JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION OUTREACH & ENGAGEMENT

Volume 26, Number 3, 2022

A publication of the University of Georgia

JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION OUTREACH & ENGAGEMENT

Mary Lo Re
Wagner College

Thomas Long
California State University, San Bernardino

Lorraine McIlarath
National University of Ireland, Galway

David Moxley
University of Oklahoma, Norman

Grace Ngai
Hong Kong Polytechnic University

KerryAnn O'Meara
University of Maryland, College Park

Scott Peters
Cornell University

Samory Pruitt
University of Alabama

Janice Putnam
University of Central Missouri

Judith Ramaley
Portland State University

John Saltmarsh
University of Massachusetts, Boston

Charlie Santo
University of Memphis

Antoinette Smith-Tolken
Stellenbosch University

Elaine Ward
Merrimack College

David Weerts
University of Minnesota

Theresa Wright
University of Georgia

CONTRIBUTING REVIEWERS

Burt Bargerstock
Anna Sims Bartel
Maria Beam
Nicola Davis Bivens
Rosemary Caron
Kevin Chan
Michel A. Coconis
Christopher S. Collins
Janet Colvin
Thomas A. Dahan
Alexa N. Darby
Marina D'Abreau Denny
Noel Habashy
Megan Faver Hartline
Vicki Hines-Martin
August John Hoffman
Melanie Nyambura Katsivo
Eric Malm
Laurie Marks
Paul H. Matthews
Juliet Millican
Milad Mohebali
Matthew Ohlson
Alfred Parham
Johanna Phelps
Allison D. Rank
Vicki Reitenauer
Nicholas James Rowland
Joshua Eugene Salmans
Lorilee R. Sandmann
Brian Seilstad
Marion Kimball Slack
Anne Statham
Kathryn Stofer
Stephanie Taylor Stokamer
Dilini Vethanayagam
David Weerts
Patricia Hrusa Williams
Martin Wolske
Lesley A. Woodrum
Roxanne Elizabeth Wright
Guili Zhang

JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION OUTREACH & ENGAGEMENT

Volume 26, Number 3 , 2022

TABLE of CONTENTS

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

TABLE of CONTENTS *(cont'd)*

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 1, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

From the Editor…

Shannon O. Brooks

As we say goodbye to 2022, the last issue of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* (*JHEOE*) presents a diverse line-up of scholarship featuring 13 articles covering a wide range of topics and methodologies, and a book review of recently published scholarship of interest to the higher education engagement community. Within these pages is a substantial representation of the diversity of thought, scholarship, and perspective that has come to define the community engagement field.

A robust collection of Research Articles is featured in this issue of *JHEOE,* examining questions and topics ranging from new knowledge on service-learning research on faculty development and student learning outcomes, to the impact of outreach participation on graduate students. Leading off, Derreth et al. provide an interesting addition to the literature on faculty development in service-learning. Through a longitudinal quantitative analysis, the authors examine the importance of cognitive and social-emotional development of faculty for building confidence to engage in service-learning courses and community partnerships. This study provides a practical model for applying sociocultural theory in service-learning faculty development programs. In contrast to the faculty perspective, Whitfield and Ball's study "Assessing Tolerance of Ambiguity and Locus of Control in a Service-Learning Course," adds to our understanding of the impact of service-learning on student learning outcomes through research with students in an organizational communications course. The authors examine a key issue in service-learning course design and implementation—providing a clear and structured plan for students as they complete service-learning projects. Student often struggle with the ambiguity, lack of clarity on outcomes from partners and faculty alike, and subsequent loss of control when participating in community-based projects. Findings can help faculty better prepare students for such "foggy" situations that may occur in service-learning projects. The authors also discuss additional considerations for how grading may be better employed when projects change or evolve to reduce student focus on grades as the sole priority and reward. In another study of student learning outcomes in service-learning courses, Culcasi et al. build upon the existing literature on e-service-learning with a first-of-its-kind study of the impact of e-service-learning experiences with a hybrid approach (i.e., Hybrid Type II e-SL developed by Waldner et al., 2012) on soft skill development such as leadership, self-evaluation, and digital skills.

Switching gears, Matthews et al. consider the affect of participation in a K-12 outreach program on identity and self-efficacy of STEM graduate students. Findings indicate positive benefits through involvement with outreach for the preparation of graduate students as teachers and in developing their identity as scientists. In our final research article, Ornelas et al. analyze interviews with students and faculty across major health professions to investigate how experiential learning may be implemented to increase understanding of health equity and social determinants of health for health profession students. In addition, authors examine how accreditation and curricular standards influence the form and structure of these experiences. In their findings, the authors also emphasize the need for faculty training in diversity, equity, and inclusion, and the need for more investment in the infrastructure to support service-learning and experiential learning programs.

The Projects with Promise section features early to midpoint scholarship of community-engaged projects, or projects with promising potential for demonstrating impact or addressing gaps in the engagement literature. First up, Jones and Giles examine an understudied element of higher education engagement—student organizations involved in service. This mixed methods study examined questions such as challenges with collaboration between student organizations and partners, what makes these partner-

ships successful, and the leadership capacity of students involved in student organizations. This study provides unique insight into how these activities are coordinated, addresses the frequent lack of student understanding for nonprofit concerns, and the importance of student preparation for these experiences.

Next, Minnick et al.'s study of developing a community-academic partnership (CAP) for addressing substance misuse, is an issue with unfortunate relevance for every community. This study provides a model for creating and administering CAP activities, and the potential outcomes of these partnerships. In particular, the authors presents CAPs as a framework for university-community collabaration to address a wide range of activities and issues, and for engaging faculty and students in partnership work that is designed around achieving positive outcomes for issues of grave importance to local communities.

Reflective Essays provide thought-provoking and forward-looking examinations and analyses of a wide range of topics affecting the field of community engagement, and higher education's role in promoting and institutionalizing engagement. Sdvizhkov et al.'s synthesis and literature review of community engaged scholarship and public engagement related to appointment, tenure, and promotion, identifies three areas where institutional reforms are needed. In this essay, they outline a framework for interventions to advance support for reforming the reward and promotion processes for engaged scholars. In addition, the authors theorize that these proposed reforms could also lead to the success of other higher education priorities such as promoting diversity, equity, and inclusion.

In "Theorizing Relationship in Critical Community Engaged Research," O'Brien et al. contrast neoliberal ideology that has shaped higher education in recent years with the aims and purposes of university-community partnerships using three paradigms of partnership: extraction, service, and solidarity. In particular, the authors draw from their own experience and practice, the community engagement literature, and evidence of the impact of neoliberalism in higher education to propose recommendations for centering relationship building for critical community-engaged research. Additionally, they call for a shift to justice-oriented collaborations. Adding another dimension to this dialogue on strengthening community-university partnerships, Sugawara proposes a framework with three pillars for developing, analyzing, and measuring the impact of university programs on local capacity for community development.

In a thought-provoking essay focused on graduate student involvement in engaged research, Cloutier et al. employee Doberneck and Dann's (2019) abacus for collaboration tool in the context of the experiences of community psychology doctoral students. Using this tool, the authors provide recommendations that may be useful to campuses seeking to support future engaged scholarship by graduate students, and also provide helpful best practices for mentors.

In "A Visual Model for Critical Service-Learning Project Design," Wollschleger draws from Stith et al.'s (2018) Critical Service-Learning Conversations to develop a visual model for analyzing projects across important themes in critical service-learning. Finally, Gendle and Tapler's essay adds to the conversation on ethical concerns and suggested strategies for best practices in global learning programs.

Closing out this issue, Martin reviews Hoffman's (2021) *The Engaged Scholar* through the lens of the reviewer's own experience transitioning from a career outside of academia to an academic position focused on engaged and applied research and public scholarship. Martin evaluates the central premise of the book, which challenges scholars to consider why they chose an academic path, and what sort of academic they want to be. Martin also highlights how Hoffman explores ways that academic leaders can promote public scholarship as well as affirm and support those faculty who choose this difficult but fulfilling pathway, seeking broader engagement, dialogue, and impact for their work.

As you can see, there is much to explore in this issue of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*. Once again, we thank our associate and managing editors, reviewers, and authors who made this issue possible. Thank you also, dear reader, for your support of academic publishing focused on university-community engagement. We hope you will be sufficiently inspired by the scholarship in these pages to consider contributing a manuscript to the journal and becoming a reviewer for future issues.

References

Doberneck, D. M., & Dann, S. L. (2019). The degree of collaboration abacus tool. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(2), 93–107. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1453

Stith, M., Emmerling, D., & Malone, D. (2018). *Critical service-learning conversations tool: A self-assessment and resource tool to help faculty implement critical, justice-oriented service-learning*. Duke Service-Learning. https://servicelearning.duke.edu/sites/servicelearning.duke.edu/files/documents/Critical%20Conversations%20Tool.pdf

Waldner, L., McGorry, S., & Widener, M. (2012). E-service-learning: The evolution of service-learning to engage a growing online student population. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 16*(2), 123–149. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/936

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 5, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Measuring Cognitive and Social–Emotional Development in Faculty Preparing for Service-Learning Facilitation

R. Tyler Derreth, Vanya Jones, and Mindi Levin

Abstract

The ongoing proliferation of service-learning as an institutionalized pedagogy in higher education has made effective faculty development essential. This study offers a conceptual framework, based in sociocultural theory, that establishes the importance of cognitive and social–emotional development to prepare faculty for service-learning facilitation. Through a longitudinal quantitative analysis of self-reported progress, 35 faculty over seven cohorts who matriculated through a service-learning faculty development program reveal their perceived confidence and capability to facilitate service-learning courses prior to implementation. The study finds that improved cognitive and social–emotional development increases faculty members' confidence in their ability to facilitate courses. Further, the pre/posttest can act as a formative assessment to identify faculty who need further support in their development before engaging with community partners and historically marginalized populations. Ultimately, this measure provides a valuable tool in avoiding the entrenchment of damaged university–community relationships from ineffective instructor facilitation.

Keywords: service-learning, faculty development, sociocultural theory

Faculty are essential to the success of service-learning as a pedagogy for training and educating students. In their study on institutionalizing service-learning in higher education, Young et al. (2007) highlighted the importance of faculty champions who independently study, practice, and research service-learning pedagogy. Now, with service-learning widely used in myriad schools, programs, colleges, and universities and more faculty looking to enact the pedagogy (Darby & Newman, 2014), this study asks: How can development programs systematically prepare new waves of faculty to successfully facilitate service-learning? This has been an ongoing question in research (Chism & Szabo, 1997), but scholars still note the lack of theoretically based, evaluative evidence for the advances faculty make due to community-engaged faculty development (Welch & Plaxton-Moore, 2017). Other research has noted consistent faculty feelings of uncertainty and apprehension before beginning their service-learning courses (Cazzell et al., 2014).

Faculty development programs at institutions of higher education have been a significant method for training faculty to facilitate service-learning courses (Lewing, 2020). Most of these programs include similar features, such as seminars and training modules, mentoring, and fellowship cohorts (Welch & Plaxton-Moore, 2017). The evaluation of these programs has largely been conducted through surveys, satisfaction ratings, and qualitative responses (Chism et al., 2013; Chism & Szabo, 1997). The evaluations that have analyzed the impact of faculty development programs often do

so by investigating the service-learning course outcomes post training. For example, Kirkpatrick (1998) cited four ways of evaluating program efficacy: faculty learning and application alongside satisfaction and benefit to organizational mission. Other research highlights faculty experiences and reflections post implementation as a method of critically evaluating faculty development (Becket et al., 2012).

These evaluation methods are effective at measuring the efficacy of development programs for any range of metrics at faculty, community, student, and institutional levels (Kirkpatrick, 1998). However, they also bring their own dangers, chief among them the inability to identify faculty that are unprepared to teach a service-learning course *before* implementation. Poor community engagement practices can lead to lasting community–university relational damage (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Santiago-Ortiz, 2019). Rather than teach students the impact of justice-based work, ineffective service-learning can reinforce negative stereotypes (Tinkler et al., 2014). Incomplete work in large scale projects can solidify rifts in community–university relationships. Faculty may prioritize student learning over community needs. These problems have not been uncommon and have been documented in the literature (Blouin & Perry, 2009). In light of these potential pitfalls in implementation, this study examines faculty preparedness after the first phase of a comprehensive faculty development program. That is, before implementation, do faculty feel cognitively and socially–emotionally ready to lead a critical service-learning course that prioritizes cultural responsiveness, social justice, and community expectations?

In their systematic review of community engagement faculty development programs, Welch and Plaxton-Moore (2017) identified another need: more empirical studies that evaluate faculty development, rather than additional examples of faculty programs that are purely descriptive. They acknowledge that some of the difficulty in evaluating these trainings is in understanding *how* to evaluate adult learning, especially when many programs do not utilize learning theory to guide faculty development. This shortfall stands in contrast to the extensive literature on evaluating student outcomes of service-learning, which rely on common postsecondary academic measures (e.g., exams, projects, papers, peer evaluations) and advancements in civic aptitude (Astin et al., 2000). Even with this recognized need for more evidence of faculty development, research points to areas of focus that could be evaluated, and in some instances have been evaluated, that have been identified through faculty experiences, service-learning literature, and some learning theories (Axtell, 2012; Blanchard et al., 2009).

Service-learning has always had a tenuous relationship with learning theory. As Giles & Eyler (1994) pointed out, research on service-learning pedagogy was not initially linked to learning development theories directly. Although some might make a case for connections to critical pedagogy (Freire, 2018) or culturally relevant teaching (Ladson-Billings, 2014), most service-learning relies on basic connections to Dewey's pragmatism (Eyler & Giles, 1994) or a few conceptual models (e.g., Lewin's change model [Schein, 1996]; Kolb, 2007).

The closest theoretical mate, Dewey's pragmatism, posits that learning occurs through reflecting, internalizing, and acting based on past experiences (Biesta & Burbules, 2003). Perhaps in this theoretical vein, the field of service-learning relies heavily on faculty experiences, reported as qualitative or descriptive findings, to grow and evolve (e.g., Lechuga et al., 2009; Melville et al., 2013; Whitt et al., 2008). However, many of these case studies do not name Dewey's (or any other) theory. In other words, researchers might infer connections to learning theories in service-learning examples, but service-learning design or research is not always intentionally *derived from or informed by* such theoretical frames. Although a lack of theory in any given case study is not inherently negative, the field of service-learning research could use a stronger theoretical connection in order to have a "systemic way of generating and organizing our knowledge" (Giles & Eyler, 1994, p. 78). Systematizing the knowledge of learning and development from service-learning through the use of theoretical frames can help us research and design more effectively for specific learning outcomes.

The breadth of case study findings based on faculty experiences of author-led courses are not without value. Faculty have, with sound methodology, reflected on and shared their learning and development in instructing students in civic engagement (Heasley & Terosky, 2020), community collaboration (O'Meara & Niehaus, 2009), course

implementation (Kretchmar, 2001), reflection (Elverson & Klawiter, 2019), pedagogy (Aralleno & Jones, 2018), and evaluation methods (Driscoll et al., 1998). Past research has done well in categorizing these processes and designing faculty development structures or models based on these studies.

The current study aims to add a quantitative analysis of *theory-laden* faculty development. We have synthesized the faculty outcomes across the literature, including faculty perspectives, data analyses, and papers presenting frameworks, into two broad categories: cognitive outcomes (e.g., service-learning fundamentals, pedagogical theory, course design) and social–emotional outcomes (reflection, collaboration, community engagement, facilitation) in hope of addressing faculty's capability and confidence to facilitate service-learning courses. These two broad categories were consistently relevant in past research on faculty development, and they reflect the blend of social, civic, and cognitive outcomes that service-learning aims to achieve (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). It should be noted that service-learning needs to reckon with learning theory in order to clarify purpose, objectives, and outcomes (Butin, 2003). The blending, or unity, of these two conceptual categories (cognitive and social–emotional development) is aligned with our theoretical framework, sociocultural theory.

To address these issues, this study examines the pre and post self-evaluations of health professional schools faculty who have gone through a service-learning seminar at Johns Hopkins University (SOURCE, 2020). The aim of the evaluation was to determine (1) Does the service-learning fellows seminar advance faculty's preparedness and perceived confidence to teach a service-learning course? and (2) Can improved *cognitive development* and *social–emotional readiness* in service-learning pedagogy advance faculty confidence to enact a service-learning course?

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

Sociocultural theory, originally a psychological theory for childhood development (Vygotsky, 1978), has more recently been used to examine adult learning and development (Rosser-Mims et al., 2017). The materialist dialectics of sociocultural theory posit that (a) psychological development stems from learning and (b) all learning is social. Further, the sociocultural view argues that cognitive learning necessarily occurs alongside and *in direct relation* to social and emotional learning (and vice versa). This emotional–intellectual connection is an indissoluble unity of human development (González Rey, 2016; Lantolf & Swain, 2019). In other words, a person cannot learn or develop cognitively without also influencing socioemotionality in some way, because development is always situated (Veresov, 2017). Individuals are always experiencing the world from a specific position, with a specific lived history, influencing any potential moment of learning and development (Veresov & Fleer, 2016). From this view, reflection, community collaboration, and civic engagement are necessary learning elements in tandem with developing the skills and cognitive knowledge to be prepared to teach (and take part in) service-learning.

Vygotsky (1987) also pointed out that development occurs because of the relationship of an individual with society (i.e., those around the individual). Learning through relationships, or as a fundamentally social practice, is the only way that leads to human development. This is what Vygotsky called learning-leading-development in a zone of proximal development (ZPD). The social process of development, then, is necessarily complex since it occurs through organized experiences of learning. Individuals will always engage in learning "a unity of multiple knowledges" (e.g., creativity, cognition, memory, social interaction, cultural interpretation, emotional responsiveness) in order to *develop capacity* (i.e., a developed psyche)—in this case, to lead service-learning courses. Vygotsky explained that this learning occurs through practice with more capable peers—in other words, working in a ZPD (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). In the case of this study, the ZPD is enacted through the collaborative engagement between the seminar participants and the seminar leaders.

With a sociocultural perspective and the analysis and synthesis of research in faculty development for service-learning guiding our work, a conceptual model that informs the methodology and data analysis of this study (Figure 1) was developed. The Service-Learning Faculty Development Conceptual Model shows the relationship between key

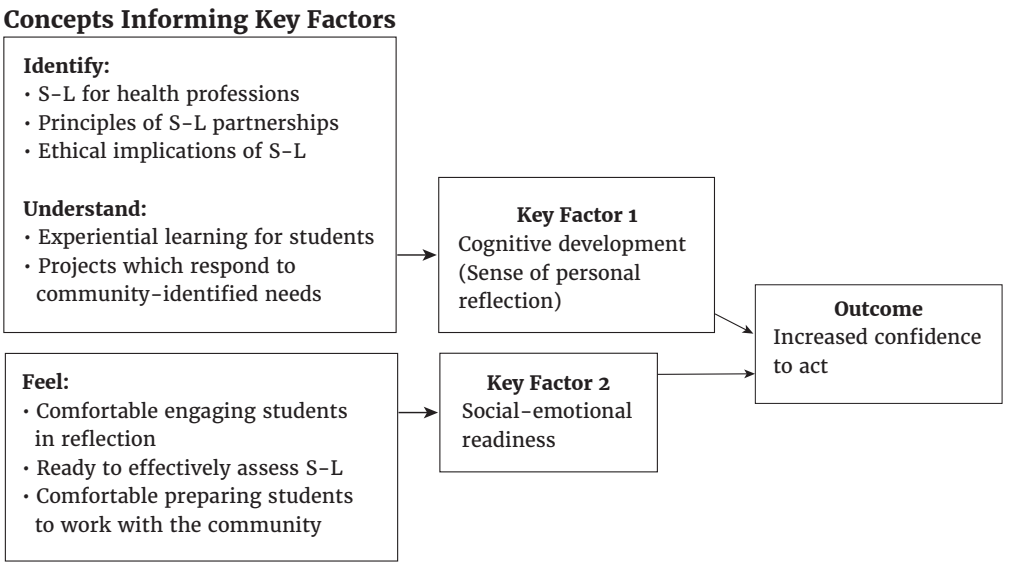


Figure 1. Service-Learning Faculty Development Conceptual Model

educational factors and the goal of building a "confidence to act" as operationalized by instructors' perceived ability to implement and evaluate a service-learning course and integrate community partnership into professional practice. The "concepts informing key factors" are learning objectives for the faculty development program. These objectives are derived from the literature noted above. These categorizations were defined, according to a sociocultural lens, as cognitive development and social-emotional readiness. These multiple categories of learning lead to development in service-learning practice, or the capacity to practice (i.e., a person's ZPD). This outcome is labeled "confidence to act." The focus is on "confidence" rather than "capacity" because of the timing of the outcome and evaluation in relation to leading service-learning courses. The model accounts for development *before* faculty facilitate their service-learning courses, as a measure of readiness and preparedness. Specifically, our definition of "confidence" relates to the instructor's *self-perception* of their ability and readiness to teach a service-learning course. Essentially, the "confidence to act" is a marker of the self-evaluation of the instructor's *development* in service-learning design, collaboration, and practice. The goal of the seminar component of faculty development in service-learning, then, is growing instructors' cognitive and social-emotional development so that they feel *prepared* to facilitate service-learning courses.

Description of Fellows Program

Founded in 2012 with financial support from the university's president, the community engagement and service-learning center for the graduate health professional schools, known as SOURCE, launched a comprehensive, interdisciplinary, yearlong, cohort-based, service-learning development program for faculty and community leaders. Each year, members of the cohort are competitively selected through an open application process. The overall goal of the program is to train faculty and community leaders together in service-learning pedagogy while also providing comprehensive course and project development support.

One of the major elements of the program is the 2.5-day summer seminar that serves as an intensive learning experience for participants. Throughout the seminar, participants get to know each other, establish ground rules for engagement with one another throughout the program, and explore essential components of service-learning. The seminar is followed by both individual and group activities to support members of the cohort. Faculty participants are matched with a dedicated faculty advisor from the service-learning center who supports them throughout the year of the program and into the future. One-on-one advising includes regular check-in meetings that offer important individualized training based on the faculty member's needs. Faculty advisors also provide support in identifying community partners to collaborate on service-

learning courses.

Following the seminar, monthly group meetings are coordinated for the fellows. Monthly meetings alternate each month between "Mandatory Cohort Meetings" and "Optional All-Fellows Meetings." The current year's cohort is required to participate in the Mandatory Cohort Meetings, which are designed to fill in content gaps that were not fully addressed in the seminar or enable fellows to express an interest in or need for additional training. Additionally, participants discuss faculty's courses and community leaders' projects to troubleshoot and work through any identified challenges.

During the alternating months, Optional All-Fellows Meetings are open to all past and current fellows. These meetings provide opportunities for fellows to connect across cohort years, disciplines, schools, and community organizations, supporting a robust community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Meeting discussions focus on areas of development that are identified by fellows and frequently include reflective discussions. Past fellows share their successes and challenges, and program leaders facilitate conversations around social justice, critical pedagogy, and current climate and initiatives impacting community–campus partnerships.

The yearlong program concludes with a final event in which faculty and community participants share their plans for their courses and projects and discuss the impacts that the program had on them both personally and professionally. Key leaders and stakeholders are invited to attend, including potential future program participants.

The Seminar

The seminar, which takes place each year in early June, is the entry point for the service-learning development program. This is faculty participants' first opportunity to engage with fellowship leaders, community leaders, and other faculty members in their cohort. The seminar is broken into three major sections: (a) building cohort collegiality, (b) service-learning foundations, and (c) planning and reflection. Each of these sections includes times for leaders to share their past experiences, for all participants to reflect, and for discussion and socializing.

The seminar begins in the evening with a Fellows Dinner. This first "half day" part of the seminar is intended to familiarize the new cohort with each other and the program leadership. To indicate the importance of social learning alongside cognitive advancement, this seminar event is an intentional, extended, and vital element of the program design. A multihour dinner, rather than a short "ice-breaker" before an academic session, was held to create equal time and focus as the cognitive and reflective elements of the program. During this session, fellows share what brought them to the program, their professional goals, and personal elements they are comfortable sharing. Although fellows are also introduced to the seminar agenda and an overview of SOURCE, the dinner remains largely unstructured, leaving space and time for individuals to begin building cohort relationships. The purpose of fostering collegiality is not only for group cohesion, but also to let fellows practice the collaborative relationship-building that is essential to service-learning courses (Mitchell, 2008).

The first full day of the seminar focuses primarily on service-learning foundations. These sessions are led by SOURCE faculty, senior faculty fellows, and senior community fellows (senior fellows are individuals who have previously completed the program and are highly proficient at service-learning implementation). The teaching team leads cohorts through active sessions on service-learning models and theories, curriculum and project design, critical reflection practices, methods for centering social justice, partner development, and risk management and ethical considerations. These sessions are presented in a few ways, including short presentations, discussion-based sessions, individual and collaborative activities and projects, panel discussions, and reflective writing times. Although the cognitive-based objectives are prioritized in this section, social–emotional elements were intentionally integrated into this work. For example, the critical reflection session encourages fellows to share from their past experiences and about their existing apprehensions and excitement over their upcoming courses. This session modeling is designed from sociocultural theory, relying on development as a social–emotional/cognitive unity carried out through social interaction and mediation (Veresov, 2017).

The final day of the seminar prioritizes experience, reflection, and planning. The day includes traveling to past community

project sites where the cohort hears from community leaders about the experience of service-learning from community perspectives. This review sets the tone for further exploration on how to center community goals alongside student learning. These shared experiences also explore the social–emotional challenges of conflicts in courses and how to ensure that responsibilities are met so that project deliverables are completed.

The stories that community partners and senior fellows share lead participants into thinking about their own upcoming courses. The final sessions of the seminar are dedicated primarily to working with fellows on initial planning for their courses. These sessions provide opportunities for fellows to ask questions about their courses, hear more about past examples, and start shaping course objectives. The seminar ends with a collective reflection session where fellows and seminar leaders reflect on what they have learned over the past two and a half days. This session also works as a transition into future phases of the fellowship. Fellows name elements they would like to learn more about and receive further support as a starting place for advising relationships and the upcoming monthly group meetings.

A pre/posttest is given to all fellows a few weeks before and immediately after the seminar. Fellows have 2 weeks to complete the pre/posttests. These tests are the basis for the analysis in this article.

Methods

This study uses data collected through an online pre- and posttest (using the Qualtrics platform) from seven cohorts (2013–2020) of faculty who participated as fellows in the yearlong service-learning training program. This study was approved by the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health IRB (CR00000477). The pre/posttest serves to evaluate the changes from the start of the seminar (pre) to the end of the seminar (post) in the faculty fellows' cognitive development regarding service-learning pedagogy, their social–emotional readiness to facilitate a service-learning course, and their confidence to enact a service-learning course.

Forty-four (n = 44) faculty fellows completed the development program from 2013 to 2020. Of these, 35 (80%) completed both the pre- and posttests; these participants constitute the sample in the current analysis. Most faculty are in the schools of public health (n = 20; 57%) or nursing (n = 13; 37%). A range of early and midcareer faculty have participated in the development program (assistant professor/scientist, n = 22; associate professor/scientist, n = 13). Due to the size of the cohorts and the ability for the participants to be identified by demographic indicators (e.g., sex, race, age), these items were not collected as part of the evaluation of the program.

Measurement

Table 1 provides the 12 pre- and posttest items, which are scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1= *Strongly disagree*; 2 = *Disagree*; 3 = *Neutral*; 4 = *Agree*; 5 = *Strongly agree*). The table shows each item categorized under a theme derived from the Service-Learning Faculty Development Conceptual Model. These items asked participants to report perceptions about their knowledge of the service-learning center's activities, understanding of service-learning pedagogy, social–emotional readiness to lead a service-learning class, and confidence in facilitating a service-learning course.

Analysis

A descriptive analysis and a paired t-test were conducted on each item to establish the mean scores, mean difference score, and the significance of change between the pre- and posttest for faculty in the longitudinal dataset. The first author conducted the analysis of these results using SPSS software. The coauthors reviewed the initial analysis. This analysis reveals the perceived outcomes of faculty after completing the summer seminar.

Each of the test items aligns with a learning objective for the seminar. In alignment with the Service-Learning Faculty Development Conceptual Model, the 12-item pre/posttest is categorized into composite scores that measure faculty participants' perceptions of their cognitive development regarding service-learning pedagogy (5 items), their social–emotional readiness (3 items), and their confidence to enact a service-learning course (2 items). Each of these thematic competency composites had a maximum score of 25 points. Two additional items focus on faculty fellows' knowledge of the administrative center to understand how much faculty fellows learn about our spe-

Table 1. Pre/posttest Items by Thematic Competency

SOURCE specific
I have an understanding about SOURCE's role with service-learning courses.
I can identify how community-identified needs have been carried out in previous SOURCE projects.
Cognitive Development - Questions that reflect perceptions of cognitive development on service-learning concepts
"Define," "identify," and "understand" are all indicators of perceived cognitive recall/ development.
I can define service-learning in the context of the health professions.
I can identify the important principles of community-campus partnerships.
I can identify ethical implications of service-learning partnerships.
I understand how experiential learning contributes to student learning.
I understand how to design a project based on community-identified needs.
Social-Emotional Readiness - Questions that reflect a feeling of social-emotional readiness to handle elements of service-learning
"Feel" and "comfortable" suggest perception of social-emotion readiness to teach S-L.
I feel comfortable engaging students in reflection activities.
I feel that I can effectively assess students' work in service-learning.
I feel comfortable preparing students to work in the community.
Confidence in Action - Questions that reflect a confidence to take action in leading a service-learning course
"I have" suggests a declarative confidence in accomplishing the following statement.
I have the ability to effectively evaluate a service-learning course.
I have a sense of how to integrate community partnerships into my professional goals/potential research.

cific programming. These two items were designed for internal use and therefore were not included in further analysis.

The three thematic composite scores were developed using a language analysis of the 10-item test and service-learning literature that supports the need for both cognitive and social–emotional competencies to successfully enact service-learning courses. The language analysis shows that cognitive development items use words such as "define," "identify," and "understand" to indicate a statement on the perceived *cognitive development* on service-learning specific elements, similar to the way Bloom (1956) outlined cognitive development in his psychological theory of learning. The *social–emotional readiness* thematic competency was established through an analysis of statements that center participants' "feeling" or "comfort" level. Finally, the language analysis revealed the *confidence* to act thematic competency through statements of ownership using the language "I have . . ."

Paired *t*-tests comparing pre- to posttest responses were used to analyze the perceived competency development of each participant in the introductory summer seminar. A multilinear regression was also conducted to analyze the correlation (r^2) between composite scores, using a difference in scores from pre- to posttest, to determine how social–emotional readiness and cognitive development might account for variance in participants' confidence to enact a course (e.g., Figure 1).

Results

The descriptive results of the 10 individual Likert scale items reveal increased mean

scores between pre- and posttests across all measures (Table 2). Of note, Items 1 and 2 show the greatest increases in mean point value at a mean difference of 1.315 and 1.143. Both items focus on participants' perceived capability to define core service-learning concepts.

The final column in Table 2 shows the results of the paired *t*-test for each pre/post Likert test item. The results reveal that the increase in score, indicating improvement, between pre- and posttest is significant for every item. These data show an increase in cognitive, social–emotional, and instructor-confidence developments for faculty participants.

Mean scores, mean score difference, and the paired *t*-test analysis of the aggregate scores for cognitive development, social–emotional readiness, and confidence to act are presented in Table 3. Each of the three themes showed statistically significant increases post seminar. First, with the largest change, participants indicated an increase in cognitive development through their self-identified improved identification and application of service-learning concepts with a 4.2 mean increase from pretest to posttest ($p < .001$). In comparing pre to post responses, social–emotional readiness also had an increase in mean score of 2.333 ($p < .001$). These results indicate that faculty fellows felt they were better able to facilitate the social–emotional elements of service-learning, such as engaging in experiential reflection and managing complex relationships between students and community partners. Lastly, participants reported an increase in confidence to enact a service-

Table 2. Descriptive and *t*-Test Analysis of Test Items

Likert scale item	Pretest mean (SD)	Posttest mean (SD)	Pre/post mean difference	t-Value
Cognitive development				
I can define service-learning in the context of the health professions	3.114 (.832)	4.429 (.558)	1.315	-7.828***
I can identify the important principles of community–campus partnerships	3.257 (.919)	4.400 (.695)	1.143	-5.452***
I can identify ethical implications of service-learning partnerships	3.457 (1.039)	4.371 (.646)	.914	-4.715***
I understand how experiential learning contributes to student learning	4.257 (.611)	4.657 (.539)	.400	-3.217**
I understand how to design a project based on community-identified needs	3.314 (1.182)	3.743 (.919)	.429	-2.214*
Social–emotional readiness				
I feel comfortable engaging students in reflection activities	3.714 (.957)	3.943 (.938)	.229	-1.756*
I feel that I can effectively assess students' work in service-learning	2.971 (1.010)	3.514 (.919)	.543	-2.741**
I feel comfortable preparing students to work in the community	3.371 (1.215)	4.000 (.939)	.629	-4.239***
Confidence to act				
I have the ability to effectively evaluate a service-learning course	2.514 (1.011)	3.543 (.852)	1.029	-6.179***
I have a sense of how to integrate community partnerships into my professional goals/potential research	3.629 (1.060)	4.257 (.657)	.628	-3.263**

Note. *$p \leq .05$; **$p \leq .01$; ***$p \leq .001$

Table 3. Descriptive and *t*-Test Analysis of Thematic Competencies

Thematic competencies	Pretest mean (SD)	Posttest mean (SD)	Pre/post mean difference	t-Value
Cognitive development	17.4 (3.483)	21.6 (2.511)	4.2	-6.028*
Social–emotional readiness	16.762 (4.180)	19.095 (3.414)	2.333	-3.938*
Confidence to enact course	15.357 (4.420)	19.5 (2.895)	4.143	-5.720*

Note. *$p \leq .001$

learning course by 4.143 points from pretest to posttest ($p < .001$).

Figures 2 and 3 graphically represent the correlation of individual thematic competencies based on participant responses. Figure 2 is a scatterplot and the linear correlation of individuals' difference scores for cognitive development and confidence to act (adjusted r^2 of .44). Similarly, Figure 3 provides scatterplot and linear correlation of social–emotional readiness and confidence to act (adjusted r^2 of .297).

A multilinear regression of the difference scores on thematic competencies, where cognitive development and social–emotional readiness were predictors of a faculty instructor's confidence to enact a service-learning course, is a statistically significant ($p < .001$) prediction, with the combined effect accounting for 45% of variance ($F = 14.9$; $p < .001$).

Discussion

The results of this study support the hypotheses related to the evaluation of faculty development in service-learning course facilitation. The study shows statistically significant results across all test items. Additionally, study results reveal statistically significant developments for faculty in all thematic competencies: cognitive development, social–emotional readiness,

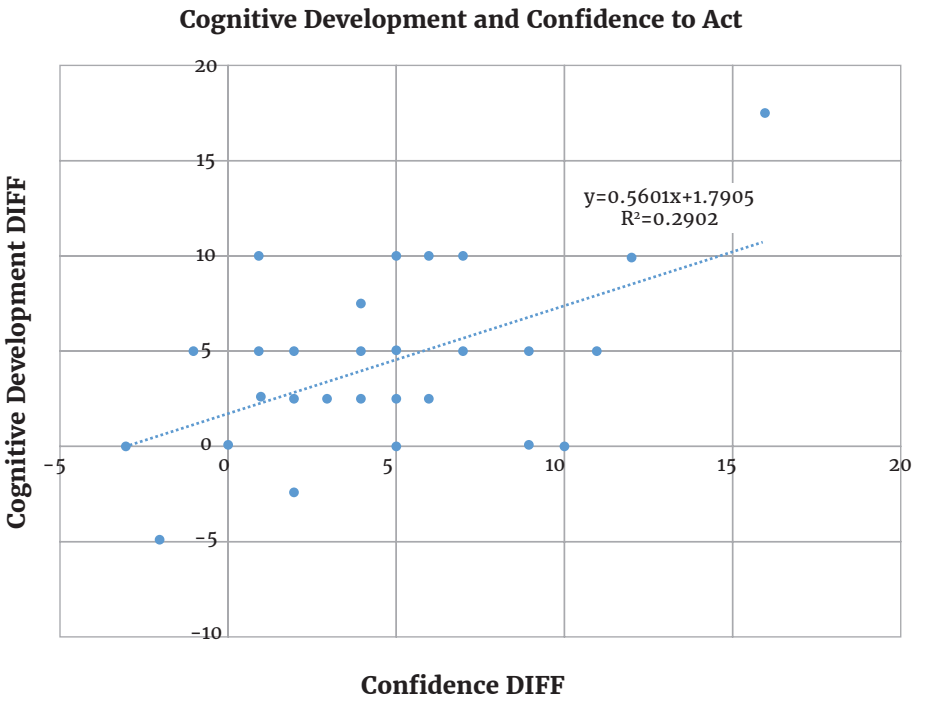


Figure 2. Correlation of Cognitive Development and Confidence to Act Thematic Competencies

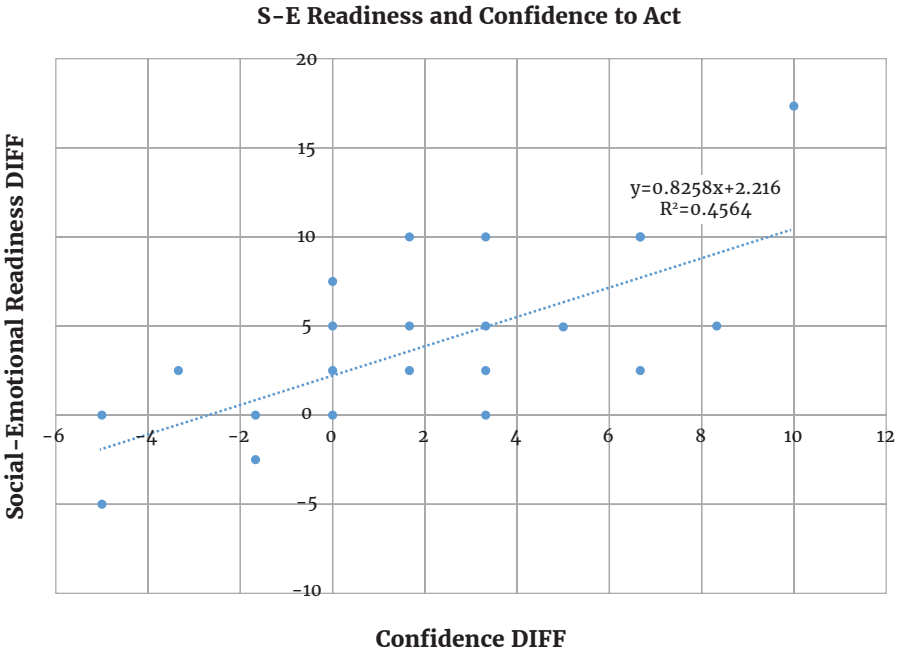


Figure 3. Correlation of Social-Emotional Readiness and Confidence to Act Thematic Competencies

and confidence to act.

