagogical leaning techniques that are being used in a wide variety of education contexts. Kolb (1984) defined experiential learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 41). Experiential learning approaches have been identified as a successful strategy to teach agriculture across the literature (Baker et al., 2012; Edziwa et al., 2012). Even though teaching and research are considered traditional roles of higher education institutions, higher education institutions around the globe have

embedded a third component called outreach into their curricula. Outreach engagement is mandatory for agricultural higher education institutions (Hansen, 1989) that could enhance their curricula through the application of learning concepts and theories like community-based learning, service-learning, problem-based learning, and experiential learning while providing opportunities for students to achieve their expected levels of competencies. The University Grant Commission of Sri Lanka has also identified outreach as a mandate for Sri Lankan state universities. Moreover, community engagement, consultancy, and outreach activities have been included as part of the evaluation criteria in reviewing for quality of higher education institutions in Sri Lanka (Warnasuriya et al., 2015). The Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya has attempted to design its curriculum in a way that provides maximum learning opportunities for students in various ways throughout the degree program, including giving opportunities for community and outreach engagement to improve their knowledge, skills, and attitudes as determined by the expected graduate profiles. The Mahailuppallama Sub Campus of the faculty provides ample opportunities for first-year undergraduate students for community engagement, especially with the rural farming community.

Beyond the technical knowledge of agriculture as a science and an industry, an aspiring agricultural professional must be competent and understanding about community interactions, social dynamics, social stratifications, social class, norms, values, beliefs, social change, and culture. Therefore, the Faculty of Agriculture has identified the need to expose students to real-world experiences and community engagements throughout the degree program at different levels. The farm family visits program is one of the mandatory components of the practical residential training for first-year undergraduate students at the Mahailuppallama Sub Campus.

Understanding and liaising with the rural community is one of the expected outcomes of the course Developmental Extension. Therefore, as one of the practical components of this subject, students are formed into groups of four or five, and each group is sent out to a farming family in the surrounding area during the 16 weeks of residential training at Mahailuppallama Sub Campus. Forty host farm families participate in the program each year. The host families are contacted through the three community-based farmer organizations in the area, and they voluntarily participate in the activity. Host families have the freedom to continue or discontinue at any time. However, most of the families show their willingness to continue the participation each year. The host families are selected on the basis of farming involvement and their willingness to participate voluntarily. The students are expected to study the assigned farm families and build a good rapport with them by paying frequent visits throughout the semester. Although making this close connection with the farm families is one of the practical components of Developmental Extension, this opportunity is used for community-based learning components of other subjects offered at the Mahailuppallama Sub Campus. This partnership provides the opportunity for not only students but also academic staff members to interact with the community.

Objectives of this community-based learning component of Developmental Extension are clearly defined. At the end of the practical component, students should be able to (1) identify the structure of the farm family and the types of income-earning activities they are involved in, (2) recognize the major requirements for successful farming, (3) identify the types of opportunities and facilities made available for the farmers by governmental, nongovernmental, and private sector organizations, (4) understand the time budget of the farm family (to look at the farm family from gender perspectives), (5) understand social obligations of the farm family, (6) be aware of the farm family's changing needs and aspirations, and (7) appreciate the culture, diversity of work, and types of decisions that farmers have to make. Students are encouraged to build close connections with their assigned farm family and the community by making frequent visits and engaging with their agricultural and community activities where possible. Students are expected to participate in at least one farming activity, such as land preparation, seeding, planting, fertilization, weeding, harvesting, or sorting/grading. As the final outcome of this practical component, the students are required to maintain a journal regarding their learning experiences. At the end of the semester, the students organize a farmer day within the Sub Campus for the mutual benefit of

the community members and the students. Individual host families are invited by the students, and the community at large is invited through a poster campaign and public announcements. Invitation letters are also sent to local schools to invite schoolchildren who are studying agriculture. Resource persons from the nearby government agricultural organizations also participate in the event.

Various opportunities for student interactions with the nearby farming community have been available from the inception of the Mahailuppallama Sub Campus. However, this university–community partnership has not yet been analyzed, evaluated, reported, or documented in detail.

Objectives

The general objective of this study was to describe and document the university–community partnership of the Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka. The specific objectives were (1) to determine the students' level of interest toward the farm family visits, (2) to determine the level of satisfaction of students and their assigned families, (3) to identify the problems and limitations faced by the students and host farm families, and (4) to make recommendations for improvements and sustainability.

Theoretical Framework

David Kolb's (1984) theory of experiential learning was used as the theoretical framework for this study. Kolb's experiential learning cycle works on two levels: a four-stage cycle of learning and four learning styles. The learner's internal cognition process is the main concern of this theory. According to Kolb, abstract concepts can be flexibly applied to different situations. New experiences are transformed to create knowledge. The experiential learning cycle has four stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. When the learner experiences something new or reinterprets an existing experience, it is a concrete experience. Visiting farm families and meeting with farmers was a new experience for undergraduate students and thus can be interpreted as a concrete experience. The next stage of the experiential learning cycle is the process of reflecting on the experience in the first stage. Maintenance of a reflective journal throughout the farm family visits in which students reflect on the new experiences constitutes this stage. The summary of the reflections helps the students conceptualize their reflections and progress to the third experiential learning stage, abstract conceptualization. The final stage of experiential learning, active experimentation, was also put into practice. Through their experience of close engagement with the farm families and the community, the students are able to identify training and information that will benefit the farmers. To address these needs, the students organize and conduct a farmer day for the community. This is a kind of service provided by the student (university) to the community. Therefore, this activity has some service-learning characteristics—that is, it connects service to a learning experience. Figure 2 summarizes the university–community interactions and the benefits to both students (university) and the community through the reciprocal relationship (partnership).

Methodology

A mixed-methods design was used to meet the purpose of this study. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Both the host farm families and the students were considered for the study. A questionnaire survey was conducted to collect data from the students (N = 145). The questionnaire had three main sections: (1) background information (gender; urban, semi urban, or rural area of living; occupation of parents); (2) past experience (subjects followed for the university entrance exam, past experience in agriculture and community work); (3) farm family visits (number of home/farm visits, activities, importance of the visits, satisfaction about the activity, support extended by host families, limitations/problems faced, and suggestions for improvements). Meantime, face-to-face interviews were performed with all farm families (N = 40) who participated in this activity as the host community. Perceived importance/benefit of this activity for the two parties (students and host families) was measured by taking responses from the host families for four statements as (1) important for students only, (2) important for both the host families and students, (3) not important for both students and host families, and (4) neutral. A five-point

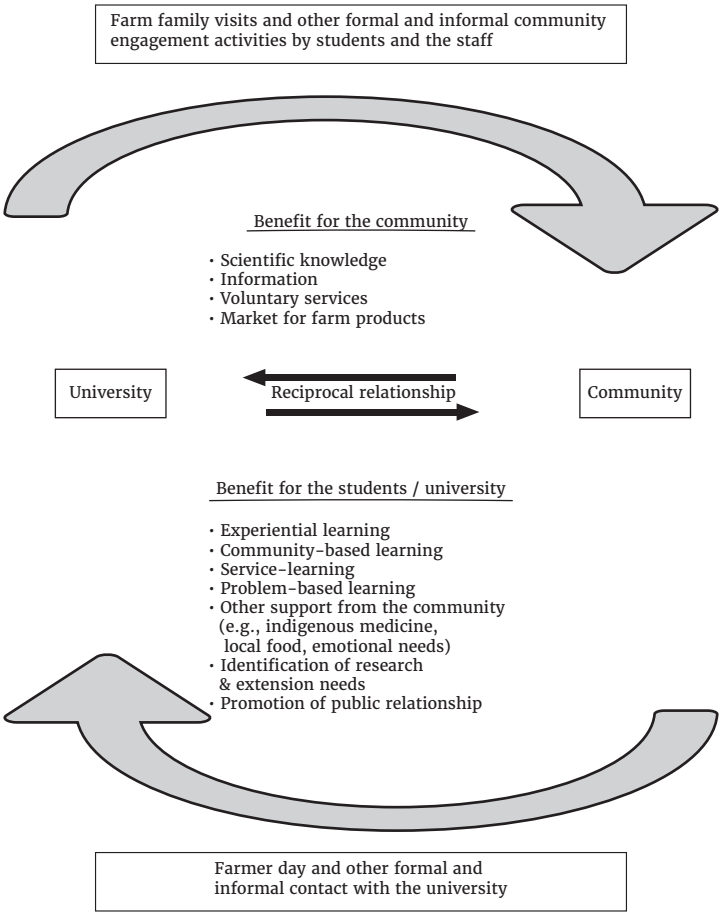

Figure 2. University–Community Interactions and the Benefits to Students, University, and Community

Likert scale (*like very much, like moderately, like a little, neutral, not like at all*) was used to measure the response (liking) of the host farm families toward the activity. The questionnaire or interview concluded with an open-ended question asking for suggestions to improve this activity. As qualitative data, the students' journals were analyzed for the experience of the students. Students had expressed their views on the activity using preface, conclusion, and recommendation sections. Farm families were introduced to the students during the first week of the semester. Guidelines for the study were given at the beginning. However, instructions were provided continuously throughout the semester about general conduct, and theoretical concepts (social class, caste, social structure, kingship, norms, beliefs, social mobility, social change, etc.) were explained during the classroom lectures. Teaching and learning was connected to the farm families and the community by taking examples from the community and by brainstorming. Data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Basically, the results were explained using descriptive statistics, and qualitative data were summarized and reported.

Students' learning was assessed in three different ways. Mainly, students were asked to prepare a journal on their learning, which was assigned 10% of the final practical grade. Second, an oral examination was held to assess the learning from all seven practical assignments in the Developmental Extension class, including the farm family visits. Students were asked to bring their journal for the oral examination. A panel of judges evaluated their learning during farm family visits. Third, questions were included in the written exam. The journals were also used to examine the experience and learning of the students.

Students were asked to concentrate on

multiple topics during their farm family visits and address these in their journals to be submitted at the end of the semester. Twelve topics were required: (1) history of the village; (2) farm family: structure, age, gender, education level, occupations, living status, and so on; (3) farm enterprise: types of economic activities undertaken, land use pattern, land ownership, labor management for different farming activities, availability and use of farm inputs, production, income, expenses, and savings; (4) farmer's social background: norms, values, customs and traditions, and related cultural background; (5) types of social organizations that the family associates with; (6) time budget of the farm family (gender budgeting); (7) public and private agricultural service organizations the family has contacts with; (8) social obligations; (9) challenges and opportunities faced by the farm family when managing the farm; (10) problems and limitations that the family experiences; (11) attitudes and aspirations of the family members; and (12) changing lifestyles of farmers.

Results and Discussion

Background of the Students

Among the respondents, the majority were female (60%) and the rest (40%) were male. Students represented 24 administrative districts out of 25 districts in Sri Lanka. A majority of the students (52%) were from semiurban areas of the country, whereas 29% were from urban areas. Only 19% of the students were from rural areas of the country (Figure 3). Since agriculture is not very prominent in urban and semiurban areas of the country, it was assumed that a majority of the respondents considered for this study did not have a background and experience in agriculture.

Students were asked whether they had any kind of experience in farming before joining the university. A majority of the students (70%) did not have any farming experience, highlighting the importance of the residential crop production program at Mahailuppallama Sub Campus as well as the farm family visits.

Background of the Farming Community and the Farmers

Mahailuppallama is located in Anuradhapura district of the North Central Province of Sri Lanka, which belongs to the dry zone (Figure 1). However, Mahailuppallama is a block of the Mahaweli System H; it receives irrigation water for cultivation from the largest irrigation development project in Sri Lanka, which is based on the Mahaweli River. Therefore, the two nearby villages selected to connect with host farm families were irrigation settlements. Presently, third and fourth generations of the settlers are living in the area.

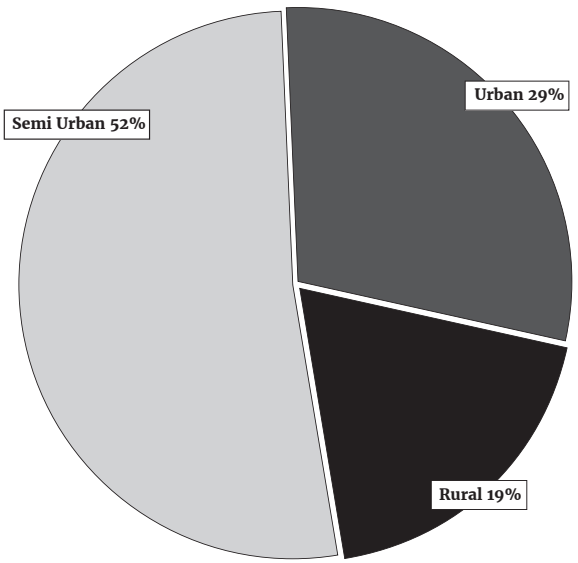

Figure 3. Nature of the Students' Hometown (Rural, Urban, Semiurban)

Farm families were located 2–3 miles from the Sub Campus. Among the total of 40 host farm families, 30 famers were full-time farmers, and 10 farmers were part-time farmers who were also engaged in income-generating activities other than farming. A majority of the household heads were males (33), and there were seven female-headed farm families. Figure 4 shows the age distribution of the farmers, indicating that the majority of the farmers were in the age category 51–60 years.

Time Spent on Farm Family Visits and Involvement with the Farm Family

According to the theory of involvement (Astin, 1984), the extent to which students can achieve particular developmental goals is a direct function of the time and effort they devote to activities designed to achieve the goals. In the present study, time and effort taken in farm family visits were encountered as the involvement. Number of farm family visits and types of activities accomplished were explored as the measurement of involvement. The students were encouraged and motivated by the respective academic staff to visit the farm families throughout the semester, especially covering the different crop growth stages of the farmers' fields. About 81% of the students were engaged in farming-related activities, such as land preparation, planting, weeding, fertilizer and agrochemical application, and harvesting and grading of farm products with their assigned farm families. However, 19% of the students had not joined the farming activities with the farm families. Students attributed their lack of involvement to difficulties in coordinating the time of the families' farming activities with the students' available free time.

Preference of the Students for Farm Family Visits Relative to Other Assignments

Seven practical assignments have been allocated for the course Developmental Extension (EX1101) offered at the Sub Campus. Students need to visit three nearby government institutes related to agricultural development of the region/country: the In-service Training Institute (IsTI), Agrarian Service Centre (ASC), and the Institute of Post-Harvest Technology (IPHT) to study the organizational structure, service provided, and other important aspects. Students also need to study a community-based organization (CbO) in the area and the Participatory Irrigation Management System (PIMS) for irrigation water management. As their final practical assignment for the Developmental Extension course, students are supposed to conduct a farmer day on the Sub Campus premises; this activity is aimed at the nearby farming community and schoolchildren. Students were asked to rank the seven practical assignments according to their preference. Figure 5 shows the ranked preferences of the students.

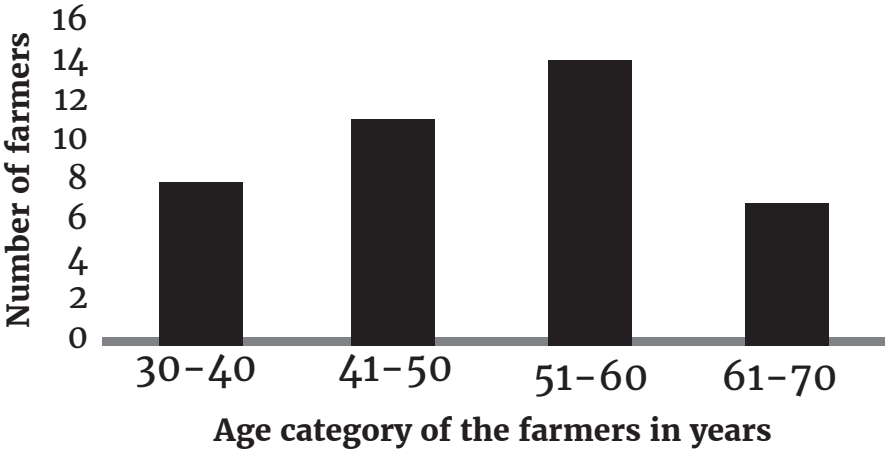

Figure 4. Age Category of the Farm Family Heads in Years

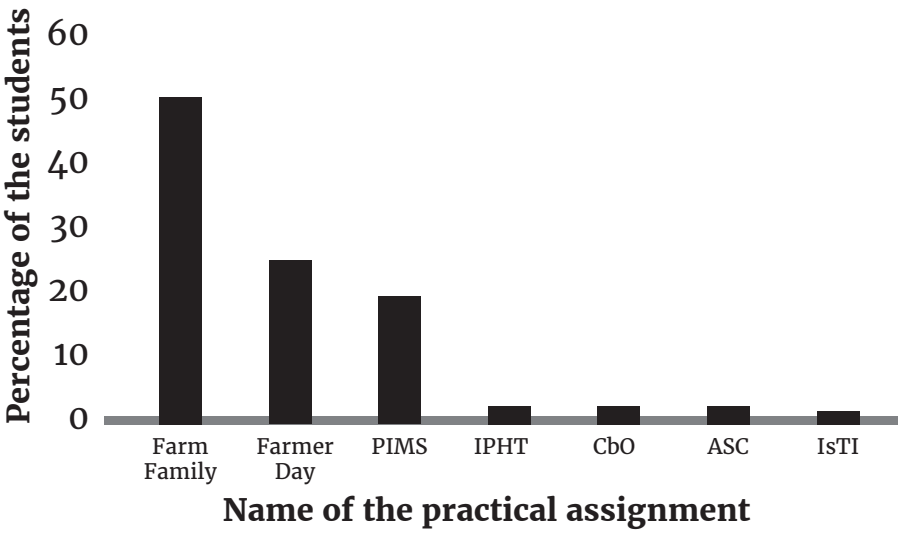

Figure 5. Students' Ranked Preferences for the Practical Assignments

Out of the seven practical assignments allocated for EX1101, farm family visits were ranked as the first preference by 50% of the students. Only 1% of the students ranked them as the least preferred assignment. Accordingly, farm family visit was the mostly preferred practical by a majority of the students. Farmer day was the second most preferred practical among the students. These results also revealed that students mostly preferred community-based engagements and activities over the organizational visits (IsTI, IPHT, ASC, and CbO). It is possible to assume that students are more interested in engaging with the community and that they learn more when the learning is interesting.

Level of Satisfaction With Farm Family Visits

When the students were asked to rank the level of satisfaction regarding this community-based learning activity, about 59% of students gave the ranking *highly satisfied*, followed by 39% and 2% with the rankings *satisfied* and *neutral*, respectively. None of the respondents gave a response of *dissatisfied* with this learning activity.

Level of Support From Host Families

About 59% of the students stated that their host family was "highly supportive," and about 31% rated their host family "supportive" (Figure 6). These responses indicate that most selected host families extended their support to the students in this activity, which was an important factor in its success.

When the students were asked about their intention to continue the relationship with their host families after they left the Sub Campus, about 92% of students stated that they would continue the relationship with their host families. It has been observed that the students visit their host farm families even after they have graduated. Also, according to the discussions with the farm families, they have benefited in different ways through the long-term relationship with the students. Specifically, they stay in contact with the students via telephone and seek assistance sometimes. For instance, they ask for assistance and information regarding their children's education and farming problems they face. Such ongoing interactions can be attributed to the close relationship, mutual support, and trust developed during the farm family visits. Therefore, it can be stated that this university–community interaction opened up opportunities for both community members and students for networking and thereby improved participants' social capital.

Level of Importance Associated With Farm Family Visits

The majority of the respondents perceived this community-based learning experience as very important (67%) or important (32%). The rest (1%) rated the experience

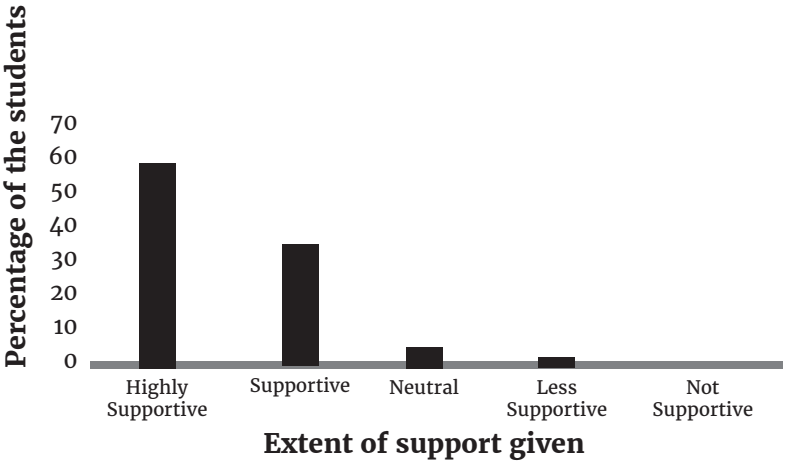

Figure 6. Level of Support From Host Families

neutral. A move from teaching in the classroom to a community-based learning style has profound implications. Table 1 shows some of the comments in the reflective journals submitted by students that reflect the importance of academic, social, and emotional learning aspects of this community-based learning activity.

Several students expressed their satisfaction regarding the study family visits in their journal, referring to the farm family as a "home away from home." The intimate and informal connections to the farm family accommodated social and emotional needs of the students, which provided a favorable psychological condition when they were learning residentially in a remote area away from their own families. This is especially important for the first-year students since staying in a remote area away from their families was a first-time experience for a majority of the students.

Benefit for the Community

Clearly, students get an important opportunity to have close interactions with the rural farming community and learn through that experience. However, the community also benefited from this activity both directly and indirectly. Students usually share the scientific knowledge they gain from the university with farmers while they learn from the experience of the farmers. Also, students seek the assistance of the university staff to assist farmers with some problems. For instance, sometimes students bring live plant specimens to the university to identify pest and disease problems of the crops. Farmers get another opportunity to sell their farm products to the university students through the relationship they build through the farm family visits. In each year, students form food groups to get their food. Usually they visit an economic center established near the Sub Campus to

Table 1. Selected Comments in Students' Reflective Journals

"Our farm family was a home away from home"
"Really enjoyed while learning through experience"
"I learned to respect culture and traditions of the farmers"
"A great opportunity to study the life of a rural farmer"
"An unforgettable and worthwhile experience in my life"
"Our farm family considered us as the members of their family"
"An opportunity for me to smell the essence of the dry zone farmer and the farming"
"Helpful to understand the application of theories learned in the classroom settings"

buy vegetables, fruits, and more to meet their food requirements. However, they also buy some vegetables, fruits, rice, coconut, and other products from the community. Specifically, they buy some underutilized uncommon vegetables (leafy vegetables, jackfruit) and tank (inland) fish from the community. However, such purchases are not always possible due to limited quantity being available and also due to inability to provide a continuous supply. Students also have participated in *shramadana* campaigns (volunteer work) in the village to clean the irrigation channels. This is a service to the community that also helps students grow as responsible citizens. Students also provided free teaching assistance to the children of the farm families. In addition, some students voluntarily worked in the Sunday school of the village temple. Moreover, the farmer day conducted on the university premises is another benefit to the farmers and the community in general.

Farmer Day

Students organize a "farmer day" as one of the assignments of the practical component of Developmental Extension. It is conducted at the end of the semester on the university premises aiming to benefit the host farm families and other farmers in the area and students of schools who are studying agriculture. The crop grown by students and different agronomic practices were used as demonstration plots. Research officers of the nearby Field Crop Research and Development Institute and agriculture officers of the Department of Agriculture were invited to support the farmer day as technical experts. Students invite the host farm families for the farmer day. According to the results of the present study, 77% of the host farm families had participated in the farmer day. Host families' farming problems and their training needs were considered during the training need assessment and planning for the farmer day; the event provided an opportunity for problem-based learning and experience sharing for both students and the staff. It also is an opportunity for students to practice agricultural extension while providing a service to the community, aligning with the concept of service-learning. The outreach or extension tasks of an agricultural university refer to the more direct contribution of higher agricultural education to agricultural and rural development (Bor et al., 1989). Accordingly, this community engagement contributes to rural agricultural development as well.

Factors That Influence Effectiveness and Success of the Farm Family Visits

Time of day and distance to farm families were identified as the most influential factors when the respondents were asked to mention the factors that influence the effectiveness of farm family visits. Students were supposed to visit their farm families during evenings, weekends, and public holidays. Push bicycles were the means of transport. Students have mentioned that it was not possible for them to visit the farms and engage in farming activities in the evenings. Moreover, some students do not stay at the hostel during weekends and public holidays since they go back to their residential homes. Although the host families were selected from nearby villages, the frequency of students' visits to the farm families in the very close vicinity was comparatively high. In the reflective journals that the respondents were supposed to maintain, they have mentioned these hands-on activities as helpful for understanding the practical application of theories they learned in classroom settings.

The rural community in Sri Lanka places a high value and respect toward the university students. Their cultural generosity and hospitality are some other reasons behind the success of this initiative. In its World Giving Index, Charities Aid Foundation (CAF) ranked Sri Lanka in eighth place in 2015 (CAF, 2015) and ninth place in 2019 (CAF, 2019), which gives an indication of the generosity of the country. All students received refreshments and even lunch and dinner from their host family while gradually building a close relationship. Furthermore, all student groups had given some gifts to their farm family at their own cost when visiting and at the end of the course. In general, rural people are reluctant to disclose their lives, including farming and related practices. Therefore, the close relationship and trust built with the host family help students to explore the real farmer and farming.

Examples were taken from the community and related to classroom learning whenever possible. Students mentioned in their reflective journals that the continuous support and regular monitoring of the staff were helpful.

Suggestions of the Students for Improving Farm Family Visits

Students were asked for suggestions as an open-ended question on the questionnaire. Seventy percent (70%) of the respondents offered suggestions for improvements. Presently, the course timetable allocates time (4 hours) only for student groups' first visit to the farm families. No other specific time has been allocated in the course schedule for students to visit farm families. Students visited their farm families and farms during evenings, weekends, and public holidays. When asked about their suggestions for improving farm family visits, about 23% of the students highlighted the importance of allocating a specific time in the course schedule to make the visits more interactive and experiential. Unfortunately, there are limitations on allocating more time within the available timetable. However, it may be possible to allocate some independent learning hours in the timetable to this activity.

In addition to the agriculture-related activities, students provided other, indirect services to their host families. For instance, students have shared their knowledge and experiences with the children of farm families, supporting them in their school education. Some children received learning resources like books and writing materials from university students. On the other hand, the farm families visited the university for the cultural show and religious events conducted by the students, strengthening mutual understanding, coexistence, and their relationship. Therefore, it was revealed that this learning initiative opened avenues for students to perform some civic responsibilities while learning. Also, the students had engaged with cultural and religious events of their farm families and the village, which helped them in sociocultural understanding.

In agriculture education, "wholeness" of a system (e.g., the agricultural environment as a whole) should be studied (Blum, 1996). The idea is that parts cannot be fully understood without looking at the whole or viewing the system holistically. Although this community engagement was initiated for the course Developmental Extension, this linkage with farming families created an opportunity for students to utilize the knowledge they gained in other courses, such as Field Engineering, Crop Production Technologies, and Applied Agribusiness, to gain a holistic understanding of the "farmer" and "farming."

Conclusions and Recommendations

The farming community near the campus has served as a "social laboratory" for the students. Results of this study indicated that both the students and the host families were interested and valued this activity. This community engagement activity provides a valuable opportunity for students to experience community-based learning, experiential learning, and problem-based learning, as well as having service-learning characteristics.

Based on the interest, perceived benefits, and positive effects to both students and the host families and the community, the regular farm family visit approach can be recommended for other agricultural higher educational institutions with similar backgrounds. Possible improvements and changes should be performed depending on the context. It is important to integrate the appropriate components of other subjects taught in the degree program with the farm family visits in order to provide a holistic learning opportunity for students. Reasonable time should be allocated from the course schedule to visit the farm families. To sustain the activity in the long run, there should be an adequate mechanism to cover the host farm families' opportunity cost and to show appreciation for their service provided. Students should be encouraged to engage with more farming practices of the host family to learn by doing and as a service to them. Peer learning and sharing the experience among the students is also recommended. Further strategies should be developed to mutually benefit the students, host farm families, and their community to support long-term existence of this kind of community-based learning initiative. Based on the findings, this community-based learning approach can be recommended for similar kinds of teaching and learning contexts and environments in this region and throughout the world.

Note

Institutional approval was not required to conduct the study and publish the results.

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Audio Description for All: Serving the Low Vision Spanish-Speaking Community in the United States

María José García-Vizcaíno

Abstract

Audio description (AD), narrative description of key visual elements for visually impaired or blind audiences, is provided in English in the United States; however, Spanish-language AD is almost nonexistent. Because Spanish is the most spoken and fastest growing non-English language in this country, training translation students to provide AD in Spanish fills a gap for the visually impaired Latino population. This article shows how a project on AD for the theater was used in a community-based course at Montclair State University (New Jersey), what challenges we encountered, and how those challenges were overcome. I also provide a step-by-step program plan to help implement such initiatives. In addition to learning about AD, I guided my students to reflect critically upon language, arts, and accessibility in the multicultural reality of the United States.

Keywords: audio description, Spanish, theater, community engagement, accessibility

The Community-Engaged Teaching and Learning (CETL) Fellows Program at Montclair State University (MSU) conjoins MSU and various communities in mutually beneficial endeavors pertaining to pedagogy, scholarship, and applied project work. The program's purposes are the following: (a) to nurture a culture among MSU's educator/scholar/practitioners that values civic and/or political engagement and (b) to foster participants' topical learning with regard to issues, concepts, and applied techniques of community-engaged pedagogy (including but not limited to service-learning), community-engaged scholarship (including community-based/participatory action research methods), or community-engaged activities that build partnerships and infrastructure that strengthen communities' civic and/or political fabric. CETL fellows meet monthly throughout two academic years, as well as regularly in learning-partner pairs or small groups, and regularly use functions of Canvas (the university platform to manage courses) to share content, coordinate project work, and facilitate collaboration.