To answer our first question, "Does the service-learning fellows seminar advance faculty's preparedness and perceived confidence to teach a service-learning course?," this investigation found that responses to all pre- and posttest items, as well as the thematic competencies, were statistically significant. These results indicate that the SOURCE fellows seminar model can advance faculty cognitive development for service-learning definitions, practice, and theory. It further shows the development of improved social and emotional readiness to cope with the uncertainty, complex relationships, and critical power dynamics of service-learning pedagogy, as well as the ability to evaluate how well these processes are progressing. These social and emotional developments are particularly notable for advancing past work that has highlighted the importance of reflection, positionality, and community-building for faculty who engage in critical service-learning (Latta et al., 2018). The seminar integration of reflection, ongoing discussions on enacting justice in the course, and our insistence in integrating community from the start all have a core focus on building the social and emotional readiness of faculty fellows to prepare for a shared project and course that prioritizes critical service-learning goals (e.g., social change, authentic relationships, redistribution of power). The social–emotional learning results from faculty show the efficacy of intentional pedagogical practices that prioritize social–emotional learning and critical reflection.

In answering Question 2, "Can improved cognitive development and social–emotional readiness advance faculty confidence to enact a service-learning course?," results reveal a strong accounting for variance (adjusted r^2) among the variables used in the multilinear regression (e.g., thematic competencies; Sink & Stroh, 2006). In other words, the advanced developments of cognitive and social–emotional competencies are likely to result in (or at least correlate to) an improved confidence in the capacity to facilitate service-learning. These results cannot confirm predictive power but reiterate the value of the pre/posttest as a formative assessment in order to implement different supports for faculty before they implement service-learning.

These findings speak more directly to the design of service-learning faculty development. If cognitive development and social–emotional readiness lead to, or at least correlate with, confidence to facilitate service-learning, then faculty development, especially faculty development prior to enacting service-learning, should have central design elements based on these

thematic competencies. The statistical results confirm quantitatively what may have been expected, since the conceptual model we posited and tested with the pre/posttest is based in the service-learning literature itself. Service-learning pedagogy stands on the idea of cognitive (i.e., academic) learning alongside experiential and reflective processes (e.g., "real world" collaboration), though research on these topics has largely been oriented toward student outcomes data.

These results can support the claim that faculty development learning objectives should align with student learning objectives in service-learning courses. Further evidence comes from the sociocultural theory concept zone of proximal development, which claims that individuals learn concepts and skills "in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Enacting the same kinds of learning objectives for faculty development in service-learning affords faculty fellows an opportunity to practice and experience the same processes they use when teaching their own service-learning courses—in essence, learning to become the "more capable peers." Designing and implementing a seminar that integrates these elements into all sessions, while being transparent and self-aware about the design with faculty fellows, means faculty took part in a learning process that engages their senses, experience, and cognition. This process can lead to confidence, where faculty can feel ready to facilitate with a sense of having participated in this kind of complex learning and development before.

This study's results and conceptual model on faculty development in service-learning are evidence and generalizable guidance on a theory-laden pedagogical structure for faculty development for instructors who want to teach service-learning. Our findings suggest the importance of blending cognitive advancements with social and emotional development as well, for the express purpose of being prepared to teach service-learning. These findings are in alignment with our theoretical framework, sociocultural theory, which posits the necessity of multiple developments (or knowledge processes) in order to develop a person's "personality"—in other words, to develop individuals in multiple psychological processes through learning (e.g., memory, emotion, empathy, analysis; Eun, 2019). Further, these quantitative findings corroborate past research, which has largely used descriptive or qualitative methods (Welch & Plaxton-Moore, 2017, p. 138) to reach related conclusions about faculty development. Building on these earlier studies, this study contributes a clear self-evaluative assessment tool and the added reliance on sociocultural theory to ground our conceptual model in learning theory more directly.

Applications and Limitations

The analysis in this study reveals an improved confidence to enact service-learning courses. Notably, we decided to conduct a pre/posttest for the seminar as a way of evaluating the preparedness of faculty before they began their engagement with community partners and students in facilitating a service-learning experience. Consequently, these findings are particularly relevant as a method of formative assessment. Faculty development facilitators can use the results of the pre/posttest to identify fellows who may need additional supports, education, or practice before feeling and becoming prepared to facilitate a service-learning course. This test is a useful measure for faculty who either (a) can use it as a reflective moment to confirm their confidence and capability to instruct a service-learning course or (b) can receive the additional support they need to be successful. Perhaps more importantly, the formative nature of the test can signal to the faculty development facilitators when faculty *should* begin instructing courses. If faculty are not fully socially–emotionally ready or do not have the competence and confidence to successfully facilitate, enacting a service-learning course could cause lasting damage to institution–community relationships and further negatively impact the perception of institutional actions, community engagement efforts, and other faculty conducting equitable and community-based service-learning courses (e.g., Blouin & Perry, 2009).

Even with these findings, the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that underpin them, and the application of analysis, there may be one outstanding question: why should "confidence" be an indicator for capability to facilitate a service-learning course? Perhaps a person is very confident but poorly equipped to be a capable instructor. In other words, is there not, anecdotally at least, evidence of individuals having

outsized confidence? In fact, research shows this very result in students, particularly for those who perform at average or below average levels on exams (Borracci & Arribalzaga, 2018). Edelson et al. (2019) cautioned against this very perspective, highlighting the need for humility.

Reflections were included on humility in the seminar training, specifically to advance social–emotional development. Indeed, the program highlights that a person cannot be socially or emotionally ready for service-learning without understanding their own limitations and need for collaboration for an effective course or project. As a result, some faculty, in open-ended posttest questions, have noted their "confidence to act" measures were lower than in their pretest precisely because of their prior overconfidence. Even with these negative time-bound results, there is a strong correlation to *increased* confidence for the faculty fellows. In fact, these negative open-ended responses may help confirm that the observed confidence growth is dependent upon increased preparedness, not undue overconfidence. That is, the few faculty fellows who came in overconfident were prompted to reevaluate and establish a new benchmark of confidence because of the training and reflection in the seminar. More often, faculty, in their responses, were open about their lack of knowledge or capability in pretest open-ended items, which progressed into an increased level of confidence post seminar.

Therefore, a connection between faculty fellows' sense of *confidence* and their sense of *preparedness* might be identified. In fact, this connection is present in the seminar instruction, where it is noted that in service-learning one can only be prepared (even if not fully capable) for handling the unexpected turns that may arise in courses. Preparing faculty in the service-learning definitions and frameworks, in tandem with the social–emotional skills to engage with community partners and students in relationships that cover power dynamics, civic change, social advancement, and any number of potential conflicts, leads faculty into a kind of confidence to manage the uncertainty of a course and evaluate its progress. Confidence, in this view, is more akin to becoming "comfortable being uncomfortable," though there is certainly room for further research here.

There are limitations to a survey that depends on Likert scale responses. The survey design balances the ease of reproducibility and low faculty effort with useful data collection. These results do not indicate nuanced differences that would be gained from qualitative assessments such as faculty's development in meta-analysis or practice of various service-learning pedagogies. Additionally, future work might expand the survey tool to clarify language such as "understand" into concrete applications of cognitive development. In this study, the survey stands as a guideline and benchmark that is easily completed and reproduced to provide a broad range of faculty experiences and self-perceptions prior to enacting service-learning so that a quantitative analysis might reveal generalizable results.

Finally, given the low number of faculty per yearly cohort, the results have been analyzed as a comprehensive longitudinal study, rather than trying to distinguish quantitative insights about each year the program was offered. With the uncommonly lengthy longitudinal data of the evaluation tool and program, these results may offer insight as generalizable findings. There are some limitations of the sample because the faculty fellows are, to date, entirely from health professional schools (e.g., public health, nursing, medicine). Although faculty training on pedagogy and instruction may differ across departments, most terminal degree training that faculty receive does not include direct pedagogical teaching/learning within curricula. In this way, faculty are at a "level playing field" when it comes to pedagogical training, at least when categorizing by departmental divisions.

Future Directions

Several directions hold promise for future researchers and practitioners to continue advancing service-learning faculty development. First, researchers and practitioners should implement the conceptual model proposed in this study for faculty development, along with a method of evaluation that would test faculty members' potential improvement in cognitive and social–emotional development. This generalized organization for service-learning faculty development may be an access point into establishing more theoretically based pedagogical instruction and implementation, through combining sociocultural research with service-learning practice.

Second, as noted above, future work can examine the relationship between faculty

members' confidence and preparedness and their facility in enacting service-learning courses, especially as that facility may improve over multiple offerings of these courses. In what ways do faculty continue to develop or need educational supports to improve their service-learning teaching? This line of questioning could have implications that tie to notions of communities of practice (Wenger, 2011), efficacy of faculty self-perceptions, and the correlation of reflective training with the efficacy of faculty self-perceptions.

Finally, this article does not speak to the full nature of what faculty development might accomplish in creating ongoing, successful service-learning courses. Future work might examine the efficacy of service-learning courses, faculty teaching, student learning, community engagement results, and/or perspectives of faculty fellows who engaged in the conceptual model of service-learning faculty development. This, of course, is the ultimate aim of service-learning faculty development: to support effective leaders in community engagement and student learning. This work presents one stage in an ongoing process of continuing education around teaching service-learning. It also highlights a valuable structure and generalizable formative assessment *before* implementation in order to prevent damage to potentially vulnerable communities, safeguard tenuous relationships, and avoid reinforcing harmful stereotypes for students.

About the Authors

R. Tyler Derreth *is the associate director of SOURCE, the community engagement and service-learning center, and an assistant scientist in the Department of Health, Behavior and Society at Johns Hopkins University.*

Vanya Jones *is an associate professor in the Department of Health, Behavior and Society at Johns Hopkins University.*

Mindi Levin *is the director of SOURCE and an associate scientist in the Department of Health, Behavior and Society at Johns Hopkins University.*

References

Arellano, I., & Jones, S. J. (2018). Exploration of university faculty perceptions and experiences of service-learning as engaged scholarship of teaching and learning. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 18*(4), 111–129. https://doi.org/10.14434/josotl.v18i4.23178

Astin, A. W., Vogelgesang, L. J., Ikeda, E. K., & Yee, J. A. (2000). How service learning affects students. *Higher Education*, *144*. https://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/slcehighered/144

Axtell, S. (2012). *Creating a community-engaged scholarship (CES) faculty development program: Phase one: Program and skill mapping*. University of Minnesota Office for Public Engagement. https://hdl.handle.net/11299/213716

Becket, D., Refaei, B., & Skutar, C. (2012). A faculty learning community's reflection on implementing service-learning goals. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 12*(1), 74–86. https://scholarworks.iu.edu/journals/index.php/josotl/article/view/1977

Biesta, G., & Burbules, N. C. (2003). *Pragmatism and educational research*. Rowan and Littlefield.

Blanchard, L. W., Belliard, J. C., Krichbaum, K., Waters, E., & Seifer, S. D. (2009). Models for faculty development: What does it take to be a community-engaged scholar? *Metropolitan Universities, 20*(2), 47–65. https://journals.iupui.edu/index.php/muj/article/view/20390

Bloom, B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: Vol. 1*. Cognitive domain. McKay.

Blouin, D. D., & Perry, E. M. (2009). Whom does service learning really serve? Community-based organizations' perspectives on service learning. *Teaching Sociology, 37*(2), 120–135. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X0903700201

Borracci, R. A., & Arribalzaga, E. B. (2018). The incidence of overconfidence and underconfidence effects in medical student examinations. *Journal of Surgical Education, 75*(5), 1223–1229. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsurg.2018.01.015

Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (1996). Implementing service learning in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education, 67*(2), 221–239. https://www.jstor.org/stable/2943981

Butin, D. (2003). Of what use is it? Multiple conceptualizations of service learning within education. *Teachers College Record, 105*(9), 1674–1692. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1467-9620.2003.00305.x

Cazzell, M., Theriot, S., Blakey, J., & Sattler, M. (2014). Transformation of, in, and by learning in a service-learning faculty fellows program. *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 3*, 30–46. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/44

Chism, N. V. N., Palmer, M. M., & Price, M. F. (2013). Investigating faculty development service-learning. In P. H. Clayton, R. G. Bringle, & J. A. Hatcher (Eds.), *Research on service-learning: Conceptual frameworks and assessment: Vol. 2A. Students and faculty* (pp. 187–214). Stylus.

Chism, N. V. N., & Szabo, B. (1997). How faculty development programs evaluate their services. *Journal of Staff, Program, and Organizational Development, 15*(2), 55–62.

Darby, A., & Newman, G. (2014). Applying motivation theory to faculty motivation to utilize academic service-learning pedagogy. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 18*(2), 91–119. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1116

Driscoll, A., Gelmon, S., Holland, B., Kerrigan, S., Spring, A., Grosvold, K., & Longley, M. J. (1998). *Assessing the impact of service-learning: A workbook of strategies and methods*. Portland State University Center for Academic Excellence.

Edelson, S. A., Lo, K. D., Nelson, T., Stark, G., Stratton, M. T., & van Esch, C. (2019). From the shadow of overconfidence into the light of humility: Reflections on experiential learning activities gone awry. *Journal of Management Education, 43*(2), 200–211. https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562918812169

Elverson, C. A., & Klawiter, R. (2019). Using guided reflection to link cultural and ser-

vice learning in a study abroad course. *Journal of Professional Nursing, 35*(3), 181–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.profnurs.2018.11.004

Eun, B. (2019). The zone of proximal development as an overarching concept: A framework for synthesizing Vygotsky's theories. *Educational Philosophy and Theory, 51*(1), 18–30. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131857.2017.1421941

Freire, P. (2018). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Bloomsbury Publishing USA.

Giles, D. E., Jr., & Eyler, J. (1994). The theoretical roots of service-learning in John Dewey: Toward a theory of service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 1*(1), 77–85. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0001.109

González Rey, F. (2016). Vygotsky's concept of *perezhivanie* in *The Psychology of Art* and at the final moment of his work: Advancing his legacy. *Mind, Culture, and Activity, 23*(4), 305–314. https://doi.org/10.1080/10749039.2016.1186196

Heasley, C., & Terosky, A. L. (2020). Grappling with complexity: Faculty perspectives on the influence of community engaged teaching on student learning. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 24*(2), 19–36. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/2072

Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1998). The four levels of evaluation. In *Evaluating corporate training: Models and issues* (pp. 95–112). Springer.

Kolb, D. A. (2007). *The Kolb learning style inventory*. Hay Resources Direct.

Kretchmar, M. D. (2001). Service learning in a general psychology class: Description, preliminary evaluation, and recommendations. *Teaching of Psychology, 28*(1), 5–10. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328023TOP2801_02

Ladson-Billings, G. (2014). Culturally relevant pedagogy 2.0: a.k.a. the remix. *Harvard Educational Review, 84*(1), 74–84. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.84.1.p2rj131485484751

Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2014). *Sociocultural theory and the pedagogical imperative in L2 education: Vygotskian praxis and the research/practice divide*. Routledge.

Lantolf, J. P., & Swain, M. (2019). On the emotion–cognition dialectic: A sociocultural response to Prior. *The Modern Language Journal, 103*(2), 528–530. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12574

Latta, M., Kruger, T. M., Payne, L., Weaver, L., & VanSickle, J. L. (2018). Approaching critical service-learning: A model for reflection on positionality and possibility. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 22*(2), 31–55. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1386

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press.

Lechuga, V. M., Clerc, L. N., & Howell, A. K. (2009). Power, privilege, and learning: Facilitating encountered situations to promote social justice. *Journal of College Student Development, 50*(2), 229–244. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.0.0064

Lewing, J. M. (2020). Partner and process: Conceptual considerations for continuous faculty development for service-learning and community engagement at supportive institutions. *International Journal of Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, 8*(1), Article 18785. https://doi.org/10.37333/001c.18785

Melville, K., Dedrick, J., & Gish, E. (2013). Preparing students for democratic life: The rediscovery of education's civic purpose. *The Journal of General Education, 62*(4), 258–276. https://doi.org/10.5325/jgeneeduc.62.4.0258

Mitchell, T. D. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 14*(2), 50–65. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0014.205

O'Meara, K., & Niehaus, E. (2009). Service-learning is . . . how faculty explain their practice. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 16*(1), 17–32. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0016.102

Rosser-Mims, D., Dawson, G., & Saltiel, I. M. (2017). Vygotsky's influence on adult and higher education. In V. C. X. Wang (Ed.), *Theory and practice of adult and higher education*

(pp. 423–438). Information Age.

Santiago-Ortiz, A. (2019). From critical to decolonizing service-learning: Limits and possibilities of social justice–based approaches to community service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 25*(1), 43–54. https://doi.org/10.3998/mjcsloa.3239521.0025.104

Schein, E. H. (1996). Kurt Lewin's change theory in the field and the classroom: Notes toward a model of managed learning. *Systems Practice, 9*, 27–47. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02173417

Sink, C. A., & Stroh, H. R. (2006). Practical significance: The use of effect sizes in school counseling research. *Professional School Counseling, 9*(5), 401–411. https://www.jstor.org/stable/42732713

SOURCE. (2020). *JHU SOURCE Service-Learning Academy*. https://source.jhu.edu/audiences/faculty-and-staff/fellows/index.html

Tinkler, B., Hannah, C. L., Tinkler, A., & Miller, E. (2014). Analyzing a service-learning experience using a social justice lens. *Teaching Education, 25*(1), 82–98. https://doi.org/10.1080/10476210.2012.744742

Veresov, N. (2017). The concept of perezhivanie in cultural-historical theory: Content and contexts. In *Perezhivanie, emotions and subjectivity* (pp. 47–70). Springer, Singapore.

Veresov, N., & Fleer, M. (2016). Perezhivanie as a theoretical concept for researching young children's development. *Mind, Culture, and Activity, 23*(4), 325–335. https://doi.org/10.1080/10749039.2016.1186198

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Eds.). Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *The collected works of L. S. Vygotsky: Vol. 1. Problems of general psychology* (R. W. Rieber & A. S. Carton, Eds.; N. Minick, Trans.). Plenum Press.

Welch, M., & Plaxton-Moore, S. (2017). Faculty development for advancing community engagement in higher education: Current trends and future directions. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 21*(2), 131–166. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1333

Wenger, E. (2011). *Communities of practice: A brief introduction*. https://scholarsbank.uoregon.edu/xmlui/bitstream/handle/1794/11736/A%20brief%20introduction%20to%20CoP.pdf

Whitt, E. J., Nesheim, B. E., Guentzel, M. J., Kellogg, A. H., McDonald, W. M., & Wells, C. A. (2008). "Principles of good practice" for academic and student affairs partnership programs. *Journal of College Student Development, 49*(3), 235–249. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.0.0007

Young, C. A., Shinnar, R. S., Ackerman, R. L., Carruthers, C. P., & Young, D. A. (2007). Implementing and sustaining service-learning at the institutional level. *Journal of Experiential Education, 29*(3), 344–365. https://doi.org/10.1177/105382590702900306

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 21, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Assessing Tolerance of Ambiguity and Locus of Control in a Service-Learning Course

Toni S. Whitfield and Timothy C. Ball

Abstract

Students from a regional state university participated in a semester-long project in community service-learning with local community nonprofit agencies to plan, promote, and implement an event. Student tolerance of ambiguity and locus of control were evaluated before the beginning of the course and after completion of the project. Results from this study demonstrated that students' sense of control was enhanced by the service-learning project component of the course. In addition, they exhibited an increase in intolerance of ambiguity.

Keywords: service-learning, tolerance of ambiguity, locus of control

For some time now, service-learning has been used to incorporate community service into the college curriculum by giving students real-world learning experiences designed to enhance academic learning and provide tangible benefits to communities (see Arellano & Jones, 2018; Asghar & Rowe, 2017; Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Hébert & Hauf, 2015; McNatt, 2020; Simons & Cleary, 2006; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000). In addition, faculty members hope that students will develop creative solutions to problems and develop more care, compassion, and responsibility (see Gardner & Baron, 1999; Ocal & Altinok, 2016; Shumer et al., 2012; Strage, 2004; Wilson, 2011; Yorio & Ye, 2012).

Previous studies found that service-learning increased students' knowledge about a subject (Porter et al., 2008), helped them understand theories and concepts (Markus et al., 1993), and enhanced their academic performance in college courses (Reeb et al., 1999). In addition, students who engaged in service-learning evaluated their courses more positively and scored significantly higher on community engagement, academic engagement, interpersonal engagement, academic challenge, and retention scales (Gallini & Moely, 2003). Civic-mindedness and the ethical effects of service-learning have also been examined in detail (Astin & Sax, 1998; Battistoni, 2006; Boss, 1994; Butin, 2010; Rocheleau, 2004). Findings include heightened connection to communities and understanding of one's responsibilities and place in the world after a service experience in the community. However, other studies have shown mixed results or have not demonstrated a significant difference between students who engaged in service-learning and those who did not (see Gardner & Baron, 1999; McKenna & Rizzo, 1999; Miller, 1994).

Service-learning's impact in the college classroom has been explored extensively, including its impact on affective learning (Astin et al., 2000; Davis, 2013; DeGenaro, 2010; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hurd, 2006; Kiely, 2005; Pierrakos et al., 2013; Stephens et al., 2016; Warren, 2012).

Astin et al. (2000), for example, explored the effects of cognitive and affective learning of undergraduates through a quantitative longitudinal study of 22,236 college students and a qualitative study of faculty and students at a subset of those students' colleges and universities. They found that service-learning impacts affective learning because it increases a sense of personal efficacy, an awareness of the world, an awareness of personal values, and engagement in the classroom. Hurd (2006) found that classes that use service-learning promote cognitive and affective integration and facilitate the development of connections between students, faculty, and

community members in ways that allow for diversity and encourage student retention.

Other researchers have investigated the cognitive and affective outcomes of service-learning. Davis (2013) examined cognitive and affective differences between students who completed a short-term service-learning experience and students who watched a video of the same task (reading a book with an elementary school student). Although no significant cognitive differences were found, significant affective differences were found, even when academic level and course performance variables were controlled for. Similarly, Pierrakos et al. (2013) used a mixed-methods approach to study cognitive and affective learning during a problem-based service-learning (PBSL) sophomore design experience. The researchers found that despite being challenged by the complexity of the experience, students valued the problem-based service-learning and gained professionally relevant knowledge and skills.

What has not been explored is the impact of service-learning on students' tolerance of ambiguity and locus of control. Does having students engage in service-learning activities affect their tolerance of ambiguity and influence their locus of control while helping them to understand theories and important concepts?

Tolerance of Ambiguity

Tolerance of ambiguity has been studied as a mitigating variable in individual behavior (see Hancock & Mattick, 2020; Robinson et al., 2019). Budner (1962) attempted to define intolerance of ambiguity in terms of its component dimensions, construct an adequate measure based on the definition, and illustrate some of the varied situations in which intolerance of ambiguity may be a significant variable.

Budner asserted that intolerance of ambiguity referenced a covert activity (evaluation) and a nonspecific goal and was therefore an abstraction of many responses to many situations. The correlates that he reported are generally viewed as manifestations of intolerance of ambiguity. As an example, he stated that being intolerant of ambiguity does not lead a person to favor censorship, but favoring censorship is part of being intolerant of ambiguity (Budner, 1962, p. 49). Forty-two years later, Lane and Klenke (2004) defined ambiguity as those situations that lack sufficient information in three different contexts: (1) a completely new situation that offers no familiar cues, (2) a complex situation in which there are numerous cues that need to be considered, and (3) a contradictory situation in which different cues suggest different structures.

Owen and Sweeney (2002) measured students' tolerance of ambiguity by using two previously developed psychometric instruments that they correlated with ambiguity tolerance ratings on two projects. The subjects were students enrolled in a senior-level information technology course that required two group projects related to the installation of an operating system, a web server, and related software on two different computer platforms. Owen and Sweeney found that students with a high tolerance for ambiguity perceived the instructions to be more ambiguous than did those students with a lower tolerance for ambiguity, but the relationship between ambiguity and student learning was not investigated because final grades assigned to the projects did not exhibit a great deal of variability and tended to be high.

Locus of Control

Like tolerance for ambiguity, locus of control has been studied for more than 50 years (see Galvin et al., 2018; Kumaravelu, 2018) as a mitigating variable in individual behavior. Levenson (1973) was one of the first researchers to modify Rotter's internal–external locus of control scale on a sample of hospitalized psychiatric patients to measure more accurately expectancies of control as they related to adjustment and clinical improvement. Levenson designed three new scales—the internal scale, the powerful others scale, and the chance scale—to measure belief in chance or fate expectancies that were separate from a powerful others orientation. The items attempted to measure the degree to which a subject perceived events to be a consequence of his or her own acts, under the control of powerful others, or determined by chance. Preliminary analyses indicated that the three dimensions of control added to an understanding of how locus of control was perceived.

Thirty-three years after Levenson's study, Ng et al. (2006) employed a meta-analysis to investigate the relationships between locus of control and well-being, locus of

control and motivation, and locus of control and behavioral orientation. Those with an internal locus of control believed that they were the masters of their fate and were often confident, alert, and directive in attempting to control their external environment. Those with an external locus of control believed that they did not have direct control of their fate and perceived themselves in a passive role regarding the external environment. The study found that internal locus of control was positively associated with favorable work outcomes such as positive task and social experiences, and greater job motivation. There were no research studies found that looked at tolerance of ambiguity and service-learning or community-based learning, nor were there studies relating to locus of control and service-learning.

The goal of the present research study was to examine the outcomes of a service-learning experience for students enrolled in an organizational communication course. We were interested in answering one question:

RQ: What is the relationship between students' tolerance of ambiguity and locus of control following the completion of a major service-learning project?

Method

Participants

Forty-eight students, ages 20–22, enrolled in two sections of an organizational communication class at a medium-sized public university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States and self-selected into one of six groups per class to complete a service-learning project during the fall semester. Of the 25 students in Class 1, 21 were women and four were men. There were 22 White students and three Asian students. Thirteen were juniors and 12 were seniors. Of the 23 students in Class 2, 19 were women and four were men. There were 21 White students, one Black student, and one Asian student. Twelve of the students were juniors and 11 were seniors.

Procedure

The Class 1 instructor secured the projects for both classes, helped the clients to understand what the students were capable of doing, and made sure the clients adhered to the service-learning requirements. Due to time constraints of the semester, the instructor identified the projects and students could self-select into one of six service-learning projects in each class that focused on planning events for a nonprofit community agency.

Class 1 projects included a prematurity awareness kickoff event, as well as a "Family Fun Night" for the March of Dimes. In addition, other not-for-profit projects included a canned art event for a local food bank, a pet dog extravaganza event for an animal health nonprofit organization, and a Par 3 golf event for the United Way. An awareness party to celebrate the first anniversary of a local gift shop was also planned.

In Class 2, three of the six projects involved planning events (a talent show, a brunch, and a "Fall Fun Fest") at a nearby retirement community. Two of the projects involved planning holiday parties in December. The first was a holiday open house for a nonprofit organization dedicated to promoting learning and literacy; the second was a holiday party for grandparents sponsored by the community hospital. The final project in Class 2 was the creation of a "communication blitz" targeted at local automobile dealers, garages, and parts providers for a nonprofit organization whose mission is to help low-income working families become more self-sufficient by assisting them with their vehicle transportation needs.

Each group selected the project on which they would work for the duration of the semester. There was no minimum or maximum number of hours required for the completion of each project. However, we asked students to log how many hours they spent on the project. In addition, students were required to write responses to four discussion board/email posts that focused on organizational communication theories and write evaluation responses for nine articles about organizational theories (see the Appendix for the evaluation response prompts).

The two independent variables in this study were measured by using the tolerance of ambiguity scale (Budner, 1962) and the locus of control scale (Levenson, 1973). Study participants completed the instruments as a pretest and a posttest following the approval of the Institutional Review Board.

To measure tolerance of ambiguity, students

answered a 16-item questionnaire. The items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Very strongly disagree* and 7 = *Very strongly agree*) and included statements like "Many of our most important decisions are based upon insufficient information" and "People who insist upon a 'yes' or 'no' answer just don't know how complicated things really are." To measure locus of control, the participants answered a 24-item survey instrument. The instrument measured responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*). It included statements like "To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings," "People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups," and "In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me."

The dependent variable, cognitive learning, was operationalized as the students' final grades for the course and was measured at the time final grades were calculated.

Results

Paired samples *t*-tests were used to analyze the pretest and posttest responses for the locus of control and tolerance of ambiguity instruments to ascertain if there was any change on either scale after the completion of the service-learning projects. In Class 1, there were no significant changes noted between the pretest and posttest scores for either tolerance for ambiguity or locus of control. In Class 2, there were significant changes noted on several items for both tolerance of ambiguity and locus of control.

Tolerance of Ambiguity

On the tolerance of ambiguity scale, there were 16 paired statements, and three displayed significant changes when pretest scores were compared to posttest scores. These significant relationships were noted in only Class 2, not Class 1. The first item that showed a significant change was "A good job is one in which the what and the how are always clear." The second significant change was noted on the item "The most interesting people are ones who don't mind being original." The third significant change was noted for the statement "A good teacher is one who makes you wonder about your way of looking at things." (See Tables 1a and 1b.) The significance value for these three items was less than the 0.05 threshold, which means that changes between the pretest scores and the posttest scores are not due to chance but can be attributed to the service-learning experience in Class 2.

Locus of Control

For the locus of control scale, there were 24 paired responses. Two showed significant changes when pretest scores were compared to posttest scores in Class 2, not Class 1. The first item stated, "If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make any friends," and the second item stated that "In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me." (See Tables 2a and 2b.) The significance value for these two items was less than the 0.05 threshold, which means that changes between the pretest scores and the posttest scores are not due to chance but can be attributed to the service-learning experience in Class 2.

Cognitive Learning

Cognitive learning was measured at the end of the semester when final course grades were calculated. Class 1 grades (Mean = 3.64, *SD* = 0.349) and Class 2 grades (Mean = 3.70, *SD* = 0.154) were similar. (See Table 3.)

Discussion

Service-learning projects gave students ways to connect organizational communication theories to real-life organizations and their settings. Because this group of students' work experiences had been limited to lifeguarding, waiting tables, and babysitting, they struggled to relate the organizational theories to any real-world experience. In qualitative course evaluations, students stated that this organizational communication course provided them with the real-life experiences they lacked and made the theories understandable. In addition, students commented on how the work they produced for these clients helped them to create and build a portfolio filled with material that they could use to get a job upon graduation.

Tolerance of Ambiguity

There were only three significant changes on the tolerance of ambiguity scale for Class 1 and none for Class 2. Personality and directedness could explain why there was no

Table 1a. Tolerance of Ambiguity Paired Samples Test (Class 2)

Item	Mean	*SD*	Std. Error Mean	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. An expert without a definite answer probably doesn't know much.	-.591	1.764	.376	-1.572	21	.131
2. I would love to live in a foreign country for a while.	-.045	.722	.154	-.295	21	.771
3. There is no such thing as a problem that can't be solved.	.591	2.261	.482	1.226	21	.234
4. People who fit their lives to a schedule miss out on the joy of living.	.045	1.988	.424	.107	21	.916
5. A good job is one in which the what and the how are always clear.	.682	1.524	.325	2.098	21	**.048**
6. It is more fun to tackle a complicated problem than to solve a simple one.	-.455	1.503	.320	-1.418	21	.171
7. In the long run you get more done by tackling small, simple problems.	.000	1.976	.421	.000	21	1.000
8. The most interesting people are ones who don't mind being original.	.455	1.011	.215	2.109	21	**.047**
9. What we're used to is always preferable to what is unfamiliar.	.136	1.781	.380	.359	21	.723
10. People who insist on yes/no answers don't know how complicated things are.	.409	1.563	.333	1.227	21	.233
11. A person who leads a regular life has a lot to be grateful for.	-.045	1.327	.283	-.161	21	.874
12. Many important decisions are based on insufficient information.	-.545	1.335	.285	-1.916	21	.069
13. I like parties where I know most of the people.	-.273	1.120	.239	-1.142	21	.266
14. Supervisors who hand out vague assignments give one chance to show initiative.	-.591	1.817	.387	-1.526	21	.142
15. The sooner we acquire similar values, the better.	-.545	1.654	.353	-1.547	21	.137
16. A good teacher is one who makes you wonder about your way of looking at things.	-.318	.568	.121	-2.628	21	**.016**

Note. $p < .05$

significant change in Class 1 and there was significant change in Class 2. The faculty member in Class 1 had more experience with service-learning (in writing, research, and practice). This instructor secured the projects for both classes, helped the clients to understand what the students were capable of doing, and made sure the clients adhered to the service-learning requirements. The faculty member in Class 1 is more concrete, has more experience, and is more direct when explaining the parameters of the service-learning projects to her students. The faculty member in Class 2, on the other hand, understands service-learning more from an academic perspective. His focus is on institutions, which is less broad than that of the faculty member in Class 1. The faculty member in Class 2 had used service-learning in a general education learning community and in other college courses. However, he is less direct than the faculty member in Class 1 and is more likely to say, "Make this project your own. Work with the client to develop this project."

Table 1b. Tolerance of Ambiguity Paired Samples Test (Class 1)

Item	Mean	*SD*	Std. Error Mean	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. An expert without a definite answer probably doesn't know much.	.000	1.543	.329	.000	22	1.000
2. I would love to live in a foreign country for a while.	.455	2.464	.525	.865	22	.397
3. There is no such thing as a problem that can't be solved.	.227	1.875	.400	.568	22	.576
4. People who fit their lives to a schedule miss out on the joy of living.	.227	1.798	.383	.593	22	.560
5. A good job is one in which the what and the how are always clear.	-.318	1.323	.282	-1.128	22	.272
6. It is more fun to tackle a complicated problem than to solve a simple one.	.000	1.746	.372	.000	22	1.000
7. In the long run you get more done by tackling small, simple problems.	.136	1.283	.274	.498	22	.623
8. The most interesting people are ones who don't mind being original.	.182	1.468	.313	.581	22	.568
9. What we're used to is always preferable to what is unfamiliar.	-.045	2.058	.439	-.104	22	.918
10. People who insist on yes/no answers don't know how complicated things are.	-.273	1.980	.422	-.646	22	.525
11. A person who leads a regular life has a lot to be grateful for.	.364	1.620	.345	1.053	22	.304
12. Many important decisions are based on insufficient information.	.091	1.716	.366	.249	22	.806
13. I like parties where I know most of the people.	.227	1.572	.335	.678	22	.505
14. Supervisors who hand out vague assignments give one chance to show initiative.	-.273	1.667	.355	-.767	22	.451
15. The sooner we acquire similar values, the better.	-.455	2.087	.445	-1.022	22	.319
16. A good teacher is one who makes you wonder about your way of looking at things.	.136	.990	.211	.646	22	.525

Note. $p < .05$

Table 2a. Locus of Control Paired Samples Test (Class 2)

Item	Mean	*SD*	Std. Error Mean	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. Whether I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.	-.318	.839	.179	-1.779	21	.090
2. To a great extent, my life is controlled by accidental happenings.	-.227	1.020	.218	-1.045	21	.308
3. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.	.182	1.053	.224	.810	21	.427
4. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am.	-.091	1.269	.271	-.336	21	.740
5. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.	-.136	.640	.136	-1.000	21	.329
6. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interest from bad luck happening.	-.091	1.269	.271	-.336	21	.740
7. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.	.000	.816	.174	.000	21	1.000
8. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in power.	.227	1.110	.237	.961	21	.348
9. How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.	.136	1.246	.266	.513	21	.613
10. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.	-.182	1.368	.292	-.624	21	.540
11. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.	.182	1.006	.215	.847	21	.406
12. Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck.	.136	.889	.190	.720	21	.480
13. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.	.136	.834	.178	.767	21	.451
14. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.	.318	1.492	.318	1.000	21	.329
15. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.	.318	.839	.179	1.779	21	.090
16. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.	.318	.945	.202	1.578	21	.129
17. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make any friends.	.364	.581	.124	2.935	21	**.008**
18. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.	-.227	.869	.185	-1.226	21	.234
19. I am usually able to protect my personal interests.	-.091	.294	.063	-1.449	21	.162
20. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.	-.273	.767	.164	-1.667	21	.110

Table 2a. Continued

Item	Mean	*SD*	Std. Error Mean	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
21. When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it.	-.182	.501	.107	-1.702	21	.104
22. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.	.455	1.011	.215	2.109	21	**.047**
23. My life is determined by my own actions.	.045	.486	.104	.439	21	.665
24. It's chiefly a matter of fate or not that I have few friends or many friends.	.000	.926	.197	.000	21	1.000

Note. $p < .05$

Table 2b. Locus of Control Paired Samples Test (Class 1)

Item	Mean	*SD*	Std. Error Mean	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. Whether I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.	-.130	1.517	.316	-.412	22	.684
2. To a great extent, my life is controlled by accidental happenings.	.391	1.076	.224	1.744	22	.095
3. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.	-.130	1.217	.254	-.514	22	.613
4. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am.	-.087	1.240	.259	-.336	22	.740
5. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.	-.217	1.085	.226	-.961	22	.347
6. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interest from bad luck happening.	-.043	1.022	.213	-.204	22	.840
7. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.	-.087	.949	.198	-.439	22	.665
8. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in power.	.043	1.224	.255	.170	22	.866
9. How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.	-.304	1.363	.284	-1.071	22	.296
10. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.	-.348	1.027	.214	-1.624	22	.119
11. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.	-.217	1.043	.217	-1.000	22	.328
12. Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck.	-.217	1.313	.274	-.794	22	.436
13. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.	.130	.968	.202	.646	22	.525

Table 2b. Continued

Item	Mean	*SD*	Std. Error Mean	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
14. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.	-.261	1.010	.211	-1.239	22	.228
15. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.	-.130	1.140	.238	-.549	22	.589
16. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.	-.348	1.191	.248	-1.400	22	.175
17. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make any friends.	.043	.976	.204	.214	22	.833
18. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.	-.348	1.774	.370	-.940	22	.357
19. I am usually able to protect my personal interests.	.043	1.296	.270	.161	22	.874
20. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.	-.217	1.043	.217	-1.000	22	.328
21. When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it.	-.391	1.158	.241	-1.621	22	.119
22. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.	-.087	1.379	.288	-.302	22	.765
23. My life is determined by my own actions.	-.217	1.622	.338	-.643	22	.527
24. It's chiefly a matter of fate or not that I have few friends or many friends.	.217	1.166	.243	.894	22	.381

Note. $p < .05$

Table 3. Class 1 and Class 2 End of Semester Course Grades

	Class 1	Class 2
Min.	3.00	3.30
Max.	4.00	4.00
Mean	3.64	3.70
Median	3.70	3.70
SD	0.349	0.154

The significant change in Item 5 ("A good job is one in which the what and the how are always clear") between pretest and posttest showed that students went from "Slightly disagree" to "Moderately disagree," which means that they exhibited less tolerance for ambiguity after completing the service-learning projects than they did before starting them. This increased intolerance of ambiguity occurred despite in-class reflection sessions, frequent project updates, and encouragement for the students to ask questions of the client during the project. However, formal feedback from the clients and the professor is not given until the service-learning projects are completed.

The significant change in Item 8 ("The most interesting people are ones who don't mind being original") between pretest and posttest showed that students went from "Moderately agree" to "Slightly agree," which suggests that at the completion of the service-learning projects they exhibited less tolerance for ambiguity than they did before starting them. Getting a good grade on the project presentations and portfolios is a priority for these students, which could explain this result. If the presentations and the portfolios look similar, then there is a good chance, they believe, that they will receive a grade of "A." Competition results when groups in the same class compete to see which group gets the best grade on the project presentation and portfolios. New service-learning projects and/or new "takes" or perspectives on earlier projects require taking risks and daring to be original. Students may not want to be original if it jeopardizes their final course grade.

The significant change in Item 16 ("A good teacher is one who makes you wonder about your way of looking at things") showed that students went from "Slightly agree" to "Moderately agree" between pretest and posttest. This outcome could be explained by the nature of the course, which relies less on exams and more on having students reflect on what they are learning in the classroom and applying that knowledge and understanding to their service-learning projects. We believe this slight change is a positive indicator of the impact of service-learning. As with any experiential pedagogy, it is messy and unpredictable. In this case, the students had to deal with the perception of lack of control with the community partner, the project, and their team members. Participation in this course and the service-learning projects they completed may have caused them to reconsider what they know about organizations, and their tolerance of ambiguity could have increased due to aspects that are out of their reach (e.g., a community partner who does not give clear directions or tells the students, "Just make this event your own"). (See Table 4.) However, final course grades are not based solely on grades earned on the presentations and the portfolios or on exam scores. Students must also write responses to four discussion board threads, provide written evaluations of nine supplemental readings on different organizational theories, and analyze a current film using one of the five theoretical perspectives discussed in class.

Locus of Control

The first significant change occurred with Item 17 ("If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make any friends"). Students went from disagreeing with that statement in the pretest to more strongly disagreeing with it after completing their service-learning projects. This change suggests that the students believed that their friendships were a consequence of their own acts and not under the control of powerful others or because of chance. Wanting to make friends is important because the nature of service-learning creates tension both individually and in group situations as people work to accomplish group goals. However, a tension exists between making friends and getting good grades (Whitfield, 2005).

The second significant change occurred with Item 22 ("In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me"). Students went from neither agreeing nor disagreeing with this statement in the pretest to disagreeing with it by the time they completed their service-learning projects. This change again suggests that the students believed that they controlled their own actions — they were not under the control of powerful others. Chance also does not seem to play a part. Indeed, student increase in confidence is related to accomplishments of the events they planned and implemented. Their group norms and the needs of the community agency could have created a stronger sense of adaptability that allowed them to demonstrate or at least feel that they controlled their own outcomes.

Table 4. Tolerance of Ambiguity Comparison of Pretest and Posttest Mean (Class 2)

Item	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean
5. A good job is one in which the what and the how are always clear.	3.50	2.82
8. The most interesting people are ones who don't mind being original.	6.05	5.59
16. A good teacher is one who makes you wonder about your way of looking at things.	5.86	6.18

Table 5. Locus of Control Comparison of Pretest and Posttest Mean (Class 2)

Item	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean
17. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make any friends.	2.05	1.68
22. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.	3.14	2.68

Prior to this study, we believed there were three factors in service-learning that affected students' sense of control: the dependency on the client, other group members, and the professor (through the final course grade). We believed that these tensions existed because these three factors could contribute to their perceived lack of control. However, the analysis of the pretest and posttest means alters that understanding.

The significance of Item 17 ("If important people didn't like me, I wouldn't have any friends") could be explained by the fact that these group members worked together over a 16-week semester and developed cohesion. The synergy they developed could have created a sense of confidence that they could work with others to control their own fate. Regarding Item 22 ("In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me"), students may have adapted to their surroundings, to the desires of their clients and team members, and to their professor's expectations. (See Table 5.)

The research question asked, "What is the relationship between students' tolerance of ambiguity and locus of control following the completion of a major service-learning project?" The evidence used to answer this question is not very strong, given that we saw significant change in only one of the classes and then on only five items (three out of 16 tolerance of ambiguity items and two out of 24 locus of control items). However, the evidence seems to suggest that the students wanted clear instructions from the professor (the what) and a clear "road map" they could follow as they worked on their service-learning projects. Anyone who has used service-learning in their college classrooms knows that providing a clear and unambiguous "road map" is difficult. On a more positive note, the students seemed to have learned new things about organizations while showing that they, rather than powerful other people like a client or a professor, controlled their own destinies.

Although controlling ambiguity in any experiential activity is nearly impossible, faculty members who use service-learning could instruct students in how to ask for more clarity from community partners and team members. In addition, conversations about and skill building activities on how to assert themselves in these situations could help students improve their tolerance of ambiguity. However, students need to know that they cannot control all the variables at work (or what happens at school or at home). Learning how to cope with those

feelings of ambiguity now may benefit them in the future. Obsessing over grades instead of focusing on the learning outcomes may continue to grow (O'Connor & Lessing, 2017), but we believe that taking the grade pressure off the service-learning project itself should allay some of the intolerance of ambiguity and improve locus of control as well.

The outcomes of this study reveal important aspects related to service-learning, tolerance of ambiguity, and locus of control. The findings did show changes between classes and from pretest to posttest that warrant attention and contribute to the existing outcome-based research. As faculty continue to utilize service-learning in classrooms, care should be taken to make sure all involved have an active and reciprocal stake in the process.

Future research could discover the connection between tolerance of ambiguity and locus of control in the pursuit of service-learning projects and how instructor differences may affect these strategies. In addition, examining these strategies on a large scale could provide insight into the overall effects of service-learning.

About the Authors

Toni S. Whitfield *is a professor in the School of Communication Studies at James Madison University.*

Timothy C. Ball *is an associate professor in the School of Communication Studies at James Madison University.*

References

Arellano, I., & Jones, S. J. (2018). Exploration of university faculty perceptions and experiences of service-learning as engaged scholarship of teaching and learning. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 18*(4), 111–129. https://doi.org/10.14434/josotl.v18i4.23178

Asghar, M., & Rowe, N. (2017). Reciprocity and critical reflection as the key to social justice in service learning: A case study. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 54*(2), 117–125. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2016.1273788

Astin, A. W., & Sax, L. J. (1998). How undergraduates are affected by service participation. *Journal of College Student Development, 39*, 251–263. http://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/slcehighered/7

Astin, A. W., Vogelgesang, L. J., Ikeda, E. K., & Yee, J. A. (2000). How service learning affects students. *Higher Education*. Paper 144. http://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/slcehighered/144

Battistoni, R. (2006). Approaching democratic engagement: Research findings on civic learning and civic practice. In K. M. Casey, G. Davidson, S. H. Billig, & N. C. Springer (Eds.), *Advances in service-learning research: Vol. 6. Advancing knowledge in service-learning: Research to transform the field* (pp. 3–16). Information Age.

Boss, J. A. (1994). The autonomy of moral intelligence. *Educational Theory, 44*(4), 399–416. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-5446.1994.00399.x

Budner, S. (1962). Intolerance of ambiguity as a personality variable. *Journal of Personality, 30*(1), 29–50. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1962.tb02303.x

Butin, D. W. (2010). *Service-learning in theory and practice: The future of community engagement in higher education*. Palgrave MacMillan.

Davis, D. R. (2013). Cognitive and affective outcomes of short-term service-learning experiences: An exploratory study. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 7*(2), Article 15. https://doi.org/10.20429/ijsotl.2013.070215

DeGenaro, W. (2010). The affective dimensions of service learning. *Reflections, 9*(3), 192–221. https://reflectionsjournal.net/wp-content/uploads/CopyrightUpdates/Vol9N3/V9.N3.DeGenaro.William.pdf

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

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

Gallini, S. M., & Moely, B. E. (2003). Service-learning and engagement, academic challenge, and retention. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 10*(1), 5–14. https://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0010.101

Galvin, B. M., Randel, A. E., Collins, B. J., & Johnson, R. E. (2018). Changing the focus of locus (of control): A targeted review of the locus of control literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 39*(7), 820–833. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2275

Gardner, E. B., & Baron, C. M. (1999). Attitudinal and academic effects of service-learning. *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community, 18*(1), 97–109. https://doi.org/10.1300/J005v18n01_08

Hancock, J., & Mattick, K. (2020). Tolerance of ambiguity and psychological well-being in medical training: A systematic review. *Medical Education, 54*, 125–137. https://doi.org/10.1111/medu.14031

Hébert, A., & Hauf, P. (2015). Student learning through service learning: Effects on academic development, civic responsibility, interpersonal skills and practical skills. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 16*(1), 37–49. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787415573357

Hurd, C. A. (2006). *Is service-learning effective? A look at current research*. https://www.academia.edu/24493158/Is_Service_Learning_Effective_A_LOOK_AT_CURRENT_RESEARCH

Kiely, R. (2005). A transformative learning model for service-learning: A longitudinal case study. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 12*(1), 5–22. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0012.101

Kumaravelu, G. (2018). Locus of control in school students and its relationship with academic achievement. *I-Manager's Journal on School Educational Technology, 13*(4), 61–66. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1184267.pdf

Lane, M. S., & Klenke, K. (2004). The ambiguity tolerance interface: A modified social cognitive model for leading under uncertainty. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 10*(3), 69–81. https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190401000306

Levenson, H. (1973). Multidimensional locus of control in psychiatric patients. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 41*(3), 397–404. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0035357

Markus, G. B., Howard, J. P. F., & King, D. C. (1993). Integrating community service and classroom instruction enhances learning: Results from an experiment. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 15*(4), 410–419. https://doi.org/10.2307/1164538

McKenna, M. W., & Rizzo, E. (1999). Student perceptions of "learning" in service-learning courses. In J. R. Ferrari & J. G. Chapman (Eds.), *Educating students to make-a-difference: Community-based service-learning* (pp. 111–123). Haworth Press.

McNatt, B. D. (2020). Service-learning: An experiment to increase interpersonal communication confidence and competence. *Education + Training, 62*(2), 129–144. https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/ET-02-2019-0039/full/html

Miller, J. (1994). Linking traditional and service-learning courses: Outcome evaluations utilizing two pedagogically distinct models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 1*(1), 29–36. https://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/slcehighered/51

Ng, T. W. H., Sorensen, K. L., & Eby, L. T. (2006). Locus of control at work: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*, 1057–1087. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.416

Ocal, A., & Altinok, A. (2016). Developing social sensitivity with service-learning. *Social Indicators Research, 129*(1), 61–75. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-015-1091-6

O'Connor, J. S., & Lessing, A. D. (2017). What we talk about when we don't talk about grades. *Schools: Studies in Education, 14*(2), 303–318. https://doi.org/10.1086/693793

Owen, W., & Sweeney, R. (2002). *Ambiguity tolerance, performance, learning, and satisfaction: A research direction* [Unpublished manuscript]. University of South Alabama. http://proc.edsig.org/2002/242c/ISECON.2002.Owen.pdf

Pierrakos, O., Nagel, R., Pappas, E., Nagel, J., Moran, T., Barrella, E., & Panizo, M. (2013). A mixed-methods study of cognitive and affective learning during a sophomore design problem-based service learning experience. *International Journal for Service Learning in Engineering, 8*(3), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.24908/ijsle.v0i0.5145

Porter, J. R., Summers, M., Toton, S., & Aisenstein, H. (2008). Service-learning with a food stamp enrollment campaign: Community and student benefits. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning, 14*(2), 66–75. https://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0014.206

Reeb, R. N., Sammon, J. A., & Isackson, N. L. (1999). Clinical application of the service-learning model in psychology: Evidence of educational and clinical benefits. In J. R. Ferrari & J. G. Chapman (Eds.), *Educating students to make-a-difference: Community-based service-learning* (pp. 65–82). Haworth Press.

Robinson, J. R., Workman, J. E., & Winfrey Freeburg, B. (2019). Creativity and tolerance of ambiguity in fashion design students. *International Journal of Fashion Design, Technology and Education, 12*(1), 96–104. https://doi.org/10.1080/17543266.2018.1516807

Rocheleau, J. (2004). Theoretical roots of service-learning: Progressive education and the development of citizenship. In B. Speck & S. Hoppe (Eds.), *Service learning: History, theory and issues* (pp. 3–22). Praeger.

Shumer, R., Lam, C., & Laabs, B. (2012). Ensuring good character and civic education: Connecting through service learning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 32*(4), 430–440. https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2012.741768

Simons, L. N., & Cleary, B. (2006). The influence of service-learning on students' personal and social development. *College Teaching, 54*(4), 307–319. https://doi.org/10.3200/CTCH.54.4.307-319

Stephens, K. R., Malone, D., & Griffith, A. P. (2016). Service-learning in gifted education: Addressing cognitive and affective domains. In K. R. Stephens & F. A. Karnes (Eds.), *Introduction to curriculum design in gifted education* (pp. 281–305). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003235842

Strage, A. (2004). Long-term academic benefits of service-learning: When and where do they manifest themselves? *College Student Journal, 38*(2), 257–261.

Ward, K., & Wolf-Wendel, L. (2000). Community-centered service learning: Moving from "doing for" to "doing with." *American Behavioral Scientist, 43*(1), 46–50. https://doi.org/10.1177/00027640021955586

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

Whitfield, T. (2005). The dark side of service-learning. *Academic Exchange Quarterly, 9*(5), 248–252.

Wilson, J. C. (2011). Service-learning and the development of empathy in US college students. *Education + Training, 53*(2), 207–217. https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911111115735

Yorio, P. L., & Ye, F. (2012). A meta-analysis on the effects of service-learning on the social, personal, and cognitive outcomes of learning. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 11*(1), 9–27. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2010.0072

Appendix

Email Journal Assignment 1

This assignment is the first part of your journal assignment of the service-learning aspect of this class. You should also be keeping a brief journal of weekly thoughts or occurrences as you progress. Occasionally (about 5 times) I will ask for you to respond to some specific journal comments.

You may need to re-read the service-learning part of the syllabus to answer these questions. Please write at least one paragraph for each part. Remember, thoroughness in internalizing your personal feelings and experiences and use of application of terms and concepts from your readings best demonstrates your understanding and synthesis of the experience and the course materials.

1. Reflect on your own personal values and how they relate to the concepts of service-learning. What specific values are called on for service? How do any of these relate to Communication?

2. What are your personal value systems as they relate to the workplace? What ethical code might you use to guide you in your future career? Be specific, and take the time to write down a bulleted list of codes that you would follow and explain them.

3. What ethical aspects relate to your group assignment, client or organization? What ethical concerns or issues have you noticed or have come to mind since you began this activity? Have you identified any clashes with your personal code of ethics? If so, explain them.

4. In your next group meeting or via email with your group members, discuss everyone's code of ethics and see what similarities and differences exist. Create a group code of ethics that you will use as a guide for the remainder of the semester and send this code to me. Look at all the aspects to create this code. Designate one person from your group to send me your group's code of ethics.

Email Journal Assignment 2

Since we have now essentially dealt with Classical Management, Human Relations, and Human Resource theories, I am asking you to think about these three theories in relations to your organization and your group.

Even though they were designed to be prescriptive rather than descriptive, the Classical, Human Relations, and Human Resources approaches to organizational behavior have influenced most organizations today. Based on your observations and interactions with at least one person in your organization, please address the following questions:

1. What elements of Fayol's Classical Theory, Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy, and Taylor's Theory of Scientific Management have manifested themselves in your organization? Provide specific examples and illustrations to support your observations. How have the advantages and disadvantages of the classical management approach played out within this organization? What about in your group?

2a. Using Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid, how would you describe the management style of the person in the organization whom you are working with (or with whom you are working the closest) during this service-learning project? What are the advantages and disadvantages of her management style for volunteers who are giving time to the organization?

2b. By now, leadership roles have emerged within your group. How does the grid relate to those leadership styles—specifically from the concern for performance/results (production) to concern for people? How does that affect your performance in the group?

3. How would you describe the content, direction, primary channel(s), and style of

communication that is used with the organization? How do these manifest themselves as strengths and weaknesses from a volunteer's perspective?

4. On a scale of 1–10 (1 = low; 10 = high), how would you rate your service-learning experience so far? Why? What are some of the specific feelings you have experienced while "on the job"?

5. Has your service-learning experience met your desires and expectations? Why or why not?

6. With what aspects of your volunteer assignment are you most comfortable? With what aspects are you least comfortable? What could the organization do (if anything) to better prepare volunteers for what is desired and expected of them?

Email Journal Assignment 3

Systems approaches to organizational management are premised on the argument that organizations are living, breathing entities with their own behavior patterns. Early systems thinking involved the application of such concepts as input, output, throughput, interdependence, open system and closed system.

In 1990, Peter Senge went one step further and argued that organizations (like all systems) have the capacity to learn. However, to do so, the "people [who comprise the organization] must put aside their old ways of thinking (mental modes); learn to be open with others (personal mastery); understand how the company really works (systems thinking); form a plan everyone can agree on (shared vision); and then work together to achieve that vision (team learning)" (Quotation from *Business: The Ultimate Resource*, 2002.)

Part I:
From the five concepts mentioned above that are related to early systems thinking, select a minimum of four and use them to describe your service-learning experience so far. To support your argument, use examples from your work with group members and the organization you are working with.

Part II:
Once you have completed that task, consider how Senge would view the growth and development of your service-learning team since the beginning of this semester. To do so, answer the following four questions:

1. What old ways of thinking, if any, have you personally set aside in order to work effectively with your team?

2. What conversations, if any, have transpired (both with yourself and your colleagues) that have helped you and the group to be more open to the experience?

3. Has your group been able to create a shared vision? If yes, what processes did you use to arrive at consensus? If no, what barriers and challenges have kept you from agreeing on a shared vision?

4. What advice would you give to service-learning teams in the future about how to work together to achieve a shared vision?

Please organize your responses as they were posed so that there is structure to your response.

Email Journal Assignment 4

Please note that this email is comprised of two parts. Take your time with the assignment and have fun with your entry. Please respond to this email by following the pattern EXACTLY. In fact, you can reply **IN the text** after each question.

Part I. Please write at least one paragraph in which you answer the following questions about your service-learning experience in SCOM 350 this semester.

a. On a scale of 1–7 (1 = low, 7 = high), how would you rate this service-learning experience overall? Why this rating?

b. Would you consider taking another SCOM class if you knew that a similar service-learning project was required for completion of the course? Why or why not?

c. Do you have any specific stories or incidents that you would like to share that have affected your responses to the two previous questions? If so, what are they?

d. Would you recommend your "client" to other SCOM students for service-learning projects in the future? Why or why not?

e. What have you learned about yourself while doing this assignment (e.g., your best working environment, what motivates you to work, etc.)?

Part II. Please write at least one paragraph in which you answer the following questions about yourself in SCOM 350 this semester.

a. What one strength or skill did you personally bring to your service-learning team?

b. What communication strategies (if any) did your group use to get the "very best" out of you? What strategies did you use to get the "very best" out of them?

c. What was your biggest "pet peeve" when it came to working with your service-learning team?

d. What did you like and dislike about the way your team's meetings were run?

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 39, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

E-Service-Learning in Higher Education: Modelization of Technological Interactions and Measurement of Soft Skills Development

Irene Culcasi, Claudia Russo, and Maria Cinque

Abstract

Current higher education policies require universities to prepare students for integration into an ever-changing society where knowledge and hard skills rapidly become obsolete. Soft skills are the new alphabets of the 21st century. Service-learning is a pedagogical approach that has positive effects on soft skills development. What about its virtual version, e-service-learning (e-SL)? Can students develop soft skills through technology? This research closes the literature gap on the potential benefits of e-Service-Learning Hybrid Type II during the pandemic scenario. This study also presents a new categorization of technological interaction types in e-SL related to students' skill levels. The findings provide insights into the benefits of e-Service-Learning Hybrid Type II as a suitable strategy for students' personal skills development in leadership and self-evaluation. Our results also show how e-service-learning is useful in raising students' awareness of the soft skills they need for their future professional careers.

Keywords: Service-learning, e-service-learning, soft skills development, higher education, active learning

The higher education system is the primary site of free training and research and is a place of learning and critical development of knowledge. In the Italian context, where the present study was carried out, the higher education system is divided into two functionally different sections, the university sector and higher education for arts (e.g., music or dance). Despite some differences, all these institutions share an essential feature: new 21st century policy guidelines for students' educations. The prominent change in higher education policies, both nationally and internationally, requires universities not only to educate students in knowledge-based specializations, but also to pursue an integral education of the individual in relation to the cultural and social context (High Level Group, 2013). Indeed, according to Cinque (2016), based on the dramatic current global and social changes, it is important to develop and implement useful teaching and training methodologies to promote students' attitudes and behaviors needed to fulfill and deal with the present challenges (e.g., today's varied and unpredictable career paths). In recent years, the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) has also pioneered a significant change in the knowledge paradigm, shifting the focus from academic disciplines to the development of skills related to the real world in which the student grows both professionally and as a citizen (Escofet & Rubio, 2019). Thus, according to Cornalli (2018), higher educational institutions are faced with a complex teaching challenge, that is, to prepare students for integration into an ever-changing society where knowledge and hard skills rapidly become obsolete.

However, according to Hernández-Barco et al. (2020), this educational scenario is still too distant from the daily reality. Indeed,

universities' courses are mainly based on content transmission instead of offering programs aimed at developing metacompetences and personal and social skills. In line with this reality, Cinque (2016) pointed out the necessity for European universities to focus not only on the teaching of traditional scientific and professional skills, but also on the soft and complementary ones. This evidence highlighted the importance of opting for alternative teaching methodologies that enhance the active role of students during the learning process in order to allow them to grow as future professional citizens. This study will explore the pedagogical potential of the service-learning (SL) approach, considering the challenges imposed by the Covid-19 pandemic. Indeed, the research investigates the application of SL in the digital environment, known in the literature as e-service-learning (e-SL; Waldner et al., 2010). The goal is to close the literature gap on how to develop soft skills in university students and to determine precisely the role of e-SL in promoting this development. We also present a possible modelization of interaction types that technology can fulfill in e-SL, related particularly to students' skill levels.

A Necessary Assumption: Soft Skills and Active Learning Methods

The definition of "soft skills," also called "transversal skills," has been heavily debated in the research field (Chamorro-Premuzic et al., 2010). Even so, no singular definition of the term exists, so that, in Europe, soft skills are interpreted differently from country to country (Carlotto, 2015). For the present research, by *soft skills* we mean "a dynamic combination of cognitive and meta-cognitive skills, interpersonal, intellectual and practical skills. Soft skills help people to adapt and behave positively so that they can deal effectively with the challenges of their professional and everyday life" (Arnold et al., 2020, p. 60).

This definition is based on the European project ModEs (Haselberger et al., 2012) and was developed in the European projects eLene4work (2015–2018) and eLene4Life (2018–2021). The eLene4Life Soft Skills Framework (eLene4Life, 2019, p. 6; Cinque, 2017) takes into account four clusters of skills as represented in Figure 1 (for more details about the definitions of each soft skill, see https://elene4life.eu/project-outputs/trans-analysis-he/).

Soft skills not only have a problem of definition, but their assessment might also be difficult. According to Pellerey (2017), the difficulty is in defining soft skills operationally so that they can be assessed. For example, although several methods have been implemented in order to measure soft skills (performance tests; e.g., Kyllonen, 2016), according to Chamorro-Premuzic et al. (2010) and based on the available literature, the self-report measures are still the most used tool in this regard. Despite the above-mentioned critical points, soft skills are crucial in the university's new mission. Teaching soft skills requires active learning methodologies that are based on the idea that students learn better if they actively participate in their own learning. The focus is on how to learn rather than what to learn, placing the learners at the center of their learning process (Center for Educational Innovation, 2014). Furthermore, according to Kechagias (2011), the best way to teach

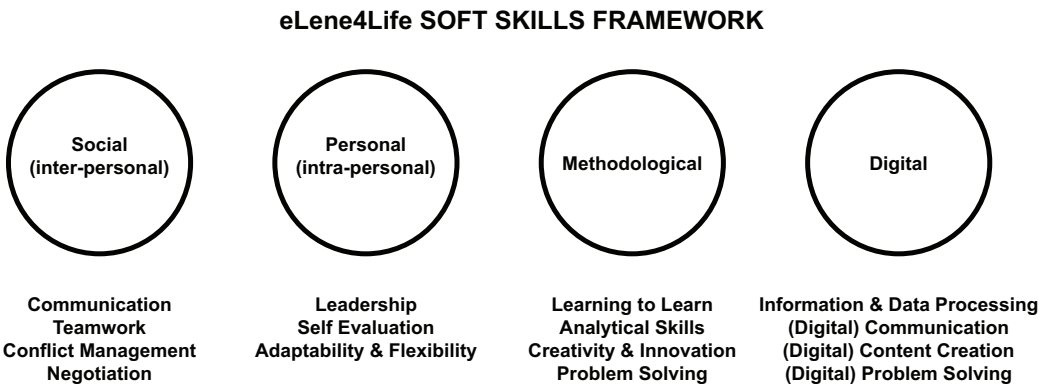


Figure 1 . eLene4Life Soft Skills Framework.

soft skills is by mixing them with technical hard skills. Indeed, even if it represents a challenge, this approach increases the odds of perceiving soft skills as more relevant, consequently increasing the motivation to learn them.

Service-Learning

Definitions and Theoretical Frameworks

The literature defines SL as a pedagogical approach based on experiential learning (Salam et al., 2019; Sparkman et al., 2020) particularly successful for the development of the human being in all his/her dimensions, valuing the empowerment of the subject who actively contributes to the construction of both her/himself and the community in which s/he lives (Selmo, 2018). SL, which has been spreading around the world since the end of the 1960s, has its roots in the civic concern of John Dewey and in Paulo Freire's concept of transforming the world through reflection and action. These two authors are frequently cited, as the educational process is composed of actions and reflection, of theory and practice (Deans, 1999). Since the beginning of the 21st century, SL has also been spreading in Europe thanks to the work of national and international networks such as the European Association of Service-Learning in Higher Education (EASLHE), founded on 21 September 2019 in Antwerp on the occasion of the Second European Conference of Service-Learning in Higher Education.

As a result of this widespread popularity, it is difficult today to find a common definition of this approach; indeed, as reported by Albanesi et al. (2020), SL has been defined as a pedagogical concept, a learning technique, an experience, and a philosophy, as well as a pedagogy and social movement. According to Whitley et al. (2017), in the last two decades, the most commonly cited definition of SL is that of Bringle and Hatcher (1999):

> a course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs, and they reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the academic discipline, and enhanced sense of civic responsibility. (p. 180)

According to Butin (2010), this definition is considered a model by several scholars because of its balanced and meaningful linking of service and learning components.

Regardless of the definition, according to Escofet and Rubio (2019), SL allows practitioners to overcome educational institutions' dichotomies, in which theory and practice, classroom and reality, training and commitment, and cognition and emotions are usually clearly discerned elements. Specifically, in its application, SL can be defined as an active-experiential learning method. According to Kolb's (1984) Cycle of Experiential Learning, students understand better when they experience four phases of learning: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. As stated by Ahmad et al. (2014) and Whitley et al. (2017), Kolb's model clearly contains a situation where students actively interact with the environment. In this way, the learning is characterized by reflection, action, and experience, to (ideally) integrate new learning within prior constructs. Similarly, SL creates a learning environment in which learners apply their skills and knowledge to do something meaningful and thus confer added value on their learning. In order to evaluate the impact of SL projects, it is necessary to consider the level of interest—that is, students' learning—instructional organization impact, and/or community impact (Holland, 2001). Several tools might be used, ranging from questionnaires and interviews to reflective journals (Caspersz & Olaru, 2017). However, as Caspersz and Olaru have observed, given the several components that are generally involved in SL projects, it would be beneficial if scholars start to analyze all the previously mentioned levels.

Instructional Design and Service-Learning Models

From a functional point of view, there are several models that guide the development of SL-based courses in order to ensure an effective learning experience (Cinque & Culcasi, 2021; Sparkman et al., 2020). Models can be distinguished on two levels: institutional and instructional (see Figure 2). As regards the institutional one, two models of SL can be highlighted: bottom-up and top-down. In the bottom-up SL

model the students choose both the social needs and the activities they want to focus on (connected to their degree courses competences) and contact community partners in order to carry out their project. In the top-down SL model, the university offers a prestructured project in collaboration with a community partner, in which students can participate and be directed in service activities that already have curricular connections to their degree courses (Culcasi, 2020).

As regards the instructional level, a common model is the one developed by the University of Maryland, called the P.A.R.E., which stands for preparation (analyzing community needs and identifying partners), action (designing solidarity actions with stakeholders), reflection (reflecting on the activities and on what they are learning), and evaluation (measuring the impact of the project; Commuter Affairs and Community Service, 1999). Sparkman et al. (2020) stated that these four components result in positive outcomes for both the student and the community. In Europe, and more specifically in Italy, the SL instructional model developed by Tapia (2006) of the Centro Latinoamericano Aprendizaje y Servicio Solidario (Latin American Center for Solidarity Service-Learning; CLAYSS) is commonly used (Culcasi & Cinque, 2021; Fiorin, 2016). This model describes five steps and three transversal processes for the development of a SL project. The five steps are

1. *Motivation.* The students are introduced to SL and are asked to take an active role. It is fundamental to make them aware that it is not a top-down educational proposal but a project to be built together, starting from personal and community needs. Moreover, the motivation is not only individual, but also institutional.
2. *Diagnosis.* Students analyze the needs of the context and choose the problem to focus on, considering both causes and consequences. In this phase, it is essential to engage local stakeholders, in order to involve the community in the problem-solving process.
3. *Planning.* Solidarity actions are developed in collaboration with the community, and both service and learning objectives are defined.
4. *Execution.* This is the operational phase

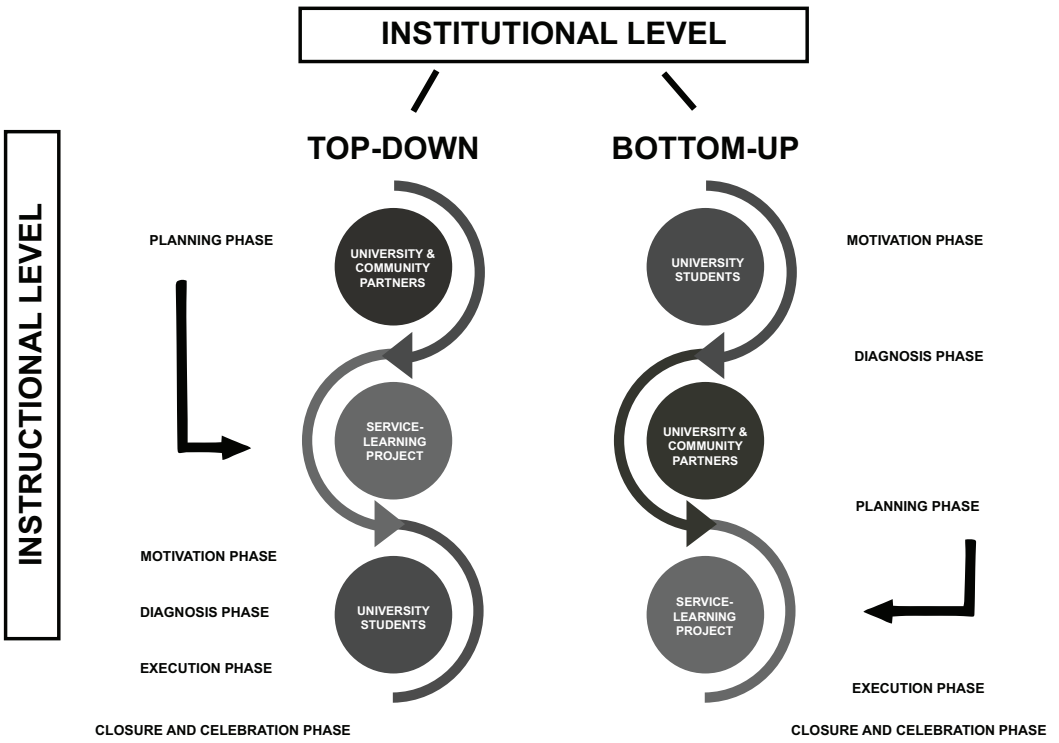


Figure 2 . Service-Learning Development Models: Institutional and Instructional Levels in Comparison.

where the collaborations activated with the local partners are implemented and the service activities are carried out according to the preestablished objectives.

5. *Closure and celebration.* A reflection and evaluation of the project in terms of both learning and service objectives is made. A celebration is organized to disseminate the results and thank those who participated.

Following these steps for developing a SL project, other transversal processes need to be considered, such as reflection. As asserted by Furco (2009), reflection is the factor that transforms an interesting and challenging experience into a significant, impactful experience for students' learning and development. In other words, SL is not simply a pedagogy of "doing"; instead, it is to be understood as reflection-based learning, in which reflection helps students connect theory and practice. Indeed, it must be remembered that experience in itself neither involves learning nor is educational (Talavera & Perez-Gonzalez, 2007). Thus, not taking care of the reflective dimension means performing SL in which service and learning are present but remain two distinct and separate actions in which learning could remain superficial (Consegnati, 2019).

e-Service-Learning

Rethinking the Model in the Pandemic Scenario

Due to the Covid-19 global pandemic, most higher education institutions translated their traditional courses to virtual learning courses (Culcasi et al., 2022). This scenario, which saw many faculty members uncomfortable in moving their courses online due to a lack of educational technology training (Hollander et al., 2020), posed challenges that are still relevant in the new context in which distance and face-to-face teaching are integrated in a useful and flexible way. Higher education institutions are asked to maintain the high-quality delivery of instruction. Researchers in educational technology emphasized that when the three types of typical educational interaction—"student-content," "student-student," and "student-learner"—are meaningfully integrated, learning outcomes increase (Albanesi et al., 2020; Bernard et al., 2009). Thus, the teacher's task in planning learning includes the identification of digital tools to support teaching, and the choice of didactic methods to ensure interaction in the digital dimension. In this scenario, it is essential to move away from the transmissive teaching perspective and design paths based on active learning through technological mediation (Cinque & Culcasi, 2021). In this regard, e-service-learning provides many opportunities, because it offers an experiential praxis in which students are involved, by the technology in civic inquiry, in reflections and actions, collaborating with the community (Albanesi et al., 2020). Stefaniak (2020) noted that the number of studies exploring the use of e-SL as a pedagogical strategy in distance education has increased considerably. According to Waldner et al. (2012) and Manjarrés-Riesco et al. (2020), e-SL is a "Service-Learning course mediated by Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) wherein the instructional component, the service component or both are conducted online, often in a hybrid model" (Albanesi et al., 2020, p. 23). Waldner et al. (2012) also identified a total of five SL types, including three hybrid models, classified according to the "place"—in-person or online—where the instruction and the service components occur (see Table 1).

Table 1. Types of e-SL in Waldner et al., 2012

	Traditional SL	e-SL Hybrid Type I	e-SL Hybrid Type II	e-SL Hybrid Type III	Extreme e-SL
Service component	In-person	In-person	Online	Blended	Online
Instruction component	In-person	Online	In-person	Blended	Online

Considering only the e-SL areas (from e-SL Hybrid Type I to Extreme e-SL), we can observe that digital technologies can be included in different ways. According to García-Gutiérrez et al. (2020), two modes of interaction can be highlighted, defined from the role that technologies play within the project. In the first case (relationship-based e-SL), technology plays an instrumental role because it facilitates and optimizes project development, whereas in the second case (service-based e-SL), technology can also be the objective of learning or service. However, García-Gutiérrez et al. did not consider the various roles fulfilled by technology and digital devices, nor the students' digital, personal, and social skill levels. Thus, in our vision, this model can be expanded, considering the different roles played by technology and digital devices in e-SL and students' level of digital, personal, and social skills. Therefore, we suggest a categorization based on four types of technological interaction (Figure 3):

1. *Instrumental channel-type technological interaction.* Technology is the e-SL instrumental channel. Thus, technology is basically the medium in order to implement the SL project. Students do not need to have any particular technological knowledge. An example could be psychology students who learn assertive communication becoming peer educators of vulnerable people, using the laptop to conduct their meetings.
2. *Integrated channel-type technological interaction.* Technology is the e-SL integrated channel. The technology remains the channel of the SL project but requires digital knowledge. For example, a group of education students creates teaching activities suitable for distance education and disseminates them via social media.
3. *Instrumental objective-type technological interaction.* Technology is the e-SL instrumental objective. Thus, technology is the SL project's objective, but it does not include the creation of new technological tools. Specifically, students learn how to use existing technological tools related to their future professional sector, and they use them to provide a service for the community. For example, a group of communication students learn how to design a strategic communication campaign, developing one

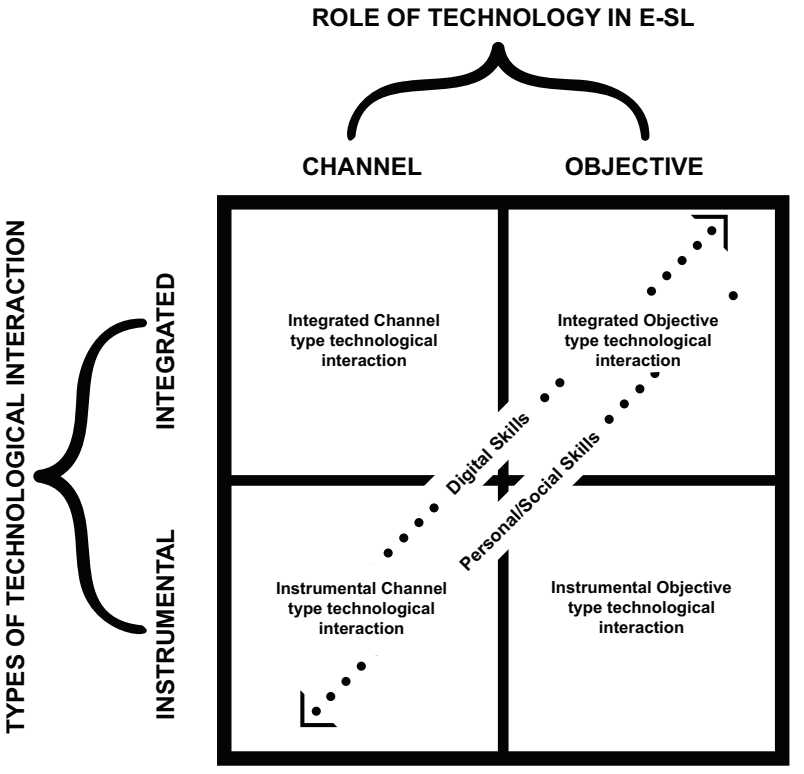


Figure 3. Types of Technological Interaction in e-SL.

for a nonprofit organization.