During the first year, fellows attend plenary sessions where they learn about concepts, issues, and techniques of community-engaged teaching and learning, and conceive and begin work on specific projects related to pedagogy, research, and/or application. Throughout this work, they are supported by learning partners, who are fellows in the program's second year. In this fashion, each fellow is assigned a mentor in a group of five or six fellows who meet once a month to discuss strategies of community-engaged pedagogy and share challenges experienced in community-based projects and possible solutions. In addition, fellows also attend sessions where guest speakers present models of community engagement. During the second year, fellows continue their project work while serving as learning partners for the cohort of first-year fellows.

These activities culminate in a newly created or revised community-engaged course, conceived in collaboration with a specific community partner or partners. These service-learning courses engage students in collaborative and academically based experiential learning activities that meet

community needs. Each course provides opportunities for students to reflect on their service experience in order to gain a better understanding of course content and discipline at the same time that they enhance a sense of civic responsibility and personal growth. Service-learning courses at MSU are generally associated with community organizations (community partners) in the Township of Montclair and other surrounding communities, such as New York.

AD as a Service-Learning Course

I was admitted to the CETL Fellows Program in July 2019. The purpose of my project was to create a course where students could learn the theory and practice of audio description (AD) in movies and the performing arts and bring that service to the Spanish-speaking visually impaired population in the tri-state area since Spanish is the second most used language in this country and a growing need for it is present in every aspect of life. I therefore designed a new course on AD for the 2019 spring semester (January 18–May 8, 2019). The course ran for 14 weeks with weekly classes of 2½ hours each Tuesday, 5.30–8:00 p.m. There were 26 students in that class. I gave them the choice of working in movies or in theater. Nine students decided to work in theater, and the rest of the class wanted to work in AD for movies. With that in mind, I devoted about six weeks to the theory and practice of AD in Spanish and 7 weeks to put into practice what was learned in the classroom by engaging a group of volunteer students in a community-based project. Therefore, the main objective of the course was twofold: (1) to teach students about AD and (2) to raise awareness among them about visual impairments and disabilities (on the difference between impairments and disabilities, see Ellis, 2018) and accessibility to the arts.

Once I created a syllabus for the course, the next step was to identify the community partnership to develop my AD project for the theater. Thus, I began by identifying potential partnerships in the area. After a thorough search, I decided to talk with the Repertorio Español in New York City. The Repertorio Español (https://repertorio.nyc/#/) is an off-Broadway theater that has been offering Latin American, Spanish, and Hispanic-American theater productions in Spanish for more than 50 years. This company is a nonprofit organization run by a board of trustees. I made an appointment with the artistic director, Rafael Sánchez, to discuss the possibility of offering AD in Spanish for one of their plays. He immediately loved the idea and was willing to present it to the board. He even suggested that an ideal play to be audio described in Spanish would be *El coronel no tiene quien le escriba* by Gabriel García Márquez and suggested a date that would not interfere with the regular classes; it could be done at the end of the academic semester so that students had enough time to write the script, rehearse, and perform appropriate outreach work. The date set was May 5, 2019.

This play was first performed in this theater in 1971, and it is still being performed today. The novel *El coronel no tiene quien le escriba* (García Márquez, 1958) is the only work by García Márquez that the author himself authorized for adaptation to the stage. This play was especially suitable to be audio described because it is loaded with poetic symbolism and visual images. Therefore, it posed an interesting challenge to students who would be audio describing it and making it the focus of their critical thinking project. Students faced a number of problem-solving tasks: what Spanish language variety to use for the AD, taking into account the mixed Spanish-speaking audience in New York and that the play is written by a Colombian author; how to convey visual images through words to evoke the same emotions (conveying the play's focal topics: poverty, hope, death, social injustice) among sighted and nonsighted theater audiences; and what lexical choices to make among different varieties of Spanish, among others.

Step-by-Step Program Plan

The following steps make up the process that I followed in this course to develop the project of AD in Spanish for a live theater performance. These steps are just basic recommendations and should be adapted to fit the needs of the community and of the academic course.

Step One: Writing the AD Script in Spanish

After selecting the play to be audio described, the first step in the project is writing the AD script. In order to do that, students first needed to familiarize themselves with the novel and the historical and cultural context of that work. My students read *El coronel no tiene quien le escriba* in Spanish as well as some journal articles about García Márquez's poetic symbolism

(Anderson, 2000; Gilgen, 1981; Kooreman, 1993; Maturo, 1972; Rolfe, 1973; Sampson, 2018). In addition, they studied some performance guides for the play such as the one by Gies (1989). These performance guides are very useful because they pose questions and activities about the main characters, plot, and symbolism of the play.

All these elements can be used in class to discuss what visual aspects should be included in certain scenes, what adjectives to use to describe a character's facial expression or gesture, or even the speed of the locution in specific sequences according to the rhythm of the play. For example, at the climax of the play when the colonel is about to pronounce his last words, we decided to shorten the audio description that initially had been more detailed in order to give his words more prominence.

We commented on these readings in class, and then we scheduled one day to go to the theater and attend the performance as a class group. Students had the opportunity to meet the artistic director who facilitated our access to the script; we also obtained a video of the performance so that we could practice our AD in class without having to go in person to the theater to practice every week.

With those materials, we devoted a whole class (2½ hours) to comparing the novel with the play, and to reflecting on the adaptations made by the director and what aspects would pose a challenge to be audio described. Then, we divided the script among the nine students who were participating in the theater project. The duration of the play was 1 hour and 15 minutes, so each student was assigned approximately eight minutes of the play (see Table 1).

Once each student individually did their part writing the script, one student was appointed as script master; she was the person in charge of creating a Google Doc where all participants in the group could read others' pieces of the script. Google Docs allowed us to work on the project simultaneously and share our thoughts on the choices made. This streamlined all of our editing and made the process so much easier. Once the Google Doc was created, we scheduled our first meeting to start reading the script out loud and check whether it worked and every description fit the time frame. Since our general weekly class was on Tuesday, 5:30–8:00 p.m., we decided to meet right before our class, that is, on Tuesday 4:00–5.30 p.m., every week for 6 weeks.

These sessions were truly helpful from both an academic and a personal point of view. We learned from each other, and we discussed multiple issues related to lexical choices, relevant information to be included, and what not to include. At first, students wanted the script to include everything that was seen since they had the time to do so between characters' lines. However, after listening to the whole AD script once, we realized that the pace and introspective nature of the play should leave space for the visually impaired audience to savor and experience the sounds and music of the performance. Music (Colombian vallenato, Spanish guitar) and sounds (rain, thunder, coffee being brewed, coughing, breathing, crying) are very powerful and meaningful in this play, so no words should be uttered on top of them. In the same fashion, we realized that we had a tendency to include too many details and overload the AD with information, rather than letting the public assimilate the many symbolic images that the characters' dialogue represented.

Another aspect that we usually discussed in these sessions was Colombian Spanish lexical choices versus Peninsular Spanish equivalents. For example, the colonel wears a jacket, and we had a long discussion about what word should be used in the AD. Since the play is written by a Colombian writer and meant to be enjoyed by Latino audiences in New York, we decided to use the Colombian word, *saco*, and not *chaqueta*, as it would be in Spain. However, on other

Table 1. Allocation of Running Time

Projecto Teatro	
Valentina	0–8:40 minutos
Ivonne	8:14–17:09
Beatriz	17:10–25:40
Colleen	25:41–33:40
Vanessa Dutan	33:41–41:49
Vanessa Carrillo	41:50–49.55
Karen	49:56–58:32
Jennifer	58:33–1:06:52
José	1:06:53:–1:15:13

Note. Table showing how running time of the play was allocated among students.

occasions, the Colombian word could be confusing for the audience, and then a more neutral word should be chosen. For instance, the colonel is using the typical Colombian *chocolatera* (a brass jar) to brew some coffee for his wife. However, saying "chocolatera" could confuse the audience, making them think he would be preparing chocolate instead of coffee, so we decided to use *jarra* instead (see Figures 1 and 2). Being aware of and discussing such lexical choices both enriched the students' vocabulary and made them think critically.

Writing an AD script for the theater is very different from writing one for a movie. Unlike movie scripts, which require time codes to insert the audio description, in live performances you need cues to insert the audio-described message. In a play, the cues can be music, the last word of a character's dialogue, or a sound effect, such as rain. In our case, we left the time frame codes of the video of the play just as a reference, but we added the corresponding cue in order for the voice talent to know when she should start audio describing.

Step Two: Voice Talent

Once the AD script is written, the voice talent person needs to be appointed. In our case, there was a general consensus about who would be the voice to audio describe our script: Vanessa Carrillo. Not only does she have a very melodic and pleasant voice, but her pace when talking is calm and serene, conveying a majestic rhythm to the play that matched the dignity of the main characters.

We thought about having several voice talents who would take turns in the voiceover process during the play, but we rejected that idea since hearing different voices for the same AD might confuse blind audience members. We therefore decided that Vanessa would be the only voice talent for the 1 hour and almost 20 minutes of locution. However, we assigned two voice talent assistants (Valentina Becerra and Karen Cruz) who would be there to help Vanessa with the script or replace her in case anything prevented her from completing the voiceover (see Figure 3). In the two general rehearsals Vanessa performed the whole voiceover for the duration of the play with

Figures 1 and 2. Blind Patrons Touching the Brass Jar or Chocolatera

Figure 3. Voice Talent and Her Assistants
Note. Vanessa Carrillo between her two assistants: Valentina Becerra to her right and Karen Cruz to her left.

no problem at all; however, on the day of the event, in the middle of the performance, she urgently needed to go to the bathroom. The bathroom was located on the first floor and she was on the fourth floor. She ran to the stairs as fast as she could during a part where no descriptions were needed, but before she returned, a couple of descriptions needed to be voiced over. Valentina read them, and almost nobody seemed to notice.

Step Three: Rehearsals

Although the AD script and the voiceover can be practiced in class with the video of the performance, it is necessary to have at least a couple of rehearsals in the actual theater. For this project, we went twice to New York to practice the AD embedded in a real performance at Repertorio Español where six students in the project (the other three were in the voice talent room) would play the role of the nonsighted patrons.

We encountered several issues in the first rehearsal. First of all, in the video that we had been using in class, the role of the colonel was played by the famous Colombian actor Germán Jaramillo (Figure 4). However, when we went to the actual performance, we learned that this actor had been replaced by another one, Sebastián Ospina. Even though he, too, is a superb actor, he has a different acting style: a faster pace that does not instill the solemnity that the previous actor conferred. This affected the AD that we had prepared in several ways. Many of the descriptions no longer fit since Sebastián did not leave so many empty spaces for the voice talent to read her part. Also, he did not perform some of the movements and actions that Germán Jaramillo used in the original performance. Because of these changes, Vanessa realized that she could not speak some of the lines in the AD script. She had the very challenging role of rapidly observing what was happening on stage and modifying the AD if necessary.

Second, there was not a dedicated soundproof booth where the voice talent could see the stage. She had to perform the live AD on the fourth floor of the theater in a room full of furniture and costumes with almost no ventilation. She only could see the stage through a 12-inch black-and-white monitor (Figure 5). This arrangement made it difficult for her to describe the new actor's actions and movements since she could hardly see him on that tiny monitor. In fact, the monitor did not offer a full view of

Figure 4. Flyer for the Play

the stage, so if actors were doing something on the sides or lateral parts of the stage, Vanessa would not see that.

Third, for audio transmission, the Repertorio Español used older devices that broadcast through infrared emitters to headsets. It is the same equipment that is used for simultaneous interpreting when the theater offers English translations of the performances. In the first rehearsal, the students sat in the first rows where the nonsighted audience would be seated because we thought the signal and audio would be better in the first rows. We were wrong. There was sound interference from the stage speakers and

Figure 5. Voice Talent Team With Monitor
Note. Voice talent team working. Black-and-white monitor shows what happens on stage.

from the cell phones in the audience (even though they were silent). We could hardly hear what Vanessa said and, to top it off, the devices' batteries ran out in the middle of the performance. It was a complete disaster.

After that first rehearsal, Rafael Sánchez gave us his feedback about some aspects of the AD script and explained why the equipment did not work properly. He reassured us that he would contact the technicians and everything would work for the second rehearsal. And he did so. When we went to Repertorio Español for the second rehearsal 2 weeks later, Rafael explained that we needed to adjust the volume in the devices so that it was just in the middle (not very high and not very low) and told us that we needed to sit the blind patrons not in the first rows as we had thought, but right in the middle of the orchestra seating area where there were fewer sources of sound interference from the stage. So, students sat in various parts of the orchestra seating, they made the volume adjustment indicated by the artistic director, and the devices were fully charged when we arrived. The quality of the sound was so much better. We could hear Vanessa clearly, and the AD was great.

Step Four: Community Outreach

One of the most important and time-consuming tasks in a project like this is the community outreach component. Our project would not have any value without a community that could benefit from it, so it was mandatory to reach out to the potential organizations and centers interested in an event such as the Spanish AD project for the theater.

To that end, each of the nine students in the project was assigned at least three organizations and associations dealing with accessibility for the arts, the Latino population, or persons with visual impairments and disabilities to contact via email, telephone, or even in person. These organizations included Visions, Lighthouse Guild, New Jersey Commission for the Blind, Computers for the Blind, and the Andrew Heiskell Braille and Talking Book Library, among many others.

Students reported some disappointment in this task since usually emails were not answered, phone calls were not returned, and people were just too busy to attend meetings organized by my students in those centers. We also learned that most Latino blind people living in New York need help in basic needs such as going to the grocery store or the doctor, and not so much with theater or entertainment. Finally, we assembled a group of 12 blind and legally blind people who were interested in attending our event on May 5. Some of those people could not use public transportation, so two students (Jennifer Gutiérrez and José Díaz) picked them up in their residences and brought them to the theater. In two cases we had to pay for their performance tickets as well.

Step Five: Advertising and Marketing

Advertising the event is key to the success of community-based projects. Social media (Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter), Latino radio stations, and Hispanic newspapers were the media we used to advertise our event. The Andrew Heiskell Braille and Talking Book Library (a branch of the New York Public Library) was especially helpful in marketing the project. In particular, Nefertiti Matos, the Library's director of accessibility, offered to publish the program book insert of the play in braille for free (see Figures 6 and 7).

Step Six: Preshow Experience

An amazing addition to the play itself was the preshow tactile experience that students prepared in the theater lobby for the blind patrons to enjoy before the performance. The theater provided a miniature replica of the stage so that blind patrons could get a sense of where each element was set up (Figure 8). Further, we discussed in class what key objects in the performance were crucial to understanding the multiple layers of meaning and symbolism of García Márquez's play. Students identified five main objects (Figure 9): the umbrella with holes that the colonel uses (Figure 10), the corn the colonel feeds the rooster (blind patrons hear the shaking of corn inside a jar several times in the play, so the corn in the preshow experience lets them identify the sound with the object; Figure 11), the portrait with the son's picture (Figure 12), the brass jar (Figures 1 and 2), some rooster's feathers that student Vanessa Dutan got from a poultry market in New Jersey, and a sample of the wired wall of the rooster's cage (Figure 13). This last object is especially symbolic since the walls of the house where the colonel and his wife live are exactly the same as the walls of the rooster´s cage, thus symbolizing the imprisonment experienced

Figure 6. Performance Program in Braille

Figure 7. Nefertiti Matos With Braille Program That She Created

Figure 8. Miniature Stage

Figure 9. Main Objects for the Tactile Experience

Figure 10. Umbrella With Holes That the Colonel Uses

Figure 11. Blind Patron Feeling the Corn That the Colonel Feeds the Rooster

Figure 12. Portrait of the Colonel's Son

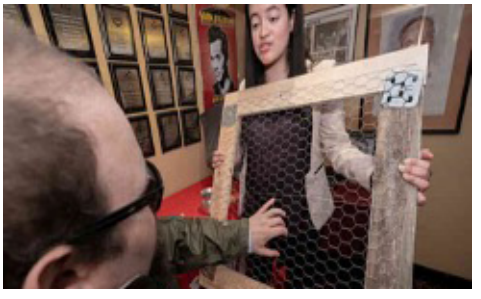

Figure 13. A Sample of the Wired Wall of the Rooster's Cage

by the main characters.

In order to have someone to assist each blind or legally blind person attending the play, I assigned one student per blind patron so that they would feel comfortable and could be guided into the preshow experience (see Figures 14 and 15). I had previously shown videos about how to lead blind people and how to offer them assistance when finding their seats in the theater, going to the restroom, using the AD devices and headsets (Figures 16 and 17), and so on, so students knew the protocol in advance. Students were also given the names of the patrons so that attention was personalized from the moment they stepped into the theater lobby.

Once visually impaired individuals arrived in the lobby, the corresponding student would guide them toward the tactile experience and let them touch the objects without telling them what they were or why they were exposed to them. We let the blind patrons touch, smell, and feel the objects, and we let them know that during the play they would realize why those objects were important. The purpose was to let them make their own inferences and interpretations without revealing too much of the message of the play.

Step Seven: Q&A Session

Right after the play, it is advisable to have a Q&A session where nonsighted audiences can give feedback about different aspects of the event. Reception studies is a crucial area in any AD practice (Di Giovanni & Gambier, 2018), and we should always keep in mind that we teach AD mainly for blind people, so we need to know patrons' opinions about it.

In our case, our visually impaired public commented on a variety of issues from technical features of the AD equipment to the quality of the voice talent. For example, a couple of blind people complained about the headsets. These were not ear-padded, but the type of buds that you insert inside the ear, so they are somewhat uncomfortable. Others suggested that all sound should be transmitted through the headsets, not only the AD soundtrack, since it was

Figures 14 and 15. Students Assisting Blind Patrons

Figures 16 and 17. Blind Patrons and AD Equipment
Note. Students Beatriz Gamarra (left) and Ivonne Reyes (right) helping blind patrons with the AD equipment.

somewhat difficult to hear the characters' dialogue with earbuds in the ears. Another group of visually impaired people were more interested in aspects of the play itself and the characters, so they were asking the cast, the artistic director, and me about different historical and literary layers of the play (Figures 18 and 19). The experience that was most highly praised was the tactile show. Finally, very positive comments were also made on the quality of the AD itself and, above all, Vanessa's voice and melodic enunciation.

Step Eight: Reflection Paper

In the community-engaged teaching and learning program, critical reflection by students plays a central role. The critical thinking component should be embedded into the academic material and the service activities that students carry out through a series of problem-solving situations. These elements should lead to a structured reflection piece at the end of the course. There are different models for designing critical reflection in a service-based course. One of them is the DEAL model proposed by Ash & Clayton (2009) and Ash et al. (2005). The DEAL model consists of three sequential steps: (1) Description of experiences in an objective and detailed manner, (2) Examination of those experiences in light of specific learning goals or objectives, and (3) Articulation of Learning, including goals for future action that can then be taken forward into the next experience for improved practice and further refinement of learning.

These steps were incorporated into the questions students needed to answer at the end of the semester (Appendix). These reflection questions made up 30% of the final grade of the course. I divided the sets of questions into five groups: the AD script-writing process, the process mode (individual vs. group work), verbal and nonverbal language, accessibility and community, and quality assessment. Each student submitted their answers in writing and also made an oral presentation to the whole class.

Next, I would like to share some insightful comments from the students' reflection papers. First, I would like to highlight that this group of students really reflected critically about the role of observation and selection in AD. In AD it is important to decide what not to say, and it was a group decision-making process to identify what was relevant and what was not. For example, in the scene where the colonel is talking to the lawyer about hiring another lawyer, there is a moment where the lawyer stands up and raises his voice to the colonel, who remains sitting (Figure 20). Is it relevant to say that the lawyer suddenly stands up? After some discussion, the group concluded

Figure 18. Q&A With Cast Members and Artistic Director Rafael Sánchez (with crossed arms)

Figure 19. Dr. García-Vizcaíno With Cast Members During the Q&A
Note. Dr. García-Vizcaíno with Sebastián Ospina to her right and actress Zulema Clares to her left.

Figure 20. Lawyer Talking to the Colonel

Figure 21. The Wife Drags the Chair in Despair

that it was relevant because his position was a mark of a power relationship at that moment. Likewise, in Figure 21, we had to decide whether it was relevant to mention the way the colonel's wife is dragging the chair. Students reached the conclusion that it was relevant since that would be a sign of her fragile health.

Other interesting critical reflection from students was the following:

> Our challenge was to focus on the needs of a person without vision but we all used our vision first instead of only listening. This may have made our project a bit more challenging because the visual component was embedded in our minds instead of the feelings of the words themselves. People with limited vision feel the world through their senses of touch and hearing; their needs and priorities are very different from ours. It may have helped us in our work with the audio description if, from the initial phase of the project, we relied more on our listening skills instead of mainly our visual perceptions. Also, since we were working with a piece of literature that was not written as a play, the language needed to be focused on first. García Márquez's language is so rich and descriptive, that it may have been advantageous to listen first to the audio of the play to feel it first without seeing it. As a group, we focused intently on the visual aspect of the play, without allowing to the play to speak for itself. This literary piece is so rich in descriptions, but we tended to focus only on the visuals instead of just supplementing the spoken word. The joy of this play was the simplicity of the set and props and the presence of the rich dialogues and language. So, in retrospect, I think we may have approached this project in a different way if we listened to the play first instead of intently focusing on what we saw: The greatest challenge for us was seeing! (Colleen O´Rourke)

In response to the questions on cinematic versus standard AD (Fryer & Freeman, 2013) in Section V of the reflection piece (see Appendix), one student offered an interesting reflection:

> We did try to use a more creative approach throughout the project and we were careful in our choices of adverbs and adjectives. In areas where we could, we used the cinematic AD. For example, in the funeral procession we mentioned how they were moving toward or away from the audience. These types of descriptions allow the client to "feel" being part of the audience. I personally enjoy the creative AD approach and it also allows for a richer AD vocabulary. (Colleen O´Rourke)

Final Thoughts

The event was very successful, based on the reviews that it received (Palma Mir, 2019; Strother, 2019; "A Truly Magical Performance," 2019). From my own academic viewpoint, it was a tremendously rewarding experience for me and my students, let alone the visually impaired audience who could enjoy this performance. I was truly impressed by the dedication and maturity of each one of the students in the group. All of them were exceptional and so professional in every task assigned. The group had many external challenges in their lives, full-time jobs, heavy course loads, and families, but each and every member put forth their most sincere and professional effort to go to New York City for the rehearsals and work extra hours on campus editing the script and practicing voiceover. However, the part I am most proud of is realizing what wonderful human beings my students are: The kindness with which they treated blind patrons, the patience they showed with them at all times (see Figures 22 and 23), and the pro-

fessionalism they displayed at every stage of the event made the whole experience so worthwhile.

The project was so outstanding at so many levels that I nominated this group of MSU students for the American Council of the Blind (ACB) Audio Description Awards in the category Performing Arts, and they won such an award. The award ceremony took place on July 9, 2019, at the National Convention of the ACB in Rochester, New York, and I was there to receive this honor on behalf of my students (see Figures 24 and 25).

In conclusion, this community-based course proved to be an extraordinary way to put academic knowledge and professional training in service to Spanish-speaking visually impaired individuals. Moreover, it proved to be useful in making students more sensitive about disabilities, more aware of the importance of accessibility to the arts, and excited about the career opportunities that AD presents. Actually, some of these students have started to work on AD projects for ONCE, the Spanish national organization for the blind, and others will continue collaborating with the Repertorio Español to make more theater projects accessible to the low-vision population in New York.

Figures 22 and 23. Students Assisting Blind Patrons
Note. Students Beatriz Gamarra and Ivonne Reyes accompanying and being attentive to our blind guests.

Figures 24 and 25. Receiving the Performing Arts Award From the American Council of the Blind, July 2019

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Appendix. Reflection Paper

I. The AD Process (10%)

1. What was the hardest part of writing the script? Why? Please, be specific.
2. What was the most rewarding part? Why? Please, be specific.
3. How did you overcome challenges during your research? Identify at least three difficulties that arose during the project and explain how you solved them.
4. What, if anything, would you change about your research process this semester?

II. The Process Mode: working alone vs working in groups (10%)

1. What were the differences in the writing process of the AD script when you did it with the whole group during class time or in meetings versus when you worked on your own? Which mode do you prefer in this type of AD script writing activity?
2. How did you navigate multimodal tools (voice-over script, images, sound, music) on your own? Was it different when you were working with a classmate or the group? Were you able to learn better with your classmate or not?
3. How was the revising and editing process when working on your own? Why?
4. Were there any other differences in motivation, attitude, learning experience between the collaborative and the individual? Please explain.

III. Focusing on verbal and non-verbal language (20%)

1. What was the hardest part of writing your script regarding language (i.e. selection of adjectives, adverbs, matching time and words, etc.)? Why?
2. Do you feel your level of Spanish has improved by writing this script and doing this project? How? Please, be specific.
3. How did you deal with gestures and facial expressions? What cultural challenges did you encounter here? Use the article by Mazur (2014) to elaborate your answer.
4. What, if anything, has your project made you notice about language that you did not notice before?

IV. On Community (10%)

1. After taking this course and having done your final project, how do you see the role of Spanish language supporting the visually-impaired community in your project?
2. Do you think this is important to pay attention to? Why or why not?
3. What other initiatives could be done to make art accessible to people with visual impairments?

V. On Quality Assessment (50%)

1. After having done the experiment on Cinematic AD vs. Standard AD (Fryer & Freeman 2013), please report here in detail the results of your experiment.
2. What do you think about having a more cinematic and creative approach to AD?
3. What elements of these: language choice, voice talent, objectivity vs subjectivity, and the use of silences would you consider more important when it comes to evaluate the quality of an AD? Discuss in detail.
4. After having read the article "Creative description: The impact of audio description style on presence in visually impaired audiences" [Walczak & Fryer, 2017], explain here what you understand by assessment the quality of an AD and assessing its effectiveness. Give examples of how quality and effectiveness of your AD in your project would be achieved and how they could possibly be measured.

5. After having read the article by Walczak & Fryer (2017), explain the concept of "presence" in AD: What is it? Do you consider it important? Can you give examples in your final project when this concept of presence could be relevant?
6. Read the article "Testing audio narration: The emotional impact of language in audio description" by Ramos Caro (2016) that can be found in the folder "Lecturas" in Files, Canvas. Explain the main and secondary ideas of the article and apply them to your AD final project.

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MEGE—An Educational Partnership Supporting Migrant Entrepreneurship

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Abstract

This article describes the implementation and lessons learned from MEGE—Multicultural Encounters, Growth and Entrepreneurship, an educational project aimed at better utilizing the expertise of migrant communities and international professionals in Finland, to foster entrepreneurship among those who migrate or return to the country from abroad. The 3-year project helped build bridges between communities by connecting different educational institutions and bringing together migrant communities and actors in the local entrepreneurship ecosystem. The resulting entrepreneurship training package was developed in cooperation with migrant participants and was offered free of cost to all international professionals, regardless of employment/residence status or cultural background. Key lessons learned suggest that the impact of such programs should be understood broadly, and that best results can be achieved by considering entrepreneurship education as both a service and a community. Such programs should contribute to participants' business acumen and bring together migrants and members of local entrepreneurship ecosystems.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship education, migrants

Entrepreneurial activity by migrants—people who live in a country where they were not born—carries great social and economic potential (DG GROWTH & VVA Consulting, 2016; OECD, 2019; Rath & Swagerman, 2011). For migrants, entrepreneurship can offer a way out of unemployment, increase economic and social status, and support greater integration into their host country (Fong et al., 2007; Kloosterman, 2003). For host countries, migrant entrepreneurs represent an important group that can operate in market niches, utilize experience and knowledge from their native countries and networks, and thus combat challenges of the labor market and contribute to job creation and economic growth (Sahin et al., 2014).

Although entrepreneurship is always a risky and demanding endeavor, it becomes even more challenging for migrants, in particular for refugees (Wauters & Lambrecht, 2008). Challenges arise from individual limitations, the social position and cultural traditions of an ethnic group, local market conditions, and the institutional support available in a host country (Chliova et al., 2018). Practical support for migrant entrepreneurship, such as providing training and coaching to help develop entrepreneurial skills or gain access to funding and networks, is partly in the hands of the private or third sector. At the same time, national-level policymakers and the European Union typically provide financing for these programs (DG GROWTH & VVA Consulting, 2016).

In this article, we describe the implementation and lessons learned from a project—MEGE—Multicultural Encounters, Growth and Entrepreneurship—that aimed to create a new type of support service for migrant entrepreneurs in a national environment (Finland), as well as to develop the basis

for further collaboration between education providers. The project's main objective was to help migrants establish growth companies and better integrate themselves with local entrepreneurial ecosystems. Our findings present participants' experiences and illuminate lessons for us in terms of developing the provision of education and the assessment of the outcomes of entrepreneurship education programs.