4. *Integrated objective-type technological interaction.* Technology is the e-SL integrated objective. Thus, technology is the SL project's objective, including the creation of new technological tools. An example could be a group of students taking a master's-level course in sustainable engineering and management designing software to create virtual models of sustainable housing.

Comparing this categorization with that of García-Gutiérrez et al. (2020), in the first type of technological interaction, we suggest that students' personal and social skills are the most important while technological skills are not essential. On the other hand, in the last type of technological interaction, we suggest that students' personal and social skills may be minimal while technological skills are paramount. Using SL as an educational modality, the technological mediation must always be subordinated to the pedagogical goals. As trainers, it is therefore important to always promote a humanistic approach; consequently, technology is only a medium and should always foster solidarity and its social function (Albanesi et al., 2020).

The Potential Benefit of (e-)Service-Learning on Soft Skills Development

At an international level, several studies have demonstrated that SL is a teaching/learning strategy that has a positive impact on students' development, even beyond the improvement of technical knowledge and skills related to the degree course (Brozmanová-Gregorová et al., 2019; Culcasi et al., 2021; Furco & Root, 2010). In particular, several research studies have highlighted that SL can have significant positive effects on soft skills development in all four areas concerning social, personal, methodological, and digital skills. Some researchers have also pointed out a positive impact on social skills, such as communication (McNatt, 2019), teamwork (Hébert & Hauf, 2015), conflict management (Khiatani & Liu, 2020), and negotiation (Deeley, 2014). Regarding personal skills, scientific literature reports benefits in terms of leadership (Hébert & Hauf, 2015), self-evaluation (Lai & Hui, 2018), and adaptability and flexibility (Sanft & Ziegler-Graham, 2018). As far as methodological skills are concerned, evidence supports significant and positive effects on learning to learn, analytical skills, creativity, and innovation and problem solving (Marcus et al., 2019). Finally, although less explored, digital skills can be developed through SL, namely digital communication (Brozmanová-Gregorová et al., 2019) and digital content creation (Marcus et al., 2019). Research indicates that all soft skills play a significant role in human lives; however, it is noteworthy to understand that some of them seem to be more relevant than others. For example, according to Deeley (2014), self-evaluation is valuable as an employability skill and is also vital to lifelong learning. Moreover, the job outlook survey (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2014) indicated that this is the skill most desired by employers; furthermore, effective leadership is strongly related to team skills, communication skills, and problem-solving skills.

For these potential benefits, in recent years many universities have been implementing SL for soft skills development (McNatt, 2019). The pedagogical background and the purposes might be different, for example, to provide an integral holistic education (Hernández-Barco et al., 2020), to improve students' employability (Deeley, 2014), or to implement the civic engagement of the university, known as the Third Mission (Goslin et al., 2016). Nevertheless, according to McNatt (2019), among the five categories of existing studies on SL—namely conceptual studies, literature reviews, normative studies, research focusing on the perceptions of SL project participants, and research on the benefits of SL—the category studying benefits is the smallest and often produces inconsistent results. Therefore, more research is needed in order to better highlight the effects of SL on soft skills and positive student development. Furthermore, the above-introduced results refer to traditional SL (Waldner et al., 2012), indicating that the impact of e-SL on soft skills development is not widely explored. Although e-SL maintains the same pedagogical aims as traditional SL, it presents a new educational setting, different modes of solidarity service, and new ways of interacting with community partners, colleagues, and instructors.

Aims and Hypothesis

Based on the above assumptions, in the present study we take into account e-SL, specifically e-SL Hybrid Type II (Waldner et al., 2012). The aim of the study is to in-

vestigate whether students who participate in e-SL develop soft skills and whether e-SL can be relevant for their future employment. In particular, we are interested in understanding whether soft skills development occurred despite the adaptation of SL to the digital dimension during the pandemic. The sample of our study consists of students from different courses attending a 9-month service-learning lab. Therefore, the SL projects are not linked to a specific discipline. Regarding technological interaction, the e-SL projects considered in this study can be classified in the category of "instrumental objective."

Based on several previous studies (e.g., Hébert & Hauf, 2015; Lai & Hui, 2018) that highlighted SL's positive impact on soft skills development related to personal skills, we hypothesized that e-SL would have an impact at least on these soft skills (H1). Moreover, since the SL activities were carried out online—e-SL Hybrid Type II—with an instrumental objective–type technological interaction, we also expected an increase in the digital soft skills area (H2).

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were 46 university students (85.1% female) aged between 21 and 34 (M = 24.66, SD = 2.84), attending the following degree courses: psychology (61.7%), education (27.7%), and marketing communication (10.6%). Originally, the SL projects should have been carried out in person; however, because of the Covid-19 pandemic, they were transformed into online formats. Thus, the projects can be considered e-SL Hybrid Type II, because the instructional component took place in person and the service was online (during the Covid-19 pandemic). The 9-month Service-Learning Lab program is based on the bottom-up model and included five 2-hour training meetings between October and November 2019 and 40 hours of reflection and service activities from March to May/July 2020. In these first five face-to-face training meetings, the students were introduced to SL pedagogy and developed the phases of motivation, diagnosis, and planning (Fiorin, 2016). Solidarity service activities (execution) and project closure (closure and celebration) took place online. The reflections took place in a synchronous online format, guided by the instructor in small groups, and were also supported by discussion groups on WhatsApp.

The SL projects carried out covered the following areas: educational support (52.4%), well-being promotion (16.7%), solidarity and cooperation (14.3%), active citizenship (7.1%), promotion of human rights (7.1%), and environmental protection (2.4%).

The present study adopted a longitudinal design because we asked participants to complete an online questionnaire before (T1) and after (T2) the SL Lab. We chose to adopt this study design using a quantitative research method because we believe that filling in a questionnaire with closed-ended questions takes less time than participating in an interview, thus making students more likely to respond carefully. Moreover, research aimed at investigating the impact of SL on students often uses qualitative methods (McNatt, 2019). Thus, the present study represents an attempt to analyze its potential impact on soft skills quantitatively.

All participants gave their formal consent for their research participation before filling in the questionnaires. Each questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes. This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of the LUMSA University of Rome; it was carried out according to the European law of privacy and informed consent (GDPR 2016/679) and according to the ethical guidelines of the Italian Psychological Association (AIP).

Measure

Soft Skills. In order to assess the participants' perception of their soft skills, we used a short, adapted version of the European project eLene4work scale (2015–2018). The present scale has been adopted in several previous research studies (Culcasi, 2020, 2022). The Italian version (see Figure 1) was obtained by a process of back translation. The scale is composed of 15 items, with each item covering a specific skill, namely: communication, teamwork, conflict management, negotiation, leadership, self-evaluation, adaptability and flexibility, learning to learn, analytical skills, creativity and innovation, problem solving, digital information and data processing, digital communication, digital content creation, and digital problem solving. Participants were asked to rate how capable they feel in each competence area on a scale ranging from 1 (not able at all) to 4 (very able). An example of an item related to communication is "Thinking about your capabilities, to what

extent do you feel able to communicate?"

Soft Skills in a Future Career. To assess the participants' perception of the importance of soft skills in their future career, we used the above-mentioned scale, composed of the same 15 items. In this case, participants were asked to rate how important they consider each item for their future career for each skill on a scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 4 (very important). An example of an item related to communication is "How important for your future work activity is being able to communicate?"

Data Analysis

We used SPSS-20 software for the data analysis. At the baseline, we described the study variables in terms of means, standard deviations, and range across the two data points (pre- and post-SL). Then, we employed the paired *t*-test in order to assess whether there were differences in variable mean levels between the two times within-person. In order to explore the replicability of our results, we used the standard bootstrap 95% confidence interval; parameter estimates were based on 5,000 bootstrap samples.

Results

Descriptive statistics of study variables are reported in Table 2.

The paired sample *t*-test highlighted an increase, over the two data collection points, in mean levels among the following soft skills: leadership [$t(37)$ -2.775, 95%CI -.546, -.085, $p < .01$] and self-evaluation [$t(37)$ -2.634, 95%CI -.559, -.073, $p < .05$]. Moreover, the paired sample *t*-test pointed out an increase, over the two times, in mean levels among the importance ascribed to the following soft skills during one's career: digital communication [$t(42)$ -2.308, 95%CI -.488, -.047, $p < .05$] and digital content creation [$t(42)$ -2.305, 95%CI -.558, -.047, $p < .05$].

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

	Pre-SL			Post-SL		
	M	*SD*	Range	*M*	*SD*	Range
Soft Skills						
Communication	3.00	0.62	1–4	3.14	0.47	2–4
Teamwork	3.07	0.55	1–4	3.16	0.57	2–4
Conflict management	3.05	0.49	2–4	3.07	0.55	2–4
Negotiation	2.88	0.59	2–4	3.05	0.57	2–4
Leadership	2.56	0.73	2–4	2.93	0.55	1–4
Self-evaluation	2.88	0.76	1–4	3.23	0.61	2–4
Adaptability and Flexibility	3.35	0.72	1–4	3.21	0.51	2–4
Learning to learn	3.44	0.50	2–4	3.53	0.55	2–4
Analytical skills	3.19	0.66	1–4	3.21	0.63	2–4
Creativity and Innovation	2.95	0.61	2–4	3.02	0.77	1–4
Problem solving	3.23	0.57	2–4	3.19	0.59	1–4
Information and data processing	2.81	0.59	1–4	2.84	0.69	1–4
Digital communication	2.88	0.73	1–4	3.05	0.65	1–4
Digital content creation	2.81	0.85	1–4	3.05	0.87	1–4
Digital problem solving	2.79	0.77	1–4	2.93	0.74	1–4

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

	Pre-SL			Post-SL		
	M	*SD*	Range	*M*	*SD*	Range
Soft Skills in a Future Career						
Communication	3.91	0.29	3–4	3.80	0.45	2–4
Teamwork	3.53	0.62	2–4	3.48	0.66	1–4
Conflict management	3.62	0.58	2–4	3.59	0.50	3–4
Negotiation	3.09	0.73	1–4	3.24	0.60	2–4
Leadership	2.96	0.85	1–4	2.96	0.76	1–4
Self-evaluation	3.64	0.53	2–4	3.48	0.59	2–4
Adaptability and Flexibility	3.56	0.59	2–4	3.35	0.64	2–4
Learning to learn	3.76	0.48	2–4	3.61	0.58	2–4
Analytical skills	3.60	0.54	2–4	3.41	0.72	1–4
Creativity and Innovation	3.40	0.72	1–4	3.26	0.77	1–4
Problem solving	3.71	0.51	2–4	3.67	0.47	3–4
Information and data processing	3.27	0.62	2–4	3.09	0.75	1–4
Digital communication	2.96	0.75	1–4	3.17	0.85	1–4
Digital creativity	2.58	0.75	1–4	2.85	0.67	1–4
Digital problem solving	2.91	0.87	1–4	3.00	0.82	1–4

Note. M = Mean, *SD* = Standard deviation.

Main Findings

Our findings showed that, after the 9-month SL Lab, students perceived an increase in their levels of leadership and self-evaluation. Moreover, at the end of the SL Lab, students attributed more importance to digital communication and digital content creation skills for their future professional careers.

Discussion

Service-learning is a pedagogical approach based on experiential learning (Salam et al., 2019; Sparkman et al., 2020) that contributes to the positive development of students, empowering them and underlining their active role in the community in which they live. Due to the Covid-19 global pandemic, most university courses have been converted into an online format. In this scenario, SL has also been transformed into e-SL, and several universities adopted different models of technological interaction. LUMSA University implemented the e-SL Hybrid Type II strategy (Waldner et al., 2012), with an instrumental objective type of technological interaction.

The main aim of this study was to test the effectiveness of Hybrid Type II e-SL during the Covid-19 pandemic in increasing soft skills development in university students. We also anticipated providing some pedagogical and practical contributions for e-SL implementation while being attuned to both our study's limitations and directions for future research.

The results confirmed, at least in part, our initial hypotheses. Regarding the first hypothesis (H1), our results indicated that after the 9-month SL Lab, there was a statistically significant pre-post change concerning students' perception of their soft skills level in leadership and self-evaluation. These findings are in line with existing literature, which provides supporting evidence that SL enhances students' perception of their self-evaluation abilities (Lai & Hui, 2018) and leadership skills (Hébert & Hauf, 2015). SL programs connecting students

with community partners to solve real-life problems, even in the virtual dimension, inevitably help students develop these skills in order to accomplish their goals successfully. Moreover, we suggest that in the bottom-up SL model, students' leadership is more evident, although the risk of failure is higher. In the absence of institutional coordination, students need greater self-awareness and self-evaluation abilities. We believe that students' awareness of the increase in their self-evaluation and leadership skills was enhanced through specific design elements: intentional reflection, focused discussions on how to impact the community positively, and activities to foster awareness of their own strengths and improvement areas. According to Weiler et al. (2013), through reflection on one's skills and direct feedback and supervision from the instructor, students may be more aware of their abilities. With particular reference to leadership skills, Diamond (2014) stated that although leadership is primarily learned through experience, experience cannot guarantee that a person will learn all they need to know to be effective. Thus, leadership acquisition requires both experiential learning and reflection (Guthrie & Jones, 2012).

Regarding the second hypothesis (H2), we expected an increase in digital soft skills development, as the SL was conducted online. However, findings did not support our hypothesis, because there was not an increase in the perception of digital skills. On the other hand, participants reported an increase in the perceived importance of digital soft skills (i.e., digital communication and digital content creation) for their future career. These results could be explained by the type of technological interaction that characterized the projects: Students designed solidarity activities exploring the potential of technological tools in relation to their future professional field.

These results could also be explained in relation to the contextual challenges imposed by the Covid-19 pandemic that made students more aware of the importance of digital skills. Related to this, the literature suggests that when the awareness of the meaning and importance of a particular competence increases, the self-evaluation of this competence might decrease. This cognitive distortion is known as the Dunning-Kruger effect, whereby people who are not very skilled in a field tend to overestimate their abilities, whereas people with high skill levels are inclined to underestimate their real competence (Dunning, 2011). This result could also be explained because the implementation of service activities in the digital dimension took place in a limited time frame (from March to May/July 2020), so it probably did not allow the development of these two competences but only the awareness of their importance. Indeed, according to the European Commission's (2006) definition of digital competences, these competences are supported by basic ICT skills. However, it is interesting to note that awareness of the importance of digital communication and digital content creation skills in future careers has increased. This awareness may increase the student's motivation to achieve these skills. As is common knowledge, the motivation to learn is one of the best predictors of learning achievement (e.g., Meece et al., 2006).

To sum up, our study pointed out that e-SL provided students with opportunities to practice and improve leadership and self-evaluation skills as well as to recognize the need to develop digital skills for their future career. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first one aiming to explore the benefits of e-SL Hybrid Type II on soft skills development in university students.

Our study also represents a relevant contribution for SL empirical literature, which is still relatively small: McNatt (2019) noted that the majority of studies in this field are "exploratory anecdotal accounts" of the benefits of service-learning projects. In the present research we tested, adopting a pre- and posttest design, the impact of multiple SL projects on the soft skills development of students from different degree courses. Indeed, too often, SL studies examine the impact of only one project, and the unique characteristics of a specific project could be the cause of the results (or lack thereof), thus potentially limiting the generalizability of the results to service-learning as a whole (McNatt, 2019).

In this research, we also made an effort to systematize and modelize the role and type of interactions that technology can fulfill in e-service-learning, taking into account the development of students' soft skills.

Limitations of the Present Study

Despite these promising results, the findings from the present study must be interpreted considering its limitations. First, our sample size is relatively small, and it

was composed solely of Italian students. Moreover, we adopted a single-item measure self-assessment tool, which does not allow the observation of all shades related to each soft skill and represents only the subjective perception of the participants. Nevertheless, most SL studies have involved smaller samples, ranging from 11 to 16 students (McNatt, 2019), and they often have used self-reported single-item measures (Rama et al., 2000). Thus, future studies should involve a larger sample of students and might focus on soft skill subdimensions, investigating the effect of e-SL on specific items—for example, in the context of communication skills specifically, the oral dimension, written production, and presentation skills. Furthermore, future research could also start designing studies to test what specific activities or strategies in (e-) service-learning projects might produce effective results.

However, this is one of the first attempts to investigate the impact of e-SL on soft skills development of university students during the Covid-19 health and educational emergency. As the demand to extend education to digital environments is growing and the number of available technological resources is increasing (Stefaniak, 2020), future studies should place more emphasis on promoting online authentic learning experiences, such as e-SL, and should also explore the effects related to the types of technological interaction in e-SL.

Conclusions

Service-learning, even in its digital version, opens up new possibilities for learning and acting. On a pedagogical level, it contributes to both curricular contents and methodological aspects. Concerning curricular contents, SL responds to the need to make students aware of social reality and its problematic aspects, intercepting our times' significant issues. With regard to methodological aspects, SL emerges as an innovation of transmissive didactics favoring an empowering and responsible way of teaching (Fiorin, 2016). The technological aspect of e-service-learning introduces new challenges and possibilities that cannot be disregarded. This article provides a new modelization of technological interactions in e-SL. Our modelization aspires to be a useful integration of García Gutiérrez et al.'s (2020) categorization; furthermore, it aspires to become an operational tool for instructors in order to provide them guidelines during the design phase. Indeed, to maximize the success of SL activities, we consider it extremely important that teachers understand the kind of technological immersion the project requires of students and community partners. Using the proposed model, instructors can better define the requirements in terms of students' and community partners' equipment and technological skills, providing for training if necessary. Similarly, depending on the type of technological interaction of the project and, consequently, the type of human interaction, the instructor can develop specific activities to enhance personal and social skills. However, as trainers, it is important to point out that our goal is always to promote a humanistic approach; consequently, in e-SL, technology represents mediation and should always foster solidarity and its social function (Albanesi et al., 2020).

Declaration of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Ethics Approval

This study was approved by the ethical committee of the LUMSA University of Rome.

About the Authors & Author Contributions

Irene Culcasi *is a post-doctoral fellow in education (e-Service-learning) in the Department of Human Sciences, LUMSA University of Rome, Italy. Culcasi was responsible for planning and implementing the study, preparing the original draft, revising the work, developing the theoretical and graphic modeling, and the editing.*

Claudia Russo *is a Ph.D. in social psychology at the Department of Human Sciences, LUMSA University of Rome, Italy. Russo was responsible for the preparation of the original draft, the analysis of quantitative data, review of the work, and the editing.*

Maria Cinque *is full professor of didactics and special pedagogy at the Department of Human Sciences, LUMSA University of Rome, Italy. Cinque supervised the work.*

References

Ahmad, I., Said, H., Mansor, S. S., Mokhtar, M., & Ghani, F. A. (2014). Role of reflection in moderating the relationship between service-learning and civic development. *Review of European Studies, 6*(3), 74–80. https://doi.org/10.5539/res.v6n3p74

Albanesi, C., Culcasi, I., & Zunszain, P. (Eds.). (2020). *Practical guide on e-service-learning in response to COVID-19*. European Association of Service-Learning in Higher Education. https://www.eoslhe.eu/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/Practical-guide-on-e-Service-Learning_web.pdf

Arnold, D., Cinque, M., Uggeri, M., & Mazalu, M. (2020, November 3–7). *Mix and match: University–corporate cross-fertilisation in active learning approaches for soft skills development* [Paper presentation]. ICDE World Conference on Online Learning, Dublin, Ireland.

Bernard, R. M., Abrami, P. C., Borokhovski, E., Wade, C. S., Tamim, R. M., Surkes, M. A., & Bethel, E. C. (2009). A meta-analysis of three types of interaction treatments in distance education. *Review of Educational Research, 79*(3), 1243–1289. https://doi.org/10.3102%2F0034654309333844

Bringle, R., & Hatcher, J. (1999). Reflection in service learning: Making meaning of experience. *Educational Horizons, 3*(77), 179–185.

Brozmanová-Gregorová, A., Heinzová, Z., Kurčikov, K., Nemcová, L., & Šolcová, J. (2019). Development of the key competencies through service-learning. *UNES: Universidad Escuela y Sociedad, 6*, 34–54. https://revistaseug.ugr.es/index.php/revistaunes/article/view/12119

Butin, D. W. (2010). *Service-learning in theory and practice: The future of community engagement in higher education*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Carlotto, G. (2015). *Soft skills: Con-vincere con le competenze trasversali e raggiungere i propri obiettivi* [Soft skills: Convincing with soft skills and achieving one's goals]. Franco Angeli.

Caspersz, D., & Olaru, D. (2017). The value of service-learning: The student perspective. *Studies in Higher Education, 42*(4), 685–700. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1070818

Center for Educational Innovation. (2014). *Active learning*. University of Minnesota. https://cei.umn.edu/active-learning

Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Arteche, A., Bremner, A. J., Greven, C., & Furnham, A. (2010). Soft skills in higher education: Importance and improvement ratings as a function of individual differences and academic performance. *Educational Psychology 30*(2), 221–241. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410903560278

Cinque, M. (2016). "Lost in translation": Soft skills development in European countries. *Tuning Journal for Higher Education, 3*(2), 389–427. https://doi.org/10.18543/tjhe-3(2)-2016pp389-427

Cinque M. (2017). MOOCs and Soft skills: a comparison of different courses on Creativity. *Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society, 13*(3), 83–96. https://doi.org/10.20368/1971-8829/1386

Cinque, M., & Culcasi, I. (2021). L'impatto della pandemia sull'istruzione superiore: Limiti e opportunità dell'e-service-learning [The impact of the pandemic on higher education: Limitations and opportunities of e-service-learning]. *Quaderni di Pedagogia della Scuola, 1*, 113–126.

Commuter Affairs and Community Service. (1999). *Faculty handbook for service-learning*. Dr. C. C. and Mabel L. Criss Library, University of Maryland. http://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/slceguides/19

Consegnati, S. (2019). Costruire percorsi di service-learning in cinque tappe [Designing service-learning paths in five stages]. In CIOFS Scuola FMA (Ed.), *Didattica della solidarietà: Service Learning e pedagogia salesiana* [Didactics of solidarity: Service learning and Salesian pedagogy] (pp. 149–168). Franco Angeli.

Cornalli, F. (2018, June 20–22). *Training and developing soft skills in higher education* [Paper

presentation]. 4th International Conference on Higher Education Advances (HEAd) 18, Valencia, Spain.

Culcasi, I. (2020). Esplorare il ruolo del service-learning nello sviluppo personale: Competenze trasversali nella formazione universitaria [Exploring the role of service-learning in personal development: Soft skills in higher education]. *La Ricerca Educativa e Didattica nelle Scuole di Dottorato in Italia, 4*, 242–257.

Culcasi, I., & Cinque, M. (2021). L'impatto del service-learning universitario: Il progetto HOPE [The impact of university service-learning: The HOPE project]. *Excellence and Innovation in Learning and Teaching, 6*, 137–151. https://doi.org/10.3280/exioa1-20210a12076

Culcasi, I., Brozmanová-Gregorová, A., & Cinque, M. (2022). Aprendizaje-servicio virtual y buenas practicas: Una mirada desde Europa [E-service-learning and best practices: A European perspective]. In J. García-Gutiérrez & M. Ruiz-Corbella (Eds.), *Aprendizaje-servicio virtual: Marco teórico y propuestas de acción innovadoras* (pp. 129–143). Narcea.

Culcasi, I., Romano, L., & Cinque, M. (2021). Aprendizaje-servicio virtual 100% online: Un estudio de caso en una muestra de estudiantes universitarios italianos [100% online e-service-learning: A case study of a sample of Italian university students]. *EDUTEC: Revista Electrónica de Tecnología Educativa, 78*, 180–195. https://doi.org/10.21556/edutec.2021.78.2255

Culcasi, I., Véliz García, L., Serrano Berríos, C., & Russo, C. (2022). Innovar la enseñanza de la Biología en tiempos de pandemia: eficacia, desafíos y oportunidades del Aprendizaje+Servicio Virtual en la educación superior [Innovating Biology teaching in times of pandemic: effectiveness, challenges and opportunities of virtual service-learning in higher education]. In O. Jerez Yañez & M. Rojas Pino (Eds.)., *Innovar y Transformar desde las Disciplinas: Experiencias claves en la Educación Superior en América Latina y el Caribe 2021-2022* (pp. 400-412). Universidad de Chile. https://libros.uchile.cl/files/presses/1/monographs/1297/submission/proof/400/index.html

Deans, T. (1999). Service learning in two keys: Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy in relation to John Dewey's pragmatism. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 6*, 15–29. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0006.102

Deeley, S. J. (2014). Summative co-assessment: A deep learning approach to enhancing employability skills and attributes. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 15*(1), 39–51. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1469787413514649

Diamond, A. (2014). Pre-service early childhood educators' leadership development through reflective engagement with experiential service learning and leadership literature. *Australasian Journal of Early Childhood, 39*(4), 12–20. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F183693911403900403

Dunning, D. (2011). The Dunning–Kruger effect: On being ignorant of one's own ignorance. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 44*, 247–296. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-385522-0.00005-6

eLene4work. (2015–2018). http://elene4work.eu

eLene4Life. (2018–2021). http://elene4life.eu

eLene4Life (2019). *Transnational analysis on innovative higher education learning models on soft skills*. http://elene4life.eu/project-outputs/trans-analysis-he/

Escofet, A., & Rubio, L. (2019). Impact analysis of a service-learning university program from the student perspective. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(3), 159–174. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1526

European Commission. (2006). *Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on key competences for lifelong learning*. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Fiorin, I. (2016). *Oltre l'aula: La proposta pedagogica del service learning* [Beyond the classroom: The pedagogical proposal of service learning]. Mondadori.

Furco, A. (2009, August 20–21). *La reflexión sobre la práctica, un componente vital de las experiencias de aprendizaje-servicio* [Reflection on practice, a vital component of service-

learning experiences; paper presentation]. XII Seminario Internacional de Aprendizaje Servicio Solidario, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Furco, A., & Root, S. (2010). Research demonstrates the value of service-learning. *Phi Delta Kappan, 91*(5), 16–20. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F003172171009100504

García-Gutiérrez, J., Ruiz-Corbella, M., & Del Pozo, A. (2020). Innovación y aprendizaje-servicio virtual: Elementos para una reflexión basada en la experiencia [Innovation and virtual service-learning: Elements for experiential reflection]. *RIDAS: Revista Iberoamericana de Aprendizaje Servicio, 9*, 62–80. https://doi.org/10.1344/RIDAS2020.9.4

Goslin, A., Van der Klashorst, E., Kluka, D., & Van Wyk, J. G. U. (2016). Formative reflections of university recreation science students in South Africa as catalyst for an adapted service-learning program. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning, 56*(1), 111–130. https://repository.up.ac.za/handle/2263/52914?show=full

Guthrie, K. L., & Jones, T. B. (2012). Teaching and learning: Using experiential learning and reflection for leadership education. *New Directions for Student Services, 2012*(140), 53–63. https://doi.org/10.1002/ss.20031

Haselberger, D., Oberhuemer, P., Pèrez, E., Cinque, M., & Capasso, D. (2012). *Mediating soft skills at higher education institutions: Handbook of the ModEs Project*. Education and Culture DG Lifelong Learning Programme. https://gea-college.si/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/MODES_handbook_en.pdf

Hébert, A., & Hauf, P. (2015). Student learning through service learning: Effects on academic development, civic responsibility, interpersonal skills and practical skills. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 16*(1), 37–49. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1469787415573357

Hernández-Barco, M., Sánchez-Martín, J., Blanco-Salas, J., & Ruiz-Téllez, T. (2020). Teaching down to earth—service-learning methodology for science education and sustainability at the university level: A practical approach. *Sustainability 12*(2), 542–565. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12020542

High Level Group on the Modernisation of Higher Education. (2013). *Improving the quality of teaching and learning in Europe's higher education institutions*. Publication Office of the European Commission.

Holland, B. A. (2001). A comprehensive assessment model for assessing service-learning and community university partnership. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2001*(114), 51–60.

Hollander, A., Vavasseur, C., & Robicheaux, H. (2020). A service-learning approach for faculty development focused on remote delivery of courses during a pandemic. *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 11*(2), Article 301. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/301

Kechagias, K. (2011). *Teaching and assessing soft skills*. 1st Second Chance School of Thessaloniki.

Khiatani, P. V., & Liu, J. K. K. (2020). Reciprocal learning in service-learning? Measuring bidirectional outcomes of college students and service recipients in tutor-based services in Hong Kong. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 57*(3), 364–373. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2019.1607765

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

Kyllonen, P. C. (2016). Designing tests to measure personal attributes and noncognitive skills. In S. Lane, M. R. Raymond, & T. M. Haladyna (Eds.), *Handbook of test development* (pp. 190–211). Routledge.

Lai, C. S., & Hui, P. C. (2018). Perceived values of service-learning: A study on students engaged in a fashion-related programme. *International Journal of Fashion Design, Technology and Education, 11*(3), 375–383. https://doi.org/10.1080/17543266.2018.1448463

Manjarrés-Riesco, A., Pickin, S. J., Alonso Meana, H., & Rodriguez-Fernández, N. (2020). Virtu@al–ApS: Technological support for virtual service-learning. *RIED: Revista Iberoamericana de Educación a Distancia, 23*(1), 85–109. https://doi.org/10.5944/ried.23.1.24397

Marcus, V. B., Atan, N. A., Talib, R., Latif, A. A., & Yusof, S. M. (2019). Promoting students' generic skills with the integration of e-service learning platform. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning, 14*(20), 4–17. https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v14i20.11455

Meece, J. L., Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (2006). Classroom goal structure, student motivation, and academic achievement. *Annual Review of Psychology, 57*, 487–503. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.56.091103.070258

McNatt, D. B. (2019). Service-learning: An experiment to increase interpersonal communication confidence and competence. *Education and Training, 62*(2), 129–144. https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-02-2019-0039

National Association of Colleges and Employers. (2014). *Job outlook 2014*. http://www.naceweb.org

Pellerey, M. (2017). *Soft skills e orientamento professionale* [Soft skills and career orientation]. CNOS-FAP.

Rama, D. V., Ravenscroft, S. P., Wolcott, S. K., & Zlotkowski, E. (2000). Service-learning outcomes: Guidelines for educators and researchers. *Issues in Accounting Education, 15*(4), 657–692. https://doi.org/10.2308/iace.2000.15.4.657

Salam, M., Iskandar, D. N., Ibrahim, D. H., & Farooq, M. (2019). Service learning in higher education: A systematic literature review. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 20*, 573–593. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-019-09580-6

Sanft, R., & Ziegler-Graham, K. (2018). Mathematics practicum at St. Olaf College: Project-based learning through academic civic engagement. *PRIMUS, 28*(4), 335–349. https://doi.org/10.1080/10511970.2016.1249319

Selmo, L. (2018). Service-learning e l'eredità pedagogica di Paulo Freire [Service-learning and the pedagogical legacy of Paulo Freire]. In S. Colazzo & P. Ellerani (Eds.), *Service learning: Tra didattica e Terza Missione: Ripensare e riprogettare l'organizzazione nelle scuole e nelle università* [Service learning: Between didactics and Third Mission: Rethinking and redesigning organization in schools and universities] (pp. 91–102). Università di Salerno.

Sparkman, K. N., Vajda, A., & Belcher, T. (2020). Advancing human services education: Exploratory study of international service-learning and digital pedagogy. *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 18*, Article 186. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/186

Stefaniak, J. A. (2020). Systems view of supporting the transfer of learning through e-service-learning experiences in real-world contexts. *Tech Trends, 64*, 561–569. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11528-020-00487-3

Talavera, E. R., & Perez-Gonzalez, J. C. (2007). Training in socio-emotional skills through on-site training. *European Journal of Vocational Training, 40*, 83–102.

Tapia, M. N. (2006). *Educazione e solidarietà: La pedagogia dell'apprendimento servizio* [Education and solidarity: The pedagogy of service learning]. Città Nuova.

Waldner, L., McGorry, S., & Widener, M. (2010). Extreme e-service-learning (XE-SL): E-service learning in the 100% online course. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching, 6*(4), 839–851. https://jolt.merlot.org/vol6no4/waldner_1210.pdf

Waldner, L., McGorry, S., & Widener, M. (2012). E-service-learning: The evolution of service-learning to engage a growing online student population. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 16*(2), 123–149. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/936

Weiler, L., Haddock, S., Zimmerman, T. S., Krafchick, J., Henry, K., & Rudisill, S. (2013). Benefits derived by college students from mentoring at-risk youth in a service-learning course. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 52*(3–4), 236–248. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-013-9589-z

Whitley, M. A., Walsh, D., Hayden, L., & Gould, D. (2017). Narratives of experiential learning: Students' engagement in a physical activity–based service-learning course. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 36*(4), 419–429. http://dx.doi.org/10.1123/jtpe.2016-0141

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 57, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Graduate Student Participation in K-12 Science Outreach: Self-Reported Impact on Identity and Confidence of STEM Graduate Students

Allison Matthews, Renato Mazzei, Anne McAlister, Brianna Mills, and Yiqing Song

Abstract

Graduate students often serve as a liaison between a university and its surrounding community through their participation in educational outreach programs. Astronomy graduate students' responses to open-ended survey questions about their experience volunteering with an educational outreach program were qualitatively coded to investigate how participating in educational outreach influenced their identity and self-efficacy as scientists and educators. We found that "connecting with students" and "difficulty managing behavior" enhanced and diminished, respectively, participants' confidence and identity as scientists and educators. We suggest ways in which universities and departments can aid graduate students' experience in educational outreach and the myriad of benefits that the individual, university, and community may reap when a higher value is placed on participation in educational outreach in graduate programs.

Keywords: outreach, graduate education, higher education, higher-education outreach

Most universities include "community service" in their core mission statements, yet often devalue outreach efforts compared to research and teaching (Bartel et al., 2003). Tenure review for faculty historically weights publications and outside funding over outreach activities, demotivating individuals in academia from working to share their knowledge with the nonscientific community (Justice, 2006; Moskal & Skokan, 2011). This mindset has begun to change—physical science funding agencies (e.g., NASA, NSF) now include expectations for "broader impacts" on society in their grant structures. Nonetheless, academic institutions remain slow to place more value on teaching and outreach.

The central purpose of a graduate education, historically, is to prepare doctoral students to become future faculty. Current graduate students are taught under the "publish or perish" paradigm and experience a lack of faculty support for—and often resistance to—participating in educational outreach activities. As the institutional value of educational outreach and service within the tenure process increases, graduate education ought to place a higher priority on preparing students for all aspects of being a faculty member, not only on producing research results. The benefits of participating in educational outreach programs (e.g., enhanced communication skills) transcend preparing graduate students to become future faculty members, as such experiences can also improve sense of self-efficacy and belonging. A 2012 study by Laursen et al. found that STEM graduate student volunteers gained an understanding of issues related to education and its social context and the "intrinsic rewards of feeling that one's work benefits others" through participation in educational outreach. Participation in educational

outreach has also been shown to increase a graduate student's sense of identity in their field of study and a sense of belonging to that field's community (Rethman et al., 2020).

Graduate students serve a vital departmental role as teaching assistants, and those involved in educational outreach felt that their teaching skills and ability to manage a classroom improved and led to improved skills as a teaching assistant (Laursen et al., 2012). Feldon et al. (2011) found that although STEM graduate students were encouraged to prioritize their research rather than their teaching responsibilities, when they taught students who were engaged in inquiry, the graduate students received valuable practice that improved their experimental design and hypothesis generation skills.

Graduate students who have training and/or prior teaching experience often demonstrated higher teacher self-efficacy, stronger belief in their ability to teach effectively in a specific context, and increased effective teaching behaviors in the role of an educator (Boman, 2013; Fowler & Cherrstrom, 2017; Prieto & Altmaier, 1994). STEM graduate teaching self-efficacy, specifically, was shown to correlate with professional development and prior teaching experience (DeChenne et al., 2012). Training and prior experience support graduate teaching assistant competence through providing foundational knowledge about teaching (Kajfez & Matusovich, 2017). Departmental or university training and mentorship in teaching were shown to significantly relate to changing beliefs about teaching and learning to be more student centered (Gilmore et al., 2014). Other factors, such as appointment structure, relationships with students, and relationships with colleagues impact graduate student teaching assistants' motivation, along with prior experience and training (Kajfez & Matusovich, 2017).

University Student Involvement in Science Education Outreach

In contrast with educator roles required by their institution, STEM graduate students may also volunteer to take on the role of an educator through involvement in educational outreach (e.g., Clark et al., 2016; deKoven & Trumbull, 2002; Gutstein et al., 2006; Houck et al., 2014; Koehler et al., 1999; Laursen et al., 2012; Moskal & Skokan, 2011; Rao et al., 2007; Wellnitz et al., 2002). University student participation in science education outreach has many documented benefits, such as improved ability to clearly express their topic to an audience outside their discipline (Clark et al., 2016; deKoven & Trumbull, 2002; Koehler et al., 1999; Rao et al., 2007) and expanded interest in outreach (Houck et al., 2014). For example, participation in a middle school outreach program gave graduate students new perspectives on their research and improved their communication skills (Clark et al., 2016).

Graduate students who volunteer for K-12 educational outreach may have positive experiences, despite time constraints and departments' placing less value on outreach experiences (Andrews et al., 2005; deKoven & Trumbull, 2002). The belief that a department values research over everything else can be a barrier for scientists to participate in outreach (Ecklund et al., 2012). In particular, graduate students may be deterred from participation in outreach by a lack of support from their research advisors (Dang & Russo, 2015). In a study on the impact of K-12 educational outreach on engineering graduate students, most participants reported negative responses to their participation in outreach from peers and faculty, along with messages that teaching is of a lower status than research (Laursen et al., 2012). Graduate students who chose to participate in outreach may also believe that volunteering with K-12 education might hinder them from getting highly regarded academic positions. However, such apprehensions may not always be realized, as many graduate students who volunteered in this way ended up in tenure-track positions and felt that they had valuable experiences as an educator (Laursen et al., 2012).

K-12 Student Benefits From University Student–Led Science Outreach

Student-led outreach programs also lead to improved attitudes toward science and increased personal interest in the K-12 student participants (i.e., Clark et al., 2016; Heinze et al., 1995; Houck et al., 2014; Koehler et al., 1999; Rao et al., 2007). For example, Clark et al. (2016) investigated an outreach program in which graduate students presented their research (in a simplified form) to middle school students and found that the middle school students' interest in science and becoming a scientist increased. Thus, these educational outreach programs can benefit both the K-12 student participants and the graduate students serving as educators.

Graduate Students as Educators

Educator identity has been studied among K–12 preservice teachers in the context of the transition from being a student in a department of education to engaging in student-teaching and being a teacher in a classroom environment (e.g., Jarvis-Selinger et al., 2010; Olsen, 2008). This transition is related to our study of graduate students serving as educators, as these students go through a similar transition between student and educator roles. Specifically, Olsen (2008) studied the development of first year K–12 teachers and revealed misalignment between expectations and the reality of being a teacher that caused identity conflict for the novice teachers. We suspect that graduate students experience similar identity conflict in the role of an educator. In another study of preservice teachers' identity transition, Jarvis-Selinger et al. (2010) discussed the importance of how reflection and discussion about identity transitions can help novice teachers recognize their new identity. No similar studies have focused on doctoral students who take on educator roles as teaching assistants and instructors of record or transition to being professors. Because these doctoral students may experience similar identity conflicts as they transition between roles, strategies of reflection and discussion may also be important in this population.

Rethman et al. (2020) examined undergraduate and graduate students' perspectives from participation in five different science outreach programs using a mixed-methods approach. Their study gave empirical evidence of students' strengthened physics identity and sense of belonging, as well as improved communication, teamwork, networking, and design skills through participation in science outreach. Our study is greatly informed by findings from this study but differs in key respects. First, our data was collected from participants at multiple points throughout participation in an educational outreach program, whereas Rethman et al. collected data at a single time point. Our data was entirely qualitative, and we explored a single educational outreach program in great detail, rather than multiple outreach programs more broadly as presented in Rethman et al.'s study. Finally, we centered the educator identity, in addition to an astronomer identity, in our data collection and analysis, and focused exclusively on doctoral students involved in both the organization of the outreach program and the outreach itself. Thus, although our work is highly aligned with Rethman et al.'s work, our work offers additional empirical evidence to support Rethman et al.'s findings and provides additional detail for the impact of outreach programs on doctoral students and their identity as educators specifically.

This work investigates the experiences of doctoral student volunteers in a science education outreach program. We examine the effects of participation in educational outreach on the volunteers' identities as educators, scientists/astronomers, and graduate students, and the strengths and weaknesses that the volunteers perceive they have as educators. This work contributes to understanding university student–led educational outreach and focuses on the benefits that doctoral student volunteers may receive. The findings highlight the benefits that doctoral student volunteers experience, and support the argument that institutions should place value on their doctoral students participating in these types of educational outreach opportunities.

Research Questions

This work explores doctoral students' experiences volunteering for a student-led and student-organized K–12 science educational outreach program. Specifically, we investigate the following research questions:

> RQ1: What strengths and weaknesses did science graduate students perceive that they have as educators?
>
> RQ2: How did participating in the outreach program affect students' perceptions of themselves as educators and scientists?
>
> RQ3: What were graduate students' perceptions of their influence on the students via the outreach program?

Methods

In this section, we describe the outreach program, give an overview of the graduate student participants, and describe the data collection and our methods of analysis.

Outreach Program Description

Dark Skies, Bright Kids (DSBK) is a pri-

marily graduate-student-run outreach organization based out of the Department of Astronomy at the University of Virginia (UVa). The group was founded in 2009 in response to a lack of STEM enrichment opportunities at rural schools in Albemarle County, Virginia. The central mission of DSBK is to foster the natural curiosity of children through fun, hands-on, inquiry-based activities. Complementary to this central mission, the goals of DSBK are to (1) enhance upper elementary students' interest in science, (2) encourage scientific inquiry and engagement, and (3) teach basic astronomical concepts.

Program Structure

The backbone of DSBK is an 8–10-week after-school astronomy club for children in grades 3–5. A club is composed of 15–25 students and meets once per week for about 2.5 hours to focus on a specific astronomy concept (e.g., rockets, the night sky, astrobiology). At the beginning of each meeting, DSBK graduate student volunteers introduce the topic and activities for the day. After the introduction, the students participate in an astronomy-themed physical activity—"wiggle time"—to release pent-up energy from sitting in school all day. Following wiggle time, there are typically two or three hands-on, interactive activities to illustrate the astronomy concept of the day. Depending on the number of students and nature of the activity, the students are usually split into smaller groups and rotate through the various activities led by DSBK graduate student volunteers. Before the conclusion of the club, the students complete a worksheet that gives them an opportunity to ask further questions and reflect on their experience of the club that day (whether they had fun).

In summer 2016, this semester-long club was modified into a week-long astronomy summer camp hosted in rural and/or distant parts of Virginia—locations that would be inaccessible for a once-per-week club. DSBK graduate student volunteers typically run two astronomy camps per summer. In total, DSBK has visited four separate summer camp locations and has run a total of six summer camps as of summer 2019. The elementary students attend the camp for 6–8 hours with a half-hour break for lunch in the middle of the day. Each day is typically broken into two topics for the morning and afternoon sessions. The week concludes with a celebration and opportunity for the students to revisit their favorite activities or demonstrations.

Roles and Responsibilities of Volunteers

DSBK graduate student volunteers undertake many activities outside direct interactions with the students, including weekly planning meetings, annual reflection meetings, content and journal development, and event planning and facilitation. The remainder of this section will detail the roles and responsibilities of volunteers during an astronomy semester club or summer camp.

Eight distinct units are covered throughout a semester (or week in the case of summer camps): rockets, night sky, solar system, comets and impacts, invisible light, astrobiology, stars, and galaxies. Each of these units is led by an individual DSBK graduate student volunteer (the "Alpha" in DSBK jargon) who is responsible for obtaining the necessary materials, drafting the schedule, and delegating individual activities to the other volunteers. On the day-of-club, the Alpha addresses the group of students and introduces them to the topic and activities planned. Three or four activities (including a "wiggle time") are scheduled for the allotted time (~2 hours) distributed to the remaining volunteers. The graduate student volunteers leading individual activities are responsible for teaching the relevant concept and/or initiating an inquiry-based activity, while the remaining graduate student volunteers assist the activity leader or interact with the students in small groups.

At the beginning of each club, as the students are arriving, DSBK graduate student volunteers sit among the students and chat with them, often one-on-one or in groups of two to four. These conversations are an opportunity to check in with the students on how they are doing and get to know them as individuals. This time to get to know students is considered part of the role of being an educator, as the aims of DSBK are not only to teach astronomy concepts, but to teach students what it means to be an astronomer. Thus, these interactions are important opportunities for students to learn from the doctoral student volunteers more informally. At the end of each club, the Alpha traditionally instructs the students to open their club journal to the page corresponding to the day's unit, reflect on their experience, and ask lingering questions about the topic. Similarly to the beginning of the club, DSBK volunteers sit among the

students and discuss their questions with them, what they enjoyed about the day, or any topic (related to astronomy or not) that they want to share.

Graduate Student Participants

Participants in this study include 14 graduate students and one undergraduate student who volunteered for DSBK over the course of a single school year. This human subjects study was approved by the University of Virginia Instructional Review Board (IRB Approval #2647). Demographic information about the participants is summarized in Tables 1 and 2. Participants attended the outreach program on various days throughout the year and thus filled out variable numbers of surveys. The *n* presented in the table represents the number of participants; the percentages shown were weighted by the number of responses to indicate the percentage of responses from participants in that demographic category. Female graduate students are represented in a larger proportion than is reflective of the department or of physical science graduate students broadly (National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics, 2021; Table 1). Most of the participants were White, so in an effort to respect the confidentiality of the participants who were not White or were of multiple races, their specific demographic categories are not reported but are shown in aggregate (Table 1). Participants came from a variety of years in graduate school (Table 2).

Each of the 14 participants responded to the daily survey a variable number of times in accordance with how frequently they volunteered. Thus, 99 complete survey responses were distributed across the 14 participants.

Table 1. Participant Gender and Race Data

Characteristic	*n* (of participants)	% (of responses)
Gender		
Male	7	52
Female	7	48
Total	**14**	**100**
Race		
Not White	4	29
White	10	71
Total	**14**	**100**

Table 2. Participants' Year Astronomy Graduate Program

Year in Astronomy Graduate Program	*n* (of participants)	% (of responses)
First year	1	1
Second year	6	47
Third year	1	12
Fourth year	3	13
Fifth year	3	27
Total	**14**	**100**

Data Sources

Open-ended survey questions asked participants about their experiences volunteering that day (Table 3). This survey was distributed via Qualtrics, and was intended to be completed within an hour of the club's conclusion by those graduate student volunteers who had consented to the study, although not all graduate students who volunteered reliably filled out the survey after every single club.

A separate survey was completed by graduate student volunteers just once at the start of each semester (also via Qualtrics) in order to collect demographic data and ask questions about each volunteer's involvement with the program, previous teaching experiences, and why they volunteer their time. These responses were predicted to be less likely to vary week to week, and so were asked just once per semester (Table 4).

The questions included in both surveys were developed collaboratively through discussions within the research team to meet the needs of both the research team and the club organizers. The purpose of these questions was twofold, as they were intended to provide researchers with data to report and

Table 3. Daily Survey Questions

Format	Question
Short Answer	1. What were you successful with today?
Short Answer	2. What could you do better tomorrow?
Short Answer	3. What made you feel like an astronomer today?
Short Answer	4. What made you feel like an educator today?
Short Answer	5. Did you feel confident teaching today?
Short Answer	6. Did you feel like you impacted all of the students?

Table 4. Demographic Survey Questions

Format	Question
Multiple Select	Race
Multiple Select	Gender
Single Select	Year in Astronomy Graduate Program
Short Answer	Please describe your current level of involvement with DSBK (What aspects of DSBK do you participate in?).
Short Answer	Please describe your previous experience as an educator (i.e. with DSBK, as a Teaching Assistant interacting with students, or in other positions where you interacted with students).
Short Answer	Why do you want to volunteer your time for DSBK?
Short Answer	What do you want to accomplish by volunteering your time for DSBK?

also to provide the outreach program with programmatic feedback. Thus, the questions were intended to both evaluate the outreach program and provide insight into graduate students' perspectives on participation in educational outreach.

Data Analysis

Survey responses were qualitatively coded by a team of six coders. Initially, for each question, two coders read through the responses individually to come up with emergent codes. Emergent coding prioritizes the voice of the participant and was therefore selected to gain insight into the graduate student's perspectives (Miles et al., 2020, p. 65). The six-person coding team then compared the two lists of codes for each question to create a specific codebook of emergent codes for each of the six qualitative survey questions.

Codes were applied using a Google spreadsheet so that all members of the team could code responses located in a single document. Each of the six coders was assigned to individually code two of the six survey questions, so that two coders coded each question. The whole coding team then came together to discuss instances where the two coders disagreed. In this way, the coding team coded all the responses for all of the qualitative survey questions, and were able to reach agreement on all items.

A list of codes was created for Question 1, and a separate list of codes for Question 2. These qualitative codes emerged from words that participants used in their responses to the survey questions. For example, for Questions 1 and 2, the code *explaining science* was defined as communicating more complex science ideas and topics clearly, and *connecting* was defined as developing personal relationships with the students and helping them with their tasks. However, *creativity*, thinking of new ways to explain things or communicate ideas to the kids, was a code for Question 1 only, whereas *teamwork/collaborating*, focusing on making the club successful as a team rather than individual responsibilities, was a code for Question 2 only.

Questions 3 and 4 asked what made participants feel like an astronomer or an educator, respectively. These questions were first coded *yes*, *no*, or *maybe* based on whether the participant indicated feeling (*yes*), not feeling (*no*), or only somewhat or in some circumstances (*maybe*) feeling like an astronomer or an educator. The same *yes*, *no*, *maybe* scale was used for both questions. Next, qualitative codes emerged from words that participants used in their responses to Questions 3 and 4. A list of codes was created for Question 3, and a separate list of codes was created for Question 4. For example, the code *knowing astronomy* was defined as having background knowledge about astronomy topics for Question 3, and *managing behavior* was defined as helping manage behavior in the classroom for Question 4. *Managing behavior* was not disciplining children for their behavior, but was defined in this study as managing the energy of students in the classroom and directing the students toward productive, rather than distracting, actions. There was a teacher in the classroom who dealt with disciplining students, if that became necessary, so any disciplinary actions were beyond the responsibility of the graduate student volunteers. Although these behavior management skills may be more relevant for elementary classrooms, elements of managing the behavior of students in a classroom are essential for educating at all levels.

For Questions 5 and 6, questions about confidence and impact, the same *yes*, *no*, *maybe* scale was initially used to indicate whether the participant felt confident or that they were impacting students. Next, for Question 5, the participants' confidence level was coded. Responses were coded as *confident* if participants seemed absolutely confident in their response (whether that response was that they did feel confident [*yes*] or that they did not feel confident [*no*]). Responses were coded as *conditional* if the participant put a qualifier or indicated a specific situation in which they felt confident in their response. For example, if a participant wrote that they felt confident "in teaching, but not in disciplining," the response would be coded as conditional. The code *unsure* was used when participants seemed unsure about their own level of confidence, with responses like "I guess so" or "maybe." After the *yes*, *no*, *maybe* coding and the confidence level coding, qualitative codes emerged from words that participants used in their responses to Question 5, and a list of codes was created. For example, the code *engaging* was defined as helping students to feel excited and engaged in science.

For Question 6, the scale of the impact that participants discussed was coded, from *individual* (impacting a single student)

to *few* (impacting a small subset of students) to *entire* (impacting the entire class). Categories of *none* and *ambiguous* were created for responses that did not fit the other categories. Finally, emergent codes were also created for Question 6. For example, the code *inspiring* was defined as helping students see themselves as scientists.

All codes for the six daily survey questions are available upon request.

Findings and Discussion

In this section, we present findings and discuss trends and themes that arise from these findings in order to address each research question.

RQ1: What strengths and weaknesses did science graduate students perceive that they have as educators?

A majority of the participants felt successful as educators through participating in the outreach program. Leading activities, connecting with the students, and feeling that the students were engaged with the activities were the most common reasons participants gave in response to the question "What were you successful with today?" (Figure 1). Participants commonly cited variations of "making science fun and interesting" or "bonding with the kids" as reasons that they felt successful as educators, specifically. Thus, participants may have felt that their strengths as educators were in leading class, connecting with students, and making activities engaging. Individuals did not have a single criterion for success; there were a variety of responses across different days for a single participant.

It was unclear from the survey responses whether participants felt successful as astronomers in addition to feeling successful as educators, but it is clear that teaching effectively was of primary concern to all participants. This conclusion was not surprising—the aim of the outreach program is to make science fun and interesting through hands-on activities. Succeeding with the

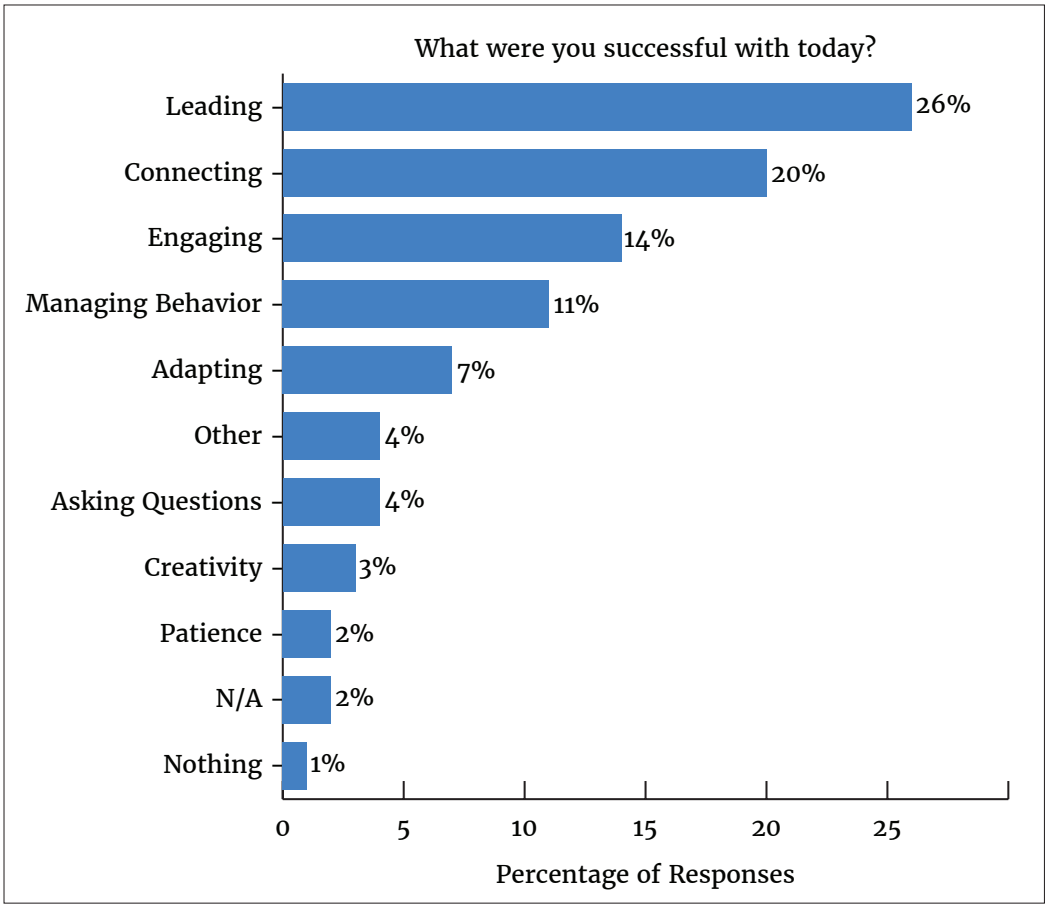


Figure 1. Distribution of Codes Related to Daily Success

act of teaching is essential to achieving this goal. Focus on this effort to be effective educators was evidenced by responses to the 99 times participants were asked "What could you do better tomorrow?" Only three times did participants (all different individuals) respond that there was "nothing" they could do better tomorrow. These responses did not occur on the same day.

Participants felt that managing the behavior of the elementary students was the most significant way that they could improve (Figure 2). Ensuring that the students were engaged with the material and not distracted was especially cited: "getting the kids to focus"; "hold the kids' attention." Engaging students was also associated with a desire to be more patient with the students: "I need to feel less anxious about making sure all the kids are paying attention at all times. They're kids, after all."

Preparation was also identified as a significant area of improvement. More than half of the volunteers (8/14) wanted to be better prepared at some point, and two participants repeated this answer more than three times.

RQ2: How did participating in the outreach program affect students' perceptions of themselves as educators and scientists?

Multiple aspects of participating in the outreach program influenced participants' perception of themselves as educators and scientists. Many of the reasons participants cited for feeling like an astronomer, unsurprisingly, involved directly talking or knowing about astronomy. Although these sorts of responses represented a majority of the reasons participants felt like astronomers, a significant fraction of responses (~50%) were also related to participants' role as educators. This result indicates that participating in the outreach program in an educational role may reinforce their perception of themselves as astronomers.

Participants did not always report feeling

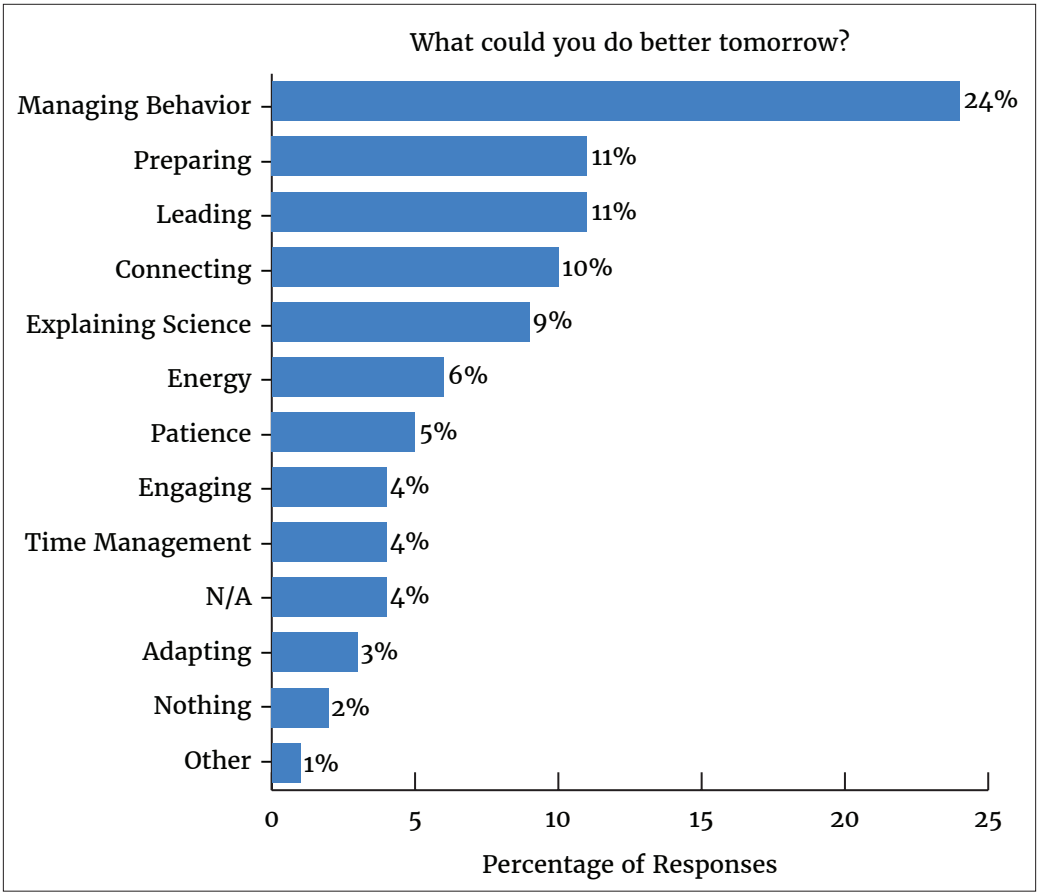


Figure 2. Distribution of Codes Related to Future Improvement

like an astronomer; 12 participants (86%) did not feel like an astronomer on at least one day. Interestingly, besides just saying that nothing made them feel like an astronomer, two participants indicated that they did not feel like an astronomer specifically because they felt like an educator instead ("Eh, not much. I felt like a teacher, not an astronomer" and "Uhhh nothing? More like a camp counselor")—suggesting a mental distinction between teaching and being an astronomer. In direct comparison to the many responses in which knowing astronomy did make participants feel like an astronomer, lacking astronomy knowledge was cited as a reason a participant did not feel like an astronomer.

There was a similar variety in responses on what made participants feel like an educator. Teaching astronomy, an activity clearly melding both education and astronomy, was a common response to "What made you feel like an educator today?" However, it was unclear whether it was the teaching (outreach) or the content (astronomy) that caused participants to feel like an educator. It's important to note that all of the participants reported having some prior experience teaching (e.g., as teaching assistants, mentors, tutors, coinstructors, instructor of record, as well as other outreach endeavors such as planetariums, outreach experiments), so these responses could serve as a reference for how participants gauge whether or not they felt like educators. Most of the participants are in the astronomy graduate program, with three in other disciplines at UVa.

Overall, 63% of responses indicated that the participant felt like an astronomer, and 91% of responses indicated that the participant felt like an educator. Participants thus were more likely to feel like an educator through volunteering for the educational outreach program than they were to feel like an astronomer. Only six participants (43%) indicated on any given day that they did not identify as an educator, whereas 12 different participants (86%) indicated that they did not identify as an astronomer on one or more days. Additionally, participants who marked that they did feel like an educator were more likely to feel like an astronomer than participants who marked that they did not feel like an educator.

There are also ties between the reported confidence of a participant and their iden-

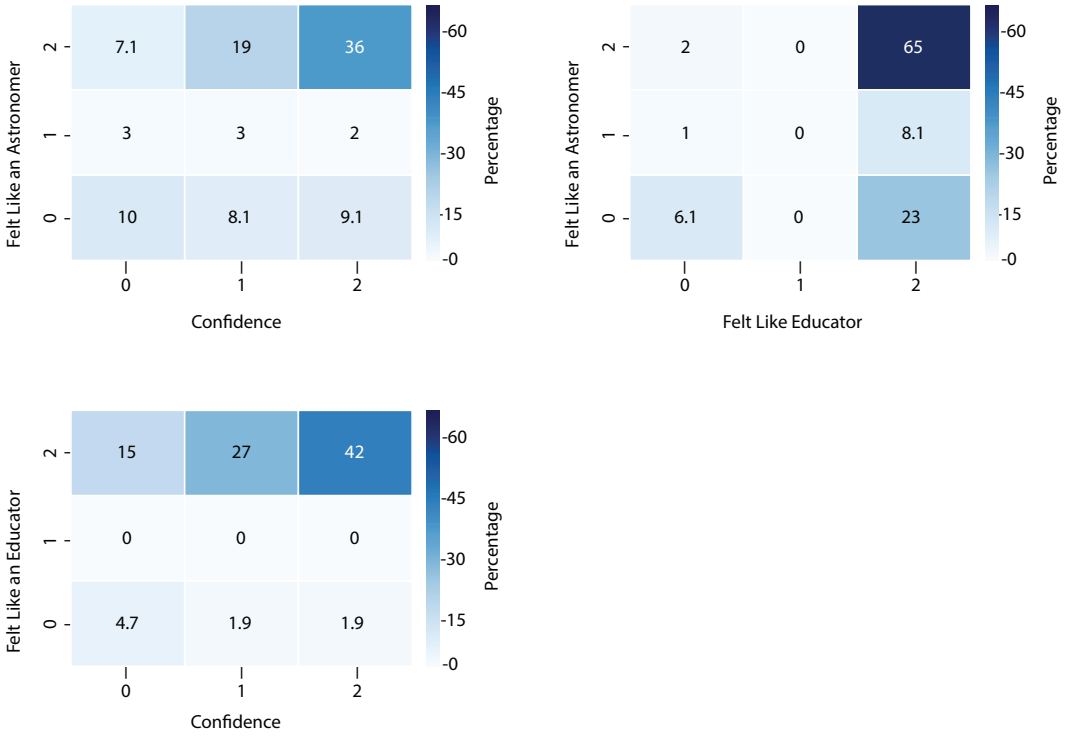


Figure 3. Relationships Between "Feeling Confident," "Feeling Like an Educator," and "Feeling Like an Astronomer"
Note. 0 = no, 1 = somewhat, 2 = yes.

tities as an educator and astronomer in the outreach program. Among participants who answered (*no*, *somewhat*, *yes*) to being confident, (35%, 63%, 76%) answered "Yes" to feeling like an astronomer, and (76%, 93%, 96%) answered "Yes" to feeling like an educator. This result may indicate that feeling like an educator is more confidence independent, whereas feeling like an astronomer depends more on personal confidence. In Figure 3, we display the relationships between the reported confidence of a participant and their identities as an educator and astronomer.

If we pair these relationships with the other finding that people who feel like an educator are also very likely to feel like an astronomer, and recognize that most participants felt like an educator, one could make the argument that in this study, outreach drove a global sense of self-efficacy for all participants (even those with lower confidence).

RQ3: What were graduate students' perceptions of their influence on the students via the outreach program?

Most participants felt that they had a positive influence on the students in the program on most days. However, it is worth noting that the responses varied significantly among participants. For example, daily responses fluctuated during participants' active involvement in the program, and only one participant responded negatively ("Not really") on all days of their participation when asked "Did you feel like you impacted all of the students?" From the survey responses, there was no clear indication that participants who responded negatively to this question reduced their participation over time.

When asked to describe what contributed to whether they felt that they had made an impact, most participants mentioned their role in "teaching" (n = 10; 71%) or "engaging" (n = 10; 71%) students at least once. This result reflects the main goal of the outreach program. Interestingly, the most frequently described scenario among all responses was "connecting" (n = 24; 24%) and five participants (35%) highlighted informal personal interactions with students, such as helping them with their learning tasks or having casual friendly conversations (e.g., "Yes! They really like talking to me and sharing their work with me. One even said I was their favorite so of course, I feel like I'm impacting them. They're definitely impacting me."), compared to three (21%) participants who separately highlighted their roles in getting students excited and interested during the learning process (i.e., "engaging"), or their experience of teaching astronomy concepts to students (i.e., "teaching"). Overall, the responses were not associated with the number of students that the participants felt that they impacted. The codified data and results are available upon request.

Making personal connections with students related to participants' self-evaluation of their impact. Although the primary goals of the outreach program are focused on teaching/learning astronomy and scientific concepts in an engaging way, participants most frequently highlighted their experience of connecting with students making their involvement impactful. For example, one participant responded, "I noticed that some kids wanted to be with me or near me, and I could see that they really enjoyed me being there with them (as do I)," and several other participants illustrated similar feelings of closeness to the students when asked to describe their impact. Although such experience is not directly associated with the specific theme of the outreach program (and the definition of "impact" likely varies among the participants), these responses do indicate that for many of the graduate participants, establishing personal connections and common understanding with students shaped their attitude regarding involvement in the program. The opportunity to interact closely and subsequently build personal connections with students, which is deeply rooted in the structure of this outreach program, may be absent in common adult-oriented astronomy public outreach programs such as planetarium shows and public lectures. A comparison of graduate volunteers' experiences in these different outreach settings may further specify what is considered impactful outreach for astronomy graduate students, who are at a unique stage of transitioning from guided learners to independent researchers.

Conclusions and Implications

Graduate students often serve important roles as university ambassadors of outreach, despite pressure to focus solely on research under the current "publish or perish" paradigm. This study examined the self-reflections of 16 graduate students after each day of participating in an astronomy

outreach program for elementary students. Our results are as follows:

- The participants felt most successful as educators when engaging and leading students through an activity as well as establishing personal connections with the students. Although a majority of the responses indicated a positive attitude toward their teaching abilities, in all but three of the 99 responses participants clearly identified areas for improvement; this outcome demonstrates a concern for teaching effectively among the graduate student volunteers. The area in which participants felt weakest as educators was in managing behavior, which was often combined with concerns that this weakness hurts the learning potential of the students.
- Even though teaching is a core job requirement of a professional astronomer's role as a professor at a research university, this study provided hints that even graduate students involved in educational outreach held the perception that time spent teaching detracts from the identity of an astronomer. It was not surprising that the majority of responses indicated that the participant identified as an educator, but in multiple instances, being an educator was cited as a reason participants did not identify as an astronomer. Overall, participants identified as astronomers in a majority of the responses, with "talking about astronomy most" as the most common reason. We also found a relationship between confidence and identifying as an educator and astronomer—confidence was more tightly linked to feeling like an astronomer than it was to feeling like an educator.
- Most participants felt that they had made a positive impact on the students, but this feeling was subject to change across the days. The goal of the outreach program is to impart astronomy knowledge to young students in a fun and engaging way, yet the personal interactions and connections between participants and students were most commonly cited as the reason behind feeling impactful. Further comparison between these more intimate programs and larger public outreach events may determine whether incorporating opportunities for connection into programs leads to stronger self-efficacy as an outreach participant, graduate student, and liaison between the academic university and community.

A limitation of this study is the small number of participants. However, the small sample size of this study allowed for a more in-depth evaluation of individual experiences, a methodology not practicable with large numbers of participants. The participants reflected on their experience immediately after a day of the astronomy program concluded, resulting in an authentic view of graduate students' attitudes from and toward outreach. In the future it may be useful to survey participants before and after the entire program, in order to examine whether participating in educational outreach may lead to shifts in identities as graduate students, educators, and scientists.

The benefits to graduate students from participating in outreach programs have been well documented (Laursen et al., 2012; Rethman et al., 2020). Our study adds to this body of work by demonstrating that the graduate students involved in this astronomy outreach program developed deep personal connections with the elementary students. This sense of connection was a driving reason behind participants' feeling that they made an impact and important contribution to the education of otherwise underserved elementary school students, and may be an additional benefit to participating in educational outreach more broadly. Participants also gained classroom leadership experience, furthering their identity as both educators and astronomers through teaching astronomy. Developing this identity and self-efficacy as an educator and scientist is a fundamental goal of science graduate programs, demonstrating a benefit to both graduate students and their institution. Participating in this outreach program gave graduate students a platform to see themselves as educators. In turn, we found that when the graduate students felt like educators they were more likely to also feel like scientists, although future research is needed to investigate this connection in greater detail.

Supporting involvement of graduate students in educational outreach enhanced their confidence and identity as scientists, while also bringing the knowledge and resources of research universities to the surrounding community—a major component of nearly every academic institution's mission statement. As educational outreach is integral to this mission of university–community involvement, this study highlights a number of reasons graduate students would benefit from institutional support:

- We found that many participants felt that teaching and outreach was time lost from research. Formally valuing outreach as a component of graduate education might alleviate graduate students' concerns that time spent interacting with the surrounding community is detrimental to their standing in the eyes of their peers, professors, and university.
- We found that graduate student participants felt that they impacted the elementary students through establishing personal connections. Getting involved in local communities and making connections outside the typical academic setting via outreach may have the potential to develop or strengthen a positive sense of belonging and purpose for graduate students, a population that is frequently reported to experience depression and other mental health issues due to stress and/or emotional isolation (Woolston, 2019). Intentionally facilitating graduate students' regular participation in outreach may improve their emotional experience in graduate school.
- Managing the behavior of the elementary school students was frequently cited as an area for improvement by the graduate student participants. Providing training to help graduate students in this area might make an outreach program more effective and bolster the confidence of graduate students as educators. Further, the practice of leading a classroom and directing the attention of a group is an applicable and essential skill across educating at all levels, and in presenting information in other professional settings.
- Participating in outreach programs presents valuable opportunities to implement research-based, innovative pedagogy such as active learning in a broader nonacademic setting, and hence helps narrow the gap between research and practice. Meanwhile, by taking on educator roles during outreach, graduate students have the opportunity to practice pedagogical skills that are essential for developing a future career in higher education.
- Involvement in outreach programs exposes graduate students to aspects of a workplace both inside and outside academia, including team collaboration, project design and management, event planning, and assessment. Encouraging graduate students to familiarize themselves with these aspects via outreach programs may lessen the current lack of opportunities in graduate programs to prepare graduate students for a more diverse career path.

In this work, we studied the experiences of a small set of graduate students participating as volunteers in an educational outreach program. Though our data were sufficient to drive several conclusions, they were also inherently limited in scope. Consequently, several opportunities for future related work remain. We identify three general categories for the ways in which this study may be directly expanded on:

> ***Category 1*:** additional examination of the impact of outreach on the graduate student volunteers,
>
> ***Category 2*:** examination of the impact of outreach on the elementary students, and
>
> ***Category 3*:** expansion of the demographics included in our study.

For the first category, our main suggestion is to pursue a more robust analysis of how the volunteers are mentally and emotionally affected by their outreach work. A growing body of literature (e.g., Rethman et al., 2020) suggests that community engagement can help an individual feel professionally and personally empowered through their impact on others. Given that the mental health of graduate students is frequently threatened,

it would be useful to investigate whether outreach can positively impact mental health. Furthermore, as outreach plays an increasingly important role in personnel evaluation and hiring within the field of astronomy, future work could examine the extent to which graduate students feel they have benefited professionally from their outreach experiences, particularly in job application scenarios (e.g., how common is it for interviewers to ask about outreach?). For Category 2, we are especially interested in learning how elementary students feel they are affected by such educational outreach programs. For instance, their outlook on education and personal assessment of their own aptitude may change. Our Category 3 goal might be addressed by performing similar analysis on other groups of graduate students, including other ages or geographic areas.

About the Authors

Allison Matthews *is a postdoctoral fellow at The Observatories of the Carnegie Institute of Washington.*

Renato Mazzei *is a graduate student in the Department of Astronomy at the University of Virginia.*

Anne M. McAlister *is a postdoctoral associate in the Department of Engineering Education at the University at Buffalo.*

Brianna Mills *is a graduate student in the Department of Astronomy at the University of Virginia.*

Yiqing Song *is a postdoctoral fellow at the European Southern Observatory in Santiago, Chile.*

References

Andrews, E., Weaver, A., Hanley, D., Shamatha, J., & Melton, G. (2005). Scientists and public outreach: Participation, motivations, and impediments. *Journal of Geoscience Education, 53*(3), 281–293. https://doi.org/10.5408/1089-9995-53.3.281

Bartel, A. S., Krasny, M., & Harrison, E. Z. (2003). Beyond the binary: Approaches to integrating university outreach with research and teaching. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 8*(2), 89–104. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/619

Boman, J. S. (2013). Graduate student teaching development: Evaluating the effectiveness of training in relation to graduate student characteristics (EJ1007032). *Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 43*(1), 100–114. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1007032

Clark, G., Russell, J., Enyeart, P., Gracia, B., Wessel, A., Jarmoskaite, I., Polioudakis, D., Stuart, Y., Gonzalez, T., MacKrell, A., Rodenbusch, S., Stovall, G. M., Beckham, J. T., Montgomery, M., Tasneem, T., Jones, J., Simmons, S., & Roux, S. (2016). Science educational outreach programs that benefit students and scientists. *PLOS Biology, 14*(2), 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1002368

Dang, L., & Russo, P. (2015). How astronomers view education and public outreach: An exploratory study (arXiv:1507.08552). *Communicating Astronomy with the Public Journal*, No. 18, pp. 16–21. arXiv. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1507.08552

DeChenne, S. E., Enochs, L. G., & Needham, M. (2012). Science, technology, engineering, and mathematics graduate teaching assistants teaching self-efficacy (EJ992130). *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 12*(4), 102–123. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ992130

deKoven, A., & Trumbull, D. (2002). Science graduate students doing science outreach: Participation effects and perceived barriers to participation. *The Electronic Journal for Research in Science & Mathematics Education, 7*(1). http://scholarlyexchange.org/ojs/index.php/EJSE/article/view/7696

Ecklund, E. H., James, S. A., & Lincoln, A. E. (2012). How academic biologists and physicists view science outreach. *PLoS ONE, 7*(5), 1–5. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0036240

Feldon, D. F., Peugh, J., Timmerman, B. E., Maher, M. A., Hurst, M., Strickland, D., Gilmore, J. A., & Stiegelmeyer, C. (2011). Graduate students' teaching experiences improve their methodological research skills. *Science, 333*(6045), 1037–1039. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1204109

Fowler, D., & Cherrstrom, C. A. (2017). Graduate student perception of teaching development in a college teaching course. *NACTA Journal, 61*(2), 150–156. https://www.jstor.org/stable/90021196

Gilmore, J., Maher, M. A., Feldon, D. F., & Timmerman, B. (2014). Exploration of factors related to the development of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics graduate teaching assistants' teaching orientations. *Studies in Higher Education, 39*(10), 1910–1928. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.806459

Gutstein, J., Smith, M., & Manahan, D. (2006). A service-learning model for science education outreach (EJ752639). *Journal of College Science Teaching, 36*(1), 22–26. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ752639

Heinze, K. F., Allen, J. L., & Jacobsen, E. N. (1995). Encouraging tomorrow's chemists: University outreach program bringing hands-on experiments to local students. *Journal of Chemical Education, 72*(2), 167–169. https://doi.org/10.1021/ed072p167

Houck, J. D., Machamer, N. K., & Erickson, K. A. (2014). Graduate student outreach: Model of a one-day "chemistry camp" for elementary school students. *Journal of Chemical Education, 91*(10), 1606–1610. https://doi.org/10.1021/ed400617r

Jarvis-Selinger, S., Pratt, D. D., & Collins, J. B. (2010). Journeys toward becoming a teacher: Charting the course of professional development. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 27*(2), 69–95. https://www.jstor.org/stable/23479590

Justice, G. W. (2006). Motivating university faculty participation in training and pro-

fessional development of P-12 teachers. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 11*(2), 3–20. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/559

Kajfez, R. L., & Matusovich, H. M. (2017). Competence, autonomy, and relatedness as motivators of graduate teaching assistants. *Journal of Engineering Education, 106*(2), 245–272. https://doi.org/10.1002/jee.20167

Koehler, B. G., Park, L. Y., & Kaplan, L. J. (1999). Science for kids outreach programs: College students teaching science to elementary students and their parents. *Journal of Chemical Education, 76*(11), 1505–1509. https://doi.org/10.1021/ed076p1505

Laursen, S. L., Thiry, H., & Liston, C. S. (2012). The impact of a university-based school science outreach program on graduate student participants' career paths and professional socialization. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 16*(2), 47–78. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/933

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2020). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.