Context of the Project

The MEGE project was established to better utilize the expertise of international experts who had moved or returned to Finland. The Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment in Finland emphasizes the great benefits to be gained from integrating migrants into the Finnish entrepreneurship and labor markets and from utilizing the novel thinking and connections they proffer. Migrants can advance the internationalization and growth of companies and can continue the operations of viable businesses whose owners seek to retire or otherwise leave the business. Nevertheless, Finland lags behind in taking advantage of migrant entrepreneurs' capacities. Recent statistics indicate that no significant difference exists between the self-employment rate of natives and that of immigrants in Finland (Fornaro, 2018). However, these two groups differ drastically in terms of entrepreneurial income. Furthermore, unemployment rates among various groups of immigrants differ considerably, suggesting that—despite the entrepreneurship support services that many organizations offer in the country—certain migrant groups may experience difficulties in finding the right type of advice to start a business, leading to migrant entrepreneurs' lacking know-how to grow their businesses successfully. There is a pressing need to enhance cooperation between education providers and to offer opportunities for migrant entrepreneurs to connect with other entrepreneurs in order to gain both peer support and specific knowledge about entrepreneurship in different industries.

The implementation of MEGE involved policymakers and funders, education providers, and participants from the migrant community.

Policymakers and Funders

The activities of MEGE were funded by Helsinki-Uusimaa Regional Council, which drew from European Regional Development Funds. It supported the targets of both the Talent Boost program and Sustainable Growth and Jobs 2014–2020 (Finland's structural funds program).

Educational Consortium

The project was carried out by a consortium of several educational institutions that operate in the capital region of the country but had never previously worked together. Its partners were Haaga-Helia University of Applied Sciences, Helsinki Business College, The Shortcut, and Aalto University. These project partners established a new operational model that pulled together core expertise, distinct service offerings, and resources. In addition, the project involved seasoned entrepreneurs, investors, and business coaches, utilizing these actors' feedback on assessing best practices and lessons learned.

Migrant Participants

The educational services were offered, without any cost, to all international professionals, regardless of employment/residence status or cultural background. By September 2020, a total of 800 individuals with an interest in entrepreneurship had participated in MEGE training programs and events, and thousands of people had gained access to information on the free-of-charge training offered by MEGE through its website and newsletters. Although a number of events remained intimate and consisted of only a handful of participants, the largest event, Startup Circus, which was organized in December 2019, gathered close to 500 people. The project participants represented a plethora of cultural backgrounds and entrepreneurial experience. For instance, a Design Prototyping Weekend with 48 participants involved representatives from 29 nationalities.

Theoretical Framing

The insights offered in this article relate to several important streams of research, which are summarized in Figure 1.

First, research on migrant/ethnic entrepreneurship has explored the particularities of business activities carried out by those from specific sociocultural and ethnic backgrounds (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Dabić

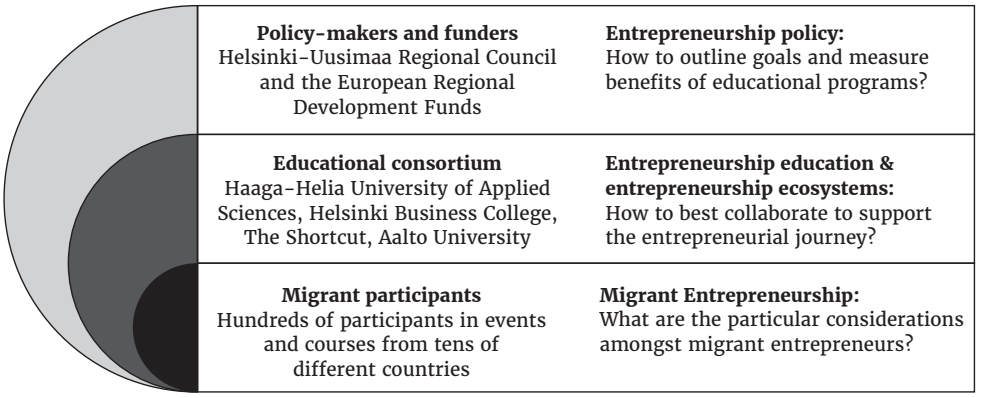

Figure 1. MEGE Project and Central Research Questions

et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2013; Naudé et al., 2017; Ram et al., 2017). Here, the aim has been to better understand the types of businesses and market spheres (e.g., the ethnic enclaves) where migrants carry out entrepreneurship, and to investigate the particular strategies they have applied in terms of, for instance, employment, sourcing, and marketing. The number and heterogeneity of MEGE participants is vital in order to generate valuable insights on migrant entrepreneurship.

Second, the case presented in this article illuminates best practices among education providers and provides insights into the literature on entrepreneurship education, and in particular into migrant entrepreneurship education (Hägg & Gabrielsson, 2020; Nabi et al., 2017; Pittaway & Cope, 2007) and research on entrepreneurship ecosystems (Cavallo et al., 2019; Maroufkhani & Wagner, 2018; Spigel, 2017). Prior research on entrepreneurship education focuses on the means of transferring knowledge on how—and by whom—entrepreneurial opportunities are discovered, evaluated, and exploited, thereby developing the most appropriate pedagogical approaches and exploring ways to measure the impact and outcomes of such educational efforts. The ecosystem approach adds to this by advancing our understanding of how entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial activity are interlinked in different countries and institutional environments.

Third, enhancing our knowledge on migrant entrepreneurship is crucial for research on entrepreneurship policy (Arenal et al., 2019; Duruflé et al., 2018; O'Connor, 2013), as well as for policymakers who wish to capitalize on its economic benefits in addition to ensuring the inclusiveness and fairness of economic systems and entrepreneurial freedom.

Data Collection and Analysis

The MEGE partners collected data on the project extensively throughout its duration. Data collection methods included a series of surveys sent to all participants at different stages of the project; in-depth interviews with around 30 participants at the outset, in the middle, and at the end of the project; and observation of and feedback on each training session or event. These data generated an understanding of the profile of MEGE participants, their needs and challenges, as well as the progress of their entrepreneurial journeys. In addition to participant/customer experiences, project partners monitored the development of key performance indicators (e.g., visits to the project website, training participants, number of established businesses) and benchmarked their offering with other, similar education providers.

The gathered data were analyzed jointly in workshops in order to assess the quality of services, evaluate risk and project management, and measure the project's impact. Besides ensuring the successful execution of the project itself, the data analysis was conducted to evaluate the future potential and scalability of the project's service offering, as well as to share best practices with those working with or studying migrant entrepreneurship and its concomitant supportive education and ecosystems.

Project Description

We next describe the goals and implementation of the MEGE project, both of which

are relevant for developing entrepreneurship policy and educational collaboration. We then explore insights gained from discussions and interviews with migrants who participated in the program. These individual experiences serve as the key with which to unlock conclusions on best practices in terms of successful entrepreneurship education.

Goals and Measurement

The project's primary goal was to tackle the challenges faced by migrants trying to establish and acquire businesses. In addition, the project worked to help migrants find employment in start-up companies and other entrepreneurial businesses. By doing so, the project aimed to increase the number of new businesses, successful business successions, and employment rates. Concomitantly, particular attention was paid to enhancing the social and environmental sustainability of the local businesses and ensuring equality among people from different genders and varying cultural backgrounds. In line with these goals, the key performance indicators tracked by the project included several quantitative indicators.

In addition to numerical goals, the MEGE project was designed to generate new ways of operating. Importantly, it was tasked with contributing to skills development by designing a new training package with and for migrants wishing to become entrepreneurs. This included creating a new operational model that could enhance the availability and versatility of educational services offered in the field of migrant entrepreneurship. The benchmark study as a part of the MEGE project suggested that the numerous providers of similar services were not necessarily aware of their peers' precise offerings, or that they did not share their knowledge; hence, it was important to design a form of collaboration that could draw together the core competencies of various education providers.

Furthermore, the project was a means for ensuring future growth by raising awareness of migrant entrepreneurship and the educational services available. Studies show that migrants often do not know about support programs on offer in their new country of residence (Rath & Swagerman, 2011). To mitigate this challenge, the MEGE project clearly emphasized success stories in its communication, thereby boosting the enthusiasm and confidence of migrants interested in entrepreneurship. This approach was believed to generate more significant and long-term outcomes that went far beyond the project's duration. The project's results are summarized in Table 1.

Educational Collaboration and Offering

Together with the target group, the project partners created a new training package to support international professionals on their entrepreneurial path and connect them with local entrepreneurial ecosystems. Several design workshops were used alongside the continuous monitoring of needs to create adjustable and comprehensive services in four areas: (1) personal development, (2) new business creation, (3) business acquisitions, and (4) networking. The different modules applied varying methods, including online learning platforms and self-reflection, quick group work and iterations, one-on-one coaching and mentoring, and large events and gatherings.

Personal Development

The offering for personal development focused on identifying each individual's capabilities, motivations, and entrepreneurial skills. This included a multimodule course titled "Find Your Strengths," which consisted of coaching sessions and spanned several weeks, and the course "Developing an Entrepreneurial Mindset," which was meant to enhance the knowledge and skills necessary in entrepreneurship via an online teaching environment. Furthermore, one-on-one mentoring by experienced entrepreneurs was offered to individuals who were in the process of starting up their business. This enabled the identification of individuals' specific strengths and challenges in terms of their personal growth and business development, as well as the creation of a comprehensive plan for the most critical steps and help needed along the way.

Start a New Business

An important element of the services on offer was training that supported the formulation and validation of business ideas, as well as the concrete launch of business operations. Training modules were designed to support different types of entrepreneurship, ranging from self-employment to high-growth business ventures, and to offer more theoretical tools for thinking as well

Table 1. Summary of MEGE Results

New businesses	
SMEs utilizing the expertise of international professionals	• 20+ new SMEs established during the project • Approx. 50% of new SMEs owned by women and 50% by men • Approx. 50% of new SMEs have a low-carbon impact • 10+ SMEs increased their revenue or personnel, created a new product, or expanded their market during the project
Skills development	
Training offered free of charge to all international professionals	• MEGE activities covering 4 modules: personal development, start a new business, acquire a business, networking • 1,045 participants attended the training and events during the project
Knowledge sharing	
Practical information for future international entrepreneurs and sharing insights with educational providers	• A comprehensive service catalogue and a podcast on how to start a business in Finland (e.g., registration, grants, funding, accelerators & incubators, acquisitions, communities, and conferences) • Videos telling the stories of MEGE entrepreneurs • Description of all MEGE services and best practices enabling future implementation of similar training • Six publications targeted at educational institutions (e.g., on mentoring, community development, measuring)

Note. SME = small and medium-sized enterprises.

as practical support to help the participants advance to the stage of registering their businesses and acquiring their first customers. Training events included the quick introduction course "How to Start a Business in Finland" and an "Idea-to-Prototype" course where students "competed" in the task of clarifying a business idea. Intensive digital prototyping courses carried out over a few days guided participants toward methods of agile iteration through which business ideas could be turned into prototypes and presented to an expert audience to generate feedback and development ideas. As in the case of personal development, one-on-one mentoring was used to offer guidance on starting up a business.

Acquire a Business

Buying an existing business is often a less risky path to entrepreneurship than starting up a new business. Nevertheless, every year thousands of entrepreneurs are daunted by finding a successor for their businesses. With this in mind, MEGE offered a training track dedicated to knowledge and skills needed for successful business acquisitions and to connect entrepreneurially minded migrants with owners of established businesses. The project's educational offerings included the courses "Legal Aspects in Business Acquisitions," "Financing Aspects in Business Acquisitions," "Valuation in Business Acquisitions," and "Business Planning in Business Acquisitions" to smooth the path to entrepreneurship through acquisition.

Networking

Finding additional help and resources from

the broader entrepreneurial community and support service network played a central role in supporting each of the areas outlined above. MEGE offered several events that enabled migrants to connect with the local entrepreneurial ecosystem. As examples of these events, the project organized a Grand Opening that gathered around 100 participants interested in entrepreneurship, and an annual Startup Circus that connected over 500 people, including established entrepreneurs, investors, and new or potential migrant entrepreneurs and artists, to create an atmosphere of enthusiasm and creativity. Those interested in business acquisitions were offered a specific event that supported matchmaking and helped migrants locate a suitable target company. In addition to events that were recurrently organized over the project's duration, all MEGE participants were invited to work in a coworking space, thereby alleviating the costs of renting a business location and enabling them to connect with fellow entrepreneurs and entrepreneurs-to-be.

Participants' Experiences

In-depth data collection throughout the project duration allowed us to gain an understanding of migrant participants' backgrounds, their varying goals, and their key needs for assistance on their entrepreneurial journeys.

Heterogeneity of Participant Profiles

Typically, migrants who participate in entrepreneurship training are adults who have chosen to move to a new country. Often, they have studied, worked, and even run businesses in their countries of origin, and they have already immersed themselves in the host country's educational programs and labor markets. It follows that they have both professional and personal life experience that can be critically useful for their entrepreneurial careers and should be taken into consideration. Contrary to common stereotypes of entrepreneurs being young men, the data collected from the MEGE participants demonstrated that migrants interested in entrepreneurship form a diverse body not limited to one age group or gender. Their relatively high level of education may have reflected the program's being offered in English.

There was also great variety in MEGE participants' backgrounds and life situations, which affected their qualifications, assets, and capabilities for establishing businesses. Length of stay in Finland, as well as original reasons for migration, were found to be crucial factors influencing individuals' readiness for entrepreneurship. For instance, those moving to study and work in Finland due to prior connections with the country (e.g., a spouse, employer, ethnic networks) typically had time to plan and organize their departure, save money, and prepare for the cultural changes that awaited them. They were also more likely to be assisted by preexisting social networks. In contrast, others may have migrated out of necessity following persecution or traumatic experiences (Wauters & Lambrecht, 2006) resulting in a lower degree of embeddedness in the host country and leaving them in a more unstable and vulnerable position. Some had recently arrived, and others had spent decades living in Finland. In addition to relations with their host country, family conditions and cultural background influenced the support migrants received from their social environment.

MEGE participants arrived from a variety of countries (e.g., Ghana, Mexico, Chile, Pakistan) that have either a stronger or weaker culture of entrepreneurship, as well as exhibiting distinct, gender-based cultural norms (Kloosterman, 2010; Kloosterman et al., 2016). As a consequence, some reported their families to be highly supportive of their entrepreneurial plans, yet the majority claimed to be working (in paid employment) in order to take care of family obligations and hence had little time or external support for engaging in entrepreneurship.

Motivation for Creating Social and Economic Value

Research shows that migrants' motivation for entrepreneurship can stem from necessity or dissatisfaction, and it can be geared to reaching out for opportunities and achieving one's goals. Reasons include the expectation of gaining independence and flexibility, acquiring a higher income, utilizing one's work experience and leadership qualities, continuing family traditions, dissatisfaction with a current job, or wishing to live a life that is consistent with one's ideology and values (Dana, 1997; Gomez et al., 2020). Strikingly, MEGE participants' motivations were not typically related to belief in the necessity for entrepreneurship, yet migrants participating in the program often saw entrepreneurship as an

appealing professional choice. Many said they wanted to "use their full potential" and "create social impact." Business ideas here reflected the internal motivations of MEGE participants, a number of which were closely linked to migrants' prior work experience and the markets that they already knew. Nevertheless, many of the migrants had ambitious goals of building businesses that they found meaningful and important.

Our data revealed that participants commonly did not wish to learn solely about the initial steps of validating business ideas and establishing companies, expressing instead a strong need for acquiring knowledge on ensuring the profitability of their business, enhancing customer understanding and skills for managing customer relations, and establishing functioning sourcing networks. This finding resonates with research suggesting that the most beneficial topics in migrant entrepreneurship include financial planning, networking and building strong relationships, and understanding a given market.

Need for Networks and Integration

MEGE participants recognized the need not only to acquire business acumen but to gain peer support and build networks with relevant business partners and more experienced entrepreneurs. This finding is in line with prior research that has accentuated the significance of networks. It is crucial for migrants to build a supportive community with cultural and/or religious coethnic peers from similar geographical backgrounds. Primarily this enables them to learn about cultural differences and specific parameters of running a business in the host country from people with similar sociocultural backgrounds (Chliova et al., 2018); engaging with entrepreneurial role models can further boost confidence.

In addition, it is beneficial for migrants to break out of "ethnic enclaves" that lock them into niche markets (Achidi Ndofor & Priem, 2011). Integration into a region's or country's broader entrepreneurship ecosystem offers far greater access to financial and nonfinancial forms of support. Creating networks within local society enables migrants to provide services and products to a mainstream market and to access a larger pool of qualified employees (Arrighetti et al., 2014). Networking and integrating offer the potential for higher earnings and are a precondition for migrant entrepreneurship being able to serve the individual, the community, and national well-being.

Key Lessons Learned

In this section, we summarize key learning outcomes from the project with an eye to offering concrete best practices for higher education providers who reach out to migrant communities, and to informing policymakers on the potential outcomes and appropriate means of assessing the impact of such entrepreneurship education programs. Key insights are presented in Figure 2.

Embrace Individual Capabilities

Our analysis of participant profiles brings to light important factors for consideration by higher education providers working on migrant entrepreneurship support. Although university students and others participating in higher education manifest individual differences, this group tends to be more homogeneous than migrants. It follows that educational institutions wishing to accommodate migrants must adjust training programs to serve a broader range of needs. Importantly, educational services and support should build on the experience and skills of migrants, which in some cases can be extremely high (Obschonka et al., 2018). At the same time, education providers are required to acknowledge migrants' individual life situations, for migrants may be hindered from starting up businesses by many factors that fall outside the scope of entrepreneurship education (Wauters & Lambrecht, 2008). It is vital to show empathy and strive to guide migrants toward the most appropriate sources of support.

Create Resilience and Sustainability

Based on observed experiences of MEGE participants' motivations, we conclude that it is necessary for higher education providers to offer the knowledge and tools that help migrants to run their businesses independently and in the long run. The theoretical frameworks and information offered in the training programs, events, and mentoring sessions should be designed so that they can be utilized by migrants in the various situations they face as entrepreneurs. In addition, when supporting them in the development of their entrepreneurial skills, education should consider the specific requirements of business ideas, as well as

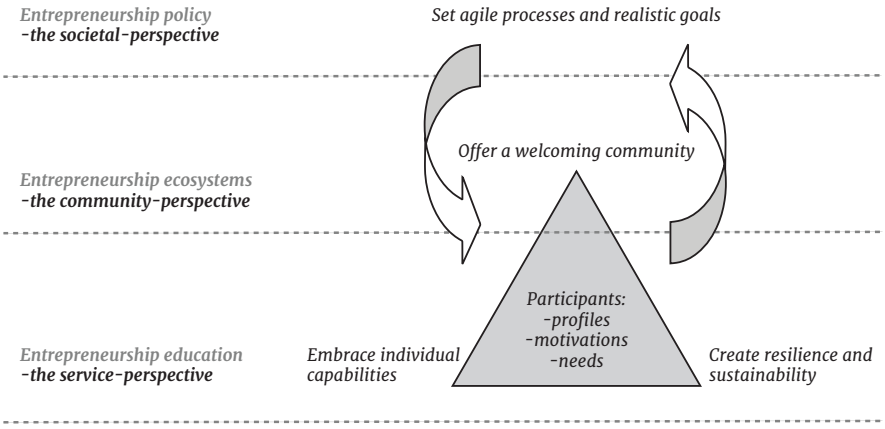

Figure 2. Three Perspectives for Successful Migrant Entrepreneurship Education

cognitive factors and the personality of each individual.

Concretely, the question at hand deals with helping participants to develop a proactive and entrepreneurial mindset that enables them to cope with challenging situations and take advantage of opportunities that may arise (Engel et al., 2019). This type of "mental capital" can be even more vital for entrepreneurial outcomes than training that merely focuses on learning business skills (Béchard & Grégoire, 2005).

It remains for us to emphasize that it is also a question of ethics for education providers not to focus on business creation but—to the best of their ability—to seek to ensure that migrants who take an entrepreneurial risk actually become successful and able to sustain their businesses.

Offer a Welcoming Community

Following our finding that migrants highlight the need for intangible social support, we conclude that education providers that offer migrant entrepreneurship support should regard themselves both as a service offering migrants tools to navigate the entrepreneurial path, and as a community enabling fresh entrepreneurs and entrepreneurs-to-be to connect with their relevant peers and partners (Spigel, 2017).

In order to offer a welcoming community, MEGE organized several events that focused neither on training nor on reaching particular educational goals, but instead allowed people to meet each other in more informal settings. These events—such as the Grand Opening and Startup Circus—were considered highly successful in terms of connecting the local entrepreneurial ecosystem and (future) migrant entrepreneurs. In addition, the project offered a coworking space for participants to network and develop their ideas together. To celebrate the entrepreneurial migrant community, success stories of MEGE participants were shared frequently via newsletters and social media. Finally, the one-on-one mentoring meetings were also used to remind migrants that they were surrounded by helpful and experienced entrepreneurs.

Be Agile and Realistic

The experiences and examples drawn from the MEGE project lead us to emphasize the importance of measuring the quality and impact of such educational programs in a wide range of ways so as to gain a more comprehensive picture. Ultimately, it is crucial for education providers to see individual projects as a stepping stone to further collaboration and the advancement of the educational field. In the case of the MEGE project, the consortium partners developed a road map for the future that laid out how services would be continued by the individual partners involved and the areas in which partners identified the most synergies for further collaborative projects.

In terms of the outcomes of any single project, policymakers, migrants themselves, and education providers are advised to have realistic goals in terms of the amount and speed of new business creation that can result from entrepreneurship training (Kamovich & Foss, 2017). Entrepreneurship is a challenging endeavor, and the path from the identification of opportunities to

the establishment of a business often can take years. Business acquisitions, which require great motivation, compromise, and readiness from both buyers and sellers, can be even slower processes.

In many countries, migrants have been found to be highly entrepreneurial individuals (Vandor & Franke, 2016). However, they are faced with numerous personal, cultural, and institutional barriers and therefore can face more challenges than the local population to starting their own businesses. For instance, university students commit themselves to educational programs for a specific period of time with the aim of obtaining a diploma, but migrants participate in entrepreneurial education programs only when they are able to and when they feel that a program advances their concrete business goals.

Future Directions

The lessons learned and best practices identified in the collaborative project MEGE—Multicultural Encounters, Growth and Entrepreneurship lead us to conclude this contribution with general implications for entrepreneurship policy, the research and practice of migrant entrepreneurship education, and the development of the entrepreneurial ecosystems within which entrepreneurial actors cooperate.

Entrepreneurship Policy

The increasing number of migrants in many countries and the economic outcomes generated by their businesses have enhanced political interest in this phenomenon. Entrepreneurship policy understands that past engagement in entrepreneurship and cross-cultural experiences result in high entrepreneurial drive among migrants that can be harnessed once (some of the) barriers are removed.

The experiences of the MEGE project support belief in the potential of migrant entrepreneurship by bringing to light migrants' unique skills and ambitions. Nevertheless, we also emphasize the necessity of adopting an ethical and cautious approach when promoting migrant entrepreneurship (Naudé et al., 2017). Empathy toward the life situations of migrants goes hand-in-hand with understanding that their capability to start businesses depends on their individual situations, their social networks, and the overall market environment. For instance, sudden economic shifts may dramatically influence entrepreneurs, as became evident in 2020, when the COVID-19 pandemic spread across the globe. We suggest that the field of migrant entrepreneurship policy calls for further research on the long-term benefits of entrepreneurship for migrants themselves. The MEGE project has played a role in accomplishing precisely this objective.

Entrepreneurship Ecosystems

For the development of entrepreneurship ecosystems—where higher education operators collaborate with entrepreneurs and other actors—the experience gained from the MEGE project demonstrates the benefits of pulling together the resources and know-how of different providers (Duruflé et al., 2018). Such collaboration enables service providers to communicate their offerings better and reach those migrant populations interested in entrepreneurship; it also enhances agility in adapting to target groups' needs. In this way different educational partners can utilize their respective strengths and learn from each other.

Challenges remain in regard to enhancing connections between entrepreneurship education providers and enabling specialization to help guide migrants to the most suitable services (e.g., financing, prototyping, networking). Furthermore, building bridges between the entrepreneurship community and other support services targeted at migrants would be valuable, as many barriers to entrepreneurship arise in domains that lie beyond the core expertise of entrepreneurship educators.

Entrepreneurship Education

In terms of the research and practice of entrepreneurship education, the crucial message of the MEGE project is that entrepreneurship education among migrants is a challenging topic for two reasons: The target group is highly heterogeneic in terms of capacities, and the various constellations of business ideas and industries are all imbued with their own particularities. We offer a number of insights into the basic pillars of entrepreneurship education (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008): what, how, for whom, and why. The best practices identified in the MEGE project highlight that, in terms of the contents (the what) of entrepreneurship education, it is important to provide migrants with support that serves

their concrete goals and enables them to run businesses successfully.

Furthermore, we draw attention to the notion of understanding migrant entrepreneurship education not only as a service but also as a community that provides access to peer and professional support. In terms of methods and pedagogy (the how), the MEGE project's best practices underscore the need for tailoring the training programs to differing needs and life situations, so that those learning through interaction, as well as those who can invest only minimal time alongside regular jobs and family affairs, can take advantage of the training on offer.

As discussed above, we urge education providers to acknowledge the heterogeneity of their target group (the for whom) and embrace their clients' professional and life experiences; and to set realistic targets (the why) for their educational projects and programs, as well as utilizing a broad spectrum of measures to evaluate potential impact and benefits. Taking into consideration the need to support the resilience and sustainability of businesses, we urge further research and experimentation in methods that provide the necessary support in an easily accessible form, and we encourage migrants to be independent and take the initiative in their own interest. Furthermore, as migrants are often highly skilled—and often wish to be part of a community in their host country—education providers would be well advised to consider how to take advantage of migrants' capacities and abilities in the context of entrepreneurship education.

Conclusions

This article described the implementation and lessons learned from a project—MEGE—Multicultural Encounters, Growth and Entrepreneurship—that aimed at creating a new type of support service for migrant entrepreneurs in Finland, as well as seeking to create the basis for further collaboration between education providers. The article offered practical insights on migrant entrepreneurship generated by migrants participating in the program, as well as by the education providers included in the project consortium, and thus illuminated central questions in the fields of entrepreneurship policy, entrepreneurship education, and entrepreneurship ecosystems. Key lessons learned suggest that the impact of such programs should be understood in broad terms, and that best results can be reached by offering services that strengthen participants' business acumen and create a sense of community.

The 3-year project advanced community engagement by connecting different educational operators and bringing together local entrepreneurship ecosystems and migrant communities. The project group designed a novel training package for, and with, migrants, raised awareness of migrant entrepreneurship, and created a new operational model that draws on the strengths of each educational institution. The consortium partners also developed a road map for the future that explicated how these services were to be continued by the individual partners, as well as the areas in which partners saw the greatest potential for synergies in further collaborative projects.

Note

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Evaluating University–Community Engagement Through a Community-Based Lens: What Indicators Are Suitable?

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Abstract

This study explores the indicators of university-community engagement and their implications to evaluation. Through an examination of 47 studies, we validate that university-community engagement can unfold in many ways and impact many stakeholders, and that, evaluation focusing only on university perspectives might leave out the community perspective which is equally important. We developed a conceptual framework consisting of three domains of university-community engagement, namely purpose, process and community impacts. These domains offer a comprehensive evaluation of university-community engagement from a community perspective. We then identify the key performance indicators under these domains and the implications of these indicators to evaluation. We found out some existing limitations on methodology and on quantifying indicators. Based on the findings, we recommend that the selection of indicators should consider a variety of activities and impacts to allow comprehensive evaluation. Also, methodologies should be continually refined to keep up with changing phenomena.

Keywords: university-community engagement, indicators, evaluation, measurement

During the last few decades, world economies have changed to knowledge economies, whereby the economy in developed countries has become driven by technologies based on knowledge creation (Powell & Snellman, 2004). In this paradigm, innovation and knowledge production is vital, and universities are seen as an undeniable source of new ideas and talents (Aksoy & Beaudry, 2021). Therefore, universities are no longer ivory towers, producing knowledge in isolation, but are expected to engage with their communities in order to promote regional and national growth (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000; Rossi & Rosli, 2015). Universities' traditional roles, teaching and research, are increasingly being supplemented by community engagement (Murphy & Dyrenfurth, 2019; Theeranattapong et al., 2021). As a result, university–community engagement has continued to evolve as a dynamic field of scholarship and practice that now carries ever-increasing academic respect (Sandmann & Jones, 2019). There is also growing concern regarding the purpose of universities in their communities (Schlegel et al., 2021), how this relates to their desired outcomes, and how those outcomes should be evaluated (van der Zanden et al., 2018). This concern with university purpose and outcomes has in turn necessitated a clear and consistent understanding of community engagement and community-based evaluation.

Community engagement has been defined by various higher education institutions, community and professional associations, and educational organizations. Common themes in these definitions include enhancing collaborations among universi-

ties and communities, and impacts such as improved quality of life, social development, and economic growth (Olson & Brennan, 2017). Among the many existing definitions within the field of higher education, we focus on the Carnegie Foundation definition, which has become increasingly popular. The Carnegie Foundation defines university–community engagement as the collaboration between universities and their broader communities for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity (Gruber, 2017). University–community engagement entails the interaction and cooperation between universities and their communities to not only promote science and technology transfer but also its application, social development, and improvement of community members' welfare. In this regard, communities can be local, regional, national, or international, and these partnerships address these communities' concerns and enhance teaching, research, and knowledge transfer for economic development (Gruber, 2017).

According to Charles et al. (2010), both governments and policymakers have exhibited growing interest in university–community engagement. University–community engagement is a fundamental aspect in promoting knowledge creation and transfer for socioeconomic development. Governments therefore have invested in university–community engagement and desire to determine the impact of such venture and investment, resulting in a need to evaluate university–community engagement. The increased level of engagement activity leads both universities and their partners to seek improvement and to look for ways and tools to benchmark themselves against other universities and other community engagement systems.