Moskal, B., & Skokan, C. (2011). Supporting the K-12 classroom through university outreach. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 15*(1), 53–75. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/830

National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics. (2021). *Women, minorities, and persons with disabilities in science and engineering: 2021* (Special Report NSF 21-321). National Science Foundation. https://ncses.nsf.gov/wmpd

Olsen, B. (2008). How reasons for entry into the profession illuminate teacher identity development. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 35*(3), 23–40. https://www.jstor.org/stable/23478979

Prieto, L. R., & Altmaier, E. M. (1994). The relationship of prior training and previous teaching experience to self-efficacy among graduate teaching assistants. *Research in Higher Education, 35*(4), 481–497. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02496384

Rao, S., Shamah, D., & Collay, R. (2007). Meaningful involvement of science undergraduates in K-12 education outreach (EJ766673). *Journal of College Science Teaching, 36*(6), 54–58. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ766673

Rethman, C., Perry, J., Donaldson, J., Choi, D., & Erukhimova, T. (2020). Creating a physicist: The impact of informal/outreach programs on university student development (ArXiv:2012.13981). *Physical Review Physics Education Research, 17*(2). ArXiv. http://arxiv.org/abs/2012.13981

Wellnitz, T., MacRury, N., Child, A., & Benson, D. (2002). Spreading the wealth: Graduate students and educational outreach. *Conservation Biology, 16*(2), 560–563. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3061385

Woolston, C. (2019). PhDs: The tortuous truth. *Nature*, 575, 403–406. https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-019-03459-7

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 73, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Using Experiential Education in Health Professions Training to Improve Health Equity: Lessons Learned from Interviews With Key Informants

India J. Ornelas, Malaika Schwartz, Janice A. Sabin, and Bianca K. Frogner

Abstract

Health professions students can increase their understanding of how social determinants impact health equity through experiential learning opportunities. Using key informant interviews with faculty and staff familiar with experiential education programs in medicine, dentistry, nursing, pharmacy, public health, and social work, we sought to identify key features and best practices to inform the broader implementation of these programs. Interviews were recorded and compiled notes were reviewed to identify common themes across programs. Experiential learning helped teach students competencies related to health equity. However, many programs were challenged by limited infrastructure and the need for faculty training on health equity topics. Key informants noted that programs should be linked to accreditation and curricular requirements. Strong community partnerships also facilitated successful program implementation. Our findings can help guide other schools considering experiential learning programs, as well as future research in this area.

Keywords: health professions, experiential education, service-learning, health equity

There have been increasing calls for health professionals to better understand the role of social determinants of health in shaping the health of the patients and populations they serve (NASEM, 2016; Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, 2017). Social determinants of health are the conditions in which people live, work, and play that shape patterns of health. Health researchers point to social determinants of health as the underlying causes at the root of many persistent health inequities in the United States (NASEM, 2017). Therefore, solutions to address health inequities at the population level must go beyond the traditional health care delivery system. Increasingly, health professions' accrediting bodies are requiring this content in their curricula; however, there is wide variation in satisfying such requirements (Chen et al., 2021; Davis et al., 2021; Dunleavy et al., 2022; NASEM, 2016). Understanding the role of social determinants is especially important for those in clinical professions in order to understand the limitations of the health care system in addressing health equity (Metzl & Hansen, 2014; Siegel et al., 2018).

Immersing health professions students through experiential learning opportunities can improve their understanding of how the social and physical environment influences health. Experiential learning is a pedagogical approach that provides an opportunity to participate in a real-word practice experience, reflect on that experience, develop new knowledge as a result of the experience, and apply that knowledge in new settings (Kolb, 1984). Examples include courses that incorporate community service, or opportunities to practice skills in clinical or community environments (such as field assignments or practica; Gimpel et al.,

2018). Most programs that have been evaluated have been in medicine, nursing, and pharmacy (Chen et al., 2021; DeHaven et al., 2020; Gimpel et al., 2018). Commonly used models include service-learning (group or individual community service paired with didactic sessions), practicums (individual fieldwork with a culminating report or reflections), and clinical service opportunities (not paired with a course or didactic sessions). Benefits of experiential learning include student preparation to transition from the classroom to the workplace, longer term knowledge retention, and improved skills acquisition (DeHaven et al., 2020). An important component of experiential education is the role of community–academic partnerships where students gain firsthand experience working with populations experiencing health inequities. Through the partnership, students are not only exposed to the larger social issues present in communities, but are also addressing community needs and potentially increasing community capacity, which is an important goal of service-learning (Seifer, 1998).

In 2016, the National Academies of Science, Engineering, and Medicine published a report highlighting the importance of experiential education in training health professionals on health equity (NASEM, 2016). The report noted the need for further research on how these programs are implemented and whether they are responsive to the evolving needs of local communities. Although many health professions schools have been offering experiential education opportunities for years, little guidance exists on how best to implement these programs. Even 6 years following the NASEM report, only a handful of studies have focused on what types are most effective in training students, which components have the biggest impact on the community, and how to make these programs sustainable long-term (Chen et al., 2021; Davis et al., 2021; Dunleavy et al., 2022). Because these programs often require an institutional investment, more evidence regarding their feasibility and efficacy could support decision making among leaders in higher education.

We drew on the Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research (CFIR) to examine how experiential education has been used specifically to teach social determinants of health content to health professions students (Damschroder et al., 2009). This framework suggests that the implementation of experiential education programs can be influenced by both characteristics of the program and external factors, such as institutional or community support. Using key informant interviews with faculty and staff familiar with experiential education programs, this exploratory study sought to highlight the key features of programs being implemented in health professions training, as well as identify best practices and gaps in current models that could be addressed in future research and broader implementation of these programs.

Methods

We conducted in-depth interviews with key informants to better understand how experiential education was being used to teach social determinants of health. We compared experiential education programs across six major health professions: nursing, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, social work, and public health. The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the institutional review board (IRB) at the University of Washington.

Study Participants

We aimed to interview at least two key informants in each health profession and continue interviews until we reached thematic saturation (Guest et al., 2006). Key informants were identified in several ways. First, we reviewed program websites of highly ranked health professions schools to identify faculty and staff leading experiential education programs (U.S. News & World Report, 2021). Second, we identified authors of peer-reviewed articles that described experiential education programs for health professions students (DeHaven et al., 2011; Gimpel et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2013; Tiwari & Palatta, 2019). Third, the research team identified faculty and program staff with content expertise related to experiential education programs through our own professional networks and academic affiliations. We also asked our interviewees to identify other key informants with expertise in experiential education in the health professions.

Data Collection

Using keywords such as “experiential education” and “service learning” with specific health professions to search PubMed, we identified peer-reviewed papers on experi-

ential evaluation programs. Building from the literature, the CFIR was used to identify hypothesized factors that might influence the implementation of experiential education programs, such as cost, external policies, processes for incorporating feedback and evaluation, and key stakeholders. We developed two versions of the interview guide (see Appendix A), one for those who had experience implementing a specific program and another for those who had relevant expertise on the topic but were not currently implementing an experiential education program. Both interview guides included questions about the program model, faculty and staff involvement, program development, student assessment, implementation challenges, lessons learned, the role of community partners, program funding, and sustainability. We used follow-up questions and prompts to elicit more detailed responses by participants.

Recruitment began in January 2020 and continued through April 2020. Each week, we reviewed the recruitment goals in order to determine targeted recruitment for the next week. We approached 33 potential participants via email, with up to three follow-up emails, as well as a phone call where numbers were available. Interviews were conducted by two trained members of the research team via Zoom and lasted 30–60 minutes. Interviewers took notes during the interviews and used recordings to construct more detailed notes. All but one participant gave consent to have their interview videorecorded.

Data Analysis

The research team used the CFIR and the interview guide to organize interview notes, which were then reviewed to identify themes across experiential education programs. Themes and example quotes were shared with others on the research team for assistance with interpretation. Reviewing our notes throughout the process, our team achieved thematic saturation after completing 14 interviews (42% of those contacted). Saturation was defined as having representation from all six health professions, as well as receiving consistent and similar answers from respondents (Guest et al., 2006). Program features were summarized to describe different program types, how programs were integrated with other parts of the curricula, the process for assessing competencies, and personnel and fiscal supports. In order to identify challenges and successes experienced during experiential education program implementation, study team members compiled participant responses to each study question in order to conduct content analysis and identify common themes within responses to each question. We used descriptors such as "many" or "most" when more than half the respondents shared a similar perspective and "some" or "few" if less than half shared the perspective.

Results

In this section we summarize the characteristics of the programs described by participants, including the competencies and how they were assessed. After this we describe lessons learned from implementing programs and recommendations for other institutions interested in developing similar programs.

Program Design and Competencies

We interviewed 14 faculty and staff at 10 different universities within each of the health professions: medicine (2), dentistry (2), nursing (3), pharmacy (1), public health (4), and social work (2). They included participants at both public and private institutions located across the United States, including the states of Colorado, Georgia, Hawaii, Illinois, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Texas, and Washington. Most were large research-intensive universities. We did not observe any differences in programs by region or institution type. Most programs used a service-learning (group or individual community service paired with didactic sessions) model of experiential education. Other common models were practicums (individual fieldwork with a culminating report or reflections) and clinical service opportunities (not paired with a course or didactic sessions). See Table 1 for examples of programs in each health profession. Most programs were delivered during the academic school year, with one being conducted during the summer. About half of the programs had set minimum time commitments for providing service (these ranged from 6 to 240 hours); the rest did not mention specific commitments. These requirements also depended on whether the program was a required component of the curriculum. Half the experiential education programs (which included all five public health and social work programs) were

required as part of accreditation, and the other half were not.

Implementation infrastructure varied across programs. Most programs were supported by no more than two faculty and/or staff members and occasionally a student teaching assistant. One program was run entirely by faculty and staff who volunteered their time. Although most faculty and staff developed and managed their programs independently, one program had an entire office, including dedicated staff, to administer experiential education programs and train faculty to implement these programs across health professions schools. In most cases, salaries for the employees implementing the programs were covered by the university. However, costs such as supplies, incentives, and student stipends came from grants and private donors.

Key informants noted that experiential education programs were being used to teach a number of different competencies. Appendix B summarizes competencies that are related to social determinants of health and health equity in each of the health professions. Most common competencies were related to skills for working with individual patients, such as bias awareness, building trust, reflective listening, cultural humility, power dynamics, and shared decision-making. Other knowledge and skills competencies were related to furthering health equity, such as advocacy, social and political factors contributing to social determinants of health, equity, social justice, barriers to health care, health promotion, interprofessionalism, and privilege.

Programs assessed performance and increased competency through classwork and assignments. The most common class assignments were reflective writing about their experiences, followed by group discussion, poster presentations, and written papers. Two programs conducted pre-post surveys to assess student progress over the course of the semester or year. Two programs had no class assignments or requirements. Only two programs tracked their students after graduation to see if participation in experiential education and knowledge about social determinants of health had an impact on their later careers, even though experiential education was not an accreditation requirement. Programs relied largely on anecdotal feedback from students for program evaluation. Those that did follow their students said that the program had positively influenced their career decisions, often resulting in choosing to work with low-income or vulnerable populations.

Lessons Learned From Implementing These Programs

Key informants shared many challenges and lessons learned. We grouped these challenges into three categories: issues related to working with faculty, students, and community partners.

Table 1. Example Models of Experiential Education Being Used to Teach Health Equity

Profession	Program Description
Dentistry	Elective course called "Health and Homelessness" where students perform clinical outreach with homeless patients
Pharmacy	Work with local health department to provide immunizations at homeless camps, recovery centers, and community centers
Medicine	Elective, interprofessional community health project that provides foot care clinics at homeless shelters
Public health	Applied practice experience that takes public health students to different parts of the city using public transportation to learn about historically low-income neighborhoods
Nursing/ interprofessional	Service-learning program where students and faculty go to farms and provide care for migrant farmworkers
Social work	Interprofessional, collaborative practicum where students develop and deliver health-related workshops for inmates in a local jail

Faculty

Respondents cited two key challenges related to faculty involvement in experiential learning opportunities. The first was the need for orienting and training faculty on this type of teaching, particularly among schools of public health. This included the need for training on social determinants of health and how to manage classroom dynamics when health equity issues were discussed. One respondent noticed that some faculty had limited capacity to facilitate student conversations about health equity and lead critical reflections among students. As one respondent noted,

> Best practices are finding very intentional ways to center these conversations around power and privilege, and the context. Some of our faculty have different levels of comfort. Some come in from training spaces where they feel prepared, but they need more tools in their toolbox, but that population is minute compared to the larger population of our faculty. (Staff, public health)

The lack of faculty training negatively impacted students' experience. For example, one respondent noted faculty committing microaggressions, such as calling upon students of color to offer perspectives on health issues faced by people of their same race or ethnicity. In another case, respondents noted faculty choosing movies and other course materials without considering the impact on students who came from those communities. For example, one respondent described,

> We also piloted watching *13th Amendment*, and then leading a reflection, which failed greatly during the first semester…We got mixed reviews from students. Students [of color] felt like this was really important, but that their clinical instructors were not prepared to facilitate the type of conversation that needed to happen or it was traumatizing and triggering for these students, to be in a room of predominantly folks who did not look like them and didn't understand their connection to this film. (Staff, public health)

Respondents also noted the need for more specific training on experiential education pedagogy. Only three respondents were aware of the NASEM report laying out specific recommendations for these types of programs, though many were interested in reading it.

Another challenge was identifying enough faculty to fully support experiential education programs. Most programs had no more than two faculty actively involved in implementing or managing the program. Almost all of the programs depended to some extent on faculty volunteering their time to teach, mentor, or supervise educational experiences. This challenge included identifying faculty or other clinicians to serve as preceptors, who are needed to supervise students providing clinical services. Fewer programs noted that it was difficult to recruit preceptors due to their competing demands and the inability to offer support or funding for their time. Programs instead relied on former students and committed community partners to staff these positions.

Students

Respondents noted several challenges related to student engagement in experiential education, both in and out of the classroom. Some faculty and staff felt that students were using experiential learning opportunities to indicate that they had experience working with diverse communities, rather than having a genuine interest in gaining new knowledge or improving their skills. As one respondent (a faculty member in public health) said, "We aren't just there so students can check a box and say, 'Oh, I volunteered and I did this thing.'"

For those programs that were optional, respondents mentioned that the students who chose to engage were often those already familiar with concepts of social determinants of health and health equity, rather than the students who might have less familiarity and could benefit more from this type of experience. Respondents also commented that some students had the privilege of being able to spend time outside class on experiential education programs, although other students had work obligations that left them little to no time to participate.

Students enrolled in experiential education programs had varying degrees of previous experience working with diverse communities or providing clinical services. Some respondents noted the need for classroom

experiences that prepared students to work in diverse community or clinical settings for the first time. As one respondent described,

> It's the way you build trust. All of our [pharmacy] programs require extensive training before going out into the community…We already have classroom, and laboratory, and then refresher courses before we go out. Not only on how to do clinical things; there's reflective listening, and shared decision making, and culture humbleness conversations before we would embark. I think, to me, those are the best spent hours in advance…One of the reasons we want students to have this experience in their first year is because sometimes we've found that students who went out and started doing internships picked up cultural biases that students thought were normal. So, we try to normalize grassroots engagement in the community before students establish a cultural norm that we don't think really promotes equity. (Faculty, pharmacy)

These classroom experiences could include an emphasis on the student role being to serve the community, not the other way around. Another respondent noted the importance of concepts such as humility and accountability, which are not typically taught elsewhere in school curricula but are critical for preparing students for field experiences. Some programs, particularly clinical practice for medical, dental, and pharmacy students, also required extensive training on equipment and coordination of care with usual providers. Providing orientation or training for students before they went "into the field" also helped ensure more positive and respectful relationships between students and community partners. As noted above, student learning was rarely formally assessed as part of the program, making it difficult to evaluate changes in student knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Community Partners

Several respondents noted that having a strong relationship with community partners was essential to implementing a successful program. Specifically, they noted that it was important to take the time to engage community partners at various stages of developing and implementing the program. As one respondent noted,

> We established solid connections with community partnerships over time. So then the projects became long-term projects. I felt that I had a responsibility to respond to the community partners…We don't go to community organizations to do whatever we want to do for research…It's done together. Sustainability is through having a continuous learning partnership. (Faculty, medicine)

Most programs did not have formal processes for soliciting feedback from community partners, but all felt it was important to do so. Many respondents also noted the importance of providing financial incentives to community partners for hosting or facilitating opportunities for students. They acknowledged that some burdens on community partners—identifying site supervisors, providing community space for students, attending planning meetings—often went uncompensated. A few programs were able to offer incentives to community partners, but most did not. Other challenges that were noted were related to the disruptions caused by students' physical presence and their inappropriate or disrespectful behavior toward community members. Relationships with community partners appeared to be most successful when built on personal relationships with individual faculty, because of the community partners' personal level of trust in the individual. As one respondent described how they identify and maintain relationships with community partners,

> Our faculty are relatively well-connected in the area, so relying on them for introductions…Also trying to find ways to give back and support that relationship, I think. (Staff, public health)

Respondents noted the importance of ensuring that community partners benefit from the partnership with an academic institution rather than be subject to a one-directional relationship as has been historically the case.

Recommendations for Those Looking to Implement Similar Programs

Participants were also asked what they

would like to change about their program or if they had recommendations for others implementing similar programs. Their responses fell into two categories: (1) additional content to include in the program and (2) structural changes to the program. In terms of content changes, some programs mentioned that students needed opportunities to learn advocacy skills, not just clinical or interpersonal skills, to truly address social determinants of health. For example, one program noted that after providing foot care to residents in a homeless shelter week after week, they saw a need to do more to try to address the root causes leading to homelessness. Another program noted the need for dental students to become more involved in the health policy process in order to increase access to dental care. In addition to advocacy, some noted that they would like to support experiential education opportunities for students in international settings outside the United States. Another program saw the benefit of having students from different health professions participate in experiential education together, and wanted to explore using this approach to achieve interprofessional education competencies required by accrediting bodies.

In terms of structural changes, many noted the need to improve the sustainability of their programs. Respondents noted the need for longer term opportunities for students, to enhance the reciprocity of community partnerships and deepen student learning. Others noted the need for more infrastructure to support their program, such as dedicated core funding, and employing staff to maintain community relationships and better serve student needs. One program was looking to further engage its alumni to serve as preceptors and donate funds. These needs did not differ across profession or type of institution. Given that these programs are often offered as an optional part of the curriculum, many respondents commented that experiential education should be required for all students. Lastly, one program was looking for ways to bring community members into the classroom to increase student exposure to community perspectives, especially for students who do not opt in to experiential learning opportunities.

Discussion

Our study identified examples of experiential learning programs focused on social determinants of health and health equity across six major health professions. Most were using service-learning models or involved students providing clinical services in community settings. Experiential learning was seen as an appropriate way to teach students content and competencies related to health equity. However, many programs struggled with limited infrastructure and saw the need for further faculty training on health equity topics. Programs and student participation were also shaped by requirements tied to accreditation. Below, we discuss differences across professions and directions for future practice and research.

Our findings highlighted the need for health professions schools to invest more infrastructure into experiential learning programs, including increased funding and faculty and staff support. A recent review of service-learning programs offered in dental schools noted similar challenges in implementation and sustainability (Hood, 2009). Our findings are also consistent with recommendations noted in the NASEM (2016) report, which cited the need for training and support for faculty who lead experiential education programs. Respondents in our study highlighted the need for faculty training on issues of equity, diversity, and inclusion. Demand for such support has also become more visible in health professions schools as faculty and students have begun to speak out against institutional cultures that allow microaggressions, implicit bias, and discrimination (Doll & Thomas, 2020; Issaka, 2020; Iwai, 2020; Yousif et al., 2020). In addition to faculty training, schools can support and incentivize faculty to develop and implement experiential education programs with salary coverage or other financial resources. These programs could be funded through internal course development funds, or grants offered through federal agencies, such as NIH and HRSA, that support health workforce development. Health professions school leadership should also clearly articulate the value of these programs to both students and local communities. They can explicitly signal this value to faculty by adding experiential education programs to promotion and tenure criteria and/or curricular requirements. Faculty could also be encouraged to publish curricula, case studies, or evaluations of their programs as evidence of their scholarship.

Many health professions schools have begun grappling with larger issues of

how to address health equity and racism in their school culture and/or curriculum (Njoku & Wakeel, 2019). Our findings highlighted how these issues are also present in experiential learning programs, and present an opportunity for health professions schools to address power imbalances among faculty, students, and community members. Previous research has critiqued service-learning models that reinforce power and privilege by sending White middle- or upper-class students to engage with low-income clients and communities of color without the background and skills needed to understand social determinants of health in these communities (Taboada, 2011). Experiential education programs should intentionally develop a pedagogical approach and curriculum that directly address institutional racism and its role in perpetuating health inequities. Several other techniques are being used to teach health equity in health professions schools, such as digital story projects, community outreach, community health promotion events, and simulations that focus on understanding the lived experience of low-income populations (Bill & Casola, 2016; Hackett & Humayun, 2018; Palombi et al., 2017; Thompson et al., 2020). Some of these approaches were also mentioned by respondents in our study as being successful parts of experiential learning programs (Bill & Casola, 2016; Palombi et al., 2017; Thompson et al., 2020). These approaches speak to the important role of community engagement in helping students understand and address social determinants of health.

We noted key differences across health professions that were tied to accreditation requirements. All health professions had at least one competency specified by their accrediting body related to working with diverse populations; however, only three professions (medicine, dentistry, nursing) had competencies that specifically reflected the need to understand health inequities and social determinants of health. In addition, all professions except dentistry encouraged some form of practical learning experience as part of their competencies. In our study, those schools with specific accreditation requirements related to experiential learning also required their students to participate in their programs. Some respondents also felt that in order for students to learn how to truly address social determinants of health, programs may need a stronger focus on advocacy skills. For example, programs might highlight ways students can make changes to the health care institutions they will eventually work in or encourage participation in the political process. Accrediting bodies have an important role to play in shaping the curricula of health professions. Health professions schools may want to advocate for changes to their accreditation requirements to incorporate competencies related to health equity and experiential learning to encourage this type of training.

Our study had some limitations. Because our recruitment strategies focused on larger, more well-recognized health professions schools, our findings may not reflect programs at smaller schools. Furthermore, we focused on six major health professions, with some overrepresentation of public health and underrepresentation of pharmacy. Our findings may not reflect the experiences of all health professions, given that some fields, including physical therapists and emergency medical technicians, were not included. Future studies should further examine differences across professions and institution types. Our recruitment and data collection occurred in early spring 2020, as the country was beginning to shut down in response to the coronavirus pandemic. The competing demands of faculty and staff may have led to fewer responses from potential participants. This time was also marked by a heightened focus on racism within the United States and within academic institutions, which may have led participants to focus more on equity implications of their work during the interviews.

Our findings can help guide other schools considering experiential learning programs, as well as future research in this area. Faculty should be encouraged to establish long-term reciprocal relationships with community partners that can serve as sites for experiential learning programs. In addition, faculty could mentor students on how to develop collaborative partnerships so that they could develop and/or participate in similar programs later in their careers. Health professions schools with innovative and successful experiential education programs should be encouraged to publish their curricula and evaluation outcomes. Both our study and previous studies indicate that few programs have evaluated the impact of experiential learning programs on either students or the communities they serve (DeHaven et al., 2011; Rohra et al., 2014). Still, there is evidence that

community-based educational experiences are highly valued by students and result in more positive attitudes about working in underserved communities (Pau & Mutalik, 2017; Rohra et al., 2014). Future studies can provide guidance on how these programs influence student competencies long term, as well as their impact on community health. Programs focused on social determinants of health and health equity should also consider using the framework laid out in the NASEM (2016) report to guide both development and evaluation.

Conclusion

Our interviews with faculty and staff suggest that experiential education programs are a promising strategy for increasing health professions students' competency in social determinants of health and health equity. These programs are notable examples of community–academic partnerships that strengthen both the communities they serve and the training offered by academic programs. Many of the skills students learn via experiential programs are precisely those that are needed for leadership roles throughout their careers. As academic programs strive to increase representation by students from historically marginalized communities, experiential learning programs need to evolve from the experiences of these students, so that they become empowered leaders in their own communities. For these programs to be successful, they need to be supported by the appropriate infrastructure, faculty with the appropriate expertise to teach and mentor students, and sustained community partnerships. Ongoing and systematic evaluation of these programs is necessary to ensure that experiential education programs support students in meeting established competencies, and more importantly, improving the health of the communities in which they work.

About the Authors

India J. Ornelas *is a professor in the Department of Health Systems and Population Health at the University of Washington.*

Malaika Schwartz *is an IRB administrator in the Human Subjects Division at the University of Washington.*

Janice A. Sabin *is a research asssociate professor in the Department of Biomedical Informatics and Medication Education at the University of Washington.*

Bianca K. Frogner *is a professor in the Department of Family Medicine at the University of Washington.*

References

Accreditation Commission for Education in Nursing. (2021). Section III. Standards and criteria. In *Accreditation manual*. Retrieved January 1, 2022, from https://www.acenursing.org/acen-accreditation-manual-standards-and-criteria/

Accreditation Commission for Midwifery Education. (2019). *Criteria for programmatic accreditation of midwifery education programs*. Retrieved January 2, 2022, from https://www.midwife.org/acnm/files/cclibraryfiles/filename/000000008279/ACME%20Criteria%20for%20Programmatic%20Accreditation%20Final%20Copyright%20May%202019%20(R2021).pdf

Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education. (2018). *ACGME common program requirements (Residency)*. https://www.acgme.org/globalassets/PFAssets/ProgramRequirements/CPRResidency2019.pdf

Accreditation Council for Pharmacy Education. (2015). *Accreditation standards and key elements for the professional program in pharmacy leading to the doctor of pharmacy degee*. Retrieved January 1, 2022, from https://www.acpe-accredit.org/pharmd-program-accreditation/#tab-Standards

American Dental Education Association. (2008). *Competencies for the new general dentist*. Retrieved January 1, 2022, from https://www.adea.org/about_adea/governance/pages/competencies-for-the-new-general-dentist.aspx

Bill, D., & Casola, A. (2016). Developing, implementing, and evaluating a Latino service learning project in an accelerated MPH community health course for health education students. *Pedagogy in Health Promotion, 2*(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/2373379916633716

Chen, A. M. H., Armbruster, A. L., Buckley, B., Campbell, J. A., Dang, D. K., Devraj, R., Drame, I., Edwards, A., Haack, S. L., Ma, Q., Petry, N., Planas, L. G., Sadowski, C. A., Santee, J., Wade, L., & Borja-Hart, N. (2021). Inclusion of health disparities, cultural competence, and health literacy content in US and Canadian pharmacy curriculums. *American Journal of Pharmacy Education, 85*(1), Article 8200. https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe8200

Commission on Collegiate Nursing Education. (2018). *Standards for accreditation of baccalaureate and graduate nursing programs*. https://www.aacnnursing.org/Portals/42/CCNE/PDF/Standards-Final-2018.pdf

Commission on Dental Accreditation. (2021). *Accreditation standards for dental education programs*. Retrieved January 1, 2022, from https://coda.ada.org/en/current-accreditation-standards

Council on Accreditation of Nurse Anesthesia Educational Programs. (2019). *Standards for accreditation of nurse anesthesia programs*. https://www.coacrna.org/accreditation/accreditation-standards-policies-and-procedures-and-guidelines/

Council on Education for Public Health. (2021). *Accreditation criteria for schools of public health and public health programs*. Retrieved January 1, 2022, from https://ceph.org/about/org-info/criteria-procedures-documents/criteria-procedures/

Council on Social Work Education. (2015). *2015 educational policy and accreditation standards for baccalaureate and master's social work programs*. https://www.cswe.org/getattachment/Accreditation/Standards-and-Policies/2015-EPAS/2015EPASandGlossary.pdf

Damschroder, L. J., Aron, D. C., Keith, R. E., Kirsh, S. R., Alexander, J. A., & Lowery, J. C. (2009). Fostering implementation of health services research findings into practice: A consolidated framework for advancing implementation science. *Implementation Science, 4*(1), Article 50. https://doi.org/10.1186/1748-5908-4-50

Davis, V. H., Murillo, C., Chappell, K. K., Jenerette, C., Ribar, A. K., Worthy, K., & Andrews, J. O. (2021). Tipping point: Integrating social determinants of health concepts in a college of nursing. *Journal of Nursing Education, 60*(12), 703–706. https://doi.org/10.3928/01484834-20211004-05

DeHaven, M. J., Gimpel, N. E., Dallo, F. J., & Billmeier, T. M. (2011). Reaching the underserved through community-based participatory research and service learning: Description and evaluation of a unique medical student training program. *Journal*

of Public Health Management and Practice, 17(4), 363–368. https://doi.org/10.1097/PHH.0b013e3182214707

DeHaven, M. J., Gimpel, N. A., Gutierrez, D., Kitzman-Carmichael, H., & Revens, K. (2020). Designing health care: A community health science solution for reducing health disparities by integrating social determinants and the effects of place. *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice, 26*(5), 1564–1572. https://doi.org/10.1111/jep.13366

Doll, K. M., & Thomas, C. R. (2020). Structural solutions for the rarest of the rare—underrepresented-minority faculty in medical subspecialties. *New England Journal of Medicine, 383*(3), 283–285. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMms2003544

Dunleavy, K., Mejia-Downs, A., Guerrero, H. G., Wentzell, E., Rucker-Bussie, V. M., Davenport, T. E., & Magnusson, D. M. (2022). Embedding population health in physical therapist professional education. *Physical Therapy, 102*(1), Article pzab238. https://doi.org/10.1093/ptj/pzab238

Gimpel, N., Kindratt, T., Dawson, A., & Pagels, P. (2018). Community action research track: Community-based participatory research and service-learning experiences for medical students. *Perspectives on Medical Education, 7*(2), 139–143. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40037-017-0397-2

Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods, 18*(1), 59–82. https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05279903

Hackett, M., & Humayun, L. (2018). Using digital stories to educate public health students about local social determinants of health. *Pedagogy in Health Promotion, 4*(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/2373379917730842

Hood, J. G. (2009). Service-learning in dental education: Meeting needs and challenges. *Journal of Dental Education, 73*(4), 454–463. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.0022-0337.2009.73.4.tb04716.x

Issaka, R. B. (2020). Good for us all. *JAMA, 324*(6). https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.12630

Iwai, Y. (2020, August 2). Medical schools need to get better at addressing structural racism. *Scientific American*. https://www.scientificamerican.com/article/medical-schools-need-to-get-better-at-addressing-structural-racism/

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

Liaison Committee on Medical Education. (2021). *Functions and structure of a medical school: Standards for accreditation of medical education programs leading to the MD degree*. Retrieved January 1, 2022, from https://lcme.org/publications/

Metzl, J. M., & Hansen, H. (2014). Structural competency: Theorizing a new medical engagement with stigma and inequality. *Social Science & Medicine, 103*, 126–133. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2013.06.032

National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2016). *A framework for educating health professionals to address the social determinants of health*. National Academies Press. https://doi.org/10.17226/21923

National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2017). *Communities in action: Pathways to health equity*. The National Academies Press. https://doi.org/10.17226/24624

Njoku, A., & Wakeel, F. (2019). Infusing health disparities awareness into public health curricula at a rural Midwestern university. *Pedagogy in Health Promotion, 5*(2), 139–146. https://doi.org/10.1177/2373379918786746

Palombi, L. C., Bastianelli, K., & Fierke, K. K. (2017). Living an educational mission to meet the needs of community and public health: Community engagement in pharmacy education. *Pedagogy in Health Promotion, 3*(4). https://doi.org/10.1177/2373379916667750

Pau, A., & Mutalik, V. S. (2017). Experiential learning in community oral health promotion: A qualitative evaluation of the experiential aspects. *Pedagogy in Health Promotion, 3*(2). https://doi.org/10.1177/2373379916655356

Robert Wood Johnson Foundation. (2017). *Catalysts for change: Harnessing the power of nurses*

to build population health in the 21st century: Executive summary. https://www.rwjf.org/content/dam/farm/reports/reports/2017/rwjf440286

Rohra, A. K., Piskorowski, W. A., & Inglehart, M. R. (2014). Community-based dental education and dentists' attitudes and behavior concerning patients from underserved populations. *Journal of Dental Education, 78*(1), 119–130. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.0022-0337.2014.78.1.tb05663.x

Seifer, S. D. (1998). Service-learning: Community–campus partnerships for health professions education. *Academic Medicine, 73*(3), 273–277. https://doi.org/10.1097/00001888-199803000-00015

Siegel, J., Coleman, D. L., & James, T. (2018). Integrating social determinants of health into graduate medical education: A call for action. *Academic Medicine, 93*(2), 159–162. https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000002054

Taboada, A. (2011). Privilege, power, and public health programs: A student perspective on deconstructing institutional racism in community service learning. *Journal of Public Health Management and Practice, 17*(4), 376–380. https://doi.org/10.1097/PHH.0b013e3182140c63

Thompson, J. R., Goldberger, R. B., & Elias, T. I. (2020). Poverty simulations with health professional students: Evidence of impact. *Pedagogy in Health Promotion, 6*(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/2373379919859035

Thompson, L. M., Jarvis, S., Sparacino, P., Kuo, D., & Genz, S. (2013). Perceptions of health equity and subjective social status among baccalaureate nursing students engaged in service-learning activities in Hawai'i. *Hawai'i Journal of Medicine and Public Health, 72*(10), 339–345. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24167767/

Tiwari, T., & Palatta, A. M. (2019). An adapted framework for incorporating the social determinants of health into predoctoral dental curricula. *Journal of Dental Education, 83*(2), 127–136. https://doi.org/10.21815/jde.019.015

U.S. News & World Report. *Health specialty school rankings*. Retrieved January 1, 2020, from https://www.usnews.com/best-graduate-schools/top-health-schools

Yousif, H., Ayogu, N., & Bell, T. (2020). The path forward—an antiracist approach to academic medicine. *New England Journal of Medicine, 383*(15), Article e91. https://doi.org/10.1056/nejmpv2024535

Appendix A. Interview Guide

Key Informant/Institution Background

First, I want to ask you some questions about yourself and your institution/program.

1. Where do you work and what is your role?
2. How do you define "experiential learning"? What words/phrases do you use to describe these types of programs?
3. What experiential education models is your program/profession/institution using?

Program Information

Next, I want to ask you some questions about the specific [term they use to describe their program] program at your institution/department. [For experts: Next, I want to ask you some questions about the program models you support.]

4. Tell me about the specific program you lead.

   Probe for:
   - *Years implemented*
   - *Number of students served*
   - *Faculty and staff involvement*
   - *Resources required*

Development

5. Can you tell me more about how the program was developed? [*For experts*: Do you have a sense of how the program was developed?]

   Probes:
   - *Who was involved? What kind of initial support did they have?*
   - *Why did they decide to begin the program?*
   - *Who provided input on the program development (students, community partners, faculty)?*

6. What competencies are taught and assessed through your program? [*For experts*: Do you know if any of these models address competencies related to social determinants of health or health equity? If so, how?]

   Probe:
   - *Are any of the competencies related to social determinants of health or health equity?*

Now, we're going to talk about implementing the program.

7. What have you learned from implementing the programs? [*For experts*: What do you think the lessons learned are from implementing these types of programs?]

   Probes:
   - *What are the best practices for running this type of program?*
   - *Are there things you make sure to do every time?*

8. What have been the major challenges in implementing your program? [*For experts*: What do you think the major challenges are, implementing these types of programs?]
9. How do you assess student outcomes or community impact in your program? How do those assessments relate to the competencies on social determinants of health? [*For experts*: How do you think students' outcomes or community impact are assessed in these programs?]
10. What is the role of the preceptor/supervisor/community partner and what kind of commitment is required of them?

Probes:
- *Do you get feedback from community partners on the program?*
- *Has the program been modified based on that feedback?*
- *How many community sites do you engage with? How were they recruited? Has there been any turnover in community sites?*

11. How does the program fit into the larger curriculum (related coursework/prerequisites)?
12. What kind of students participate in the program? Do you get feedback from students on their experiences? Has the program been modified based on that feedback? [*For experts*: How involved are students in the model development or implementation?]
13. How is the program funded? What are the major costs for the program? [*For experts*: Do you know how these models are funded?]
14. How has it been sustained over time? What changes have been made since the program was first implemented? [*For experts*: Do you know how these models are sustained over time?]
15. Do you think the program has been effective in ensuring students have learned to recognize and appropriately address issues of cultural competency/social determinants of health/disparities in health status/implicit bias? [*For experts*: Do you think these models have been effective in ensuring students have learned to recognize and appropriately address issues of cultural competency/social determinants of health/disparities in health status/implicit bias?]

What Does the Field Need?

Lastly, I'd like to ask you about what you think about these programs more broadly, outside your institution.