Community engagement has received widespread attention. In the United Kingdom, for example, the National Coordinating Center for Public Engagement (NCCPE) as part of the Beacons of Public Engagement has created a self-assessment tool to help universities assess their progress in community engagement (Hanover Research, 2014). The Research Councils U.K. (RCUK) also provides a useful evaluation framework for university–community engagement in three steps: formative evaluation, process evaluation, and impact evaluation. In the United States, the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification, drawing its criteria from indicators of engagement, offers a tool for evaluation and to help reaffirm institutional commitment to community engagement. In Canada, the Community Engaged Scholarship Institute and the Research Shop have explored the evaluation mechanisms found within the literature that are used to assess community-based participatory research projects (Nash, 2015). A majority of these evaluation approaches suggest the use of indicators and also provide a three-step evaluation process consisting of purpose, process, and impacts.

The choice of indicators for these evaluation activities carries vital implications for universities, community stakeholders, and other policymakers. According to Rossi and Rosli (2015), indicators are performative, as they establish what engagement activities policymakers and funding agencies consider important. Choice of indicators in turn determines what kind of performance may be associated with rewards. It is therefore important to carefully choose evaluation indicators, which will allow fair and accurate representation of engagement activities.

However, despite this widespread attention toward university–community engagement, evaluating it from a community perspective presents problems (Hart & Northmore, 2011). There is a paucity of theoretical investigations into what indicators are most appropriate to evaluate university–community engagement (Rossi & Rosli, 2015). To help stakeholders and policymakers evaluate university–community engagement, a clear understanding of the domains of university–community engagement and the indicators that characterize them is important.

The main aim of this article is to discuss previous evaluation approaches, identify the indicators used and their implications for evaluation, and propose some directions for improvement. Accordingly, I present the first two research questions of this literature review: Which are the key performance indicators of university–community engagement? What are the implications of these indicators to evaluation? To answer these questions, I identify previous approaches in evaluation and their limitations. Under the guidance of previous approaches, I offer a conceptual framework consisting of three domains of university–community engagement: purpose, process, and community impacts. I then identify the key performance indicators under these domains

and the implications of these indicators for evaluation. Finally, I identify some gaps for future research orientations and derive some implications for policy.

The results of this study are expected to provide more insight into further theoretical research on evaluating university–community engagement. The study will promote public understanding and support for university–community engagement practices. It also can act as a reference to policymakers for the purpose of refining the existing frameworks.

Method

This research uses the narrative literature review method, which was chosen to synthesize the findings and implications of included studies due to the predominantly descriptive nature of university–community engagement activities (Lundberg et al., 2020). Narrative reviews have been found useful in offering breadth of literature coverage and flexibility to deal with evolving knowledge and concepts, as well as describing the current state-of-art of a particular topic (Ferrari, 2015). However, they have been criticized for a lack of acknowledged guidelines and for often failing to disclose study inclusion criteria (J. A. Byrne, 2016). To deal with these limitations, Ferrari (2015) has proposed borrowing from the systematic review methodologies, which benefit from guidelines such as PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses). We adopt this proposition in our research, and have outlined the conduct of exclusion and inclusion of this study. This approach is expected to reduce bias in the selection of articles for review and therefore improve the quality of the narrative review.

Search Strategy

The literature scan was conducted through three databases: Google Scholar, which, in addition to journal articles, also contains doctoral dissertations and research reports, both of which are advantageous (Ruitenburg & Tigchelaar, 2021) because the number of publications on evaluating university–community engagement is known to be small (Northmore & Hart, 2011; Rowe & Frewer, 2000); the Web of Science, one of the largest scientific databases for social research; and the Educational Resource Information Center (ERIC), a domain-specific database that collects only educational research (Honingh et al., 2018). No time restrictions were placed; the results thus included all studies from these databases until July 2019. Three search terms were used: "university purpose towards community engagement," "process of university-community engagement," and "community impacts of university-community engagement." This resulted in 47 studies.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The search results using the various terms as well as the progressive filtering of abstracts using various inclusion and exclusion criteria are shown in Figure 1. To select the appropriate studies, a number of inclusion and exclusion criteria were used. Studies were included if (a) they contained a measure of evaluating university–community engagement, the process of university–community engagement, and community impacts of university–community engagement; (b) the participants were university staff, students, and community members; (c) the study described quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-methods research; and (d) the study was published in English. Articles were excluded if they (a) were published in other languages or (b) reported engagement activities between communities and other nonuniversity institutions.

In addition to studies presented in peer-reviewed journals, which made up the majority of the included studies, studies published in other formats, such as reports and books, both qualitative and quantitative, were also included provided that they met the inclusion criteria. This sort of allowance enables the compiling and mapping of theoretical perspectives and empirical focuses, and it results in earlier research rather than attempting to evaluate the quality of research (Kirsten, 2020).

Although the use of these different strategies helped ensure that the results included many potentially eligible studies on the topic of university–community engagement, the study is not without limitations. The search may have missed studies on university–community engagement that used different terminology.

Results

This section presents previous evaluation approaches in university–community en-

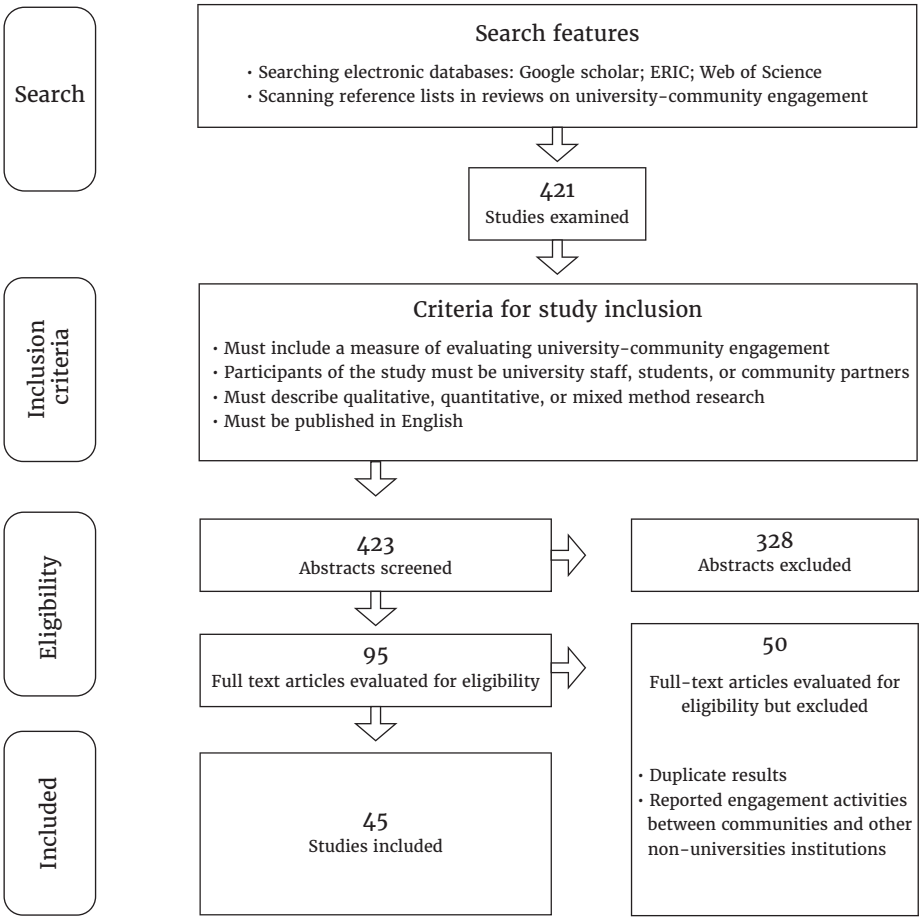

Figure 1. Selection of Studies for Review

gagement. In this section, I also develop a conceptual framework comprising three domains of university–community engagement.

Previous Approaches in Evaluating University–Community Engagement

Garlick and Langworthy (2008) examined evaluation approaches around the world and came up with three broad types of evaluation that universities have applied to university–community engagement: (1) guided self-evaluation with expert peer review and iterative agreement, (2) a metric evaluation based on an agreed schedule of measures, and (3) a combination of both. Garlick and Langworthy found that in most cases, the focus is on the process rather than the outcomes of engagement. The lack of focus on outcomes could result from the necessarily longitudinal and diverse nature of many of these outcomes, which extend beyond standard economic and social benefits. A more recent study (Plummer et al., 2021), although focusing on both the process and the outcomes of higher education institution (HEI) community engagement, fails to include a community perspective in the evaluation process. The questionnaires seeking to establish the state of HEI–community partnerships were distributed to only the HEIs and not the community partners. This phenomenon is echoed by a study that proposes a new conceptual framework for evaluating university–community engagement focused on technology transfer and innovation, continuing education, and social engagement (Secundo et al., 2017). Although the study evaluated social engagement, the indicators proposed are based on the university's perspective, including the

number of socially active university alumni and number of events open to the community. The omission of the community's perspective could reflect the diverse nature of community partners as well as contextual considerations, making it difficult to compare across borders and institutions.

In Canada, the Community Engaged Scholarship Institute and the Research Shop have explored the evaluation mechanisms found within the literature that are used to assess community-based participatory research projects (Nash, 2015). In their evaluation process they came up with a framework consisting of three key stages of evaluation: start-point evaluation, process evaluation, and output/outcome evaluation. In start-point evaluation the focus is on indicators such as organization capacity. In process evaluation the focus is on conduction of the project. In output/outcome evaluation the focus is on outreach and impacts. Unlike other evaluation tools that focus only on the process and outcome of engagement, Nash's framework integrates a start-point evaluation focusing on organization capacity. Evaluating the organization capacity is useful in providing further insight into the scope and intensity of planning accorded to the project at the beginning, which consequently determines how the rest of the project ensues.

In the United States, there is wide use of the Carnegie Engagement Elective Classification, a voluntary comparative scheme for universities involved in community engagement work (K. Smith et al., 2014). This tool is considered strong on using indicators to assess institutional effectiveness and measure the impact of community engagement initiatives on students, academic staff, the institution, and the community. However, it remains a system structured uniquely for American universities to compare their engagement activities and levels of performance using a set of indicators, a factor that makes the system inaccessible to a broader international audience (Hart & Northmore, 2011).

Another variation is the Outreach and Engagement Measurement Instrument (OEMI), which was developed by Michigan State University (MSU; Fitzgerald et al., 2010). This instrument collects data annually and classifies it based on faculty effort (time spent, issue tackled, university strategic imperatives, forms of engagement, location of proposed impact, funding) and data of specific projects (purposes, methods, involvement of partners, involvement of students, impacts, creation of intellectual property, and duration). The OEMI has been praised by Hanover Research (2014) as one of the most significant contributions that MSU has made in an effort to effectively measure and benchmark engagement. Its online survey provides rich data that describes engagement activities to the community.

In the United Kingdom, Bradford University has established a qualitative tool based on four principles—reciprocity, externalities, access, and partnerships (REAP)—to evaluate community engagement (Pearce et al., 2008). The tool is used to provide a framework for measuring achievement in engagement as well as allowing greater involvement by engagement partners who are encouraged to become part of the assessment process (K. Smith et al., 2014). Unlike previous frameworks, the REAP approach allows involvement of engagement partners in the assessment process. When community partners participate, they may not only feel a greater a sense of inclusion, but also provide more insight into the assessment process as well as areas that need improvement. Although the REAP approach is considered highly useful, it faces limitations, including the difficulty of collecting baseline data and indicators, and a failure to measure economic impact (Northmore & Hart, 2011).

In the United Kingdom, the Higher Education Business and Community Interaction Survey, undertaken by the Higher Education Funding Council for England, has been developed. This annual survey is aimed at capturing the intensity and characteristics of the exchange of knowledge between higher education institutions and the community (Rossi & Rosli, 2015). It makes full use of standardized indicators such as patent licenses that have been well developed over time and are reasonably comparable internationally, and also includes a wider set of new quantitative indicators as well as some qualitative questions. Although this tool is effective and information collected through this survey is used to support evidence-based policy-making, initial work on the very first survey found that many universities struggled to complete different questions due to the limitations of their databases (Charles et al., 2010). It is also reported that only a few

universities use this model with appreciable intensity and success, as it is suitable to a limited number of scientific fields (Rossi & Rosli, 2015). Unlike the previous approaches that have been criticized for their inapplicability to international comparisons, the Higher Education Business and Community Interaction Survey uses standardized indicators and can be used for benchmarking internationally.

Another tool in the United Kingdom, developed by the National Coordinating Centre for Public Engagement (NCCPE), provides an accessible guide that can assist academics, university administrators, and community partners interested in monitoring and evaluating university–community engagement (Northmore & Hart, 2011). The NCCPE approach suggests evaluation with nine indicators across three distinct categories of engagement: purpose, processes, and people (Hanover Research, 2014). Although this approach integrates evaluation of impacts among the people in the community, much of its focus is on the university, and its attempt to evaluate university–community engagement is from a perspective rooted in higher education. The RCUK also provides a useful evaluation framework for university–community engagement consisting of three steps: formative evaluation, process evaluation, and impact evaluation. This approach, similar to the majority of the previous ones, advocates evaluation throughout the process of planning, delivering, and assessing the outcomes of community engagement projects. Evaluating the three processes of engagement could provide more holistic results, as all three steps affect each other and it is thus important for evaluation tools to capture each step.

Domains of University–Community Engagement

Community-based evaluation pays attention to the critical commitment of engagement work: inclusion, mutually beneficial outcomes, and engaging community as competent colleagues in the creation of knowledge (Weiss & Norris, 2019). According to Creighton (2006), determining what constitutes effective community engagement from a community perspective is a crucial step toward building strong relationships between universities and their community partners. In this article, we take "community-based lens" as a representation of the community members. A member of the community looking at a university's commitment to its community would look for several aspects: university purpose, university–community engagement process, and community impacts.

Under the guidance of previous approaches (Hanover Research, 2014; Nash, 2015; Stanton, 2012), we come up with a conceptual framework consisting of three domains of university–community engagement: purpose, process, and community impacts. From a community perspective, university identity (purpose) in regard to community engagement, delivery of engagement activities (process), and the resulting community impacts are significant in conducting a comprehensive evaluation.

Purpose

With regard to community engagement, the term "purpose" has been defined in several ways. Purpose refers to university identity and culture, which, according to J. V. Byrne (2019), is the integrated pattern of university structures and approaches to knowledge creation and the balance of teaching, scholarship, and service. This may determine the extent to which community engagement is ingrained in the vision and mission of the university, which in turn affects how the university brings engagement to the view of its stakeholders, including the public. In their description of university purpose, Sandmann et al. (2009) observed that in the 21st century, universities have progressively turned to community engagement as a natural progression of their traditional missions. With these missions, universities are distinctively positioned to address community issues; engage in service to the local community; and involve students, faculty, and administrators in this shared purpose. According to Szilagyi et al. (2014), purpose in regard to university–community engagement includes administrative and leadership arrangements, organized committees, facilities provided, and financial and nonfinancial support. The NCCPE regards purpose in terms of aspects such as the mission of the university toward community engagement, leadership strategies, and communication (Hanover Research, 2014), as shown in Table 1. Purpose in an engaged university, accordng to Stanton (2012), is the university's intentional public purpose beyond developing new knowledge for its own sake. It is an understanding of not just what it is good at, but what it is good for

Table 1. Possible Indicators of University Purpose Regarding Community Engagement

Domain	Dimension	Questions/Indicators
Purpose	Mission	Whether the university has generated a shared understanding of the purpose, value, and meaning of engagement and embedded this in the university strategy and mission.
	Leadership	Whether the university supports champions across the organization who embrace engagement.
	Communication	Whether the university communicates consistent, precise messages to confirm, promote, and celebrate it, and warrant open and collaborative communication with internal and external stakeholders.

Note. Adapted from the National Coordinating Center for Public Engagement (NCCPE) Edge tool. (Hanover Research, 2014)

(Goddard et al., 2016).

University mission is an indicator of whether a university is purposeful toward incorporating community engagement in its core functions and also, according to Hollander et al. (2002), whether the university explicitly articulates commitment to the public purposes of higher education. Vidal et al. (2002) ascertained university mission as an essential institutional aspect toward the support of community engagement. Some of the university mission indicators in regard to community engagement also mention community engagement and outreach as a part of what the university does (Holland, 1997). Mugabi (2015) pointed out that universities that recognize community engagement as their core function have integrated aspects of community engagement into their curricular activities and policies. Such universities' mission statements reference contribution to the socioeconomic transformation of their communities.

Leadership has also been suggested as a key determinant of university–community engagement. According to Hollander et al. (2002), leadership plays an important role in bringing university–community engagement from the margins to the mainstream. University leadership, according to Liang and Sandmann (2015), is multilayered, involving formal (chancellors, presidents, provosts, deans) and informal leaders (staff, students, and community members involved in various engagement initiatives). Some indicators of university purpose are shown by how the formal, informal, and administrative leadership support university–community engagement (Liang & Sandmann, 2015). For example, they may foster promotion and tenure systems that recognize, document, and reward the scholarship of engagement (Hollander et al., 2002).

Communication has also been demonstrated to be crucial in university–community engagement. University communication regarding university purpose aims for awareness of university–community engagement work (Arrazattee et al., 2013). Indicators include factors such as whether the university communicates consistent, precise messages to celebrate and reinforce university–community engagement (Hollander et al., 2002). Many universities purposefully incorporate the language of community engagement into their missions and actively carry out service-oriented programming as part of university pedagogy (Rodwell & Klugh, 2014). Hanover Research (2014) supported the inclusion of language as a key indicator of university–community engagement. Universities have various modes of communication, including reports and school motto, as well as leaders who have the potential to propagate the culture of engagement in both the university and the community.

Process

Most researchers agree that process can be perceived as the type and extent of efforts to integrate community engagement into the activities of the university (Hanover Research, 2014; Stanton, 2012). Szilagyi et al. (2014) explained process as a description of activities undertaken regarding commu-

nity engagement. The Carnegie Foundation proposes that universities self-assess their programs through indicators of process, such as institutional commitment, partnerships, and outreach and curricular engagement (Hanover Research, 2014).

Process indicators are shown by university commitment to community engagement, through factors such as organizational strategies, policies, structures, and programs (Mugabi, 2015). The NCCPE pointed out factors such as institutional support, academic programs, and recognition of community engagement as measures and indicators of the degree to which institutions have meaningful and well-developed university–community engagement processes (Hanover Research, 2014). Other potential indicators of the process of community engagement include public access to facilities, faculty engagement, student engagement, and public access to knowledge (Northmore & Hart, 2011). Process-oriented evaluation is thus an important way of determining commitment in maintaining the process of university–community engagement over time.

According to Hart and Northmore (2011), the NCCPE has also come up with a seven-dimension description of the process of community engagement (Table 2) showing the indicators of engagement. Other indicators to consider when evaluating the process of university–community engagement include engaged research, teaching and learning (accredited community-engaged learning and research), student volunteering, public engagement and involvement, and institutional infrastructure and architecture (Irish Universities Association, 2018).

Community Impacts

Scholars have proposed that emphasis should be put on what the university does to address the needs of the region (Charles et al., 2010). Universities are thus increasing their efforts to demonstrate their social value more clearly (J. Smith et al., 2017). They do so by engaging their local communities to achieve positive impacts, including strengthened democratic values, educated and engaged citizens, and social and economic development. It is thus crucial for program stakeholders and funders to pose questions such as whether engagement is making a difference and, if so, how much (Khandker et al., 2009). Singh (2017) noted that although community impacts are often neglected in favor of other engagement domains, they provide a clear, concise means of addressing these questions, and it is critical for stakeholders to define, capture, and communicate their impacts. Stanton (2012) stated that evaluating community impacts helps establish whether engagement activities lead not only to advances in knowledge but also to improved life in the communities and the extent of such improvements. Furthermore, evaluating community impacts can yield insights into why a program may not deliver as intended, and provide a base for improvement.

The W. K. Kellogg Foundation, according to Erickson (2010), used quantitative measures to assess community impacts. Quantitative measures, which look at measurable, numerical relationships, may provide more precise and valuable results regarding the community impacts of university–community engagement. The foundation also considered the longevity of projects beyond the life of the grant and use of available grant funds to leverage additional support as indicators of community project success. On the other hand, the Carnegie Foundation requires that U.S. institutions demonstrate the impact of university–community engagement to achieve the elective community engagement classification (Hanover Research, 2014). This requirement may promote the culture of measuring community impacts among the institutions, which, in turn, may provide insight on areas necessitating improvements and lead to better engagement practices.

As proposed by Leuci and Blewett (2008), Table 3 shows potential community impact indicators, which are grouped into short-term results, medium-term results, and long-term results. This approach is useful in evaluating impacts that occur in longitudinal and extended periods of time.

Discussion

Previous Approaches

Existing literature shows that there are no clear practices in effectively measuring university–community engagement, and the development of effective evaluation approaches and tools is currently in a formative stage (Hanover Research, 2014). Some of the previous approaches in this study have been identified in the section Previous Approaches in Evaluating

Table 2. Seven Dimensions of the Community Engagement Process, Showing Various Indicators

Domain	Dimension	Indicators
Process	Public access to university resources	• Shared physical facilities such as museums, libraries, and archives • Public access to sports facilities
	Community participants' involvement	• Including practitioners as teachers • Inviting community members to coteach courses both in the classrooms and in the field
	Public access to university knowledge	• Public intellectual activities such as contribution to public debate and advisory boards • Access to university curricula • Publicly accessible database of university skill • Public engagement in research
	Student involvement	• Student involvement in volunteering activities • Number of campus tours • Number of school visits and talks • Experiential learning • Curricular engagement • Student-led innovations that have a social impact
	Faculty engagement	• Research clusters focusing on community needs • Current and previous engaged research • Volunteering outside working hours • Staff with community engagement as a specific part of their job • Promotion strategies that reward community engagement • Showcasing engaged research activities • Public lectures
	Promoting economic rejuvenation and enterprise in community engagement	• Research partnerships and technology transfer • Meeting regional skills needs • Strategies to increase innovation • Business advisory services offering support for community–university collaborations • Awards for entrepreneurial projects
Process	Institutional relationship and collaboration strengthening	• University office for community engagement • Joint community-based research programs responsive to community-identified needs • University–community collaborations for learning and dissemination of knowledge • Community members included in the university's governing body. • Website with community pages and activities • Conferences on public concerns and with public access • Corporate social responsibility

Note. Adapted from the NCCPE. (Hanover Research, 2014)

Table 3. Potential Community Impact Indicators

Domain	Indicators		
	Short-term results: Learning	Medium-term results: Actions	Long-term results: Conditions
Community Impacts	• Expansion of knowledge and understanding of economic trends and conditions and community approaches for attaining their desired future • Perceptions and awareness among the stakeholders • Application and usage of output	• Expansion of resources and funds leveraged • Increased networks and collaborations • More informed decision making and leadership • Confidence of community project partners • Enlargement of projects	• Development, retention, and expansion of sustainable economic opportunities • Increased wealth and income • Reduced poverty

Note. Adapted from Leuci & Blewett, 2008.

University–Community Engagement. The results indicate that the approaches vary from country to country and even among institutions within the same country. This variation, which has not been explained, could result from the differences between the universities' priorities and tastes or could reflect the communities with which they engage.

Some of the approaches have been criticized for lack of some of the parameters essential for evaluation. Langworthy and Garlick (2008), for example, have reported that some approaches do not indicate the outcome of university–community engagement. Furthermore, some frameworks fail to involve the community partners in the evaluation process (Plummer et al., 2021; Secundo et al., 2017). It is also clear from the results that there are concerted efforts to improve on the existing approaches. Although Plummer et al. (2021) failed to include community partners in the evaluation process, in a second questionnaire aimed at examining how best to assess the performance of community engagement, they included community partners. Involvement of both university and community partners in evaluation processes is necessary, considering the importance of evaluation to the universities themselves, the community, and the policymakers.

Some evaluation approaches also seem inappropriate for benchmarking purposes, as they lack standard and comprehensive indicators. The Carnegie Foundation, for instance, includes indicators that are tailored specifically for American universities. The use of standard and comprehensive indicators would not only enable universities to benchmark and compare some common indicators, but also provide policymakers with information to allow them to use specific indicators for strategic management.

Additionally, the existing approaches differ in complexity, with some reported to be rather challenging to the universities (Charles et al., 2010). For example, the Higher Education Business and Community Interaction Survey is used exhaustively by only a few universities, as it is suitable only for a limited number of scientific fields. Community members may find similarly complex or specialized evaluation methodologies no easier to apply.

Challenges in Evaluation

The studies under review reveal that the majority of evaluation is directed toward other aspects of university–community engagement, neglecting to measure the impacts on the community. Rowe and Frewer (2000) had noted that in assess-

ing the efficiency of public involvement in science and technology policy, much of the argument in the literature focuses on what makes for a successful process, rather than how to measure effective outcomes and impacts. Northmore and Hart (2011) have reviewed available literature on university–community engagement and found that the largest numbers of measures are for assessing individual, group, or project characteristics, with impacts and outcome measures being the least numerous. In their review they found minimal tools for capturing the community perspective. Currently this area shows significant improvement. For example, there are publications on the various methods of evaluation, their implications and challenges. But in view of these challenges reported, there is need to continue sharing information in order to perfect university–community engagement and its evaluation. The available literature reveals challenges to evaluation in four areas: methodological limitations; limitations on quantifying performance indicators of university–community engagement; limitations on quantifying the variety of community impacts; and the causality problem.

Methodological Limitations

The studies under review reveal that although the various evaluation systems and tools capture a full range of engagement activities, not all of them are investigated with the same degree of detail, and some aspects are overlooked, including community impacts. Unlike teaching impact measurement, for which numerous established methods are continually refined, an evaluation into community impact is still in the initial stages (Bornmann, 2012). For example, there is the question of what measurements can be applied across a wide range of engagement activities. Many activities are undertaken in broad ways in the community and hence tend to be unmeasured or unreported. As a consequence, efforts of individuals and changes in the community may be significant but go unnoticed. Northmore and Hart (2011) noted a deficiency in the methodology of evaluation as well as the lack of a standardized measurement instrument for evaluating university–community engagement. The current methods, such as the Higher Education Business and Community Interaction Survey, have been found to require further refining (Rossi & Rosli, 2015), as the variety of engagement activities measured are extensive but not exhaustive.

Limitations on Quantifying Performance Indicators of University–Community Engagement

Rossi and Rosli (2015) have indicated that university–community engagement indicators are difficult to observe and quantify. There are no established practices for determining quality and quantity in outreach and engagement, as there are for teaching and research. As a result, many university policymakers are not aware of the extent and impact of community engagement that occurs even within their own institutional spheres (Olowu, 2012). Indicators are a means of measuring the codifiable and measurable, whereas much university–community engagement defies measurement and is highly heterogeneous (Charles et al., 2010). Engagement indicators vary widely across universities, projects, faculties, and departments (Hart & Northmore, 2011). This variation may reflect the diversity of approaches of university–community engagement, which is conducted through diverse frequencies, characteristics, and interactions. It is therefore difficult to determine the quantity or amount of effort that a university has put into community engagement.

Limitations on Quantifying the Variety of Community Impacts

Demonstrating impact at the level of community well-being and placing an economic value on engagement activities is even more problematic (Pearce et al., 2008). Certain aspects of the community, including quality of life, businesses' innovation capacities, and sustainable use may have improved in ways that cannot be measured in quantifiable or economic values. Furthermore, university–community engagement usually occurs through interactions rather than simple transactions (Rossi & Rosli, 2015). These interactions generate strong spillovers that benefit groups beyond those involved in the initial engagement and in ways extending beyond economic benefits to social benefits (Jongbloed, 2008). Therefore, unlike other areas such as teaching, where there are relatively precise, repeatable, and codifiable inputs (lectures, seminars, conferences) and outputs (graduates, degrees or modules examined), community engagement has highly disparate impacts, making its outcomes difficult to validate (Charles

et al., 2010). Impacts cannot therefore be adequately captured by simple indicators of the output of the university–community engagement process and its economic value.

Further, in university–community engagement, academics and nonacademics come together through loose, informal, and changing networks (Jongbloed, 2008) in activities such as flow of information and sharing of ideas. The extent of such activities is difficult to capture and quantify through indicators.

Causality Problem

Bornmann (2012) stated that as a result of the diversity and far-reaching effects of engagement activities, it is not certain which impact can be attributed to which cause or specific activity. This uncertainty results from the time lag between the effect produced and the engagement activities that are supposed to have generated it, as well as the problem of disentangling the extent to which the engagement results were the sole or most significant causes of the effect produced (Reale et al., 2017).

Further, impacts of university–community engagement on regional development are not linear, but are often based on iterative, organic, and self-reinforcing processes. Therefore, impacts may gradually generate other changes that may be difficult to accurately attribute to specific actions.

Implications of the Indicators of the Three Domains of Evaluation

Implications of Purpose Indicators

In the process of evaluating university–community engagement, purpose is an important aspect. This review has noted the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification as a fairly good framework for evaluation. The Carnegie Community Engagement Classification has identified purpose as one of the requirements a university should meet in order to be classified. Institutions are asked first to document a set of foundational indicators in the category "institutional identity and culture," where one requirement is that the institution indicate that community engagement is a priority in its mission and provide relevant quotations from mission statements to demonstrate that priority (Jongbloed, 2008).

During the previous classifications, universities that did not show a sense of purpose toward community engagement (through mission, leadership, and communication) were denied the prestigious classification. In the questionnaire used for university classification, if the institution answers a majority of questions in this category in the affirmative, it makes sense for the institution to complete the rest of the questionnaire.

The use of university mission, leadership, and communication as indicators of university–community engagement, however, has some limitations.

The Problem of Quantity. Indicators regarding university–community engagement can manifest in many ways, and not all can be captured quantitatively (Jongbloed, 2008). These indicators (mission, leadership, and communication) are only presented as qualitative or descriptive data. This is a problem for researchers who aim to conduct quantitative studies as well as benchmarking across borders.

Communication Problems and Misrepresentation. According to Arrazattee et al. (2013), university–community engagement professionals often wish to increase public awareness of their work; however, in many universities communication is overseen by a centralized marketing office. Such offices are often run by individuals who are unacquainted with the partnership principles of the engagement initiative. These strictures on promotional channels may therefore lead to misrepresentation, even when engagement activities may in fact be effective and productive.

Implications of Process Indicators

Jongbloed (2008) has reported that authors recommend a focus on indicators of the engagement process instead of a focus on the outcomes or impact of such activities. However, process indicators are not necessarily confined to the proximate region of the university, but are more widely spread (Crescenzi & Percoco, 2012). For example, according to Jongbloed (2008), advisory work of academics, paid as well as voluntary, and entrepreneurial activities are used as indicators. However, they may take place or bring about results that are further away from the parent university. Entrepreneurial activities, for instance, cover all actions carried out by universities to set up new firms to exploit existing university capabilities.

The indicators of such activities are easily quantifiable and have therefore been the object of substantial research. However, some activities may initially be located in the immediate region of a university, but, due to the mobility of graduates and researchers, many will have been created further away from the parent university.

The focus on a limited variety of engagement process indicators creates problems of comparability and generates potentially undesirable behavioral incentives. Universities that perform activities that are not measurable are also unable to represent their community engagement accurately. According to Rossi and Rosli (2015), such inability to measure and communicate results may over time lead these institutions to move away from engagement activities whose performance is not adequately acknowledged and toward activities more accessible to discrete measurement. Doing so, however, may not actually translate into improved engagement activities, nor generate more significant benefits for the stakeholders that these universities interact with.

Implications of Community Impacts

Community impacts are challenging to capture and evaluate, a difficulty attributable to a broad range of factors noted by various authors (Bornmann, 2012; Charles et al., 2010; Howard, 2014; Jongbloed, 2008; Pearce et al., 2008; Rossi & Rosli, 2015). Indicators of community impact sometimes do not entirely cover the outcomes of a university–community engagement activity in the community. For example, because the impact of academic research is long-term and often indirect (Jongbloed, 2008), it is challenging to capture and quantify. Impact measures may be biased toward academic work that gains visibility, which tends to receive additional attention just because of such visibility (Jongbloed, 2008). Rossi and Rosli (2015) observed that since universities specializing in the arts and humanities rarely produce patentable research outputs, relying upon indicators focused on patents and licenses could introduce bias and prevent these universities from correctly representing their engagement activities.

Some indicators are derived from the community members' perspective of the engagement activity being evaluated. Although it is important to include community perspectives, Charles et al. (2010) noted that the university and the community may hold different perspectives; a project that delivered research income and publications might be positively viewed by a university, but if it was expected to deliver visible improvements to the community and did not, then the community might take a very different view. The perceived impact is therefore a complexly determined judgment that may be influenced more by the receptiveness of the user than by the efforts of the engagement to reach people.

Singh (2017) observed that community impacts often go unstated. Impact is often understood as a change that community engagement produces upon the economy and society at large. However, referring to such change as attributable poses some problems. A time lag occurs between the effect produced and the engagement activities that are supposed to have generated it. Therefore, it is difficult to ascertain the extent to which the engagement results were the sole or most significant causes of the effect (Reale et al., 2017).

Conclusion and Recommendations for Universities, Academics, and Community Partners

This literature review identified key performance indicators of three domains of university–community engagement: purpose, process, and community impacts. These three domains were chosen to bring out a community-based perspective that represents the community members. We establish that a member of the community concerned with a university's commitment to its community would look at these key indicators. This study has revealed that the use of these indicators has some implications that should be considered during evaluation. The study also establishes that a number of challenges remain. The following section outlines the challenges as well as the recommendations for each.

Methodological Limitations

This study reveals challenges of measurement, whereby tools for measuring university–community engagement are limited. Some frameworks fail to include community partners and indicators in the evaluation process, and evaluate university–community engagement only from a university's perspective. Furthermore, various frameworks lack comprehensive indicators to represent engagement activities that embrace a di-

verse range of fields, including sciences and arts. To deal with this challenge, we propose establishing tools that involve community partners in the evaluation process as well as comprehensive sets of indicators. These indicators should be suitable for use across a wide range of engagement activities as well as regions to enable comparability and benchmarking. In measuring the impact of teaching, numerous established methods are continually refined (Bornmann, 2012), and the same should occur in university–community engagement. Doing so will ensure that measurement is keeping up with changes in engagement strategies and activities and that evaluation is measuring the relevant aspects of engagement.

Limitations on Quantifying Performance Indicators of University–Community Engagement

University–community engagement approaches have been found to occur in diverse ways across universities, projects, faculties, and departments. Such variation could result from the nature of the universities' objectives and characteristics, community needs, and stakeholders' priorities. This diversity in turn leads to a myriad of indicators that are hard to observe and quantify. We therefore agree with Rossi and Rosli (2015) that the range of engagement indicators considered must be broad enough to reflect the variety of activities undertaken by universities. If the choice of activities to be measured is not comprehensive enough, the indicators may misrepresent the university–community engagement performance for universities that engage in activities that are not easily measured. Bornmann (2012) pointed out that university–community engagement evaluation should take into account the multiplicity of models of a successful community engagement endeavor. Evaluation thus should be adapted to the university's specific strengths in teaching, research, outreach, and the cultural context in which it exists. Additionally, developing frameworks for conducting evaluation throughout the process of planning, delivering, and assessing the outcomes of the community engagement projects is important for benchmarking. Since the three steps affect each other, it is important that policymakers understand the differences in the degree of support and planning allocated to each during the initial stages of an engagement program, and the effect that such distribution has on the outcomes. Appreciating the relationship among the three steps would allow more meaningful and insightful comparisons between different engagement systems and projects.

Further, relying on indicators reflecting the total amount of engagement activities performed, rather than on the degree of activities per unit staff, could disadvantage smaller universities (Rossi & Rosli, 2015). Therefore, during identification of indicators, it is important to consider the actual degree and intensity of activities performed per unit, not only the number and quantity of activities, which could be higher in universities with a higher number of staff and greater resources.

Limitations on Quantifying the Variety of Community Impacts

As revealed by this study, potential spillover benefits are common, whereby impacts of university–community engagement may extend beyond the intended beneficiaries. Therefore, evaluation should consider not only those beneficiaries intended in the initial arrangement, but also a wider range of other potential beneficiaries. For example, the informal interaction of academics and nonacademics often brings about knowledge diffusion and changes, which can hardly be confined to specific impact indicators. Thus, in order to deal with shortcomings affecting the use of indicators, there is need to devise ways of capturing changes that may not conform to explicit indicators. Also, impacts of university–community engagement activities may stretch over extended periods of time, so it is important to design tools that represent such impacts.

Further, impacts of university–community engagement extend beyond economic advantages to confer social benefits. Thus, capturing such impacts requires a comprehensive range of indicators that reflect work aimed not only at economic benefits but also social benefits. Furthermore, as suggested by Reale et al. (2017), evaluation should combine or integrate narratives with relevant qualitative and complementary quantitative indicators. This approach is helpful in grasping the multidimensional and contextual nature of complex community phenomena.

Causality Problem

Due to the difficulty in singling out the specific cause for a given impact, it may be

necessary to shorten the time devoted to evaluation. Evaluation should be performed much faster in order to establish the extent of effects produced by certain activities. Impact assessment methods should also consider other factors that may bring about the same impact.

Communication Problems and Misrepresentation

To deal with misrepresentation, communication on engagement activities and impacts should involve individuals acquainted with the partnership principles of the engagement initiative. Doing so would reduce misrepresentation of engagement activities. Despite attempts by university–community professionals to increase awareness of their work, the responsibility for communications may be overseen by individuals with only communication backgrounds (Arrazattee et al., 2013). There is therefore need to enhance teamwork between university–community engagement professionals and communication professionals. Such cooperation would ensure full representation of activities and also ensure the story is told from both the university's and the community's perspective.

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Community-Based Research in Practice: Faculty Reflections on a Collaborative Approach to Teaching CBR With a Variety of Community Partners

Jen McGovern, Marie Mele, and Sanjana Ragudaran

Abstract

This essay highlights a collaborative approach to teaching a university course on community-based research while working with a variety of community partners. As part of a broader research project, the course involved faculty from a range of disciplines as well as community sponsors from public and private sectors. Working with a complex array of stakeholders proved challenging at times, yet yielded rewards for the students and the professors teaching the course.

Keywords: community-based research, team teaching, collaboration

Community-based research (CBR) is a collaboration between researchers and community members to address local community needs. Professors interested in community outreach and engagement have increasingly utilized CBR as a teaching strategy (Fisher et al., 2004). Incorporating students into CBR projects provides opportunities for learners to engage with the local community and to gain valuable experience applying knowledge to real-world problems (Strand, 2000).

Despite the proliferation of CBR projects, many academics work on them with colleagues and students from within their own discipline. This choice is understandable given the constraints of university structure. However, finding innovative solutions to community needs often requires knowledge from multiple disciplines as well as from community partners and stakeholders. Professors have shown the strengths and drawbacks of using CBR as a teaching tool, but far less information is available on how partnering with other faculty can add to the value of CBR while posing unique challenges to professors and students. In addition, many CBR projects work with one outside community partner at a time. As the number and type of organizations involved in a CBR project increase, the project has both the potential to provide greater benefits to all members and the chance for conflicts of overlapping interests.

In this essay, we draw upon our experiences teaching a class on a community needs assessment. The class was part of a broader research project that involved faculty from a range of disciplines as well as community stakeholders from the public and private sectors. The experience allowed us to reflect on the challenges and rewards of using a team-teaching approach and of working with a variety of community partners. Though working with a complex array of stakeholders proved difficult at times, many benefits resulted from teaching the class.

Community-Based Research

Before examining the importance of collaboration, it is critical to review the value of CBR as a pedagogical strategy. CBR has been used in a variety of courses. For example, students in a social work course partnered with their professors to evaluate the implementation of a community benefits district within Baltimore city. This evaluation was a direct response to community members who

were concerned about the district (Hyde & Meyer, 2004). In another CBR course, medical sociology students worked with a grassroots community organization to design a project educating Omaha residents about lead poisoning prevention (Rajaram, 2007).

By using CBR in their courses, professors can guide students through a process of applying academic knowledge to real problems (Bach & Weinzimmer, 2011; Dale, 2005; Strand, 2000). Students can benefit greatly from classrooms that utilize CBR (Ingman, 2016). Research indicates that students who took a CBR course became aware of their community partners' missions, built confidence in their own research skills (Bach & Weinzimmer, 2011), and gained a sense of accountability and purpose in the process of carrying out the project (Strand, 2000). Students saw firsthand "that social research is seldom as linear, systematic, and subject to the researcher's control as textbook discussions would have us to believe" (Strand, 2000, p. 89).

Though these benefits can occur in many research courses, forming a partnership with community stakeholders makes CBR both unique and challenging (Apostolidis, 2013). University and community members should be engaged in every step of the process, and both parties should gain a clear benefit from the relationship (Marullo et al., 2009; Rajaram, 2007). Maintaining this symbiosis and keeping lines of communication open can be further complicated when the student body demographics differ drastically from those of the community organizations (Bach & Weinzimmer, 2011) and when the limitations of the academic calendar prevent students and faculty from getting to know the community before the project starts (Lewis, 2004).

Though bringing CBR into the classroom comes with many rewards, scholars note the challenge in simultaneously meeting community needs and university requirements. For professors, course planning and implementation are more demanding than in a traditional course. These demands also impact students, who must manage their schedules around the project (Rajaram, 2007). Even with a dedicated group of students and professors, academic calendars pose restraints on the type of research conducted and the timeline of project completion (Downey, 2018). Additionally, CBR projects are not always supported financially and have historically been undervalued in the tenure process (Dale, 2005; Merenstein, 2015).

Overall, scholars argue that teaching with CBR works best when there is a mutual partnership between the university and the community, and when the university values and supports the projects (Marullo et al., 2009; Mott, 2005). Although adequate scholarship addresses bringing CBR into the classroom, there are fewer examples of how to enhance CBR through collaboration. Since some social problems are "too broad or complex to be dealt with adequately by a single discipline" (Klein & Newell, 1997, p. 393), CBR courses can be improved by incorporating professors from different disciplines who can encourage students to see problems from multiple angles. Working together, the students and faculty have greater potential to improve nearby communities (Jones, 2010; Pestello et al., 1996).

Given the academic potential, team teaching must move beyond existing barriers. For example, programs that seek community change are often spread out among various departments at large universities even when they tackle similar issues and students only earn degrees by completing courses within their chosen majors (Mott, 2005). Universities that support creating new courses, cross-listing classes among various disciplines, and splitting course load credits among professors can often mitigate these problems (Hyde & Meyer, 2004; Klein & Newell, 1997); however, many universities do not support these endeavors. When the lack of university incentives for team teaching is combined with the above-mentioned restrictions for teaching CBR courses, it can be difficult to get faculty members on board.

Collaboration can also refer to working across organizational types. Both the local knowledge of the community and the specialized knowledge of students and faculty should be valued throughout the process (Beckman et al., 2011; Fisher et al., 2004; Rajaram, 2007). In addition to these stakeholders, it is also important to utilize the wisdom of additional public and private partners who frequently work in the community. Academics are not often encouraged to work with these practitioners, and CBR can serve as a valuable way to tap into their expertise (Mott, 2005).

Though outside collaborations can be valuable, problems such as miscommunications can arise. In addition, the university con-

stituents, the community, and the stakeholders may disagree on how to collect data (Silka et al., 2013). Issues and problems have been noted when working directly with a single partner (Rosing & Hofman, 2010), and such difficulties can be amplified when collaborating with multiple outside partners, especially if those partners have very different goals. Therefore, it is important to consider how multiple outside partnerships can influence teaching and learning in a CBR course.

In our recent experiences with a university–community partnership, we worked on a team that included faculty members from different departments as well as members of several outside groups. Collaborating with all of these groups was instrumental in teaching a CBR course that was connected to a larger research project. Team teaching and outside partnerships greatly enhanced the course; however, these aspects also created a unique set of challenges. Below, we describe the project before elaborating on the course experiences from both faculty teaching and student learning perspectives. Ultimately, we intend to show the rewards and challenges of teaching a CBR course in conjunction with projects that utilize multiple organizations in the planning and execution of community-based research.

The Research Project

Background

This CBR course was rooted in a larger community project with multiple stakeholders. Before describing the course, we give some background on the research and the stakeholders. In doing so, we name our university but give pseudonyms to other partners in order to protect the identities of the people and organizations involved.

This research project took place in Gardenville, a small city located within an hour of our campus. As in many communities in the United States, the history of racial segregation is reflected in the town's demographics. Just over half of the city's population identifies as Black or African American, but the majority of those residents are concentrated in one section of the city, Town Center. About one quarter of Gardenville residents identify as Hispanic or Latino; however, they are spread out more evenly among different portions of the city. At the time of the project launch, Town Center residents had significantly lower median incomes and median home values than residents in other parts of Gardenville (United States Census Bureau, 2017).

Given these demographics, the Gardenville Housing Authority (GHA) recognized the need for urban redevelopment. The GHA applied for and received a federal grant to fund a community needs assessment. The goal was to collect data that would guide community planning and that could be used to apply for additional aid related to documented community needs. GHA initially hired Urban Planners Plus (UPP), a planning and development company, to oversee the needs assessment. The Federal Government Organization (FGO) that issued the grant advised the GHA/UPP leaders to partner with a university in order to ensure integrity of the data collection process. Given this recommendation, GHA/UPP invited Monmouth University (MU) to participate in the project. The university assembled a team to assist with survey development and to oversee the data collection process. Professors from social work, sociology, and criminal justice joined the MU team based on their knowledge of issues related to the community and their proficiency with research methods. Finally, leaders of various community groups were invited to participate in the process by joining focus groups, offering ideas, and recruiting survey participants. Table 1 summarizes the key project stakeholders.

Representatives from each of the four local stakeholders (GHA, UPP, MU, and the community partners) established a core research team who could work together to plan and conduct the needs assessment and to set deadlines for the project execution. The project began with focus group meetings conducted by UPP. Based on the issues raised in these conversations, the core research team worked together to develop a questionnaire that community residents would respond to through interviews. The GHA advertised this survey to the community and scheduled times and locations where the interviews would take place. MU took charge of securing Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval and conducting the interviews. UPP then analyzed the results and shared them with the community. GHA and UPP requested that the required number of questionnaires be completed by late spring 2017. Because the survey would be administered in a face-to-face setting, there was a

Table 1. List of Stakeholders in Urban Redevelopment Planning

Stakeholder	Role
1. Gardenville Housing Authority (GHA)	Local government agency, original applicant for federal needs assessment/redevelopment grant
2. Urban Planners Plus (UPP)	Private urban planning company, hired by GHA to conduct a needs assessment and to create a redevelopment plan based on assessment data
3. Monmouth University (MU) • School dean • Assistant dean • Social work, sociology, and criminal justice professors	To ensure integrity of the data collection process, FGO recommended that GHA and UPP partner with a university. The university assisted in developing a needs assessment survey and oversaw the survey data collection process
4. Community partners • Town Center Community Health Organization • Youth After School Club of Town Center • Gardenville Middle School • Old President Elementary School • A Plus Charter School • Town Center Faith Association • Gardenville Senior Citizen Club • Seeds Urban Farm • Garden Village Housing Project residents • Peer Mentorship United Program • Stateside Adult Health Center • Gardenville Police Department	Community partners participated in UPP brainstorming sessions. The conversations from those sessions were instrumental to developing the questionnaire. Partners also provided space to conduct the survey and assisted with recruitment of survey participants
5. Federal Government Organization (FGO)	National government agency, issued and oversaw administration of grant

need for trained interviewers to conduct the surveys and to record the results. This need was the impetus to create a CBR course for students majoring in related fields.

Course Development

During the early stages of planning, the university representatives initiated discussions to create a multidisciplinary elective course that would be open to both undergraduate and graduate students. The purpose of the course was to involve students firsthand in the data collection while teaching them about the research process. Each of us from our respective disciplines of social work, criminal justice, and sociology came together to create the course. It was pertinent to meet and discuss course curriculum, assignments, and grading that would be carried out parallel to the needs assessment in the community. The curriculum was divided into three sections, with each professor teaching a section that best suited their strengths. The course used a hybrid model, as it was reflective of in-classroom learning followed by application in the field. Assessment of the students' work was performed both independently and in consultation between the three professors. In addition to administering the survey in the community and entering the data, students were asked to conduct their own research projects using the data they collected. Additionally, students wrote three reflections on their course experiences.

The first section of the course, taught by the social work professor, consisted of a community mapping project, reflecting the foundation of conducting a needs assessment. In this portion of the course, students learned the history of Gardenville, read related research, and visited the community. At the end of the first unit, students were required to create an asset map, write a literature review on a topic that interested them, and reflect on their initial experiences. The criminal justice professor took the teaching lead in the second section of the course, engaging students in the methodology of carrying out a needs assessment. Students were certified to conduct research with human participants, attended a workshop on survey administration, and provided feedback on the official questionnaire. In this section of the course, students proposed research questions that they could answer based on the questionnaire and wrote a detailed methods section describing how they would use the data to answer their question. They also administered the questionnaire in the field and composed a written reflection on these experiences. The final section of the course, taught by the sociologist, focused on data entry, analysis, and discussion around the limitations of the data. Students entered completed questionnaires into a database and followed through with answering their own research questions using the data they had entered. At the end of the course, students submitted a full research paper and a final course reflection. The three sections are summarized in Table 2.

Reflection and Evaluation

Collaborating With Community Partners for a CBR Course

Collaborating with other professors and with outside organizations was beneficial for this course; however, it also posed some unique challenges (see Table 3). Though our teaching was strongly supported by the university, the constraints of the academic schedule as well as the needs of the outside organizations greatly affected the planning

Table 2. Course Objectives and Assignments for Community-based Research Class

Professor	Course Objectives	Assignments
Professor 1 (social work)	Conduct a historical analysis of the community	• Conduct a broad literature review on a specific social problem • Create a community asset map • Submit a preliminary report examining research on the social problem in this community and relating the literature and community asset map
Professor 2 (criminal justice)	Deepen understanding of survey methodology	• Complete training program on human subjects research • Formally critique the survey instrument
Professor 3 (sociology)	Data analysis and interpretation Presenting the findings	• Submit weekly homework assignments analyzing small portions of survey data • Write a full research paper analyzing a specific social problem in the community • Deliver a formal research presentation to the class
All professors	Develop an understanding of the processes of community-based research involving multiple stakeholders	• Complete three reflection papers, one for each stage of the course

Table 3. Rewards and Challenges

	Rewards	Challenges
University support	• Paid course overload • Shared course designation • Encouragement from administration and deans	• Constraints on completing project within typical semester • Other professor commitments limited availability of course offering
Partnerships with outside organizations	• Professors established working relationships that were vital in course delivery and fieldwork • Partnering with stakeholders was useful in course delivery	• Working with stakeholders in the community meant little control over timelines and demanded flexibility • Course schedule shifted ahead from summer to spring, which impacted student registration • Course delivery was constantly challenged as we were implementing the survey while maintaining course rigor and expectations
Team-teaching environment	• Professors had a shared commitment and supported each other throughout the process	• Foundational information around topic was based on different professors' respective fields
CBR in the field	• Time invested with stakeholders prior to survey intervention established our presence in the project. • Our presence during data collection with students allowed us to teach them the process firsthand • Working with students in the field during survey implementation aided in course delivery	• Time and effort beyond that typical for course delivery was expended in this project and in developing and carrying out the course
Student learning and experiences	• Students had the valuable opportunity to learn firsthand how a needs assessment should be performed • Students expressed pride in their involvement in the project • Direct engagement allowed students to acquire a more in-depth understanding of the data collection process	• Prior research experiences varied greatly • Students spent time driving to multiple locations • Project miscommunications and delay led to student frustrations • The quality of data collected affected student research papers

and implementation of the course. Based on the original project timeline, faculty members suggested running a summer course to parallel the research project. When the community partners accelerated the data collection schedule, the course was moved to the spring semester. This schedule change ensured that students would have hands-on experiences with conducting the needs assessment but also hastened the planning process. Previous research recommended that the faculty get to know the community partners before engaging students; our time to do this was limited. Due to the academic calendar, we had to balance our desire for course development with the outside partner's schedule for data collection.

This change also meant the faculty had to balance their personal commitment to

the project with their existing obligations. Fortunately, the university was committed to the project and was able to support the course in a number of key ways. First, the administration approved team-teaching for the course, ensuring that the workload would be split among three professors. Second, each of the three professors was compensated with a one-credit overload. Next, the university agreed to run the course in a hybrid format so that students could earn credit hours for their work in the field, which also freed faculty to spend fewer hours in the classroom and more hours in the community. Finally, the university agreed to cross-list the course among four different disciplines (sociology, social work, criminal justice, and political science) to attract students from different majors. Without this vital support, the course might have stalled in the planning phase. These measures emphasize how critical university support is for facilitating courses that rely on collaborations across disciplines.

Though the course was strongly supported, the scheduling had an impact on student enrollment. By the time the course was announced, most students had their spring schedules finalized and were not willing or able to add a new course. Additionally, the course had to be planned around the three faculty members' existing schedules. The only available time was during the day, which limited the possibility of enrollment for many graduate and part-time students. Due to these constraints, only five graduate students and one undergraduate enrolled in the course. Though the students hailed from three different majors (criminal justice, public policy, and social work), we initially anticipated a bigger group with more undergraduates. The students' mutual interest in the project was a helpful common ground, especially because they did not share the same theoretical or methodological training.

The accelerated planning process may have held one unexpected reward: The faculty members quickly reached consensus about how to organize the course and evaluate student performance. Previous research shows that team teaching can lead to conflicts about which topics and theories to spend time on; however, the limited time frame and our shared commitment to working with the core research team left little time for disagreement.

The first part of the course, the community mapping project, presented the greatest challenge to the team-teaching concept because the social work professor was responsible for setting the context of the project. She was very conscious that we would have students from multiple disciplines and faculty members who had different ways of viewing the issues connected to the Town Center. Thus, she reached out to the other faculty members for suggestions on which literature to cover. She was able to collect readings on the history of the Town Center as well as peer-reviewed research that spanned the fields of sociology, psychology, social work, community practice, and community organizing. Although these readings set a good context for understanding the neighborhood in a broad sense and gave students multiple angles from which to view the research, the professor was able to incorporate only one reading that was specific to the field of criminal justice. She also noted that she felt much more confident instructing students on the issues and readings that were closer to her discipline.

Two of the professors (sociology and criminal justice) had more experience teaching research methods and agreed to cover the later classes focused on data collection and analysis. Working in teams can create tensions regarding which research methods are best, but these potential disagreements never arose because the research goals, methods, and plans were established by the various community partners. We simply had to teach the students how to carry out the planned research and engage them with critical questions on the advantages and disadvantages of the chosen methods. The biggest challenge to team teaching arose during the data analysis portion of the class, because the classroom instruction time was designed to refresh knowledge gained from previous courses. However, students from different majors had vastly different experience with the necessary ideas and techniques, which resulted in some students being able to perform statistical tests with little guidance while others needed outside tutoring and multiple office hour visits to run the same tests. Devoting extra time to data analysis was particularly burdensome for these students because it overlapped with the most demanding weeks in the field.

Once the planning for the course was finished, the execution went very smoothly. We were all present during the first course meeting, and we occasionally stopped by

other meetings, even if we were not the faculty of record. In addition, we partnered with the students frequently in the field. This field presence allowed us to establish relationships with the students so that if they had questions that fell outside one faculty member's disciplinary purview, we were able to direct them to one of the other professors. We were all open to working with the students even when it was not our week to lecture. Our offices are not located in the same space on campus, but regular meetings with the university representatives from the core research team ensured that we were always on the same page with respect to the needs assessment and gave us time to discuss the course progress or problems with individual students. The biggest challenge for all three of us was the strain on our time. We were able to provide a valuable opportunity for students, but doing so required more effort and time than a typical semester. We think we became stronger teachers from this experience, but we all put our personal research agendas on hold to participate in the project.

Working with other faculty on a CBR project had rewards and challenges, but so did working with partners outside the university. As noted earlier, we had to give up control over the timeline of the project and the research methods. As trained researchers, we had many suggestions on how to improve the needs assessment. The outside organizations were very receptive to the suggestions; however, their own constraints with time, money, and personnel limited their ability to incorporate every recommendation. For example, changing the data collection timeline enabled both UPP and GHA to use the findings in subsequent grant applications. Though beneficial, the new schedule strained students and faculty trying to fulfill obligations to this project alongside other commitments. There were several miscommunications with the core research team about when and where the students needed to collect data. Some students showed up at locations where there were no local residents. Other times and locations were changed with minimal notice. These issues were due to myriad factors like availability of public spaces and willingness of local residents to participate in the survey. Although the core research team was well-intentioned, such changes in essence made the faculty middle managers and left us frequently adjusting our requirements and expectations for the students.

Though these issues were not ideal for conducting research, working with outside organizations enhanced our CBR experience in numerous ways. First, the core research team collected vast amounts of data on the Town Center and made these documents available to us. We put many of their publications in the syllabus and did not have to spend time searching and compiling data to present in class. We were also able to connect directly with many local community employees and residents who gave us inside information about the Town Center that we used to develop the needs assessment and shared with the students. One community partner, a nonprofit organization, offered to host the students in their meeting space, which allowed the students to visit the Town Center and get a firsthand experience of what some of the residents and community organizers encountered on a daily basis. The core research team's role in the data collection process was also a major reward. With the goal of conducting face-to-face interviews with over 200 local residents, the team organized the times and places for the interviews and advertised to residents. They also produced the materials needed for data collection and often provided food and drink for the respondents and the interviewers. We acknowledge that we would have never been able to put that much effort into recruiting and organizing a community needs assessment while teaching a course overload. The biggest effort on our part was making sure we had ample student support to collect the data. The core research team took care of all the other details.

Student Learning in an Interdisciplinary Course

Students in the class learned how to conduct a needs assessment and learned more specifically about the Town Center. All students conducted survey interviews, recorded the data, and used the data to write a final course paper. The final course papers covered the following topics: education in Gardenville, a Town Center public safety needs assessment, Gardenville youth activities, Town Center residents' perceptions of police, and affordability and quality of housing in Gardenville.

Following the final projects, we reviewed the reflection papers that our students wrote as part of the course requirements. Each student wrote three reflections. The

first reflection was about their initial impression of the project and the community. The second reflection focused on student experiences in the field while conducting the survey. The final reflection assessed students' overall view of the project after completing the course.

At the start of the semester, students expressed their excitement about taking the course. The first reflection papers included comments such as "I was excited for what the class had to offer" and "I'm very interested to start our research within the community." One student wrote, "The opportunity to observe not from a distance, but as a major player in the project was encouraging and rewarding." In their initial reflections, students also highlighted the importance of making a difference in the community. Comments such as "I hope this project can really change the lives of the people" expressed a collective desire that the data collected would be used "to better aid the community."