16. What would students in your profession benefit from that isn't currently being done?
17. Are you aware of any model programs? Have you seen things done elsewhere that you would want to try?
18. Which skills/competencies do you think are best taught through experiential learning?
19. Are you aware of the National Academies report and recommendations regarding teaching health professional students social determinants of health through experiential education?

Appendix B.

Table 2. Experiential and Health Equity Accreditation Requirements by Profession

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
Medical	Liaison Committee on Medical Education (LCME, 2021)	**Standard 6: Competencies, Curricular Objectives, and Curricular Design** *6.6. Service-Learning* The faculty of a medical school ensure that the medical education program provides sufficient opportunities for, encourages, and supports medical student participation in service-learning and/or community service activities.	**Standard 7: Curricular Content** *7.6. Cultural Competence and Health Care Disparities* The faculty of a medical school ensure that the medical curriculum provides opportunities for medical students to learn to recognize and appropriately address biases in themselves, in others, and in the health care delivery process. The medical curriculum includes content regarding the following: • The diverse manner in which people perceive health and illness and respond to various symptoms, diseases, and treatments • The basic principles of culturally competent health care • Recognition of the impact of disparities in health care on all populations and potential methods to eliminate health care disparities • The knowledge, skills, and core professional attributes needed to provide effective care in a multidimensional and diverse society
	Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education (ACGME, 2018)	**IV.B. ACGME Competencies** *IV.B.1.d) Practice-based Learning and Improvement* Residents/Fellows must demonstrate the ability to investigate and evaluate their care of patients, to appraise and assimilate scientific evidence, and to continuously improve patient care based on constant self-evaluation and lifelong learning.	**IV.B. ACGME Competencies** *IV.B.1.f) Systems-based Practice* Residents/Fellows must demonstrate an awareness of and responsiveness to the larger context and system of health care, including the social determinants of health, as well as the ability to call effectively on other resources to provide optimal health care.

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
Dental	Commission on Dental Accreditation (CODA, 2021)	**Clinical Sciences** *2-26. Dental education programs must make available opportunities and encourage students to engage in service learning experiences and/or community-based learning experiences.* Intent: Service learning experiences and/or community-based learning experiences are essential to the development of a culturally competent oral health care workforce. The interaction and treatment of diverse populations in a community-based clinical environment adds a special dimension to clinical learning experience and engenders a life-long appreciation for the value of community service.	**Behavioral Sciences** *2-17. Graduates must be competent in managing a diverse patient population and have the interpersonal and communications skills to function successfully in a multicultural work environment.* Intent: Students should learn about factors and practices associated with disparities in health status among subpopulations, including but not limited to, racial, ethnic, geographic, or socioeconomic groups. In this manner, students will be best prepared for dental practice in a diverse society when they learn in an environment characterized by, and supportive of, diversity and inclusion. Such an environment should facilitate dental education in: • basic principles of culturally competent health care; • recognition of health care disparities and the development of solutions; • the importance of meeting the health care needs of dentally underserved populations, and; • the development of core professional attributes, such as altruism, empathy, and social accountability, needed to provide effective care in a multi-dimensionally diverse society
	American Dental Education Association (ADEA, 2008)	Not mentioned.	**Communication and Interpersonal Skills** *3.3. Communicate effectively with individuals from diverse populations.* **Health Promotion** *4.3. Recognize and appreciate the need to contribute to the improvement of oral health beyond those served in traditional practice settings.*

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
Nursing	Commission on Collegiate Nursing Education (CCNE, 2018)	**Standard III: Program Quality—Curriculum and Teaching-Learning Practices** *III-G. Teaching-learning practices:* • *support the achievement of expected student outcomes;* • *consider the needs and expectations of the identified community of interest; and* • *expose students to individuals with diverse life experiences, perspectives, and backgrounds.* Elaboration: Teaching-learning practices (e.g., simulation, lecture, flipped classroom, case studies) in all environments (e.g., virtual, classroom, clinical experiences, distance education, laboratory) support achievement of expected student outcomes identified in course, unit, and/or level objectives. Teaching-learning practices are appropriate to the student population (e.g., adult learners, second language students, students in a post-graduate APRN certificate program), consider the needs of the program-identified community of interest, and broaden student perspectives.	Not mentioned.

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
Nursing	Council on Accreditation of Nurse Anesthesia Educational Programs (COA, 2019)	Not mentioned.	**Standard III: Program of Study** *C21. The program demonstrates that graduates have acquired knowledge, skills and competencies in patient safety, perianesthetic management, critical thinking, communication, and the competencies needed to fulfill their professional responsibility.* b.9. Individualized perianesthetic management is demonstrated by the ability of the graduate to deliver culturally competent perianesthetic care throughout the anesthesia experience.
	Accreditation Commission for Midwifery Education (ACME, 2019)	Not mentioned.	**Criterion IV: Curriculum** *M. The midwifery program provides content throughout the curriculum about implicit bias and health disparities related to race, gender, age, sexual orientation, disability, nationality, and religion.* The American College of Nurse-Midwives (ACNM) is committed to eliminating racism and racial bias in the midwifery profession and race-based disparities in reproductive health care. The American College of Nurse-Midwives (ACNM) supports efforts to provide transgender, transsexual, and gender variant individuals with access to safe, comprehensive, culturally competent health care.
	Accreditation Commission for Education in Nursing (ACEN, 2021)	**STANDARD 4. Curriculum** *4.9. Student clinical experiences and practice learning environments are evidence-based; reflect contemporary practice and nationally established patient health and safety goals; and support the achievement of the end-of-program student learning outcomes.*	**STANDARD 4. Curriculum** *4.5. The curriculum includes cultural, ethnic, and socially diverse concepts and may also include experiences from regional, national, or global perspectives.*

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
Social work	Council on Social Work Education (CSWE, 2015)	**Educational Policy 2.2—Signature Pedagogy: Field Education** The intent of field education is to integrate the theoretical and conceptual contribution of the classroom with the practical world of the practice setting. It is a basic precept of social work education that the two interrelated components of curriculum—classroom and field—are of equal importance within the curriculum, and each contributes to the development of the requisite competencies of professional practice. Field education is systematically designed, supervised, coordinated, and evaluated based on criteria by which students demonstrate the Social Work Competencies. Field education may integrate forms of technology as a component of the program. 2.2.1. The program explains how its field education program connects the theoretical and conceptual contributions of the classroom and field settings. 2.2.2. The program explains how its field education program provides generalist practice opportunities for students to demonstrate social work competencies with individuals, families, groups, organizations, and communities and illustrates how this is accomplished in field settings.	**Competency 2: Engage Diversity and Difference in Practice** Social workers understand how diversity and difference characterize and shape the human experience and are critical to the formation of identity. The dimensions of diversity are understood as the intersectionality of multiple factors including but not limited to age, class, color, culture, disability and ability, ethnicity, gender, gender identity and expression, immigration status, marital status, political ideology, race, religion/spirituality, sex, sexual orientation, and tribal sovereign status. Social workers understand that, as a consequence of difference, a person's life experiences may include oppression, poverty, marginalization, and alienation as well as privilege, power, and acclaim. Social workers also understand the forms and mechanisms of oppression and discrimination and recognize the extent to which a culture's structures and values, including social, economic, political, and cultural exclusions, may oppress, marginalize, alienate, or create privilege and power. Social workers: • apply and communicate understanding of the importance of diversity and difference in shaping life experiences in practice at the micro, mezzo, and macro levels; • present themselves as learners and engage clients and constituencies as experts of their own experiences; and • apply self-awareness and self-regulation to manage the influence of personal biases and values in working with diverse clients and constituencies **Competency 3: Advance Human Rights and Social, Economic, and Environmental Justice** Social workers understand that every person regardless of position in society has fundamental human rights such as freedom, safety, privacy, an adequate standard of living, health care, and education. Social workers understand the global interconnections of oppression and

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
		2.2.4. The program explains how students across all program options in its field education program demonstrate social work competencies through in-person contact with clients and constituencies. 2.2.5. The program describes how its field education program provides a minimum of 400 hours of field education for baccalaureate programs and a minimum of 900 hours for master's programs. 2.2.6. The program provides its criteria for admission into field education and explains how its field education program admits only those students who have met the program's specified criteria. 2.2.7. The program describes how its field education program specifies policies, criteria, and procedures for selecting field settings; placing and monitoring students; supporting student safety; and evaluating student learning and field setting effectiveness congruent with the social work competencies. 2.2.8. The program describes how its field education program maintains contact with field settings across all program options. The program explains how on-site contact or other methods are used to monitor student learning and field setting effectiveness.	human rights violations, and are knowledgeable about theories of human need and social justice and strategies to promote social and economic justice and human rights. Social workers understand strategies designed to eliminate oppressive structural barriers to ensure that social goods, rights, and responsibilities are distributed equitably and that civil, political, environmental, economic, social, and cultural human rights are protected. Social workers: • apply their understanding of social, economic, and environmental justice to advocate for human rights at the individual and system levels; and • engage in practices that advance social, economic, and environmental justice.

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
		2.2.9. The program describes how its field education program specifies the credentials and practice experience of its field instructors necessary to design field learning opportunities for students to demonstrate program social work competencies. Field instructors for master's students hold a master's degree in social work from a CSWE-accredited program and have 2 years post-master's social work practice experience. For cases in which a field instructor does not hold a CSWE-accredited social work degree or does not have the required experience, the program assumes responsibility for reinforcing a social work perspective and describes how this is accomplished. 2.2.10. The program describes how its field education program provides orientation, field instruction training, and continuing dialog with field education settings and field instructors. 2.2.11. The program describes how its field education program develops policies regarding field placements in an organization in which the student is also employed. To ensure the role of student as learner, student assignments and field education supervision are not the same as those of the student's employment.	

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
Public health	Council on Education for Public Health (CEPH, 2021)	**D5. MPH Applied Practice Experiences** MPH students demonstrate competency attainment through applied practice experiences. Applied practice experiences may be concentrated in time or may be spread throughout a student's enrollment. Opportunities may include the following: • a practicum or internship completed during a summer or academic term • course-based activities (e.g., performing a needed task for a public health or health care organization under the supervision of a faculty member as an individual or group of students) • activities linked to service learning, as defined by the program, school or university • co-curricular activities (e.g., service and volunteer opportunities, such as those organized by a student association) • a blend of for-credit and/or not-for-credit activities Applied practice experiences may involve governmental, non-governmental,	**D2. MPH Foundational Competencies** *Public Health & Health Care Systems* 6. Discuss the means by which structural bias, social inequities and racism undermine health and create challenges to achieving health equity at organizational, community and systemic levels *Planning & Management to Promote Health* 7. Assess population needs, assets and capacities that affect communities' health 8. Apply awareness of cultural values and practices to the design, implementation or critique of public health policies or programs *Policy in Public Health* 14. Advocate for political, social or economic policies and programs that will improve health in diverse populations 15. Evaluate policies for their impact on public health and health equity *Communication* 20. Describe the importance of cultural competence in communicating public health content **G1. Diversity and Cultural Competence** The school or program defines systematic, coherent and long-term efforts to incorporate elements of diversity. Diversity considerations relate to faculty, staff, students, curriculum, scholarship and community engagement efforts. The school or program also provides a learning environment that prepares students with broad competencies regarding diversity and cultural competence, recognizing that graduates may be employed anywhere in the world and will work with diverse populations.

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
		non-profit, industrial and for-profit settings or appropriate university-affiliated settings. To be appropriate for applied practice experience activities, university-affiliated settings must be primarily focused on community engagement, typically with external partners. University health promotion or wellness centers may also be appropriate. The school or program identifies sites in a manner that is sensitive to the needs of the agencies or organizations involved. Activities meeting the applied practice experience should be mutually beneficial to both the site and the student. The applied practice experiences allow each student to demonstrate attainment of at least five competencies, of which at least three must be foundational competencies (as defined in Criterion D2). The competencies need not be identical from student to student, but the applied experiences must be structured to ensure that all students complete experiences addressing at least five competencies, as specified above. The applied experiences may also address additional foundational or concentration-specific competencies, if appropriate.	Schools and programs advance diversity and cultural competency through a variety of practices, which may include the following: • incorporation of diversity and cultural competency considerations in the curriculum • recruitment and retention of diverse faculty, staff and students • development and/or implementation of policies that support a climate of equity and inclusion, free of harassment and discrimination • reflection of diversity and cultural competence in the types of scholarship and/or community engagement conducted Aspects of diversity may include age, country of birth, disability, ethnicity, gender, gender identity, language, national origin, race, historical under-representation, refugee status, religion, culture, sexual orientation, health status, community affiliation and socioeconomic status. This list is not intended to be exhaustive. Cultural competence, in this criterion's context, refers to competencies for working with diverse individuals and communities in ways that are appropriate and responsive to relevant cultural factors. Requisite competencies include self-awareness, open-minded inquiry and assessment and the ability to recognize and adapt to cultural differences, especially as these differences may vary from the school or program's dominant culture. Reflecting on the public health context, recognizing that cultural differences affect all aspects of health and health systems, cultural competence refers to the competencies for recognizing and adapting to cultural differences and being conscious of these differences in the school or program's scholarship and/or community engagement.

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
		The school or program assesses each student's competency attainment in practical and applied settings through a portfolio approach, which demonstrates and allows assessment of competency attainment. It must include at least two products. Examples include written assignments, projects, videos, multi-media presentations, spreadsheets, websites, posters, photos or other digital artifacts of learning. Materials may be produced and maintained (either by the school or program or by individual students) in any physical or electronic form chosen by the school or program. The materials may originate from multiple experiences (e.g., applied community-based courses and service learning courses throughout the curriculum) or a single, intensive experience (e.g., an internship requiring a significant time commitment with one site). While students may complete experiences as individuals or as groups in a structured experience, each student must present documentation demonstrating individual competency attainment.	
Pharmacy	Accreditation Council for Pharmacy Education (ACPE, 2015)	**Standard 12: Pre-Advanced Pharmacy Practice Experience (Pre-APPE) Curriculum** *12.5. Introductory Pharmacy Practice Experience (IPPE) expectations*	**Standard 3: Approach to Practice and Care** *3.5. Cultural sensitivity* The graduate is able to recognize social determinants of health to diminish disparities and inequities in access to quality care.

Table continues on next page.

Table 2. Continued

Profession	Accrediting body	Experiential education requirement	Health equity requirement
		IPPEs expose students to common contemporary U.S. practice models, including interprofessional practice involving shared patient care decision-making, professional ethics and expected behaviors, and direct patient care activities. IPPEs are structured and sequenced to intentionally develop in students a clear understanding of what constitutes exemplary pharmacy practice in the U.S. prior to beginning APPE. *12.6. IPPE duration* IPPE totals no less than 300 clock hours of experience and is purposely integrated into the didactic curriculum. A minimum of 150 hours of IPPE are balanced between community and institutional health-system settings. *12.7. Simulation for IPPE* Simulated practice experiences (a maximum of 60 clock hours of the total 300 hours) may be used to mimic actual or realistic pharmacist delivered patient care situations. However, simulation hours do not substitute for the 150 clock hours of required IPPE time in community and institutional health-system settings. Didactic instruction associated with the implementation of simulated practice experiences is not counted toward any portion of the 300 clock hour IPPE requirement.	

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 99, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Higher Education Outreach via Student Organizations: Students Leading the Way

Jennifer A. Jones and Elaine H. Giles

Abstract

Higher education outreach and engagement often occurs through student volunteering. Student organizations are one understudied and undertapped mechanism that facilitates such connections. We examined the experience of student leaders of student organizations that promoted volunteerism among their members. The mixed-methods study included a survey (n = 26) and follow-up interviews (n = 5). We found that participants' organizations were highly involved in the community and that participants gained valuable leadership skills in this role. We also found that participants had relatively little insight concerning the community partners' experience of the collaboration. We identified sampling as a unique challenge for this theoretical population and, in the discussion, provide considerations and recommendations for future scholars.

Keywords: volunteerism, service-learning, higher education, outreach, engagement

Institutions of higher education typically engage in communities through a multitude of channels. Student volunteer activities constitute an important channel for community engagement. Student volunteerism has a number of benefits for both the student and the community. Students benefit by exposure to experiences that shape their personal and professional lives (Carlisle et al., 2017; Caswell, 2018; Whitekiller & Bang, 2018). Nonprofit and governmental organizations (also known as "community partners") benefit from unpaid labor, affiliation with educational institutions, and an opportunity to recruit high-quality future staff (Edwards et al., 2001). A wide body of literature addresses student volunteerism as service-learning—for example, as part of a directed learning activity (see, e.g., Jones & Lee, 2017). However, students often also volunteer through student organizations. Very little is known about this form of student volunteering.

This article describes a mixed-methods study examining the experiences of students who coordinate student volunteerism through student organizations. We surveyed and conducted follow-up interviews with the service leaders of student organizations engaged in service at a large public university in the Southeastern United States. We found (a) participants' organizations were highly involved in the community, (b) participants gained valuable leadership skills in this role, and (c) participants had relatively little insight into the community partners' experience of the collaboration. We also identified sampling as a unique challenge for this theoretical population and, in the discussion, provide considerations and recommendations for future scholars.

Literature Review

This literature review is divided into three parts. First, we present research related to student organizations (SO) in higher education. This step includes describing the national dimensions of such SOs and identifying their role and their impact on students and the surrounding community.

Second, we present research related to student volunteerism, including both benefits and challenges. Third, we present research related to the challenges of who should be responsible for SOs' training and their service endeavors. We conclude by identifying research questions at the intersection of these bodies of literature and which were explored in this study.

Student Organizations in Higher Education

Overview

SOs are organizations formed and operated by students for an expressly stated purpose as established by their student members. The first SO was the Oxford Union, established in 1823; today, SOs are a staple on most college and university campuses (Arminio, 2015; Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2015). The missions of these organizations can vary widely and can focus on areas such as academics, service, arts, politics, identity, or sports and recreation. Sororities and fraternities are also considered SOs. These organizations typically have bylaws and a charter that codify the purpose of the organization, the leadership structure, and the processes through which the general student body may become involved (either as members or through events). On most campuses, SOs are required to have a faculty advisor to provide behind-the-scenes direction and support. SOs are registered and overseen by the dean of students (or other similar body).

Role

SOs—also called campus organizations—typically fall under the purview of student affairs professionals, and they play an important role in multiple layers of the community: professional development for students as individuals, community development within the institution, and, germane to this article, informal higher education community outreach. SOs play a role in students' professional and personal development (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2015). The process of starting and/or leading an organization provides a long-term professional development opportunity, the fruits of which can be documented in a résumé and described to future employers. These benefits related to community service leadership will be described in the following section.

SOs also play an important role in community development within the institution. The structure of SOs provides a way for students to meet and befriend like-minded peers as well as peers they might otherwise not have met. Consequently, SOs also play an important role in helping students develop psychosocial and leadership identities, particularly students of minoritized backgrounds (Ferrari et al., 2010; Renn & Ozaki, 2010). These organizations can also increase both intra- and interracial friendships among students (Guiffrida, 2003; Park, 2014). Additionally, organizational membership can improve the overall campus experience of international students. International students benefit service-learning in unique ways (Kwenani & Yu, 2018), and SOs can minimize barriers to volunteering by, for example, providing group transportation and having peers help the international student address cultural and language concerns.

Finally, SOs also play an important role in higher education community outreach. This is particularly true for land-grant universities that serve to "create engaged citizens, provide social mobility, and foster students' commitment to democracy and service" (Schuh et al., 2011, p. 63). SOs frequently hold community service as a primary or secondary objective. Most campuses have a service SO whose primary purpose is community service (Jacoby, 2015). Community service in this case can include traditional volunteering activities, such as helping an animal shelter or food kitchen, as well as political and social activism, such as voter registration and promoting civil rights.

This community outreach function extends beyond the local area: Students often connect through their SOs to national and international organizations. For example, students may form a SO that supports the mission of a national charity such as March of Dimes. Some national organizations, including but not limited to fraternities and sororities, provide financial or technical support to SOs on college campuses (see, for example, American Association of University Women, n.d.; March of Dimes, n.d.) This support advances the work of the SO, and it also brings resources to the local community and builds students' professional network and interpersonal skills.

Impact

The work of SOs impacts the students, the college or university, and the local community. Students involved in SOs are generally more academically successful; however, results of such involvement vary by race and gender (Baker, 2008). The college or university benefits because SOs increase connectivity among students, promote faculty–student interaction, and provide a low-cost, high-value contribution to students' social and professional development. According to Rios-Aguilar et al. (2015), one in four university first-year students reported being involved in student-led organizations during their first year in college. Imagine that all these students involved in a SO participated in one cocurricular service experience. The local community benefits because SOs frequently promote and create opportunities for members to volunteer in the community, such as raising money for a local cause, hosting food or clothing drives for a local cause, and providing individual or group volunteers for service projects. Because these SOs exist beyond the tenure of the individual students, relationships between SOs and community partners can potentially span years or even decades. Thus, it is worth examining student volunteerism through SOs as a form of higher education outreach.

Student Volunteerism and Service-Learning

Students volunteer for a variety of reasons, including to gain professional experience, to fulfill a class requirement, to fulfill a requirement for membership in a SO such as a sorority or fraternity, and to develop a professional network (Carlisle et al., 2017; Mitchell & Rost-Banik, 2019). Of all these motivations, volunteering as part of a course requirement—also known as service-learning—is arguably the most closely studied. In fact, multiple academic journals and conferences are dedicated to the study of service-learning (e.g., *The Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education*, *The International Journal for Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement*, and *The Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*).

A smaller amount of scholarly literature addresses cocurricular service in the academy. In her book *Service-Learning Essentials*, Barbara Jacoby (2015) mentioned that institutions should offer a wide range of curricular and cocurricular service-learning experiences at different levels of frequency, duration, intensity, and level of commitment. Cocurricular service activities exist in myriad places in higher education—SOs, residential halls, living learning communities, orientation programs, first-year seminars, capstone courses, alternative break service trips, scholarship programs like the Bonner Program, Federal Work-Study, campus ministries, study abroad programs, and sororities and fraternities (Jacoby, 2015; Meisel, 2007). Among the many cocurricular service options, alternative break experiences and the Bonner Scholars program are two of the most commonly studied. In 2015, three experts on alternative break programs coauthored *Working Side by Side: Creating Alternative Breaks as Catalysts for Global Learning, Student Leadership, and Social Change* (Sumka et al., 2015). The book not only reviews best practices for constructing a successful alternative break program but also explores student learning gains. Additionally, the Bonner Foundation team have authored a number of articles and publications about the impact of the Bonner Program, its evolution, and the field of campus–community engagement (The Corella and Bertram F. Bonner Foundation, n.d.). Although alternative break trips and the Bonner Program have been studied, scant research exists on how autonomous SOs and their leaders prepare, engage, and make meaning from their cocurricular service experience.

Student volunteerism provides a number of benefits. Volunteering experiences can provide professional development opportunities, a chance to exercise leadership, and exposure to careers and people they would have otherwise not had. All of these factors can have a positive impact on the trajectory of students' personal and professional lives (Carlisle et al., 2017; Caswell, 2018; Whitekiller & Bang, 2018). The organizations through which students volunteer—typically nonprofit and government organizations often called "community partners"—can also benefit. Examples of these benefits include access to unpaid labor, affiliation with the college or university that can lead to future opportunities, and, in some cases, an opportunity to screen and recruit future staff (Edwards et al., 2001).

This literature would be incomplete without a discussion of the numerous challenges related to service-learning. For students, mandated service experiences can be per-

ceived negatively (Henney et al., 2017) and potentially decrease student motivations (Beehr et al., 2010). Service-learning as currently practiced often reinforces a colonizer mindset and dynamic, strains town–gown relations, and may reinforce the very social ills students and faculty attempt to address (Hernandez, 2018; Smaller & O'Sullivan, 2018). Additionally, lower income students who work one or more jobs may not have time to volunteer and thus lose a résumé-building opportunity (Gage & Thapa, 2012). For community partners, challenges include lower quality work, costs associated with volunteer administration, risks related to safety and community relations, and difficulties associated with scheduling (Skulan, 2018).

Who Should Be Responsible for Preparing SOs for Cocurricular Service?

Student preparedness for service is a known challenge and issue for both curricular and cocurricular experiences. SOs sometimes do not have the guidance and support of service-learning courses, first-year seminars, or capstone projects, which provide a knowledgeable faculty or staff member and a structured set of expectations. Jacoby (2015) mentioned a lack of intentional advising and mentorship support as one of the challenges with cocurricular service experiences. Specifically, advisors of cocurricular service experiences are "walking a fine line between maintaining accountability to outcomes and partnerships on the one hand and allowing students the latitude to make and learn from mistakes on the other" (p. 124).

Although the SO leaders who coordinate the cocurricular service initiatives should oversee the training of their peers' service experiences, SO leaders may choose not to engage their peers in education and reflection. One reason is that their peers may find it too rigorous for an activity that is supposed to be cocurricular (Meisel, 2007). Unlike alternative break programs where a staff member can help facilitate the tension between the student leaders and their peers, autonomous SOs may not have that kind of support. Lacking appropriate education, training, and reflection, SO participants may not know enough about the communities they are serving with and cause unintentional harm (Meisel, 2007).

Although educational institutions require that SOs have a designated faculty or staff member advisor, the relationship between the SOs and their advisors can vary from integral to nonexistent. Kane (2017) attributes this disjointed relationship to history: Early student organizations were formed to step away from the structure and demands of the university. Student activities departments (or similar bodies) have the institutional responsibility to establish and enforce policies for SOs, but those departments usually lack sufficient staff to deeply and intentionally advise all SOs. Further, not all college faculty and staff members who might serve as advisors have a student development background to help SOs succeed, much less knowledge about cocurricular service experiences. Kane (2017) reported that many SO advisors learned how to advise through trial and error. We acknowledge that trial and error can be a great teaching tool; however, it should not be used when training students to work with community partners where the stakes are higher.

In *Service-Learning Essentials*, Jacoby (2015) mentioned that a best practice for curricular and cocurricular service-learning experiences is for the service-learning center (or similar center, such as a campus volunteer center) to provide training and guidance to other campus entities who engage in service work. However, many of these centers may be understaffed, supported by one full-time staff member and student staff (Jacoby, 2015). With a campus of 1,000 SOs, a single staff member cannot provide adequate training and support to all SOs while also managing other aspects of the center. Conversely, campus volunteer centers may have the staff but lack the bandwidth to provide extra training. Their centers' portfolio may have large initiatives and programs such as the Bonner Program and alternative break experiences that require high amounts of staff oversight. For example, the Bonner Program has cohorts of no more than five to 40 students whose participation in service is closely evaluated and assessed (The Corella and Bertram F. Bonner Foundation, n.d.). Additionally, a hefty financial component comes with being a Bonner Scholar. Given the financial incentive, intense program evaluation, and small cohorts of students, institutions have invested significant human resources for oversight of the Bonner experiences, which may not leave them time to invest in other students' service experiences (Meisel, 2007). Similarly, alternative break programs require a huge human resource investment. According to Break Away (the

national headquarters for alternative break programs), 95% of alternative break programs reported some sort of staff involvement in the creation and execution of the alternative break program. Similarly, 61% of alternative break programs had a full-time staff member who devoted 10–40 hours or more per week to the program (Break Away, 2019). If campus volunteer center staff didn't have these large initiatives to oversee, they would have more time to dedicate to training SOs and their leaders to create quality cocurricular service experiences.

What about community partners themselves? In their study, Tryon and Madden (2019) shared that community partners are quick to point out that their staff are the best to provide training, as they have the most up-to-date knowledge. However, community partners may lack time for advanced student preparation, and the university may not have the funding to compensate their staff for this extra work (Tryon & Madden, 2019).

Thus many universities lack the capacity to provide or are not providing for all SOs the developmental learning experiences required for cocurricular service experiences. Nonetheless, thousands of college students can participate in cocurricular service on their own initiative. Without proper quality control, education, training, and reflection as part of the cocurricular service experience, some SO volunteers may cause unintentional harm through their service by being underprepared, not showing up, or reinforcing negative stereotypes.

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to explore the experience of students who volunteer through SOs. Our research questions were as follows:

- What are common challenges faced in collaborations between student organizations and community partners?
- What are some traits of successful collaborations between student organizations and community partners?
- What is the leadership capacity of the student leaders and SOs?

Research Design and Methodology

To address the aforementioned research questions, we used a mixed-methods explanatory design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). First, we surveyed the leaders of SOs engaged in service activities at a large public university in the Southeastern United States. Then, we conducted follow-up interviews. Data from the survey and interviews were analyzed separately and then compared. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Florida.

Sampling

The theoretical population was on-campus SOs engaged in service activities. We established two for inclusion in the study: being a student who was either (a) president of a student service organization or (b) serving in a volunteer chair or community service officer position. However, this population proved difficult to sample, and, in the Discussion section of this article, we address issues and provide suggestions for future research.

We collected email addresses via the university's online directory and management system. This system categorizes the SOs (e.g., service organizations, fraternities/sororities/etc.) and lists contact information for the organizations' officers. As of December 2018, there were approximately 1,000 registered SOs on this campus. All students who met the criteria were included in the survey (n = 203).

The first round of purposive sampling was through a series of three emails sent to the university email addresses of the 203 students who fit the criteria. In response to a lower than expected response rate from the initial sampling, we advertised the study via Facebook pages these student leaders would likely follow (i.e., university-based service-learning-oriented Facebook pages) and through announcements in courses that emphasize service-learning.

We received a total of 38 responses, 26 of which were complete and usable (13% response rate). At the end of the survey students were asked if they were willing to be part of a focus group. Of the 26 respondents, five agreed to be contacted for a focus group. Because of this low number of volunteers, we transitioned from focus groups to interviews. Four of the five students responded to scheduling requests and were interviewed for this study.

The final sample included leaders represent-

ing a wide range of organizational missions, including fraternities and sororities, human service–oriented groups, and political and leadership-oriented groups. Eighty-eight percent of the participants held formal positions in their service organization, including president/executive director (54%), community service chair (15%), public relations officer (4%), or another similar function, such as event coordinator or ambassador.

Data Collection and Analysis

First, we developed and administered a 29-item survey (see Appendix A). The survey was organized in four parts related to the research questions: general processes, successful collaborations, challenging collaborations, and leadership capacity. The survey included a mix of open- and close-ended questions. Data from close-ended questions were analyzed with descriptive statistics using SPSS software. Data from open-ended questions were coded thematically using an emergent coding process (Saldaña, 2009). The survey was distributed January and February 2019.

Next, we developed a semi-structured interview protocol (see Appendix B) and conducted four follow-up interviews in March and April 2019. These interviews were conducted either in person or over the phone, were recorded, and lasted 20–30 minutes. Interviews were summarized, and the summaries were analyzed thematically (Patton, 2002) to identify insights related to the research questions.

Findings

This section is divided into five parts. In the first four, we report survey findings related to (1) general processes SOs follow in engaging with community partners, (2) highly successful collaborations, (3) challenging or unsuccessful collaborations, and (4) participants' leadership capacity and development as it relates to leading service projects. Finally, we present three insights identified through the follow-up interviews.

General Processes

Most (88.5%) of the sample considered service to be their group's primary purpose, and 11.5% considered it to be a secondary purpose. (Here and throughout, percentages often do not total 100 due to rounding.) These groups were heavily active in service, with most groups participating in service projects on a monthly (46%) or weekly (31%) basis. Fifteen percent participated in service daily, and only 8% participated on a semesterly basis. Eighty-eight percent of the organizations focused on group projects, and 12% engaged in a combination of individual and group projects.

All participants indicated they could easily find service opportunities that were a good fit, and 83% indicated there is always something for their members to do (see Table 1). Additionally, 83% reported their members engage in learning about the community partner social issues they are addressing prior to performing service. Only 50% indicated their members participated in a training by the community partners, and 58% engaged in some sort of debriefing process.

Notably, only 25% of respondents believed their members would not engage in service without the group, and 92% openly encouraged members to engage in individual, long-term service opportunities.

When asked how much time they estimated a community partner must spend in preparation for their group's service project, 42% of participants indicated less than one hour, 42% indicated between one and three hours, and 17% indicated between 3 and 5 hours.

Successful Collaborations

Participants were asked to reflect upon a particularly successful collaboration and identify what might have contributed to that success. Most of these collaborations involved one to 10 students (44%) or 11 to 20 students (56%), with fewer being 31 to 50 students (11%) or more than 50 (11%).

Participants were asked to rate the fit of the community partner for what their members wanted out of a volunteer experience. Rating was on a 0–10 scale where 10 indicated the "best fit ever." As would be expected for a successful partnership, most of the sample rated fit highly, either as a 10 (22%), 9 (11%), or 8 (33%). Eleven percent rated the fit as a 7, and, surprisingly, 22 percent rated the fit as a 4. This result suggests it is possible to have a successful collaboration even without a so-called perfect fit.

When planning for these successful collaborations, 40% of the sample began planning more than 4 weeks in advance. Thirty percent began planning 3 weeks in advance, and 30% began planning 2 weeks in advance.

Table 1. Participants' Reporting of Interaction With Community Partner

	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral/Not Applicable	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree
Our organization has a strong working relationship with a staff member of our community partners.	67%	17%	17%
Our organization logs or documents members' service experiences.	75%	17%	8%
I can easily find service opportunities that are a good fit for my student organization's members.	100%	0%	0%
When I serve with a community partner, there is always something for my organization to do.	83%	17%	0%
My student organization and I engage in learning about the community partner or the social issue they address prior to doing service.	83%	8%	8%
My organization's members participate in an orientation or training given by the community partner prior to service.	50%	42%	8%
My organization members debrief the experience and apply what they have learned to other service experiences.	58%	25%	17%
My organization members typically feel well prepared prior to engaging in service.	83%	17%	0%
I believe my members would not serve on their own without the group experience.	25%	34%	42%
I would be open to encouraging my members to engage in individual long-term service opportunities as opposed to group projects.	92%	8%	0%

Note. Some percentages do not total 100 due to rounding.

Challenging Collaborations

Participants were asked to reflect upon a particularly challenging or unsuccessful collaboration and identify what might have contributed to the challenges experienced. Most of these collaborations involved one to 10 students (71%), with fewer involving 11 to 20 (14%) or 21 to 30 (14%).

Participants were asked to rate the fit of the community partner for what their members wanted out of a volunteer experience. Seven participants responded to this section. The answers included a wide range of ratings on the same 0–10 scale as the successful collaboration: 10 (14%), 8 (14%), 7 (14%), 5 (29%), 4 (14%), and even 1 (14%). This result indicates it is possible to have a challenging collaborative experience even with a good fit.

When planning for this challenging collaboration, most (67%) planned more than 4 weeks in advance. Seventeen percent planned 2 weeks in advance, and 17% planned less than one week in advance.

Leadership Capacity

Prior to their current leadership role in a SO, participants had exercised or learned about leadership through an average of 2.9 different functions, including serving as a mentor

to youth (86% of respondents), serving as a leader in a different youth organization (71%), working in a teaching position (57%), taking a leadership course (43%), and working in a supervisory position (29%).

Most participants (89%) indicated that the experience of coordinating student volunteers increased their leadership capacity. Only 66% indicated they were adequately prepared for the role. See Table 2.

Insights From the Interviews

Here we list the key insights identified through the four follow-up interviews we conducted.

First, coordinating students is difficult. Participants reported that students often were slow to respond, did not check email or complete waivers, and sometimes dropped out of service commitments at the last minute. Leading in this context is confounded by two factors: There was no way to discipline or punish students for noncompliance, and sometimes the volunteers were close friends of the participant, making it even harder to hold students accountable. Participants reported they learned over time how to lead in this context and did not have these skills prior to beginning their role.

Second, students have little understanding of what goes into coordinating a service project from the nonprofits' perspective. When asked how organizations prepare, most suggested activities like getting supplies and printing waivers. In general, there was little recognition of the time and money it takes to process volunteer applications, identify and plan for a group service project, or clean up and provide recognition afterward. Additionally, participants indicated students preferred to commit to service opportunities with only a week's notice, leaving a very short planning window for the organization. Only one participant identified the town–gown disconnect, and this participant indicated they were grateful to be able to improve town–gown relations through their members' service. One student did indicate that her nonprofit management courses helped her understand the nonprofit's perspective; however, when asked, she did not describe the types of activities or protocols nonprofits would need to have in place in order to facilitate group volunteering.

Third, participants felt the experience of leading their peers in service was rewarding and personally enriching. As one said, "I learned way more than I expected." They described learning about how to lead and manage their peers, communicate with strangers, and stay organized. They also described learning about the organizations in which they provided service. Volunteering in multiple organizations was described by one participant as "an education about the world."

Discussion

This study examined student volunteerism through SOs. The research questions were as follows: (a) What are common challenges faced in collaborations between student organizations and community partners? (b) What are some traits of successful collaborations between student organizations and community partners? and (c) What is the leadership capacity of the student leaders and SOs? These questions were addressed through a mixed-methods study that included a survey (n = 26) and

Table 2. Participants' Reporting of Their Leadership Development

	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral/Not Applicable	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree
I feel that the experience of coordinating student volunteers has increased my leadership capacity.	89%	11%	0%
I feel that I was adequately prepared for this leadership role.*	66%	33%	0%

**Percentages do not total 100 due to rounding.*

follow-up interviews (n = 5). In this section we first discuss issues with sampling and provide suggestions for future researchers. Then, we discuss the findings and integrate them into the existing literature. Third, we identify potential best practices and offer recommendations for higher education professionals. Finally, we address limitations and conclude by explaining the significance of the study.

Difficulties in Sampling This Theoretical Population

The original sample was 203 students, yet we were able to recruit only 28 (13%) into the study. This response rate is lower than general survey response rates (Baruch & Holtom, 2008), and it probably reflects a unique sampling challenge of this population. Student leaders of SOs are likely to be time challenged. Their leadership role suggests they excel in a number of areas, and their role in coordinating students is indicative of their deep engagement. In other words, we were sampling a subgroup of students who already have heavy demands on their time. Additionally, our initial sampling was conducted through email and, anecdotally, we have found that many students seldom check their university email account. In fact, one of the interviewees for this study, a student leader who coordinates more than 4,000 hours of service each semester, said she had to get better at checking email more regularly in order to be successful in her role. Future researchers should consider these sampling challenges when studying student volunteering through SOs. We suggest offering incentives for participation and identifying strategies such as partnering with the student affairs office or even administering the survey during a student affairs training provided to student club leaders. Creativity and convenience will likely be key.