This sense of hope was accompanied by an interest in listening to and learning from community residents as the project progressed. Several students reflected on the importance of hearing from residents about the challenges they faced and learning how the history of the city has influenced the community. Quite a few students expressed enjoyment in "getting to know the city" by visiting city landmarks and spending time with residents, in particular a long-term resident who came to the class to speak about the city's history. One student reflected on the "eye-opening experience" of interacting with residents, as it changed the student's perceptions of the city and the people who live there.

Another theme in students' reflections was anxiety and apprehension about the course itself. Several students expressed their concern about "balancing time between class and work," as they were unsure how they would manage the needs of the project with the demands of other courses, work, and family commitments. Student reflections included comments such as "This class provided me with a lot of stress and anxiety" and "It was stressful, but overall I enjoyed the class." In particular, several students felt that their own research projects suffered because of the course timeline. These students expressed frustration with the short amount of time they had to formulate their research question, administer the surveys, and analyze the data. Student reflections included comments such as "There was not enough data to answer research questions" and "More training was needed to prepare students to conduct surveys." One student added, "The course would have been more productive if it was split up between two semesters."

Finally, the students described their experiences while administering the surveys in the community. Their reflections included comments such as "There were some questions that as I asked, I felt couldn't apply to the person I was talking to" and "Some questions were difficult to answer due to the large number of response categories that respondents were asked to rank." Students also expressed concern over questions that prompted long answers that had to fit into preexisting response categories. As one student commented, "After each time the participant would tell me a story, he would state 'Did that answer your question' to which I would just re-read the question to him. It was difficult to get through because of this." Respondents often asked for clarification, but the students were not permitted to explain the questions. Students also commented on inconsistencies in data collection ("Too many people were collecting data and recording answers differently") and concerns about survey length and respondent fatigue ("During the end of respondents' time, they may answer however just to finish the survey").

Despite the limitations of the survey, it gave residents "a voice," a way for them to express their ideas on how to make their community better. One student wrote, "I know participants appreciated being heard." Another student added, "The survey was a morale booster to the people who have little to no voice about the direction their community should go." In the final reflection of the course, students expressed confidence that the project would help community residents who want to better themselves and their community. Although the project had its challenges, students expressed a sense of pride in their ability to "stay on track" and "adjust scheduling to assure every task was complete." As one student wrote, "Overall, it proved to be a great learning experience."

The high degree of student learning was rewarding; however, we also encountered multiple challenges unique to the team-teaching format and collaborative nature of this particular course. Concerning team

teaching, the professors felt that the transition between our course sections went smoothly, although one student wrote, "The organization of the class was at times confusing," and another mentioned, "The disorganization of the project and changing of professors was hard to adjust to, but information provided by professors during class gave me confidence." Another student expressed the feeling that "the goal posts were being moved" as the course shifted from one section to the next and expectations changed. It is possible that more students felt frustrated by the change in professors but were hesitant to express this directly to the professors through their reflections.

The majority of students' concerns over the demands of the project highlighted the unpredictability of the course. One student noted that the "fluid and unpredictable" project affected the class organization. The students collectively saw this as a major limitation of the course. They reflected on the lack of people available to administer surveys on short notice and the insufficiency of data to answer research questions (the data were not fully collected before their final papers were due). One student expressed the concern that the data "does not reflect the thought process of the entire community," since the surveys were often scheduled on short notice. Another student expressed frustration that "emails were sent out on the day of a survey, asking for students to participate."

These student concerns highlighted some challenges of working in a team with outside partners, but students also had many rewarding learning experiences. For example, several students commented on how comprehensive the survey instrument was in the topics it covered. One student wrote, "This is a way to really understand the community and get a feel for what they are doing." Despite this praise, the students would have liked to provide input on the format and content of the survey, which was largely completed before students reviewed the final draft. For example, they reflected on the wording of questions that confused them and the respondents. This confusion came from the use of acronyms that neither the respondent nor the student was familiar with, and the use of vague terms like "culture" and "housing quality." In their reflections, students expressed concern that respondents would feel "embarrassed" or "foolish" for not understanding certain terms, which could result in respondents having "little comfort in taking the survey." In addition, students also expressed that their personal research projects would have been stronger if they had input during the survey design phase. Student reflections included comments such as "It would have been nice to have been able to design our personal studies" and "We had ideas on different questions that could have been added to get a better idea of our specific topics."

Though working with multiple professors and multiple outside agencies created a number of challenges for our students, we believe that the overall experience was a valuable one (see Table 3). As one student wrote in the final course reflection, "I have learned that difficulty will occur in projects, not everything will go as expected, but it will all be worth it knowing you can possibly be changing the lives of others."

Conclusion

In summary, our experiences show that teaching a CBR course with multiple professors and multiple outside agencies can be extremely rewarding for students; however, many challenges need to be addressed before undertaking such a project. Based on our experiences, we feel strongly that faculty who wish to teach such courses in the future should secure sufficient university support and strategic investments from collaborators before moving ahead.

Because this essay is focused on the experiences of teaching and learning within the context of a university course, our conclusion focuses on the rewards and challenges for professors and students. We would have liked to also examine the community stakeholders' experiences, but the sheer number of stakeholders and their varied positions within this project placed such an analysis beyond the scope of this article. We hope that this essay will inspire future CBR researchers to produce reflections that likewise extend to community collaborators, even as we believe that the lessons learned here can still be helpful for all people involved in CBR.

Within our course, faculty members were strongly supported by the university's willingness to offer a cross-listed hybrid course, to split the credits among three faculty members, and to offer overload compensa-

tion. We were also buttressed by the outside agencies' knowledge, research, and planning of the community needs assessment, which allowed us to spend more time engaging students in the project. Furthermore, students discovered a great deal about the research process through participating in CBR as it unfolded, and they learned about the community through interacting directly with residents. Being able to shift their perspectives and see life through the residents' eyes ultimately helped students comment on how the survey instrument could have been improved to better highlight the residents' voices. This result is especially important given that the demographics of the university students differ from those of the Town Center residents. We believe taking the time to visit the community and meet residents was extremely valuable and minimized students' apprehensions about working in the community. We strongly recommend that faculty working with similar university–community differences devote course time to touring the community, visiting research sites, and engaging with residents prior to the research in order to maximize student learning experiences during the project.

Though our overall experience highlighted the rewards of this format, we also faced a number of challenges, many of which were by-products of a restrictive academic calendar. We had to accelerate our course preparation to meet the needs of outside agencies while also staying within the university schedule. Therefore, the course had to be flexible and evolve as the semester unfolded, which created stress and anxiety for students and reduced the quality of the final papers. The student suggestion for a two-semester course was laudable, but this would not have been feasible given the overall project timeline. In hindsight, we might have focused the course on data collection and input and offered one-credit independent studies over the summer term to students who wanted to produce better research papers with a more complete data set. This format might work well for professors who want to push their students to excel in courses where university restrictions create barriers to success.

Other rewards and challenges came from being part of a large team of various outside constituents. Students expressed their desire to mold the survey to their own research agendas; however, we had to compromise in order to meet the overall project goals. In addition, we needed to be very flexible to a constant set of changing demands. This was frustrating; however, the contributions of our partners alleviated demands on both faculty and students to design the questionnaire from scratch, to organize meetings, and to recruit participants. The amount of data we collected would not have been feasible if our faculty and student team also had to manage that workload in addition to regular course schedules. Though the issue of survey construction and project organization caused tensions, this mode of participation allowed students to see how research is carried out in real time. Published research rarely reflects the messiness of actual time spent in the field. Not only did the students experience this messiness firsthand, but they developed a critical understanding of how various issues affected the overall data collection and how such factors could influence their findings. In this process, the students observed how complex solving community problems can be; however, they also saw how they could be part of the solution.

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Considering the Role of a Bridge Person in a Community–University Partnership to Address Food Insecurity Among Migrant Families

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Abstract

Community-university partnerships are increasingly being used to address complex, systemic problems, such as food insecurity. However, this form of research is highly labour intensive and requires substantial time and energy. Several community-university partnerships have begun to appoint individuals who act to 'bridge' such partnerships to navigate complex social and political environments, and stimulate action. However, few examples exist that highlight the specific nature of these positions. To address this gap, the current paper describes the multiple and complicated roles played by a bridge person in supporting a project developed in response to food insecurity among migrant families. We outline three major roles that required varying forms of labour: 1) *Solving Problems* (Adaptive Labour), 2) *Navigating Scarcity* (Political Labour), and 3) *Responding to Urgency* (Emotional Labour). We intend to highlight the ambivalent spaces bridge people operate within and the implications for these individuals and the community-university partnerships they intend to support.

Keywords: community-based participatory research, community-university partnership, bridge, broker, food insecurity, migrants

Researchers and community stakeholders have increasingly turned to community–university partnerships and community-based participatory research (CBPR) to address complex, systemic problems (Abma et al., 2019; Israel, Schulz, et al., 2018). To this end, CBPR is highly labor intensive and requires substantial time and energy (Abma et al., 2019). Many partnerships may find it difficult to build and maintain momentum to sustain projects over time (Israel, Krieger, et al., 2006). To address this problem, some community–university partnerships appoint a specific individual, referred to here as a "bridge person," who is dedicated to building and nurturing partnerships, supporting the generation and mobilization of locally relevant knowledge, navigating complex social and political environments, and stimulating action and change (Belone et al., 2016; Levkoe & Stack-Cutler, 2018). Although the value of a bridge person in CBPR projects is widely recognized, few examples exist that highlight the specific nature of this position (Ward et al., 2009). Despite valuable insights from the literature, there remains scant documentation describing the role of bridge positions in community–university partnerships, the contextual and relational factors affecting their success, or the experiences of the individuals in these positions (Levkoe & Stack-Cutler, 2018; Steenbergen & Warren, 2018). We describe the multiple and complicated roles adopted by a bridge person in supporting a project developed to respond to a food insecurity crisis among migrant families in Edmonton while seeking to find longer term solutions. Specifically, we describe how, during the first 2 years of the project, three major roles of a bridge person developed organically: solving problems, navigating scarcity, and responding to urgency.

The Role of Bridging in CBPR

Across the literature, varying terms are used to describe the bridging role that might be played in a community–university partnership. We introduce some of these terms to highlight how the varying positions are conceived, and we outline the attributes necessary in such positions to enable a level of responsiveness to both community and university needs and to facilitate the mutual benefit desired in a partnership (Abma et al., 2019). Belone et al. (2016) have referred to a "bridge person" in the CBPR literature as an individual who is generally hired by a university to work closely with the community to support a project and/or intervention. Even though we haven't chosen to use it here, the term more often used to describe this intermediary role in the literature is "broker." Levkoe and Stack-Cutler (2018) referred to a broker as an individual or an organization that supports campus–community engagement by nurturing relationships and sharing knowledge between community and university partners. Knowledge brokering appears to be the most common form of brokering described in the literature, intended to close the "know–do gap" by generating relevant knowledge and aiding the process of transferring research findings into practice (McCall et al., 2017).

The specific role of knowledge brokers is to connect knowledge producers with knowledge users to facilitate knowledge transfer, exchange, and application to inform policy and practice (Lomas, 2007). Ward et al. (2009) further described a knowledge broker as an agent who acts as a go-between to serve the needs of multiple individuals or organizations with the primary purpose of making research and practice more accessible to each other. They suggested that the three main roles of a broker are knowledge management, linkage and exchange, and capacity building. As linking agents, brokers foster positive relationships between researchers and decision makers (McCall et al., 2017).

Most recently, Levkoe and Stack-Cutler (2018) reviewed a sample of brokering initiatives to understand how brokers contribute to successful community–university partnerships. They distinguished brokers by their structural allegiance (e.g., community-based vs. university-based), by dimension (which varies in terms of the level of engagement: deep vs. light), by the type of platform used (physical vs. virtual), by the scale of activities (local vs. national), and by the area of focus (specific vs. broad). As Levkoe and Stack-Cutler suggested, initiatives with deep engagement and a physical platform are the most resource intensive of all the forms of brokering yet have the potential to be the most responsive and accessible to community needs. Although they did not speak to brokering, Strand et al. (2003) have also defined three roles a researcher might adopt in a social change effort: initiator, consultant, or collaborator. The researcher as initiator manages the social change project as well as the research; the consultant—the role most often filled by researchers—manages only the research and does so at a distance; and the collaborator is a full participant in the social change project, but primarily as a researcher or educator.

To effectively navigate the role of bridging in a community–university partnership while being responsive to community needs, a bridge person must possess a range of attributes. These include interpersonal and group development skills, leadership and facilitation, and the ability to manage projects, mediate and negotiate expectations, and translate ideas and concepts (e.g., Levkoe & Stack-Cutler, 2018; Steenbergen & Warren, 2018). Pedagogical leadership skills are also needed for highly intensive projects to facilitate labor distribution, without which a bridge person can end up assuming all the social change roles themselves (Strand et al., 2003). In complex projects, a bridge person must also have a high tolerance for uncertainty and the ability to adapt since the process and outcomes of a project are rarely clear and depend on flexibility (Weerts & Sandmann, 2010).

Although the academic literature provides important context for the current article, the literature describing the role of a bridge person tends to remain at a conceptual level. Consequently, these positions are presented as largely uncomplicated and do not reflect the complexity of the projects they operate within. Similarly, this literature often portrays success within a bridge position as a matter of being in the right place at the right time and fails to acknowledge the muddled process of developing trusting relationships within CBPR projects (Mayan & Daum, 2015). Further, although it is generally accepted that research can be a messy process, particularly when using CBPR approaches, there is little acknowledgment or

discussion about the messiness of research in published accounts (Cook, 2009). Rather, the literature presents linear processes and neat final "products" with few, if any, references to divergences, conflicts, and failed attempts. Bradbury (2019) highlighted the problematic nature of presenting CBPR as uncomplicated, stating that it "is not a neutral affair, neither ethically nor politically" (p. xii). In proposing research as linear and politically neutral, we miss crucial opportunities to learn as a broader community of practice (Fletcher et al., 2014).

This article attempts to respond to this gap by describing the role of a bridge position in a community–university partnership that sought to address food insecurity for migrant families in Edmonton. Specifically, we highlight the contextual and relational factors that affected this bridge position and the experiences of the person working in this role. We hope that through providing a clearer definition of the role, we can enable other partnerships intending to hire a bridge person to improve the quality of their partnerships while better supporting the individuals who take on the complex work of bridging these partnerships and forging deeper community connections. Before describing our community–university partnership and the role of the bridge person in this particular project, we first describe food insecurity as a pervasive problem that provided a complex and unique context within which the bridge person was required to work.

Food Insecurity

The unique and complex issue of food insecurity made a bridge person all the more essential in this project. Food insecurity is defined by a lack of access to culturally desirable and nutritious food due both to financial constraints and an inadequate food supply (Riches, 2002). The rate of food insecurity has steadily risen in Canada over past decades due to neoliberal policies that have scaled back social security (Tarasuk, Mitchell, & Dachner, 2016). It is a significant and persistent problem that affects nearly one in eight Canadian households (Tarasuk, Li, et al., 2018). Families, particularly lone parent families headed by women, are more likely to experience food insecurity due to insufficient structural supports and assistance that result in less available income (Sword et al., 2006). Further, migrant families are far more likely to experience lower incomes and subsequent food insecurity than the national Canadian average (Food Banks Canada, 2015; Sword et al., 2006). Food deprivation has a range of negative social and health impacts across the life span, including adverse physical and mental health, social isolation, and stigma (Tarasuk, Mitchell, & Dachner, 2013a, 2013b; Vozoris & Tarasuk, 2003). In light of increasing rates of food insecurity and these associated impacts, addressing food insecurity has become a matter of urgency for community agencies and researchers.

Despite widespread agreement about the social and physical harms of food insecurity and the need to shift the current state, addressing food insecurity is far from simple and cannot be achieved through isolated, short-term charity approaches (Levkoe, 2011). Rather, the long-term structural challenges associated with pervasive food insecurity require longer term, meaningful, multifaceted approaches (Levkoe & Wakefield, 2011; Riches, 2002; Tarasuk, 2001). Strong partnerships and networks, including community–university partnerships, are capable of facilitating such cross-sectoral and multifaceted approaches and have been positioned as a way to generate collective action and mobilize actors across food systems (Dodd & Nelson, 2018; Levkoe, 2011; Tarasuk, 2001).

Our Community–University Partnership

To foster intentional connections across multiple social systems to address food insecurity, we established a community–university partnership between the University of Alberta ENRICH research team and the Multicultural Health Brokers in Edmonton, Alberta. With an appreciation for the value of research to inform their practice, the Multicultural Health Brokers has had a long-standing relationship with researchers at the University of Alberta spanning approximately 15 years. The partnership was built on years of collaboration on a variety of community-based research projects (e.g., Gokiert et al., 2012; Quintanilha, Mayan, Ngo, et al., 2018; Quintanilha, Thompson, et al., 2015; Yohani et al., 2019). One of these studies formed the basis for the project described in the current article and involved focus groups with Northeast African women to understand their perceptions of what constitutes a healthy pregnancy and their own experiences during pregnancy, which

brought to light the high levels of food insecurity many experienced (Quintanilha, Mayan, Thompson, & Bell, 2016).

The overarching mission of the Multicultural Health Brokers is to enhance the health and well-being of migrant families. The organization offers programs (e.g., Parenting in Two Cultures), home visitations, family intervention, counseling, English language learning, and employment programs. In total, the Multicultural Health Brokers employs a staff of more than 80 community health workers who support 23 ethnocultural communities and serve up to 2,000 families a year. Community health workers translate, mediate, and facilitate understanding between migrant women and health or social service providers. They also have typically emigrated from the same region as their clients and thus are able to provide important insights for service providers about the barriers that migrant families face.

This particular project was part of a larger research study focused on promoting healthy pregnancy weight gain. In this particular segment of the project, we sought to determine, develop, and implement strategies to support desired maternal health and pregnancy outcomes for pregnant and postpartum migrant women. As mentioned, we performed numerous interviews with women who, when asked about their nutrition during pregnancy, described a range of stressors and barriers that prevented them from accessing and consuming healthy foods (Quintanilha, Mayan, Thompson, & Bell, 2016). Through this research and a recognition that families were struggling with severe food insecurity, the focus of the partnership shifted from behavioral strategies to the structural barriers preventing maternal health and good pregnancy outcomes. Our first effort was to address the lack of same-day food availability. Although charity-based programs are limited in addressing the root causes of food insecurity (Pettes et al., 2016; Riches, 2002), it was necessary to deal with the crisis of a lack of same-day food with the aim of finding longer term strategies over time (Levkoe & Wakefield, 2011). Recognizing the scale of this endeavor and the need to foster a strong partnership (Levkoe & Stack-Cutler, 2018), we hired a full-time bridge person to develop actionable and relevant responses to the food insecurity faced by families, mobilize actors and resources across the local food system, and provide support to the university and the Multicultural Health Brokers.

The Bridge Position

The broad and challenging purpose of the bridge position on this project was both to develop innovative strategies to address the same-day food needs of migrant families and to find longer term approaches for addressing food insecurity. The bridge person (herein referred to as the community resource coordinator, or the CRC) would provide some much needed and dedicated capacity to the initiative. Out of the roles identified by Strand et al. (2003), the bridge position in our project most aligned with that of the initiator because she was hired to develop and manage the social change initiative, integrate knowledge where it would be valuable, and do so in collaboration with others directly involved in the partnership along with external stakeholders. The CRC role had three specific objectives: (1) find a short-term solution to same-day food needs, (2) act as a bridging agent across the community–university partnership and assist the CBPR process, and (3) nurture and support a food rescue microsystem to set the stage for a longer term solution.

The CRC was hired in May 2016 and was selected through a joint hiring process between the ENRICH research team and the Multicultural Health Brokers. The hiring committee was looking for someone who had strong relational and administrative skills, the ability to work across cultures, a general understanding of maternal health, some experience with CBPR, and an awareness of the issue of food insecurity and strategies to address it. The CRC position was funded through an 18-month research grant with a modest operating budget. The CRC was given temporary space as well as administrative support at both the Multicultural Health Brokers office and the university. This meant the CRC was equally accountable to the community-based organization and the university research team. Further, having "on site" space in two locations was essential for the bridge person as it supported a deep level of engagement that enabled connections and coordination across the partnership and fostered collective decision-making (Belone et al., 2016). For example, the CRC had a touchdown workspace in a busy, open area of the Multicultural Health Brokers, and the

community health workers would often see her working and use the opportunity to ask questions, voice their concerns, and share feedback about the program. They also used these conversations as a way to directly advocate for the families they worked with. Being so close to the community health workers and families also allowed the CRC to develop relationships that could not have been fostered otherwise, and improved her ability to quickly identify problems and adapt the initiative in meaningful ways.

Having a workspace at the university also meant the CRC could sometimes step away from the program to create space for a deeper level of reflection. To facilitate this reflection, the CRC and the university research team held weekly debriefing sessions to exchange ideas, discuss challenges, and brainstorm possible program improvements. Having shared space at the community organization in addition to the university enabled contextual learning, rapid knowledge exchange, and collaborative problem-solving. Ultimately, it also improved the quality of the partnership and what it could achieve.

Once hired, the CRC immediately began to attend parenting groups, workshops, and monthly meetings, and had one-on-one conversations with many of the community health workers to learn what was needed and what might work in this particular context. Food insecurity strategies that had been explored in the past were discussed within the partnership, and the CRC reached out to key partners within the Multicultural Health Brokers to develop an understanding about the histories, struggles, and successes of those strategies. In particular, the Northeast African community health workers offered significant guidance throughout the project and, along with the executive director and university researchers, formed a support team to ensure the strategy chosen (a) was culturally appropriate and relevant, (b) respected the dignity of clients as much as possible, and (c) had the potential to be sustainable.

In addition to having these conversations to gain local understanding, the CRC also researched and explored potential strategies adopted in other contexts that could be developed to increase women's access to culturally appropriate and nutritious foods. She additionally reached out to community programs, businesses, and governments both in Edmonton and across Canada, met with stakeholders, attended forums and workshops, toured facilities, and joined the Edmonton Food Council. Through these experiences, she developed a better sense of what was happening locally, nationally, and internationally to address food insecurity; assessed the resources that would be needed for each proposed strategy; and ascertained what assets were already available. These actions enabled her to create an inventory of missing or inadequate resources, such as space, funding, food storage, relationships with industry and business, and human capital (mostly voluntary). Through this initial research, the CRC generated practically useful knowledge she would present to the support team and families to make collaborative decisions about the best possible approach. In performing this foundational work, she not only facilitated collaboration between the community-based organization and university research team, she also acted as a bridge to connect various individuals (e.g., community members, organizational staff, policymakers, volunteers), resources (e.g., foods and funding), organizations (e.g., the major "players" in food insecurity), and multiple knowledges (e.g., practice-based, experiential, research-generated). The bridge position in this project thus reflected what Weerts and Sandmann (2010) have described as a community-based problem solver, "on the front lines of making transformational changes in communities" (p. 643).

Through the initial work by the CRC, the support team collectively decided a food rescue program—the Grocery Run—was the best course of action in the short term for immediately increasing women's access to culturally appropriate and nutritious foods. The premise of the program was to "rescue" food that would otherwise be discarded and rapidly redistribute it to families. With the new contacts she had made across the city, the CRC found a number of local businesses who were willing to redirect and donate their surplus food to the Grocery Run. The CRC primarily targeted fresh produce, the desire and need for which had been identified through a survey distributed to families and through informal conversations with community health workers. To support the implementation of the program, the CRC also accessed a large number of volunteers through the university's alumni association and provided operational training in the collection and redistribution of food.

After a substantial amount of foundational work, the first Grocery Run took place in September 2016. Within the first year, the program grew rapidly from an initial 20 families to 110 families per week. We documented our learning during these early development and implementation phases of the Grocery Run using a number of fieldwork data collection techniques, such as participant observation and informal interviewing (Mayan, 2009). Specifically, the CRC maintained reflective and procedural notes to document her process, experiences, challenges, and reactions. The support team—which included the CRC, university researchers, community health workers, and, where possible, the executive director of the Multicultural Health Brokers—would also engage in frequent reflective conversations to support this documentation process and challenge our own thinking. The notes that were produced through these methods were reviewed during the writing of this article and led to four further individual interviews with the CRC after she had left the position. After reviewing the information generated through these reflective processes and using a broad thematic analysis approach (Braun & Clarke, 2012), we created three themes to describe the major roles that the CRC assumed organically during the first 2 years of the project: solving problems, navigating scarcity, and responding to urgency. Each of these roles required different forms of labor that are described below.

Solving Problems: Adaptive Labor Using a Developmental Design Approach

Due to the complexity of food insecurity, the partnership decided a developmental process would aid in the design, implementation, and adaptation of what was an experimental program. The CRC's position was essential to support this developmental approach. Without a dedicated person to focus on the strategy, opportunities for change would have been missed and adaptations would have taken far more time to implement. The CRC was subsequently tasked with iteratively solving problems as they presented themselves, requiring a form of adaptive labor. Knowledge was generated and integrated as and when it was necessary. As mentioned, the CRC frequently sought input from community health workers and program participants through informal conversations and surveys. Because of the often unpredictable nature of client and community health worker schedules, keeping these conversations as casual and spontaneous as possible was crucial and more realistic given their time limitations. In addition, weekly meetings were held between the research team and the Multicultural Health Brokers support team to troubleshoot, share learning, and keep everybody updated. At the end of each week, the CRC would provide a summary of weekly events to the support team via email. The team would then meet in person to review the items raised. The CRC facilitated these collaborative conversations, presenting each arising concern and guiding the support team in generating potential solutions. Through this process the team collectively discussed and agreed upon possible modifications, which the CRC then implemented and tested in the weeks that followed.

The CRC made several adaptations to the program during the first year of operation, including changes in how food was distributed. For example, food distribution was initially scheduled for Thursday afternoons after a parenting group to make pickup easier for families. However, many families communicated that they faced challenges with transportation and time, which made collecting food at a particular time every week exceptionally difficult. As a result, the CRC connected with volunteers, food donors, and community health workers, first transitioning to an extra day of food distribution, and then to distributing several days a week. In addition, the CRC worked with community health workers so that they could take food with them on home visits, so that some families did not have to travel at all.

Additional challenges arose relating to food distribution, specifically equitable distribution. Initially, the CRC had built as much choice into the program as possible because she felt it was important for families to be able to choose the amount and types of food that made the most sense for them. However, offering this choice inadvertently set up a competitive process that created a sense of panic and significant levels of stress for families, leading them to arrive as early as possible to obtain the most in-demand items. It also almost entirely emptied the week's food inventory in only a few hours, leaving some families without food. When the CRC asked families about this experience, one woman drew parallels between the Grocery Run experience and

being in a refugee camp where they had to compete for food or be left with nothing. Unwittingly, the Grocery Run had become reminiscent of a highly stressful situation for many families, and the CRC felt responsible for recreating this environment. With this information, she immediately modified the program so that food was divided into predetermined hampers that were assigned to each family and could be picked up at any point during the collection "window", so families were not at risk of losing out. Removing the element of choice was not ideal, but it led to the more equitable distribution of food. However, the scarcity underlying the need for this modification continued to create significant political tension in the program for families, community health workers, and the CRC, and required additional labor on the part of the CRC.

Navigating Scarcity: Political Labor

Due to the political nature of the program and the matter of food insecurity more broadly, the CRC was required to perform substantial amounts of labor both internally and externally to navigate these challenges sensitively to reduce the potential for harm to families and to maintain relationships.

As described previously, the CRC identified numerous challenges with food distribution early into the program through her own observations and through conversations with community health workers. These challenges required a level of political astuteness by the CRC. In addition to the challenges already identified, the environment of scarcity contributed to concerns about the composition of the food bag donations and fears of inequity. Due to the variations in the types and quantities of food rescued each week, not all families received the same food each time, and families became concerned about inequity and possible favoritism. In response to these concerns, the CRC tried to be as transparent as possible about how food was sorted and distributed, often driving across the city to purchase translucent bags so people could see what was in each hamper. However, the random pattern of donations received each week made it impossible to allocate the same products to all families. For example, the CRC might receive three donated pineapples one week, which was obviously not enough for equal distribution. Consequently, food hampers were never the same from week to week. Learning about the tension this inconsistency created, the CRC had conversations with the executive director and the support team, who collectively agreed she would create a form to track the allocation of specific food items in an attempt to more fairly distribute sought-after items (such as sugar, oil, sweet breads, diapers, and baby formula) between families and communities.

An additional political issue related to volunteers who helped to pack hampers but who also received food through the program. Other families sometimes asked these volunteers for additional food or to change what was going into their bags, putting the volunteers in an impossible position and creating significant stress. As she was always present during distribution hours to coordinate the process, the CRC observed these requests and their effects firsthand. She brought the issue to the support team, who decided it would be better if community health workers submitted the number of families who needed food to the CRC via text, email, or in person each week so that food bags could be packed in advance rather than during distribution hours, to avoid the opportunity for such requests. The CRC also encouraged community health workers to attend the Grocery Run or send volunteers from their community so that they could fully understand the process and see for themselves the efforts that were going into supporting fairer distribution. Without the CRC bridging the communication between all stakeholders involved and facilitating these logistical changes, these adaptations to the program would have been exceptionally difficult to execute. Despite the need for more resources (i.e., time and volunteers) to support this process, health workers and families reported that they found the new system both more convenient and equitable and that it, for the most part, helped to develop a sense of trust in the program and the CRC.

In addition to having to navigate these politics in an internal space, political tensions external to the program also required large amounts of labor on the part of the CRC relating to equitable food distribution. For example, the CRC became a representative for the partnership and, in doing so, attended stakeholder consultations to inform various food security strategies and policies locally and nationally (e.g., the Healthy Eating strategy, the Food Policy for Canada,

a city food hub). These formal contributions to policy were essential for further connecting the CRC with key individuals and learning about other important initiatives across the country in working toward longer term strategies. Many stakeholders were open to collaborating and sharing their knowledge and resources. Some, however, perceived the Grocery Run as a new start-up in an already crowded food charity landscape and thus as competition "taking away" donations from other food charity programs.

As a result, the bridge person was required to engage in a form of political work that appeared typical of navigating a complex environment characterized by scarcity and the ever-present competition for food. Despite an internal recognition of both the necessity and the limitations of the Grocery Run, this external criticism of the program made it highly contentious and required a great deal of care on the part of the CRC to consistently justify the need for its existence while advocating for a broader strategy toward food insecurity. As a result, the CRC was required to take on even more responsibilities to share insights from the project and increase awareness of the food insecurity experienced by migrant families.

Responding to Urgency: Emotional Labor

The final role of the CRC that emerged in this project related to the emotional investment that was required for the success of the Grocery Run, and how this was closely intertwined with the other two forms of labor already articulated. Because the project required a relational approach, both as a basis for appropriate CBPR and because this particular project relied on strong networks of people and resources, it created substantial emotional labor for the CRC. The stress inherent to the position was heightened by the sense of urgency that resulted from an immediate need for food and the scale of work required to address this need. This sense of urgency led to the CRC feeling emotionally and physically exhausted and weakened the long-term sustainability of the position. Further, the need for food among families was so great that the demand far outweighed the CRC's ability to meet this demand. On some days, the donation bags for families were sparse, far from providing enough food to last the week. This dearth created significant levels of stress for everyone involved with the program and the families who depended on it.

With only one CRC dedicated to the strategy, the ability to scale up and meet families' needs was consistently limited. The resulting pressure on both the CRC and the community health workers was substantial, such that they felt unable to set personal boundaries. Aside from the emotional impact of this inability to meet families' needs, the CRC also often felt she was working 24/7 trying to meet the basic demands for food, which, at the same time, never really felt like an achievable goal. After several months of being constantly available to her own detriment, the CRC started to set boundaries in an attempt to mitigate some of this pressure. For example, she asked for a work phone that was separate from her personal phone and set specific work hours, outside which she would no longer be available for program-related matters. She also started to learn the fine line between being accommodating to individual requests and putting herself and the program at risk.

In addition to the emotional exhaustion experienced by the CRC in relation to the nature of the program, working across two organizations also required a degree of emotional labor because, lacking a clear mandate to follow, she felt torn in terms of strategic priorities and was not always entirely certain of her role. It was often unclear who the CRC was accountable to, which protocols were to be used as guidelines, and whose specific organizational goals she was striving to achieve. Because she was not fully embedded within the university or the Multicultural Health Brokers, the CRC largely worked alone and, although she was in constant collaboration with community health workers, families, volunteers, and researchers, she experienced a sense of isolation. The CRC also found decision-making often became her sole responsibility rather than a joint responsibility because consultation was burdensome for community health workers and did not always lead to a clear path forward. As a result, she often felt uncertain in making decisions, a feeling that was exacerbated because some decisions had significant ramifications.

The environment of scarcity that led to the need for the Grocery Run in the first place meant that the three forms of labor required of the bridge person—adaptive, political, and emotional—were inevitably interrelated. The same scarcity of resources that led to migrant families not having enough social security (and therefore food) also re-

sulted in limited resources being available to fund staff at the Multicultural Health Brokers relative to the amount of work needed. The community health workers always had three or four times the amount of work they could possibly achieve in the work hours available to them. As a result, they were always trying to be responsive to families in an environment of crisis and unpredictability. For example, new families were always arriving in Edmonton and needed immediate settlement support. Emergencies (for example, relating to health, housing, or subsidies) could also arise at any moment. This environment required adaptability from all staff, including the bridge person, and resulted in a competition for resources that demanded fraught political navigation and was emotionally taxing for everyone involved. Further, the need to develop a process that worked for as many people as possible was a significant source of stress because the consequences of not doing so were substantial. This need for allocation of resources put additional pressure on the relationships between the bridge person and the community health workers, who were specifically trained to navigate and squeeze limited resources out of systems for the families they serve, while the bridge person conversely tried to create and maintain these (albeit adaptable) systems in order to distribute the limited food available to as many families as possible. All the while, she was no less aware of the consequences of reaffirming these systems on a week-by-week basis, such as when she had to say "no" to last-minute requests for food. This ever-present underlying tension created a level of exhaustion for families, staff, and the CRC.

Discussion

The literature that discusses the role of a bridge person in a CBPR context predominantly describes it in relation to knowledge exchange—that is, the ways the bridge role can support the transfer and application of knowledge to inform practice in a community–university partnership and make knowledge and practice more accessible to each other. Literature on the topic also recognizes that the form of bridge positions will vary depending on the nature of the partnership and the challenge to be addressed. Factors determining the form of the bridge position include whether the position is situated at the university or a community-based organization, the level of engagement by the bridge person, the scale of the endeavor and the platform used, and how broad or specific the project focus is. The attributes required in this position are also context specific, yet several skills are deemed fundamental to supporting a project well, including leadership and facilitation, project management, interpersonal skills, the ability to communicate, and a tolerance for uncertainty. Our experiences in this project were consistent with the literature in some ways but diverged in others, which created a number of learnings that can contribute to expanding our understanding of bridge positions in CBPR. Some of this learning will be discussed relating to the function of knowledge in our project compared with the literature, after which we will describe what we learned about the adaptive, political, and emotional nature of the project more specifically.

In the academic literature about bridge positions, knowledge largely appears to be understood as theoretical and empirical, with the bridge person tasked with applying this knowledge in practice. However, as can be seen from this project, the CRC relied on multiple forms of knowledge that were generated through both formal and informal research methods and were primarily practical and experiential in nature. This focus on empirical knowledge in the literature therefore appears to play into scientific discourses that privilege certain kinds of knowledge above others in a hierarchy of evidence (Greenhalgh et al., 2018). With a recognition that a full range of knowledge forms were fundamental to the success of the initiative described in this article, we call for a broadening in the ways evidence is conceptualized and legitimized in the bridge literature so that a wider collection of knowledges is recognized as valuable.

In addition to the narrow ways knowledge is often discussed, the model of knowledge exchange described in the bridge literature seems mostly linear. Although the cocreation of knowledge is recognized as useful, this conception of knowledge exchange resembles an integrated knowledge translation approach more closely than a CBPR approach, focusing primarily on the application of knowledge rather than striving for social justice (Jull et al., 2017). The bridge person is thus generally positioned as the holder of knowledge that is generated in a university setting, tasked with support-

ing the unidirectional application of this knowledge in practice. The resultant paternalistic understanding of the bridge position is at odds with the principles of CBPR and fails to account for the circular and collective generation of knowledge in ways that continually shape the bridge person and expand their own understanding. If we are truly aiming for research that facilitates antioppressive processes and outcomes and is attendant to power, we will need to be clear about the social justice aims of a project and blur the lines between knower and known so that individuals in bridge roles are positioned as colearners who facilitate the circulation and generation of multiple forms of knowledge to support social change. The remainder of our learnings will next be discussed in relation to the adaptive, political, and emotional nature of the project, drawing on specific literature to show how this learning converges with or adds to previous understanding about bridge positions.

In regard to the adaptive labor required of the bridge person in our project, we described the need for a cyclical and developmental approach to the project. An iterative, developmental process was essential with such a complex project so that strategies could be altered as they were being implemented (Janzen et al., 2016; Patton, 2008). Such flexibility also enabled the partnership to respond to a range of unexpected challenges, such as the need to modify the food distribution process. Because she acted on site, the bridge person was able to lead and coordinate adaptations that, although sometimes significant and burdensome, were crucial to the success of the project. Carpenter and Brock (2008) have referred to the need for adaptive capacity to ensure a system can adjust to internal demands and external factors and avoid rigidity. Operating as its own microsystem, this project required a high level of adaptive capacity to respond to pervasive and changing demands. As the only individual dedicated solely to the initiative, the bridge person acted almost single-handedly to support this adaptive capacity. A high level of (adaptive) labor thus was needed to facilitate this process and ensure the initiative was adequately responsive. The full extent of the labor involved in such bridge positions must therefore be recognized so that adequate resources can be allocated to initiatives and the bridge person receives necessary support. Further, although adaptability was fundamental to the success of the program, there was an equal need for structure and stability. Although a tolerance for uncertainty has been acknowledged as an essential trait of any CBPR work and for the bridge person specifically (Weerts & Sandmann, 2010), the movement between these two states—adaptability and stability—must be considered because it requires the bridge person to know when to be flexible and when some level of order and consistency is helpful.

The second role, navigating scarcity, or political labor, highlighted the political nature of the project, which was heightened in a complex environment characterized by scarcity and competition. The competitive nature of the food security movement in particular has been associated with the institutionalization of large food charity organizations (Levkoe, 2011; Riches, 2002), which reflects the larger nonprofit industrial complex within a neoliberal climate (Smith, 2017). In this project, some agencies felt threatened by the Grocery Run in ways that undermined the CRC's attempts to collaborate and bring essential partners within the local food system into conversation with one another. In attempting to navigate this politically fraught and competitive environment, the CRC needed to work within and outside it simultaneously, maneuvering around and avoiding the tensions while creating partnerships where they felt possible. Further, the program itself had its own internal politics that were created and heightened by the scarcity of resources and an environment perpetually in a state of crisis. Political sensitivity and astuteness have been identified as particularly essential to practicing CBPR (Belone et al., 2016; Israel, Eng, et al., 2013), yet this field is rarely described in terms of the broader nonprofit industrial complex in which bridge people (and community-based participatory researchers in general) have increasingly found themselves. Community–university partnerships may benefit from research focused on the experiences within community-based research projects in this context and the ways partnerships navigate these complexities.

The third role, responding to urgency, or emotional labor, described the emotional investment required for the implementation and adaptation of the Grocery Run, and the implications for the CRC. The emotional risk of the CRC position in this initiative was evident, first, in the burden of respon-

sibility placed primarily on one person to meet an often impossible demand for food and, second, in the sense of isolation and confusion that resulted from not being fully embedded in a particular organization. The emotional nature of the position reflected the general experience of the community health workers in Multicultural Health Brokers; however, it was also distinct in the ways that the CRC was required to create processes that were challenged every week. The CRC needed not only the ability to work highly independently, but also a level of emotional maturity that enabled her to set boundaries and navigate the difficulty of never being able to meet the needs of either families or the community health workers.

Although the bridge person possessed a range of attributes that contributed substantially to her ability to fulfill her responsibilities, the role still left her emotionally and physically exhausted. This level of stress, in addition to its personal impact on the CRC, also served to undermine the likelihood the role can be filled by the same person over the long term, which has implications for the quality of a CBPR project (Israel, Krieger, et al., 2006). In the literature, experiencing a sense of isolation as an emotional risk has been discussed briefly (Kislov et al., 2017). However, the emotional risks of social research are scarcely documented and need more attention (Lee-Treweek, 2000). This article goes some way toward responding to this gap by describing the emotional and political labor involved in research projects of this kind, and in particular the experiences of someone attempting to address a complex issue as part of a community–university project.

To strengthen a bridging role, a community–university partnership should therefore have a more explicit understanding of the position—its expressions and functions—before starting such projects. As highlighted in this article, to more fully support individuals in these positions, greater attention is needed to explore the emotional consequences of this work and suggest potential strategies for preventing burnout. We go further and suggest that, with a project as complex and labor intensive as the one described here, a bridge team is needed to avoid putting the sole responsibility on one individual (Kislov et al., 2017). We do, however, acknowledge that the high financial cost of additional personnel, combined with the limited resources afforded research projects, may prevent this possibility for many partnerships (Levkoe & Stack-Cutler, 2018).

The descriptions of the required roles have highlighted that the bridge work involved in this project was far from being a neutral and uncomplicated process, and was instead logistically, politically, and emotionally messy. In addition, individuals tasked with filling bridge positions are at risk of feeling emotionally isolated if (or when) the process proves more challenging than portrayals in the literature have led them to expect (Lee-Treweek, 2000). The emotional labor, and the ways it is interconnected with the adaptive and political labor necessary in a scarcity environment, needs to be more fully understood if community–university partnerships are to fully support the individuals in these positions.

In this article, we have shared our own context-specific stories as a source of learning for other community–university partnerships engaging in complex CBPR projects (Levkoe & Stack-Cutler, 2018). Specifically, we documented the ambivalent spaces the bridge person in this project operated within, in which she learned to negotiate and adapt between multiple desires and agendas to become an "architect" of community change (Weerts & Sandmann, 2010). By providing transparent accounts of the intersections between practice and research, we can incorporate and appreciate messiness and nonlinearity as part of a rigorous process that leads to trustworthy and transformational knowing (Cook, 2009; Kingsley & Chapman, 2013).

Conclusion

In summary, the current article described a CBPR project developed to respond to the complex issue of food insecurity and highlighted the multiple and unexpected roles played by a bridge person in supporting the project. Three roles reflected the adaptive, political, and emotional nature of the project, which had direct implications for the bridge person. In a complex environment, the CRC was required to invest adaptive labor and be responsive to the community in a continually (and necessarily) changing environment. The position also demanded various forms of political labor that necessitated a level of sensitivity and astuteness within a competitive and politically fraught environment reflective of the broader nonprofit industrial complex. Finally, numer-

ous emotional risks associated with the bridge position resulted in the CRC feeling emotionally and physically exhausted and impacting the likelihood that she would be able to stay in the position long-term. As reflected by these three forms of labor, we must acknowledge the messiness inherent in community-based research projects and understand the many ways bridge people may be required to negotiate extremely difficult environments characterized by competing political interests and high emotional costs. Only by paying attention to these dynamics can we adequately support those who fill bridge positions and ensure they are best able to navigate such complex environments.

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Graduate Service-Learning Experiences and Career Preparation: An Exploration of Student Perceptions

Lisa Roe

Abstract

This dissertation overview summarizes a study exploring the relationship between service-learning and career preparation from the perspective of graduate students as adult learners. Using Knowles' adult learning theory as the theoretical framework and interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) as a qualitative method of inquiry, analysis of semistructured interviews from six recent graduates of a media advocacy master's degree program found that graduate students perceive service-learning as a supportive experience for their own career preparation. Findings from this study can help faculty and graduate educators conceptualize and implement service-learning experiences, informed by adult learning theory, by aligning them with graduate students' own professional goals and outcomes.

Keywords: service-learning, career preparation, adult learning theory, graduate education

Over the past several decades, both U.S. graduate education and service-learning and community engagement (S-LCE) have been the focus of growing research interest. Although substantial empirical evidence documents the impact of service-learning experiences on undergraduate students, S-LCE scholarship and practice less often include the graduate student population (Bringle et al., 2012; Harris, 2017; Jacoby, 2014; Kuh, 2008). This discrepancy has led to an explicit call for more research on graduate S-LCE from within the field (Harris, 2017; Morin et al., 2016). As a form of experiential learning, service-learning is a pedagogical tool that intentionally links academic coursework with service or community engagement through purposeful and structured course design and reflection (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995; Jacoby, 2014; Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013).

With nearly 2 million graduate students enrolled in the United States annually (Okahana et al., 2020), this population deserves further study. For instance, past research has found that professional and career advancement are among the top reasons students pursue formal graduate-level education (Merriam et al., 2012), especially at the master's degree level. Employers expect adults with graduate-level degrees to demonstrate maturity, a strong work ethic, responsiveness to feedback, teamwork and collaboration, effective communication, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills, as well as the ability to apply knowledge to new contexts (Chhinzer & Russo, 2018; Wendler et al., 2012; Wickam, 2015).

However, employers also report many students completing graduate school ill-prepared for the workforce (Wendler et al., 2012). This disconnect presents an opportunity to explore the relationship between service-learning and career preparation for graduate students. The purpose of this dissertation study was to explore the relationship between service-learning and career preparation from the perspective of graduate students as adult learners, with the following guiding research question: "How do graduate students perceive the relationship between their service-learning experiences and career preparation?"

Theoretical Framework

Malcolm Knowles' adult learning theory, or andragogy, served as the theoretical framework for this study; see the dissertation itself for a more in-depth review of the theory. Adult learning theory posits that adults learn differently than children (Knowles et al., 2005). Strongly rooted in humanism, adult learning theory focuses on the individual learner and has six guiding principles or assumptions (Knowles et al., 2005; Merriam & Bierema, 2013; see also the dissertation for a more comprehensive set of sources). First, as a person ages and matures in their lifetime, they view themselves as being independent and become more self-directed in their own learning. Second, adults bring substantive prior experiences to the table in any learning context, and they learn best through experience. Third, an adult learner's readiness to learn is intricately linked to their social roles; in the context of andragogy, these include roles or identities that one takes on in society at a moment in time and in relationship to other humans. Fourth, adult learners are more problem-centered rather than subject-centered in their learning. Fifth, adult learners are internally rather than externally motivated. And sixth, adult learners want to know what they need to know, or more specifically, need to understand the rationalization or justification for why they are asked to learn something.

Knowles' adult learning theory has also been challenged as overly focused on the individual learner and as providing a set of guiding principles or assumptions rather than a theory per se (Merriam & Bierema, 2013; Merriam et al., 2006; Sandlin, 2005). Thus, additional research using andragogy's principles may help enhance understanding of this framework's applicability and utility.

Graduate Students, Career Advancement, and Service-Learning

Graduate students as adult learners often pursue advanced-level degrees for career and professional advancement (Merriam et al., 2012), yet multiple studies and reports document the lack of alignment or gap between students' competencies and the needs of employers (e.g., Christian & Davis, 2016; Golde & Dore, 2001; Molinari & Ellis, 2013; Sundberg et al., 2011; Wendler et al., 2012). Desired professional competencies of graduate students are guided by employers (Wendler et al., 2012), faculty members (Levkoe et al., 2014; Solem et al., 2013), and professional organizations (Gardner & Barnes, 2007; Pontius & Harper, 2006), among other stakeholders.

Socialization is one of the hallmarks of graduate education (Gansemer-Topf et al., 2006; Nesheim et al., 2006), and socialization into an academic discipline and career trajectory by faculty and peers is a frequently studied phenomenon (e.g., Gardner & Barnes, 2007; Lovitts & Nelson, 2000; Pontius & Harper, 2006; Weidman & Stein, 2003). Such socialization and professional development may include participation in professional organizations and networks (Gardner & Barnes, 2007), presenting at conferences and receiving funding for travel (Pontius & Harper, 2006; Rizzolo et al., 2016), and skill building (Solem et al., 2013). However, graduate education's disciplinary silos (Gardner & Barnes, 2007; Pontius & Harper, 2006; Weidman & Stein, 2003) can disconnect graduate students from the institution as a whole, and it is often assumed that the academic department, via its faculty, is aware of and responsible for a vast array of student needs (Pontius & Harper, 2006).

Pontius and Harper (2006) argued that graduate students should be more intentionally prepared for their future career and should be provided engagement opportunities that go beyond the classroom to promote learning and development. As faculty members play a significant role in students' socialization in graduate school and in addressing their professional development needs, service-learning is one documented avenue to help prepare graduates for the workforce (Behar-Horenstein et al., 2016; Doberneck et al., 2017; Goodhue, 2017; Liddell et al., 2014).

Because graduate education is so closely tied to the discipline, most studies of student service-learning experiences are focused on a single course or program, including studies documenting graduate students' civic engagement outcomes in nursing programs (DeBonis, 2016) as well as professional values and outcomes in the fields of social work, physical education teacher education, nutrition, and public administration (Byers & Gray, 2012; Dinour et al., 2018; Lu & Lambright, 2010; Meaney et al., 2012). Additionally, a study completed by Levkoe et al. (2014) suggested that the impacts of service-learning may actually be intensi-

fied for graduate students compared to their undergraduate counterparts. Furthermore, although community engagement in graduate education has its roots in socializing and preparing graduate students to become faculty (Austin & McDaniels, 2006; O'Meara & Jaeger, 2006), the rise of the professional master's degree has created additional opportunities for integrating service-learning into other disciplines and workforce-oriented programs.

Research Design

This qualitative research study was grounded in a social constructivist-interpretivist paradigm and used interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) as a method of inquiry (Creswell, 2008; Ponterotto, 2005). IPA focuses on the lived experiences of individual participants while simultaneously acknowledging the role that the researcher plays in interpretation (Smith et al., 2012; Wagstaff et al., 2014; see the dissertation for a more robust review of this method and its underlying principles). The sampling for this study was purposive; participants were selected because they shared, at least on the surface, a type of common experience. The research site was a private, urban research institution in the northeast United States and received the Carnegie Foundation's Classification for Community Engagement for the first time in 2015. Research participants were identified through email and digital flyer outreach to service-learning faculty members and community engagement staff at the research site, who shared the opportunity with their former students. Prospective participants met four eligibility criteria: (1) be currently enrolled in a master's-level degree program at the research site or have graduated within the past year at the time of the interview, (2) completed a graduate-level service-learning course at the research site within the prior 3 years, (3) be intending to enter or reenter the workforce upon completion of their program of study, and (4) be within 21–35 years old. Participants were welcomed from any academic department or college at the research site, and the study was open to participants of all genders, ethnicities/races, and socioeconomic levels. The research site was a predominantly White institution, and the diversity of enrollment in the graduate programs offering service-learning courses was unknown.

Although the study was open to students in all disciplines, all six participants emerged from a single, required, foundational-level course in a media advocacy graduate degree program focused on the intersection of communication, digital media, and law and policy. In the course, students worked in small groups of three or four as a consulting team, each assigned to a different community partner organization. All six participants were enrolled in the program's first cohort beginning in fall 2018 and took the course without knowing that it included service-learning. At the time of the interviews all six had completed their degree program within the last 8–12 months, meaning they completed their service-learning experience 2 years prior, and were currently in or pursuing a career related to their media advocacy degree. Two of the six participants worked part-time and the other four worked full-time while taking classes. They ranged from 25 to 34 years old. Five participants identified as female, five identified as White, and two identified as Jewish.

I conducted individual semi structured, in-depth interviews with each research participant to "offer a rich, detailed, first-person account of their experiences" from their unique perspective (Smith et al., 2012; Smith & Shinebourne, 2012). Interviews took place over Zoom, using the audio recording auto transcription feature for each interview. The study followed key criteria and standards of ethics, quality, and rigor of qualitative research, including IRB approval, informed consent processes, and secure data storage (Creswell, 2008; Tracy, 2010). I used thick descriptions in my presentation of data and detailed excerpts from each of the participants' interviews, engaged in member checking, and consistently reflected on my use of codes to ensure the study had credibility and trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Smith et al., 2012; Tracy, 2010). Finally, I was transparent about my values and biases that influence my worldview and perceptions as a scholar–practitioner in the field of S-LCE and higher education, particularly my attitudes toward higher education's responsibility to prepare students for work and being a community engagement professional (Briscoe, 2005).

The analysis stage of an IPA study is "complex, iterative, and [a] multi-directional process" (Smith & Shinebourne, 2012, p. 77) and roughly follows a six-step process (Smith et al., 2012). First, I became im-

mersed in the data by listening to each recorded interview and reading the transcript in an attempt to recenter the participant's experience, followed by several rereads of the transcript. Second, I noted anything of interest within the transcript while keeping an open mind. Third, I developed emergent themes from the transcripts and the initial notes, which were short phrases that embodied the essence of the data, both the specific passage and the transcript as a whole. Fourth, I made connections between the emergent themes. Fifth, I repeated the process for each separate transcript for each research participant individually, treating each as a particular or unique case. Sixth, I looked for "patterns across cases but trie[d] to retain the individual detail and nuance of the case" (Smith & Shinebourne, 2012, p. 74). This involved reviewing the themes that emerged across all of the participants and creating a table with the key themes from each participant. At this point, I transitioned from exploratory coding to process coding (Saldaña, 2016) to verify and analyze the findings.

Analysis and Key Findings

Iterative coding and analysis of participant interviews revealed three distinct themes with subthemes that shed light on how each participant perceived the relationship between their service-learning experiences and career development (see Table 1).

The first theme explored the concept of experience and how participants interpreted the meaning and purpose of their experience. All six graduate students discussed their service-learning as being a real or real-world experience that ultimately connected to their career preparation in some way. For example, one participant commented,

> It allowed me to essentially have a receipt. I was able to say I got a degree in essentially strategic communications in a nonprofit or advocacy space and within that degree I also had the opportunity to consult a nonprofit organization on their strategic communications approach in such a way that they probably wouldn't have been able to afford or wouldn't have been able to devote the resources to actual communications firm or professional marketing professional. So I think being able to say that I filled that role in some way was certainly beneficial because I feel that it just gave me more experience, real tangible, real life experience and it kind of gave me the confidence to be able to speak on that whereas I think without this course and without this degree, in particularly without the course, I wouldn't have been able to say that I had experience like consulting an organization on their communication strategy.

The value or weight they each put on the experience varied; experience in and of

Table 1. Major Themes and Subthemes

Major theme	Subthemes
Significance of experience	• Motivation and goal alignment • Applied learning and skills • Self-efficacy and confidence • Authenticity
Course conditions	• Peer relationships • Balancing school and work • Semester time frame
Community relationships	• Human connections • Being an outsider • Capacity building

itself was not universally valued as having a transformative or substantial impact.

The second theme unpacked how certain conditions were inherent to the structure of the experience because it was part of an academic course. Peer relationships, the demands of balancing school and work, and the semester time frame all emerged as subthemes. For example, in context of the impact of the semester time frame, another participant shared,

> I always, personally, I always feel like, am I really helping them? Is this really helping? I think in some ways it is because it provides an outside perspective, but it always seems to me like our recommendations were for them to hire interns who could actually do a lot of the work and as students and coming from an outside perspective, there's only so much you can do in a short amount of time for class.

The course context, as a discrete unit in which the service-learning experience took place, also had an influence on the perceived relationship to their career preparation.

Finally, the third theme examined how the participants highlighted and conceptualized their relationship to the community. Three subthemes emerged, including the significance of human connections, what it means to be an outsider, and why capacity building is significant in a professional context. For example, a third participant reflected on the importance of the human connections they made.

> I've understood the meaning, the impact of that experience to have evolved. I don't have many specific memories of work I did in that program. There are entire classes I've forgotten completely, you'd have to remind me. Going to visit [my community partner] is not something I'm going to forget. . . . You know, thinking of that, it put this place in my head, but now I have to think about and remember, it is a place that's real and wonder how the people there are doing.

Essentially, participants' relationship to the community became a way of describing their experiences, learning, and application of professional concepts.

Additionally, four key findings emerged in this study. First, for both novice and experienced professionals, graduate service-learning can build skills and self-efficacy that relate positively to their career trajectory. This study's participants were able to gain skills and self-efficacy from the service-learning experience, consistent with other studies demonstrating skills graduate students developed through service-learning (e.g., Dietz, 2018; Levkoe et al., 2014; Lu & Lambright, 2010; Moorer, 2009; Wickam, 2015). Teamwork and collaboration are among the skills that employers expect of employees with graduate degrees (Chhinzer & Russo, 2018; Wendler et al., 2012); from the participants' perspectives, the teamwork and collaboration required within the group service-learning project directly related to their career preparation.

Second, however, integrating a service-learning experience into a course in and of itself may not automatically support students' career goals, even when there is strong alignment between the degree program, principles of service-learning, and students' drive to positively contribute to society through their career. In this study, the service-learning experience did not meet all students' career preparation goals or expectations, especially when those goals were targeted or narrowly defined. The course offered participants limited choices for their service-learning community partner because the instructor had prearranged the relationships and projects. Although an element of choice was available, some participants felt constrained because they wanted experience in a specific field or setting. Further, this limitation of choice detracted from some participants' experience because, as self-directed learners, they would benefit from making decisions as part of the learning process (Forrest & Peterson, 2006; Hagen & Park, 2016; Knowles, 1980; Merriam & Bierema, 2013).

Third, service-learning can highlight tensions between students' social roles. All of the participants expressed that they enrolled in graduate school for career and professionally motivated reasons. They saw their social role as a student as investing in their future professional self. However, the demands of individual social roles were sometimes in conflict or tension with one another (Onorato-Hughes, 2019; Wyland et al., 2015). For some, their social role as an employee was just as important as

their social role as a student because they needed employment in order to finance their education. The demands of being an employee conflicted with the demands of being a student; the time commitments for service-learning projects, for instance, can be a source of tension for adult learners managing many roles and commitments.

Finally, graduate students are aware of (even if not satisfied with) how the structures of academia impact the extent to which service-learning supports their career preparation. Prior research suggests that faculty members and graduate programs should examine how they can integrate experiences and opportunities for professional preparation into the curriculum so that students do not always need to look beyond their coursework for those opportunities while in school (Gu et al., 2018). Time, location, finances, and accessibility, in addition to other life factors such as family commitments, can serve as barriers to many professional development experiences for graduate students (Rizzolo et al., 2016); service-learning courses as well as other institution-wide programs can serve in part as a response to this challenge (Doberneck et al., 2017; Goodhue, 2017; Matthews et al., 2015). In the current study, not only did the students have to negotiate with their community partner to ensure the project was feasible within the amount of time they had, but they imagined the potential if they were not bound by those limits (such as a single semester's course). For instance, they imagined scenarios where they could have continued working with the partners throughout their graduate school experience, and the resulting benefits.

This dissertation study had certain limitations. IPA involves a small sample size and is concerned with the individual or particular experiences of each research participant, and therefore the study lacks broad generalizability (Smith et al., 2012; Smith & Shinebourne, 2012). In fact, as noted, all participants were from the same degree program and service-learning course. However, that does not mean that lessons gleaned from this study are not transferable to other contexts or experiences. Additionally, at the time of the interviews, all participants had graduated from their graduate program 8–12 months prior, so they had completed their service-learning experience approximately 2 years before the interview. Therefore, it is possible that the lapse in time impacted their recall (Giele & Elder, 1998). This study was conceptualized and initiated before 2020, but the interviews took place during the COVID-19 global pandemic. The landscape of graduate education and labor markets is currently in flux, which will likely have implications for enrollments, job security, and employment needs in the United States.

Significance and Recommendations for Practice

Pairing adult learning theory and IPA to explore the relationship between service-learning and graduate students' career preparation offers a unique lens and framework to the S-LCE field. Knowles' adult learning theory as a theoretical framework for understanding graduate service-learning is a robust opportunity for future research (Dietz, 2018; Wickam, 2015). For example, it would be exciting to unpack how students perceive the relationship between service-learning and their career preparation in business, public policy, organizational communications, public health, engineering, and other disciplines that offer service-learning courses for graduate students at the research site. Such exploration might include seeking themes that stretch beyond an individual course or discipline since the limitation of studies to a single course or discipline continues to be a challenge in S-LCE research (Morin et al., 2016). Additionally, future research should further examine how service-learning might contribute to or further support masters'-level students' self-efficacy and professional identity since this population has demonstrated having lower perceptions of their professional identity and competencies than their doctoral-level peers in other studies (Hardré & Hackett, 2015).

This study also adds to the discussion of how service-learning addresses employer expectations, particularly for master's-level graduates in the 21st-century workforce. Documenting the voices and perceptions of those who participate in service-learning is likewise crucial; in considering implications for curricular and program design, we need to include students' perspectives and hear their voices in the research (Cooke & Kemeny, 2014).

This dissertation's findings, paired with other scholarship on adult learning, graduate education, and service-learning, sug-

gests three recommendations for practice. First, as graduate students can clearly benefit from service-learning, institutions should continue to invest in such opportunities for graduate students as a strategy to help prepare them for their future careers. By engaging in service-learning experiences, graduate students can grow their skill sets and build self-efficacy as they work toward their professional goals. Adult learners especially value experiential opportunities that are problem-based rather than subject-centered, aligning with their motivations to pursue graduate education to advance their careers (Merriam & Bierema, 2013). As with undergraduates, service-learning builds skills expected by employers, such as teamwork, collaboration, communication, and problem-solving (Chhinzer & Russo, 2018; Wendler et al., 2012; Wickam, 2015). Of course, other aspects of graduate education can also help provide career readiness. However, since service-learning is embedded into coursework and is meant to align with curricular learning outcomes, it represents a more consistent means for institutionalizing this support than voluntary experiences that may conflict with adult learners' availability and time.

As a second consideration, departments or faculty members who are weighing how or whether to integrate service-learning into the graduate curriculum or a particular course should evaluate the desired and potential outcomes beyond service-learning's known benefits to learning course content and supporting the community. If service-learning is intended to offer intentional opportunities that help students prepare for their careers, the graduate program should be explicit about that goal, as well as the expectations, commitments, and limitations of the engagement for the student. Such explicitness supports adult learners' motivations and their need to know the rationale behind what they are learning, allows them to better balance competing social roles, and can clarify the extent to which they are able or expected to be self-directed in their learning (Knowles, 1980; Merriam & Bierema, 2013).

Third, graduate programs, faculty, and students should be encouraged to nurture relationships with community organizations that could lead to other career-supportive intersections throughout the curriculum. Graduate programs can help foster these connections more formally, through intentional integration across multiple service-learning courses, or through lower stakes activities such as invitations to a guest speaker or employer panel, or networking opportunities and events. In essence, continued partnership building can further serve graduate students' eagerness for experiential learning opportunities as adult learners. However, university representatives need to have authentic and honest conversations with community partners to understand their long-term goals and expected benefits from investing time, energy, and resources into such a partnership (e.g., Clayton et al., 2010) to help ensure these relationships are not exploitative or transactional.

As gatekeepers of the curriculum and key socializing influences in the graduate student experience, faculty are uniquely positioned to offer service-learning and to clarify its benefits to their graduate students. Students want opportunities that allow them to apply their learning in a real-world context and better position them for their future professional goals. Service-earning offers a compelling opportunity to meet students' expectations for graduate education, to address the skills and competency gap expressed by employers, and to expand the portfolio of opportunities for institutions to demonstrate their ongoing commitment to community engagement at all levels.

The full dissertation is accessible via ProQuest.

About the Author

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Saltmarsh, J., & Johnson, M. B. (Eds.). (2018). *The Elective Carnegie Community Engagement Classification: Constructing a successful application for first-time and re-classification applicants.* Campus Compact. 154 pp.

Review by Birgit L. Green

When my university was among the first group of U.S. institutions that received the Carnegie Foundation's newly created Elective Classification for Community Engagement in 2006, my colleague Valerie Paton and I were thrilled. It had taken many phone calls, numerous meetings with different individuals, and extensive searching for data to document the Foundational Indicators, Curricular Engagement, and Outreach and Partnerships that would demonstrate our institutional commitment to community engagement and earn this recognition. I was equally excited when I led our re-classification process in 2015, and we were able to demonstrate that Texas Tech University had made progress in institutionalizing community engagement across campus. Both times, the value of our work lay in the process, as it gave us the opportunity to closely examine our strengths related to community engagement as well as areas where improvements were needed. This process has laid the groundwork for the development of institutional goals and strategies that will continue to advance and strengthen Texas Tech's engagement with external communities.

The Elective Carnegie Community Engagement Classification, edited by John Saltmarsh and Mathew B. Johnson, features a series of case studies from professionals in higher education who, in experiences paralleling my own, led their institutions through the application process for the first-time Carnegie Community Engagement Classification and/or the re-classification. Throughout the book, these higher education professionals openly reflect on the process, sharing their challenges as well as the opportunities that they seized upon to navigate their institutional environments and garner the needed academic and administrative support. What will stand out to the reader are the significant impacts of both the application process and the actual classification or re-classification on the authors' institutions in terms of creating structural, operational, and policy changes that foster the institutionalization of community engagement across academic and administrative units. In fact, in their introductory comments, Saltmarsh and Johnson compare it to organizational change processes that are transformational in nature, leading to shifts in institutional culture (Kezar, 2013; Kezar & Eckel, 2002; Tierney, 1991). They note, "For many, if not all campuses, committing to community engagement means undertaking a new set of practices, creating new structures, and revising policies—it is coincident with organizational change" (pp. 8–9).

The book includes a foreword by Andrew J. Seligsohn, a recent president of Campus Compact (2014–2021), who reflects on his own experience with the Carnegie Classification and its outcomes for Rutgers University–Camden, where he led the process in 2010. He notes that the process itself provided him and his institutional team with a clear sense of "what we needed to do to deepen our impact for students and communities and to make the university's public mission an integral part of its practice" (p. x). Seligsohn notes that the designation allows universities to challenge themselves "to do better and achieve more" (p. x). He highlights that on his campus, the classification led to the creation of a Faculty Fellows program, an Engaged Civic Learning Course, and a student leadership program, as well as the development of a comprehensive assessment strategy, among other outcomes. Throughout the book, other authors confirm equally impressive outcomes, clearly indicating that the classification process enabled them and their institutions to achieve a higher level of engagement.

Beyond learning about the value of the clas-

sification, readers will find that the volume serves as an extremely valuable guidebook for those seeking the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification, as well as those who are seeking the re-classification, no matter the institutional setting in which they may find themselves, as chapters share the insights and experiences of practitioners from a vast array of institutions (public, private, religious, land-grant, small to large). Once finished reading the book, they will find that they have obtained a comprehensive road map for planning, developing, and submitting a successful application, having gained valuable lessons from those who have been there.

In the book's introductory chapter, Saltmarsh and Johnson briefly provide the background and the purpose of the elective Carnegie Community Engagement Classification. They focus next on its benefits, reiterating that the classification process can serve as a catalyst for change, fostering, for instance, institutional alignment for community-based teaching, learning, and scholarship. The authors note, "The application process is a way to bring the disparate parts of the campus together to advance a unified agenda" (p. 8). They liken the process to creating an institutional culture of community engagement. The authors then provide a detailed discussion of the common challenges to institutionalizing community engagement, based on the feedback that classification reviewers have provided to first-time applicants, which includes assessment, reciprocal partnerships, faculty rewards, integration, and alignment with other institutional initiatives. These elements become reoccurring themes throughout the book as authors lay out strategies to effectively address them and, ultimately, succeed in their classification or re-classification efforts. Several authors, for instance, reference their intentional efforts to align the classification process to other institutional endeavors such as regional accrediting bodies' mandates for public service/civic engagement, strategic plans that consider outreach and engagement an institutional priority, and institutional histories and missions that were built upon public service. Repeatedly, authors emphasize how institutional alignment has helped them create campuswide buy-in and support, making it evident to the reader that neither the first-time classification nor the re-classification process can be successful if conducted in isolation. The biggest takeaway for the reader will be that the most valuable part of obtaining the classification lies in the process itself because it provides an opportunity for institutional self-study. Additionally, according to Saltmarsh and Johnson, institutions can use the documentation framework "as a blueprint for constructing an institutional architecture of engagement" on their campuses (p. 14). These outcomes are echoed throughout the book's chapters by those who led the application process at their institutions.

The book is divided into three parts. Part 1 shares the insights from institutional leaders of first-time Carnegie Community Engagement Classifications, Part 2 focuses on the perspectives and experiences of those who led re-classification processes, and Part 3 concludes with recommendations for gathering and using evidence. Each of these segments concludes with a valuable "Review of Key Lessons and Guiding Questions" by Georgina Manok, from Brown University's Swearer Center, which managed the Elective Classification for the Carnegie Foundation from 2017 through 2020. Throughout the book, authors provide their reflections on the process, its challenges, and its rewards. What emerges from these firsthand accounts is a valuable road map to success for higher education practitioners who are charged with leading the classification process at their institutions.

Chapters 2 to 5 in Part 1 focus on the experiences of practitioners from five diverse public and private institutions who underwent the first-time Carnegie Classification process. In Chapter 2, "Foundational Indicators," Lina D. Dostilio from Duquesne, a Spiritan Catholic institution, confirms that "it was perhaps the single most significant step Duquesne had taken in broadly institutionalizing community engagement" (p. 19). The author highlights that the classification provided a tool to educate the university and facilitate reflection on the importance of community-engaged scholarship. The chapter provides a model for campuses that are highly decentralized as the author recounts the ripple effects that the process created in terms of administrative recognition and support for a more comprehensive set of community-engaged activities.

In Chapter 3, "Curricular Engagement," John Reiff from the University of Massachusetts–Amherst describes how the process taught him to see the classification

as not a recognition of accomplishments, but a recognition of process. Noteworthy is his observation that "the process of applying for that classification is not really requesting a stamp of approval; it's a tool for doing some of that significant work and moving the institution closer to that ideal" (p. 38). Reiff discusses obstacles that he encountered along the way with which many readers may empathize, such as changes in administration and priorities, and gaps in information. He generously shares the lessons he learned encountering these issues.

In Chapter 4, "Outreach and Partnerships," Richard Kiely, Amanda Kittelberger, and Amanda Wittman from Cornell University outline the steps they took to gain institutional support for earning the classification—such as forming not one but two institutional teams to be involved in the application process, engaging informal information channels for data gathering, ensuring broad representation, and using a central data management system. In addition, the reader learns about the positive outcomes from the process, including the development of a consistent and systematic approach to monitoring, assessing, and evaluating the quality of community-engaged curricula, research, and partnerships, as well as the creation of a comprehensive public engagement structure. The process also prompted the institution "to take a more proactive, aligned, strategic and systematic approach to better monitor, understand, and improve community-engaged teaching, learning, and research" (p. 44). An important takeaway from this chapter is that, for the authors, the process also reaffirmed a core belief of Cornell's leaders that any kind of program planning process should be relational, "be driven by values of inclusion and collaboration, informed by actively reaching out to, engaging with, and listening to a broad and diverse range of stakeholders" (p. 44).

In her Chapter 5 summary of "Key Lessons and Guiding Questions" for institutions seeking the first-time Carnegie Classification, Manok reiterates the strategic importance of mapping campus stakeholders and their powers and interests because awareness of the relationships, power structures, interests, and resources involved will help organizers navigate and communicate the Carnegie Classification process as well as ensure stakeholder buy-in. She also reminds the reader to ensure that community partners are included in the mapping. Second, Manok stresses the need for a deliberate and careful approach to the framing and positing of the classification at one's institution: whether to consider it a self-study, accreditation, or award will be important in how others in the institution perceive and engage with the application process. Third, the author highlights how important it is to collect community engagement definitions on one's respective campus. Such efforts bring departments, colleges, offices, and research centers that may have different definitions into the process and create an opportunity to work toward a collective understanding and mutually shared goals. Lastly, the reader learns about the importance of forming and training a strong core group that is well versed in community engagement and has a long-term vision that will exist after the classification process is completed.

Part 2 of the book (Chapters 6–9) provides valuable advice to those who received the first-time Carnegie Community Engagement Classification and want to position their institutions for a successful re-classification. Authors share strategies for capitalizing on the initial classification to promote further institutionalization of community engagement. In Chapter 6, "Foundational Indicators," Melissa Quan from Fairfield University, a small Jesuit Institution, discusses her experience as a leader of both the original Carnegie Classification and the re-classification process. The reader learns about her use of reviewers' recommendations from the original classification as a tool for developing strategies for advancing community engagement at her institution. The reader will also appreciate Quan's account of using several "facilitating factors" to her advantage to achieve institutional change. She organized a series of workshops and events focused on community engagement as scholarship that helped spark campuswide conversations on the topic. This process ultimately led to Fairfield's Academic Council passing a motion to revise the Guidelines and Timetable for Applications for Tenure and Promotion to include explicit language about community engagement. Additionally, a 5th Year Interim Report for Institutional Accreditation served to create a university-wide assessment committee as two key issues highlighted in the report overlapped with areas of weakness identified in the 2008 Carnegie Classification Report. Like

many of the other authors in the book, Quan sought to gain large campus representation in the process, in her case asking the vice president for academic affairs to appoint cochairs for the re-classification as well as officially "launch" the committee. The intentionally large size of the committee served to raise awareness regarding the institution's commitment to community engagement and enlist involvement of new people.

Like the other authors, Quan confirms that "the reward is in the process" (p. 62), as it raised awareness about community engagement across campus, drew more people into the work, and established community engagement as an important element of the institution's strategic plan. The author also shares her regrets, such as not having involved community partners in the process and not having a "more robust celebration" once the institution received the re-classification.

Marshall Welch from Saint Mary's College in California describes the re-classification process in Chapter 7, "Curricular Engagement," as a "perfect storm" (p. 64). He recounts that the process was undertaken in the eye of a whirlwind of activity, in which his institution flourished as four factors converged. The Catholic liberal arts college had a mission of social justice, and the author was charged with integrating social justice into the undergraduate experience through service-learning. This mandate helped advance community engagement as it became "a vehicle for promoting social justice" (p. 65). At the same time, an external accreditation review, which found weaknesses in the college's disjointed social justice efforts, resulted in a formal recommendation to establish a centralized coordinating committee or body for monitoring these types of cocurricular and curricular activities.

In Chapter 8, "Outreach and Partnerships," Emily M. Janke from the University of North Carolina, Greensboro highlights the strategic importance of the re-classification process related to promoting wider understanding of community engagement, buy-in, and connections across campus. Her chapter highlights how equally important is the public recognition that an institution gains from the Community Engagement Classification, which, in the University of North Carolina's case, also served as evidence of institutional effectiveness around community/public service for regional accreditation by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS).

Manok's "Key Lessons and Guiding Questions" in Chapter 9 point to the need for long-term planning for the 10-year re-classification. She recommends that organizers "start early, revise and evaluate your first-time classification process, collect lessons learned, and strategize what the next steps ought to be" (p. 83). Other key lessons include expanding the membership of the core group from the original classification to include other key players on campus that may have emerged and contributed to the original application process as well as community members. In fact, she advises institutions to maintain this group as a regular standing committee and to keep expanding its capacities and training around community engagement. Ongoing relationship management becomes an integral part of preparing for the re-classification. Manok concludes that it will further be important to reevaluate the campus, including the institution's community engagement definition, as it may have evolved over time.

Part 3 of the book (chapters 10–14) contains authors' reflections on the long-term value that the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification process holds for universities as well as their communities. The gaining of buy-in from others across campus also continues to be a theme. Authors chronicle how they capitalized on the classification process by engaging key stakeholders inside and outside their institutions. Authors discuss how, in order to create lasting change at their institutions related to community engagement, they made sure that they involved administrators, faculty, and staff at all levels who could contribute information. In Chapter 10, Julie Hatcher and Stephen Hundley from Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI) describe how the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification provided an external lever that helped align a range of institutional activities, including reaccreditation, strategic planning, and assessment. They note: "For it is only when alignment occurs across all aspects of institutional work that community engagement leads to transformational change" (p. 88). They add that lasting change "is built upon gathering data, inspiring others to envision new ideas, and leveraging information to support institutional change" (p. 90). They compare the approach that they took in their work to

jazz, noting that like jazz it was planned, yet also highly improvisational.

In Chapter 11, "Putting Together a Team," Marisol Morales from the University of La Verne also reiterates how her approach of forming "a strong team of people from across campus who could pull together the story of engagement" at her institution (p. 97) resulted in long-term benefits to the university, such as structural changes, as well as the integration of community engagement into the institution's new strategic plan. She chronicles how community engagement became "an investment in the future" (p. 102) as individuals worked toward common goals. She notes: "It was an 'us' task from the beginning" (p. 103).

In Chapter 12, "A Never-Ending Journey," Brenda Marsteller Kowalewski of Weber State University picks up on the theme of aligning the Carnegie Classification with other institutional activities. She highlights that the classification process facilitated what Sandmann and Plater (2009) have called the "alignment of commitment, mission, public declaration, resources, policies and procedures, planning, measurable goals, and accountability" (p. 108). The reader will come to understand that none of the authors considered the classification as an end goal; rather, they viewed it as a stepping stone to instigate gradual change processes and, ultimately, institutional transformations. For Kowalewski, the documentation framework became a road map. "You'll earn the opportunity to engage in an ongoing improvement process that will help you build the community-engaged institution you so desire" (p. 115).

Chapter 13 presents the only case in the book where an institution had failed to receive the classification despite significant efforts. Nevertheless, it highlights the positive impacts that the failed application has had on the institution. Monica Kowal, who led the process at the University of New Mexico, notes that even though it was disappointing not to receive the classification, the application process allowed the institution and campus stakeholders to deepen their commitment to the institution's engagement work through policies and practices. It also afforded the opportunity to identify gaps in their institutional identity and prepare themselves for the next opportunity to apply.

Key lessons highlighted by Manok in the final chapter impress upon the reader the importance of robust data collection and selection systems, the upgrading of assessment tools, and synergies with other institutional self-studies, urging the reader to "avoid treating the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification as a stand-alone project" (p. 132).

Conclusion

As many scholars and practitioners have observed, change is not easy at higher education institutions due to their decentralized nature, deeply embedded cultural beliefs, and often competing stakeholder interests (Bergquist, 1992; Birnbaum, 1988; Tierney, 1991). Consequently, it is quite impressive to see that the leaders of the Carnegie Community Engagement Classifications and re-classifications featured in Saltmarsh and Johnson's book were able to use the classification process in such powerful ways as a vehicle for institutional change and, in many cases, cultural transformation.

For institutions that are unsure about whether to apply for the classification or seek re-classification, Saltmarsh and Johnson's book clearly helps to answer the question "Why?" as well as "How?" Through the accounts of over a dozen higher education leaders, the book demonstrates the significant value of the Elective Carnegie Community Engagement Classification. In addition, the book provides a compass to leaders of the classification process for navigating their complex institutional environments. Those committed to community engagement should follow in their paths!

About the Reviewer

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Dede, C. J., & Richards, J. (Eds.). (2020). *The 60-Year Curriculum: New Models for Lifelong Learning in the Digital Economy.* Routledge. 182 pp.

Review by Amy Claire Heitzman

Christopher J. Dede and John Richards's recent work, *The 60-Year Curriculum: New Models for Lifelong Learning in the Digital Economy,* is a comprehensive exploration of models and strategies designed to address the changing role of higher education and lifelong learning amid massive technological advances, increased human longevity, and the future of work. As faculty in the Harvard Graduate School of Education and well-known scholars in the field of educational technologies, Dede and Richards are well positioned to guide readers through the historical context of a 60-year curriculum and to synthesize a series of case studies designed to illustrate challenges and opportunities for postsecondary education in this heady time.

In the introductory chapter, Dede describes the term "60-year curriculum" (60YC), including its origins in university continuing education divisions, and argues that it "focuses on a transformational evolution of higher education toward novel strategies to enable adults to add skills . . . as their occupational and personal context evolves and shifts" over the life span (p. 1). From this, Dede outlines factors that undergird the need for learning to evolve toward long-term capacity building, which will enable learners to develop skills for inevitable career growth and change resulting from the emergence of longer life spans, massive advances in technology, and a changing political and climate landscape. Through a thoughtful review of historical and current adult learning frameworks, Dede recognizes challenges of the emerging economic context, arguing that although "human talent will become the most important factor" (p. 10), technology-driven change will fundamentally alter the ways learning must pivot to meet these new needs. From this analysis, the author suggests that the 60YC provides a way for higher education to articulate a "pathway to a secure and satisfying future for our students" (p. 20).

The next three chapters explore challenges and opportunities for stakeholders, beginning with "Education, Age, and the Machine," in which Andrew Scott outlines the merging lines of technological change and increased longevity, suggesting economic challenges that will have considerable consequences for education. Among these is workers' need to reskill to utilize new technologies, coupled with an extension of career length needed to support an increased life expectancy. Amid these influences, Scott also identifies questions around ownership of learning in this new setting—who provides education, when, and where (and in what modality), as well as emergent demands for flexible, transparent, often stackable credentials, the nature of which are increasingly fluid amid continuous demands for upskilling.

In the next chapter, "Are We Ready for the Jobs That the Digital Economy Will Offer to Us?," Michel Servoz outlines the major areas in which the adoption of a 60YC must be manifested in order to address the disruption caused by digital innovations in youth, or foundational, education, and in a revision of postsecondary or adult education. Paramount in reconceptualizing the latter is the shift toward a "focus on . . . skills that are transferrable across jobs and will not be subject to automation" (p. 44). Such skills include digital literacy and learning to become adaptable to new circumstances leveraging competencies earned and blended over time with past experiences. In reinventing the latter, postsecondary education is called to build models wherein learners move in and out of higher education, not only as needed or desired, but across their lifetimes. Servoz concludes the chapter with an exploration of emergent models, both individual and collective, for financing the myriad transitions learners will undoubt-

edly need over a longer career.

In "Employing the 60-Year Curriculum as a Strategic Approach," Ann M. Brewer examines the strategic value for educational institutions of pivoting to learner-centric foci, using the 60YC as a framework. She begins by arguing for the adoption of design thinking as a foundation for learning opportunities, and for institutions to embrace cocurricular design, wherein they would "engage . . . adult learners, employers, and others within a collaborative design process," with the result of meeting the needs of adult learners in active, authentic, and connected ways, recognizing the shift in learner agency within their own career paths (p. 61). Such a learner-centric focus emphasizes strong institutional relationships with diverse categories of students, understanding their needs and striving to meet them throughout their career trajectories. Following a case study highlighting the use of strategic student relationship management (SSRM), Brewer aligns the 60YC with such an approach, concluding that when institutions codesign learning processes, they help ensure that "innovations are actionable and scalable" (p. 69), addressing learners' needs throughout their adult lives.

The next five chapters outline institution-specific models and strategies of the 60YC, beginning with Stephen W. Harmon and Nelson C. Baker's chapter "Creating the Next in Higher Education at Georgia Tech," in which the authors contextualize factors driving change in higher education and one institution's response to these changes. Drawing on a case study of the innovative online master of science in computer science (OMS CS), which pioneered new levels of intentionality of learning design and significant increases in program scale, Harmon and Baker illustrate how that program's success prompted Georgia Tech to consider change much more broadly, and in ways similar to institutions adopting a 60YC approach. Rapid changes in technology, increasing life span, and shifting demands for workplace skills all "combine to put increasing pressure on models of higher education that have gone largely unchanged for hundreds of years" (p. 75). These realizations prompted Georgia Tech to convene a commission charged with recommending how the institution will serve the learners of this future. Among myriad recommendations, two major themes emerged—"deliberate innovation," an internal set of processes designed to leverage new areas of exploration for the institution, and "lifetime education," a recognition of the context of today's learner, which drives institutional responses to education needs. The authors next describe the institution-specific initiatives resulting from these recommendations, as well as the emergence of a forecast model to help guide the institution through these initiatives.

In "Known for Whom We Include," Punya Mishra and Jacqueline Smith outline how the current model of linear educational design is inefficient in the context of the 60YC and illustrate how Arizona State University (ASU) has pioneered "iterative learning cycles [that] will empower the learner to evolve . . . and enable the university to respond in turn" (p. 102). Focusing on the importance of narrative identity, which recognizes and prioritizes the importance of learners' varied and rich life experiences, the authors describe institutional efforts to innovate educational design at scale, including an evolving suite of E-to-B (education to business) options designed to address the upskilling needs of adult learners. The authors examine other areas of institutional progress undergirded by a narrative identity framework, notably tools designed to help learners explore career goals and trajectories, the establishment of flexible entry points and pathways toward a credential, and the creation of continuous learning opportunities for graduates.

In "Market-Driven Education: The Imperative for Responsive Design and Application," Jason Wingard and Christine Farrugia describe the widening gap between the skills employers need in an increasingly evolving workplace and those possessed by graduates, and the implications of this trend for colleges and universities. The authors cite "weak employer engagement by higher education" as the principal culprit, noting that employers are often absent from curriculum development, as well as what is described as static curricula, in which courses of study cannot flex or adapt to market changes and lack work-based or real-world learning contexts (p. 105). In response, the authors outline a framework of employer engagement deployed at the Columbia University School of Professional Studies, in which employer perspectives are included in the classroom via a scholar–practitioner faculty model, industry input is embedded

in program curricula, and partnerships with employers provide experiential learning opportunities, all with the result of maximizing the employability of the School's graduates.

In "The Role and Potential of University-Based Executive Education and Professional Development Programs in the 60-Year Curriculum: A Case Example of an Intensive Residential Program for Higher Education Leaders," James P. Honan describes key challenges and opportunities associated with effectively meeting the needs of learners in the later stages of the 60YC continuum. By illustrating a range of intentional learning considerations, from curriculum and faculty development to a broad range of pedagogical opportunities, Honan examines future considerations and insights that this established program can contribute to the 60YC movement. Among these are strategic questions around optimizing learning outcomes, leveraging technology-mediated teaching and learning, creating program design in collaboration with executive education stakeholders, and addressing the challenges of scale such programs bring.

In "Implementing 60-Year Curriculum Learning at the Harvard Division of Continuing Education," Huntington D. Lambert and Henry H. Leitner explore the context and trajectory of infrastructure changes required to transition from "lecture pedagogy and administration-oriented processes to online and hybrid pedagogies, and learner- and faculty-centric processes" (p. 134). The authors recount unit-level pivots around educational technology, hybrid online and residential learning experiences, faculty-driven curriculum development, and learner-controlled, competency-based credentials replete with interoperability across an institution.

The concluding chapter by John Richards, "Assessment and Current State of the 60-Year Curriculum and Research Agenda for the Future," offers a distillation of the book's themes and implications and outlines two particular dimensions of research. Richards first calls for inquiry into how postsecondary education can pivot toward what he calls an "andragogical approach across the university," wherein learners are increasingly at the helm of their courses of study, and learning is dynamic and centered on transferrable competencies rather than discrete skills (p. 154). The second research dimension he suggests involves addressing the structures of postsecondary education, such that universities adopt changes in infrastructure and processes to support a lifetime of engagement with learners to meet a lifetime of careers, not a lifetime career.

Overall, *The 60-Year Curriculum* provides a comprehensive exploration of challenges faced by higher education, synthesizing the confluence of increased human longevity with massive technological advances, describing in both expansive and specific detail opportunities for institutional change. Through historical context and case study, the authors have compiled a thoughtful compilation of frameworks, models, and next steps that will quickly become required reading for faculty and postsecondary administrators eager to help their institutions pivot to these new realities. Although several recent works call for a reconceptualization of higher education (Craig, 2018; Gavazzi & Gee, 2018 among them), this work provides a broad, inclusive approach, including balancing content from a variety of institutions, as well as a call for faculty as agents in this change, which is a welcomed opportunity.

Two modest observations about what this work might have also included would entail the role of the employer in the 60YC movement and the depth of demographical variances in today's learners. Considering employer perspectives, either via formal outcomes (hiring, promotion, etc.) or informally (the influence of a particular credential), would have been a welcome addition to this work. So too would have been some attention to the rise of noninstitutional (i.e., third party) credential providers, particularly salient to the discussion of lifelong learning. Similarly, the increasingly varied undergraduate student body, separate from adults seeking to return to school, often referred to as "Gen Z," is markedly different from the preceding generation (millennials) in how they approach and move through education, their interest in career development, their tolerance for risk and debt, and their plans for their own futures. It bears noting that higher education is entirely not ready for most of these new demands.

In conclusion, this work is a timely piece that smartly conceptualizes impending urgent challenges to the ways humans live and work, and that offers critically examined solutions to the challenges and opportunities presented by longevity and advanced technology.

About the Reviewer

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