Discussion of Findings and Integration With Literature

SOs are engaged in volunteer activity that furthers their organization's mission and provides a link between campuses and the communities in which they are located. We know from service-learning literature that student volunteerism can be both beneficial to the community partner and challenging (Beehr et al., 2010; Carlisle et al., 2017; Mitchell & Rost-Banik, 2019; Skulan, 2018). Students have unique scheduling needs, issues with transportation, and may or may not bring the level of professionalism or expertise community partners need (Jones, Giles, & Carroll, 2019; Skulan, 2018). Some of these challenges may be mitigated when students are engaged in directed service-learning experiences, such as through a class or campus volunteer center. In these cases, the faculty or staff member may be able to provide some training or guidance to students in order to improve outcomes for both the student and the community partner. However, SOs frequently operate independently and do not have the support of a trained campus-based professional. It is likely, therefore, that community partners will find SOs more challenging to work with compared to more structured service-learning opportunities. Alternatively, because of the regularity of these groups and their perpetuation over time, SOs may provide a consistent stream of volunteers valued by community partners. Both of these scenarios are probably at play depending largely on the stability and size of the SO (i.e., larger, more stable SOs may provide a more consistent and well-prepared cadre of volunteers over the years compared to smaller SOs). Of course, at this stage these are just conjectures. More research is needed.

Learning Opportunity for Higher Education Professionals

If we categorize volunteering through SOs as a form of higher education community engagement and outreach, it is important for higher education professionals to think about how this unique activity could be improved. First, we suggest higher education professionals consider providing more support to SOs engaged in higher education outreach. The foundational step in providing that support is building more intentional relationships with these SOs.

SOs may benefit if student affairs professionals or SO faculty advisors spend more time teaching SO officers management and supervision skills. As our interviewees described, student leaders often learn through trial and error how to lead their peers and hold their SO accountable to its goals. However, when an outside entity like a community partner is involved and reliant on SOs to supply volunteers, the stakes are much higher. Our data suggest students do not appreciate the impact of not supplying enough volunteers or not holding their members accountable to their service

commitments. The wakeup call comes, as some of our interviewees described, when community partners remove the SO from their volunteer schedules for the semester. Community partners can develop a negative view of the institution's student body through a negative experience working with a SO, which can harm the town–gown relationship. Because many SOs are self-governed and SO faculty advisor involvement can vary widely, SOs often do not have structured mentorship or supervision from someone who has extensive experiences serving or working alongside community partners and can advise on how to manage their peers through these experiences.

We also encourage higher education professionals to work with their colleagues in service-learning/volunteer centers or with reputable community partners to find ways to educate SOs on the processes that enable community partners to plan and implement a service project. This training would give student leaders a better sense of the timeline they need to establish for their peers to coordinate a service project. It would also be helpful to educate SOs on the needs of the community and the number of individual service opportunities available. This information would better enable students to craft their service opportunities around the needs of the community rather than student preferences.

Additionally, student affairs professionals and their colleagues in service-learning/volunteer centers can work together to identify SOs who may not have a primary or secondary focus on service but can meet a community need. For example, they could connect a SO that has focus on STEM to the local school district for tutoring opportunities in science and math.

Finally, SOs who perform service with community partners often fly under the radar when institutions measure the quantitative and qualitative impact colleges and universities have on their surrounding communities. This data is likely currently underreported in accrediting documents such as The Carnegie Foundation's Classification for Community Engagement or those provided by the Association for Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education (AASHE). Better documentation systems would be helpful in capturing and capitalizing on this data.

Limitations

This study has a number of limitations, the most important of which is the sample. We studied the student leaders of SOs at one large public university in the Southeastern United States. The study also collected self-reported data and thus is susceptible to voluntary response bias, nonresponse bias, and social desirability bias (Patton, 2002). Future research should consider other data collection methods (such as participant observation) to help mitigate such bias.

Finally, this study collected data about students' perceptions of their experience leading other students in their SOs to participate in volunteer service. We did not address the perspective of the community organizations. Research suggests there can be a mismatch between student interest and the needs of community organizations (Jones, Giles, & Carroll, 2019); in this study, it is possible that students' assessment of successful or challenging projects differs from the community organizations' assessment. Future research should address this missing piece.

Conclusion

This article addressed a gap in the literature: higher education engagement and outreach that occurs through informal volunteering of students through student organizations (SOs). Although we had some degree of difficulty accessing the study population, what we found should inform future studies. Specifically, we found that at least some percentage of student organizations were heavily engaged in service, coordinating these service experiences functioned as a leadership development opportunity for student leaders, and participants had relatively little insight into the experience of the volunteering activity for community partner agencies. This finding suggests that colleges and universities—particularly the student affairs offices—can play a role in educating and training student organizations to engage in best practices related to volunteering, including communicating with community partners, preparing their members to be punctual and effective volunteers, and recognizing efforts of the community partners to make the service opportunity possible. We also urge future researchers to study student volunteerism through SOs and to examine the dynamic from the perspective of the community partner.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Lena N. Desmond for her technical contributions to this manuscript.

About the Authors

Jennifer A. Jones, Ph.D. *is an assistant professor of nonprofit leadership and management at the University of Florida.*

Elaine Giles *is an extension agent in 4-H youth development with the University of Florida Institute of Food Agricultural Sciences Extension.*

References

American Association of University Women. (n.d.). *AAUW student organizations*. https://ww3.aauw.org/what-we-do/campus-programs/student-org/

Arminio, J. (2015). Campus activities programs: CAS contextual statement. In Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, *CAS professional standards for higher education* (9th ed., p. 86).

Baker, C. N. (2008). Under-represented college students and extracurricular involvement: The effects of various student organizations on academic performance. *Social Psychology of Education, 11*(3), 273–298. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-007-9050-y

Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rates and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations, 61*(8), 1139–1160. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726708094863

Beehr, T. A., LeGro, K., Porter, K., Bowling, N. A., & Swader, W. M. (2010). Required volunteers: Community volunteerism among students in college classes. *Teaching of Psychology, 37*(4), 276–280. https://doi.org/10.1080/00986283.2010.510965

Break Away. (2019). *National Alternative Break Survey: Report of the 2018–2019 academic year* [PowerPoint slides]. Break Away. http://alternativebreaks.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/10/2019-National-Alternative-Break-Survey-Report.pdf

Carlisle, S. K., Gourd, K., Rajkhan, S., & Nitta, K. (2017). Assessing the impact of community-based learning on students: The community based learning impact scale (CBLIS). *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 6*(1), 4–22. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/104

Caswell, T. (2018). Psychology of poverty: Attitude change via service-learning. *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 7*(1), 25–34. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/143

The Corella and Bertram F. Bonner Foundation. (n.d.). *The Bonner Program*. http://www.bonner.org/the-bonner-program

Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education. (2015). *CAS professional standards for higher education* (9th ed.).

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.

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

Ferrari, J. R., Cowman, S. E., & Milner, L. A. (2010). A pilot assessment of student leader involvement in student organizations: Be true to your school. *Journal of Catholic Higher Education, 29*(2), 215–226. https://jche.journals.villanova.edu/index.php/jche/article/view/588/519

Gage, R. L., III, & Thapa, B. (2012). Volunteer motivations and constraints among college students: Analysis of the volunteer function inventory and leisure constraints models. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 41*(3), 405–430. https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764011406738

Guiffrida, D. A. (2003). African American student organizations as agents of social integration. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*(3), 304–319. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2003.0024

Henney, S. M., Hackett, J. D., & Porreca, M. R. (2017). Involuntary volunteerism: What happens when you require people to "do good"? *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 6*(1), 49–61. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/126

Hernandez, K. (2018). Can the subaltern be seen? Photographic colonialism in service learning. *Qualitative Research Journal, 18*(2), 190–197. https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-D-17-00051

Jacoby, B. (2015). *Service-learning essentials*. Jossey-Bass.

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

Jones, J. A., Giles, E., & Carroll, E. (2019). Student volunteers in a college town: Burden or lifeblood for the voluntary sector? *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 9*, Article 182. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/182

Kane, C. (2017). Advancing student leader development through student organization advising and institutional support. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2017*(155), 59–70. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.20250

Kwenani, D. F., & Yu, X. (2018). Maximizing international students' service-learning and community engagement experiences: A case study of student voices on the benefits and barriers. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 22*(4), 29–52. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1416

March of Dimes. (n.d.). *National serivce partnerships*. https://www.marchofdimes.org/volunteers/national-service-partners.aspx

Meisel, W. (2007). Connected cocurricular service with academic inquiry: A movement toward civic engagement. *Liberal Education* (Spring). https://sail.cnu.edu/omeka/files/original/38d9fae8fa1748537a38e955a811d846.pdf

Mitchell, T. D., & Rost-Banik, C. (2019). How sustained service-learning experiences inform career pathways. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 25*(1), 18–29. https://doi.org/10.3998/mjcsloa.3239521.0025.102

Park, J. J. (2014). Clubs and the campus racial climate: Student originations and interracial friendship in college. *Journal of College Student Development, 55*(7), 641–660. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2014.0076

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative inquiry and evaluation methods*. Sage Publications.

Renn, K. A., & Ozaki, C. C. (2010). Psychosocial and leadership identities among leaders of identity-based student organizations. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 3*(1), 14–26. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018564

Rios-Aguilar, C., Eagan, K., & Stolzenberg, E. B. (2015). *Findings from the 2015 administration of the Your First College Year (YFCY) survey*. Higher Education Research Institute.

Saldaña, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage.

Schuh, J. H., Jones, S. R., Harper, S. R., & Associates. (2011). *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (5th ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Skulan, N. (2018). Staffing with students: Digitizing campus newspapers with student volunteers at the University of Minnesota, Morris. *Digital Library Perspectives, 34*(1), 32–44. https://doi.org/10.1108/DLP-07-2017-0024

Smaller, H., & O'Sullivan, M. (2018). International service learning: Decolonizing possibilities? *Journal of Global Citizenship & Equity Education, 6*(1), 1–23. https://journals.sfu.ca/jgcee/index.php/jgcee/article/view/175/367

Sumka, S., Porter, M. C., & Piacitelli, J. (2015). *Working side by side: Creating alternative breaks as catalysts for global learning, student leadership, and social change*. Stylus.

Tryon, E., & Madden, H. (2019). Actualizing critical commitments for community engagement professionals. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(1), 57–79. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1429

Whitekiller, V., & Bang, E. (2018). Changes in attitudes toward older adults through bachelor of social work service-learning projects. *Journal of Service-Learning in Higher Education, 7*(1), 63–77. https://journals.sfu.ca/jslhe/index.php/jslhe/article/view/155

Appendix A: Survey

1. What is your student organization's name?
2. What is your position within your organization?

General Processes

3. Would you consider service a primary or secondary focus of your student organization?
   a. Primary
   b. Secondary
4. How frequently does your student organization participate in service activities?
   a. Daily
   b. Weekly
   c. Monthly
   d. Semesterly
   e. A few times a year
5. A community partner is an organization with which you serve. This can be a nonprofit organization or a government agency, including a public school. Approximately how many community partners does your organization serve with during the academic year?
6. Briefly describe the process your organization goes through prior to organizing a service activity. What specific steps do you take between the time you decide to offer a service opportunity and when the opportunity is complete?
7. List the names of the community partners your organization has served with this past academic year.
8. Most of your organization's volunteer service projects are:
   a. Individual student projects
   b. Group projects
   c. A combination of individual and group projects
9. Please select the option that represents your organization's experience working with community partners: Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree, Not Applicable
   a. Our organization has a strong working relationship with a staff member of our community partners.
   b. Our organization logs or documents members' service experiences.
   c. I can easily find service opportunities that are a good fit for my student organization's members.
   d. When I serve with a community partner, there is always something for my organization to do.
   e. My student organization and I engage in learning about the community partner or the social issue they address prior to doing service.
   f. My organization's members participate in an orientation or training given by the community partner prior to service.
   g. My organization members debrief the experience and apply what they have learned to other service experiences.
   h. My organization members typically feel well prepared prior to engaging in service.
   i. I believe my members would not serve on their own without the group experience.
   j. I would be open to encouraging my members to engage in individual long-term service opportunities as opposed to group projects.

10. How much preparation time do you think a community partner has to do in order to be ready for your group?
    a. < 1 hour
    b. 1–3 hours
    c. 3–5 hours
    d. 5 hours or more

Successful Collaborations

11. Take a moment to reflect on a successful collaboration between your student organization and a community partner. Please describe the collaboration and explain why you consider it successful. Now, answer the following questions while thinking about that collaboration.
12. On a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 being "best fit ever," how would you rate the fit between what the community partner needed and what your members wanted out of a volunteer experience?
13. What preparation did you or your group engage in prior to this collaboration?
14. How did that community partner prepare to work with you and your group?
15. What might have made the experience even better?
16. How far in advance did your student organization begin planning to volunteer with that community partner?
    a. Less than one week in advance
    b. One week in advance
    c. Two weeks in advance
    d. Three weeks in advance
    e. Four weeks in advance
    f. More than four weeks in advance
17. How many students participated in that collaboration?
    a. 1–10
    b. 11–20
    c. 21–30
    d. 31–50
    e. 51+

Challenging Collaborations

18. Take a moment to reflect on a frustrating collaboration between your student organization and a community partner. Please describe the collaboration and explain what was frustrating. Now, answer the following questions while thinking about that collaboration.
19. On a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 being "best fit ever," how would you rate the fit between what the community partner needed and what your members wanted out of a volunteer experience?
20. What preparation did you or your group engage in prior to this collaboration?
21. How did that community partner prepare to work with you and your group?
22. What might have made the experience better?
23. How far in advance did your student organization begin planning to volunteer with that community partner?
    a. Less than one week in advance
    b. Once week in advance
    c. Two weeks in advance

d. Three weeks in advance
e. Four weeks in advance
f. More than four weeks in advance

24. How many students participated in that collaboration?
    a. 1–10
    b. 11–20
    c. 21–30
    d. 31–50
    e. 51

Leadership Capacity

25. I feel that the experience of coordinating student volunteers has increased my leadership capacity.
    a. Strongly agree
    b. Agree
    c. Neutral
    d. Disagree
    e. Strongly disagree
26. I feel that I was adequately prepared for this leadership role.
    a. Strongly agree
    b. Agree
    c. Neutral
    d. Disagree
    e. Strongly disagree
27. Is there any advice you would like to give other potential student leaders?
28. Please check any of the following activities you participated in before taking this leadership role:
    a. Taken a leadership course
    b. Served as a leader in another student organization
    c. Worked in a supervisory position
    d. Worked in a teaching position
    e. Served as a mentor to youth
    f. Other (If you selected "Other," please explain:)
29. Would you be willing to participate in a focus group? If so, please provide your contact information via this survey:

Appendix B: Interview Questions

1. What social issues interest your organization's members?
2. When seeking volunteer opportunities within the community, do you prioritize mission compatibility or which organization can accommodate the most students?
3. When it comes to serving with community partners, what is one thing you wish they knew?
4. Describe a memorable service experience that your organization had with a community partner.
5. Describe a frustrating service experience that your organization had with a community partner.
6. What are some factors that make you feel equipped to coordinate your peers in service experiences?
7. What are areas you would like additional skills in when working with your peers and/or community partners?
8. How do organizations prepare students for service?
9. From the nonprofit's perspective, what does preparation for your group look like?
10. Think about the most successful collaboration your organization has done. What were some characteristics of that collaboration?
11. When it comes to managing your peers in service experiences, what do you enjoy?
12. When it comes to managing your peers in service experiences, what frustrates you?
13. Is there anything you want us to know about your organization's service experiences?

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 117, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Creating a Community–Academic Partnership: An Innovative Approach to Increasing Local Community Capacities to Address Substance Misuse

Dane Minnick, Jean Marie Place, and Jonel Thaller

Abstract

Using a case example from a mid-sized town in East Central Indiana, this article illustrates the development and implementation of a community–academic partnership (CAP), a novel approach to addressing substance misuse in local communities. A CAP can be defined as a formal, strategic partnership between the local community and university faculty, staff, and students that seeks to increase the community's harm-reduction, prevention, treatment, and recovery capacities and unify the effort to address addiction in the region. Details are provided on the key elements that compose a CAP; how this type of coalition can be developed and implemented without funding; the methods used to formulate the coalition's mission statement, organizational design, and strategic objectives; and the types of outcomes the coalition can expect to produce if implemented successfully.

Keywords: addictions, substance use, coalitions, higher education, public health, prevention

Over the past two decades, the United States has invested a significant amount of fiscal resources into the development of the Drug Free Communities Program (DFCP), a network of community coalitions whose purpose is to prevent addiction and substance misuse and reduce the demand for alcohol, tobacco, and illegal drugs in local communities. Over a roughly ten-year period from 1998 to 2019, the DFCP budget grew from $10 million to $100 million, with an estimated 700 DFCP coalitions operating in the United States in 2020 (CDC, 2021; Community Anti-Drug Coalitions of America [CADCA], 2021). These coalitions, in addition to other state and federally funded community initiatives such as Partnership for Success, implement critical addiction prevention interventions across the country and play a key role in the U.S. government's strategic plan to combat addiction in the United States. However, despite the heavy investment of resources toward these programs, issues pertaining to community organization, workforce development, and restrictions associated with federal funding can limit the effectiveness of addictions coalitions within individual communities (Kadushin et al., 2005; NORC at the University of Chicago, 2012). A community–academic partnership (CAP) between university faculty, staff, and students and community residents and key stakeholder organizations can be used as a supplementary approach to leverage resources to overcome these common limitations within existing coalition frameworks. This article discusses the development, implementation, and ongoing activities of a successful CAP at Ball State University in Muncie, Indiana.

Background

In 2019, several faculty and staff members from Ball State University (BSU) began meeting to discuss an initiative taking place at the University of Toledo (Ohio) to combat high rates of opioid misuse in the local community. The Toledo initiative sought to address the problem by harnessing and

unifying local resources and the expertise of university researchers, physicians, and educators working on issues related to the opioid crisis (Billau, 2018). The Toledo model resonated with several faculty members working at BSU, as the local community of Muncie, Indiana has endured high rates of substance misuse and addiction-related public health problems over the past decade.

Muncie is a city in Delaware County, in the East Central region of Indiana, and has a population of 70,085 residents. Muncie is also home to Ball State University, a public institution of higher education that has a total enrollment of 22,443 students, of which 77% are White, 8% are Black or African American, 6% are Hispanic or Latino, and 2% are Asian (Data USA, 2021). Full demographic information for Muncie is provided in Table 1.

The city of Muncie has a substantial history of substance misuse problems. Statistics regarding the most recent county-level substance use trends and public health consequences are provided in Table 2.

To combat this historical and growing community problem, university faculty and

Table 1. Muncie, Indiana Demographics

Demographic Category	Statistic
Race/Ethnicity	
Black or African American	11%
White	83%
Other	6%
Age	
Persons < 18	17%
Persons 18–64	69%
Persons over 65	14%
Median age	28.6
Gender	
Men	48%
Women	52%
Education	
High school degree	88% of population
Bachelor's degree or higher	24% of population
Income	
Median individual income	$18,198
Median household income	$33,944
Poverty rate	31%
Employment	
Unemployment rate	5.60 (13th-highest statewide)
Insurance	
Uninsured rate	10.4%
Crime	
Crime rate	.91 per 100k people (3x state average)

Note. Sources: Data Commons, 2021; United States Census Bureau, 2021.

Table 2. Substance Use Trends, Delaware County, Indiana

Category	Year	County Statistic
Overdose fatalities	2019	41.6 per 100k (7th statewide)
Nonfatal overdoses	2019	334.7 per 100k (8th statewide)
New cases of Hep. C	2019	21.9 per 100k (3rd statewide)
New cases of HIV	2019	7.1 per 100k (9th statewide)
Suicide	1999–2019	13.9 per 100k
% tobacco users (smoking only) in population	2020	20%
% of population reporting frequent mental distress	2020	15%
Alcohol-involved vehicle accidents	2020	127
Alcohol-involved child removals	2020	17 (10.4% of all removals)
Drug- or alcohol-involved school suspensions	2020	139
All SUD* treatment episodes	2020	602
Cocaine	2020	16%
Methamphetamines	2020	41%
Opioids	2020	18%
Heroin	2020	27%
Marijuana	2020	41%

Note. Sources: Indiana State Department of Health, 2021; Indiana State Epidemiological Outcomes Workgroup, 2021.
*Substance use disorder.

staff members decided to address substance misuse by developing a new type of coalition that they defined as a community–academic partnership. Their vision for the CAP was that it would emphasize the strengths of the initiative taking place at the University of Toledo, but would also incorporate elements of traditional, community-based coalition models associated with the DFCP. Planning for the CAP began in January 2020.

Definition of a Community–Academic Partnership

According to Butterfoss (2007), a community coalition can be defined as "a group of individuals representing diverse organizations, factions, or constituencies within the community who agree to work together to achieve a common goal" (p. 31). Similarly, the DFCP defines a community coalition as a community-based formal arrangement for cooperation and collaboration among community groups or sectors where each group retains its identity and agrees to work together toward a common goal (CDC, 2021). In accordance with these definitions and the model developed at the University of Toledo, the BSU CAP defines itself, in a mission statement, as an organization that "represents a strategic community–academic partnership between Delaware County and Ball State University that seeks to increase the harm-reduction, prevention, treatment, and recovery community capacities in Delaware County and to unify the effort to address addiction in the region" (Addictions Coalition of Delaware County, n.d., para. 1). Further, the strategic objectives of the CAP are designated as follows: (1) Bring the resources, energy, and expertise of the university to the community; (2)

assist in implementing strategic projects proposed by local community residents, organizations, and university personnel; (3) serve as an organizational gateway and networking platform for the ongoing addiction prevention, treatment, harm-reduction, and recovery efforts in the local community; (4) provide resources on evidence-based practices, environmental strategies, and grant-funding opportunities; and (5) incorporate an interdisciplinary approach to addressing substance misuse issues in the local community.

As illustrated through the CAP's mission statement and strategic objectives, the developers sought to incorporate the strengths of both the Toledo model and DFCP coalitions by adapting features of both models into the CAP's design. By integrating local community partners, the CAP was constructed to leverage university resources to provide direct support to residents, existing coalitions, and public health organizations, and to address specific and localized community problems. In addition, the CAP was also purposefully structured to employ a broad approach to problem solving and the provision of services, which provides it with the flexibility to facilitate multifaceted interventions and address community problems from across the spectrum of intervention typologies and community addiction needs.

Initial Development and Components of a Community–Academic Partnership

Initially, the CAP started with a core planning group that included three faculty members from the University's Departments of Social Work and Health Science and Nutrition, two interprofessional education experts, and an administrative representative from a statewide addiction coalition. To provide the initial structure and direction of the CAP, the founding members utilized the idea of employing university resources to address local addiction issues associated with the Toledo model in conjunction with coalition-building elements outlined by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's (SAMHSA) Strategic Prevention Framework (SPF) and the Community Anti-Drug Coalitions of America's (CADCA) handbook. The SPF is a prevention model developed by SAMHSA that emphasizes seven primary steps for creating effective interventions to address substance misuse in local communities: (1) assessment, (2) capacity, (3) planning, (4) implementation, (5) evaluation, (6) cultural competence, and (7) sustainability (SAMHSA, 2019). The SPF is also rooted in ecological theory, which identifies communities as interconnected systems that need to be addressed holistically and strategically to sufficiently prevent or reduce community substance misuse problems. The CADCA handbook, which also emphasizes using SPF processes, highlights coalition activities such as community outreach, raising awareness, and coalition branding and promotion as critical components of effective coalition work (CADCA, 2018).

The CAP founders began building the partnership by hosting a community substance use disorder symposium on the university campus in March 2020. Attendees, comprising faculty, staff, students, community professionals, and local residents, were offered free addictions trainings and listened to local and state leaders discuss trends in addiction statistics and services. Participants were also provided with an opportunity to vocalize local community concerns. In alignment with Step 1 of the SPF (assessment), attendees were asked to complete a survey to identify which problems they felt were most pressing in their communities and whether they would be interested in joining in a partnership between the local community and university to address substance misuse in the county. Similarly, a survey was distributed to faculty and staff across BSU's campus asking them to identify whether they had an expertise in addiction issues and/or if they would be interested in working with community stakeholders to address local addiction problems. Based on the survey feedback, the CAP was able to generate an original roster of coalition members, develop a mission statement and strategic objectives, and identify specific community needs and resource deficits. Moving forward, the CAP's core organizers developed member services and coalition activities to meet the identified community needs and challenges. They also designated an organizational structure that assigned one of the three core faculty organizers as the coalition director, the other two as primary operations officers, and the remaining workgroup members as a planning committee. Finally, with the help of university marketing students and the BSU Office of Community Engagement, they began branding the CAP within the local community by

developing a logo and promotional video, social media sites on Facebook and LinkedIn, and a webpage housed on the university's website.

Service Activities of a Community–Academic Partnership

Approximately three months after the substance use disorder symposium took place in March 2020, the CAP was able to transition from the initial development phase to actively working to address community problems and provide services to coalition members. During its first official quarterly meeting in June 2020, the CAP mission statement and strategic objectives were announced, and community members were encouraged to seek assistance from the CAP for the following activities: (1) grant identification and writing assistance; (2) research support; (3) communication services via a monthly newsletter, quarterly meetings, and social media; (4) free workforce development trainings; and (5) assistance with the identification and implementation of evidence-based practices. Additionally, the CAP introduced the concept of "member-led groups" (MLGs), a term conceptualized by core team members as member-driven workgroups composed of university or community affiliates interested in addressing a specific community issue brought forth by a coalition member. As of June 2021, the CAP supports six MLGs that meet regularly to plan programs or activities to meet community addiction intervention needs. Specific objectives for individual MLGs are provided in Table 3.

In addition to the MLGs, the CAP also actively implements two primary environmental strategies for addressing substance misuse. The first is a collaborative project with members of the Department of Social Work to provide on-campus substance use prevention services. This effort is externally funded by the Indiana Family and Social Services Administration (FSSA), and its objective is to organize, facilitate, and evaluate five primary prevention goals: (1) a community clean-up day in a local residential neighborhood, (2) a drug take-back day on the university's campus, (3) a secular drug-

Table 3. Member-Led Groups and Objectives

Recovery Café Muncie
Assist in the development and implementation of a recovery café program in Muncie.
Harm reduction
Develop a syringe service program proposal and present it to local elected officials.
Host a stigma-reduction and harm-reduction community event.
Find funding for harm-reduction programming in Muncie.
Public policy
Discuss and advocate for policy proposals and local government reforms regarding substance misuse.
Community need & resource assessment
Create a resource map and resource list for local addiction, food insecurity, and housing insecurity resources.
Analyze and define community resource needs for addiction, food insecurity, and housing insecurity.
Identify and categorize additional community needs for future assessments.
Crisis intervention
Assess the need for crisis intervention services in Muncie.
Advocate for a mobile crisis intervention team and crisis center in Muncie.
Apply for funding for a community paramedicine program.
Maternal & child health
Apply for funding to conduct maternal substance misuse research.

and alcohol-free student social network, (4) a free student sober ride program, and (5) a TikTok-based social media campaign for substance misuse prevention. To implement these objectives, the CAP worked with student members of the coalition and graduate assistants hired through the prevention grant to establish the Student Association for Addressing Addictions (S3). This student organization, which operates as the student arm of the CAP, is composed of students from various backgrounds and degree plans who are seeking to gain experience in the addictions field or make a difference in their local community. The S3 operates in the same manner as other student organizations on campus, with a board of elected student leaders, monthly meetings, and a university budget. Students who are S3 board members also attend bimonthly CAP planning meetings where they contribute to the design of CAP activities and receive project assignments to take back to the student organization. The S3's activities are also supplemented by collaborative efforts with faculty from the Departments of Social Work and Health Science and Nutrition who have implemented CAP and S3 projects in university courses to assist both groups in completing their organizational objectives. Finally, one of the founding members of the CAP also received an internal university grant to create an immersive learning course for Fall 2021 that will allow 25 senior-level social work students to participate in S3 activities and engage in community and campus prevention initiatives as part of their coursework.

The second primary environmental strategy implemented by the CAP is the creation of a community advisory council composed of local high-ranking officials from each of the primary organizational stakeholder sectors of Muncie: (1) law enforcement and criminal justice; (2) community, recovery, and faith-based organizations; (3) university officials; (4) public health organizations; and (5) local elected officials. The council, which meets bimonthly (every 2 months), is voluntary, has no term limits, and serves to accomplish the most critical goal of the BSU CAP, which is to unify the effort to address addiction in the region. The Advisory Council provides a venue for these key stakeholders and community leaders to discuss community problems presented by coalition members, local residents, and university researchers, and streamlines how the county and city are addressing local addiction issues. Additionally, the CAP provides a channel of direct communication between criminal justice representatives and the treatment community to identify and bridge gaps between the criminal justice and treatment systems. As a whole, the Advisory Council, which is composed of 18 community leaders, one BSU student leader, and the dean of the College of Health, operates as a mechanism to foster a holistic, unified, interdisciplinary, and strategic approach to addressing community addiction problems in Delaware County. An overview of the BSU CAP Advisory Council can be found in Table 4.

Outcomes of a Community–Academic Partnership

Over the course of its Year 1 activities (June 2020–July 2021), the BSU CAP has produced several notable outcomes in regard to solidifying itself as a coalition and improving local community capacities to address substance misuse. First, the CAP was able to grow from 60 members, following the original substance use disorder symposium in March 2020, to a roster of 286 community members, faculty, staff, and students that represent each of the CADCA-defined 12 sectors of community. Membership expanded in large part because of strategic outreach efforts via social media, word of mouth, public press, quarterly community meetings, and personal invitations. In terms of coalition building, CAP members have presented at several local, state, and national conferences on the development and progress of the CAP framework in an effort to disseminate the model to local and national stakeholders and create contacts within key state and local agencies. In Year 1, the CAP worked collaboratively with several state officials from various mental and behavioral agencies in Indiana as a result of these efforts. Finally, the CAP was also able to host graduate- and undergraduate-level practicum students through partnerships with the Departments of Social Work and Health Science and Nutrition. These students served as CAP interns and helped to organize and administer some of the day-to-day operations of the coalition. A complete list of coalition-building activities and outcomes can be found in Table 5.

In relation to building the community's capacity to address substance misuse, the BSU CAP provided a wide range of services and helped to facilitate a notable number of community initiatives in Year 1. These

Table 4. Advisory Council (*N* = 20 members)
Criminal Justice
Police Department
Sheriff's Office
Probation Department
Prosecutor's Office
Community & Faith-Based Organizations
Community coalitions
Prevention Council
Recovery community
Community stakeholders & residents
University
College of Health
Public Health
Service providers
Department of Health
Emergency medical technicians
Elected Officials
Mayor's Office

Table 5. Coalition-Building Activities
Membership (*N* = 286 with representation from all 12 CADCA sectors of community)
221 community representatives
42 university faculty and staff representatives
23 university students
Organizational development
5 student internships
3 CAP–University course collaborations
Student Association for Addressing Addictions (S3)
CAP Advisory Council
Community outreach
Social media: Facebook, LinkedIn, Instagram, BSU website
1 local newspaper article
1 university magazine article
2 local podcasts
1 social media promotional video
Academic outreach
4 academic presentations
Grants
2 university immersive learning grants

activities ranged from the procurement of grants and the provision of workforce development trainings to participating in community clean-up days and presenting policy proposals to key elected officials. University Institutional Review Board approval was individually acquired for all relevant projects. A complete list of CAP service outcomes can be found in Table 6, and outcomes for CAP MLG activities can be found in Table 7.

Overall, the Year 1 activities of the CAP suggest that it was able to establish a strong foundation, develop relationships with community residents and key community stakeholders, and build the capacity of Delaware County to address substance misuse. Equally important, the CAP was able to lay the foundation for future activities and the sustainability of the coalition, and to create a pathway to expand the services that the CAP can provide. The CAP has several large coalition-building and community resource projects for Year 2, including (1) creating the BSU Addictions Research and Community Initiatives Center, which will formally house the CAP and operate under the purview of the BSU College of Health; (2) advocating for universal drug and alcohol screenings to take place at the student health center on the BSU campus; and (3) facilitating the creation of a free summer prevention camp for local at-risk youth. These initiatives will occur simultaneously with ongoing CAP services and activities and have the potential to produce even more significant community outcomes than the activities performed by the CAP in its first year.

Challenges for a Community–Academic Partnership

Despite some of the inherent flexibility a CAP may have compared to traditional DFCP coalitions, several limitations do exist in regard to the CAP structure. First, university faculty, staff, or students may be participating in the coalition as a service activity related to their university employment or coursework. Although the percentage of time spent on service activities depends on the university, the development and implementation of a CAP requires a significant individual investment of time and energy that extends well beyond traditional service expectations and may enter into the realm of personal time depending on the volume of service activities and MLG initiatives engaged in by the CAP. This same issue also

Table 6. Year 1 Service Activity Outcomes

Activity	Outcomes
Community Initiatives	
PEER Project	- Created the Student Association for Addressing Addictions. - Hosted a community clean-up day. - Hosted a campus drug take-back day. - Implemented a campus drug and alcohol use survey
Fundraising event	- Charity art and food gala to support local addiction services scheduled for Fall 2021.
Sober-Fest	- Recovery festival scheduled for Fall 2021.
Naloxone boxes	- Facilitated bringing two naloxone distribution boxes to two local neighborhoods.
CAP Services	
Grant information	- Assisted in the procurement of an internal university grant for addictions research.
Communication forum	- Hosted two Annual Drug & Alcohol Symposiums - Hosted three Quarterly Meetings. - Distributed eight monthly newsletters.
Workforce development	- Provided four free workforce development trainings.
Evidence-based practices	- Assisted in the implementation of a Strengthening Families prevention program with a community partner.

Table 7. Year 1 MLG Outcomes

Activity	Outcomes
Member-Led Groups	
Recovery Café Muncie	– Developed and implemented multiple satellite Recovery Circles with target subpopulations. – Procured grant funding to hire staff and secure a permanent physical location. – Recruited and trained community volunteers to function as Café Companions.
Harm-Reduction	– Developed and presented a syringe service program proposal to key community stakeholders. – Organized a naloxone and harm-reduction event to be implemented August 2021.
Community Need & Resource Assessment	– Created a needs assessment for addiction, housing insecurity, and food insecurity resources that was distributed to key local community stakeholders. – Created a resource list of addiction, housing insecurity, and food insecurity resources that was distributed to key local community stakeholders. – Created a resource map of addiction resources to distribute to local community members.
Public Policy	– Created the Harm-Reduction MLG for the purpose of developing the syringe service program proposal.
Maternal & Child Health	– Applied for a Title V substance misuse and maternal health grant.
Crisis Intervention	– Met with local and state officials to begin identifying how to bring a crisis center and mobile crisis unit to the local community.

applies for community members participating in the coalition who do so on a strictly voluntary basis. Therefore, although it is possible for a CAP to operate without internal or external funding when supported by a passionate, engaged, and sizable group of core university and community members, a paid, full-time staff or faculty member with course buyouts would be beneficial for the successful execution of the model. Depending on the availability of existing funding programs within individual universities for initiatives such as immersive learning or community-engaged research, internal university funding can be sought and utilized by a CAP to address this need fairly easily, as evidenced by the example CAP. Another CAP limitation is that coalition members may put forward ideas without volunteering to develop them, requiring the CAP to serve as the implementing mechanism rather than in a facilitating role, something that is generally beyond the scope of the CAP model. However, as demonstrated by the BSU CAP, this limitation can be overcome through collaborative partnerships with community organizations associated with the CAP who have the capacity to implement community members' ideas and initiatives with assistance from the CAP.

Discussion

The development and progress of the BSU CAP in Year 1 provides a number of examples of the utility of the CAP framework as a supplementary approach to existing coalitions combating substance misuse in the United States. First, the flexibility demonstrated by the CAP model is a significant asset that allows CAPs to address a large number of substance misuse issues and implement a wide range of community interventions that are often unavailable to state and federally funded coalitions who are restricted by the parameters of the grants they receive. This holistic approach to addressing substance misuse allows CAPs to adjust to changing environments and address new community problems as they arise. Additionally, be-

cause CAPs utilize the SPF and are therefore grounded in systems theory or an ecological modeling framework, they are able to address issues ranging from policy advocacy to ground-level interventions that impact community stakeholders from all sectors of society.

Another beneficial feature of CAPs is that they are directly connected to a steady stream of students who are eager to implement community interventions and address community issues at the micro and macro level. Access to this resource of both undergraduate and graduate students can produce significant, mutually beneficial outcomes as students in areas such as social work and public health need field experience and training in addictions issues. Students gain experience and training through their involvement with the CAP, while the CAP gains access to an energetic and motivated workforce that can perform a large number of activities in a wide range of community spaces. Overall, this feature can help to produce a well-prepared and well-informed local workforce of public health and social work professionals, strengthen the overall partnership between the community and university, and allow CAPs to complete their objectives without a paid or entirely volunteer workforce. This feature also allows CAPs to operate on a limited budget. The fact that CAPs are relatively simple to create from a logistical standpoint is another defining benefit of the model. In the BSU CAP example, a series of simple steps based on the SPF and CADCA handbook were followed that allowed the BSU CAP to produce positive outcomes in its first year of operations. Figure 1 highlights these steps.

Finally, the ability of CAPs to provide communities with access to experts in a wide range of academic fields is a significant feature that allows communities to address local problems with evidence-based strategies and interventions that can produce the best possible local outcomes.

Limitations

Although this article describes how a CAP can be successfully implemented, notable variables remain that could impact whether other communities could successfully implement the CAP model. First, the organizing members of the BSU CAP experienced an initial strong rapport that is not reliably replicable. Under different circumstances, the CAP effort could have become stagnant or dissolved during the initial development phase. A second variable is that one of the core members of the organizing team was trained by SAMHSA in the SPF and coalition development. This member brought to the CAP several years of experience working with community coalitions and environmental strategies to address addictions, which provided insight and expertise that may not be readily available to other CAP initiatives. A newly formed CAP without access to this knowledge or training could potentially produce different outcomes. However, trainings on the SPF are readily available online and through various addictions organizations to address this need for a newly formed CAP.

The role of the developers as faculty in the Departments of Social Work and Health Science and Nutrition also allowed the CAP direct access to the resources available to these departments, such as student interns, which increased the capacity of the CAP to operate effectively. Finally, in assessing the addiction-related needs of the local community, it was evident during the exploratory phase of the CAP's development that there was a deficit of addiction services in the area that the CAP could address without duplicating existing efforts. In communities where there is already a strong coalition presence or community effort to address addiction, a newly formed CAP may produce different outcomes.

Conclusion

Overall, the CAP model has the potential to serve as a new framework for coalition development and activities that could significantly increase local communities' addiction capacities at little or no cost. Further longitudinal research is needed on what outcomes CAPs have the ability to produce, what logistical challenges they might face in environments outside that of the example CAP, and what activities they can participate in that would be most beneficial to local communities. As the BSU CAP continues to expand its service activities in the Muncie area, a series of process and outcome evaluations will continue to monitor its progress and address some of the questions that remain about the framework.

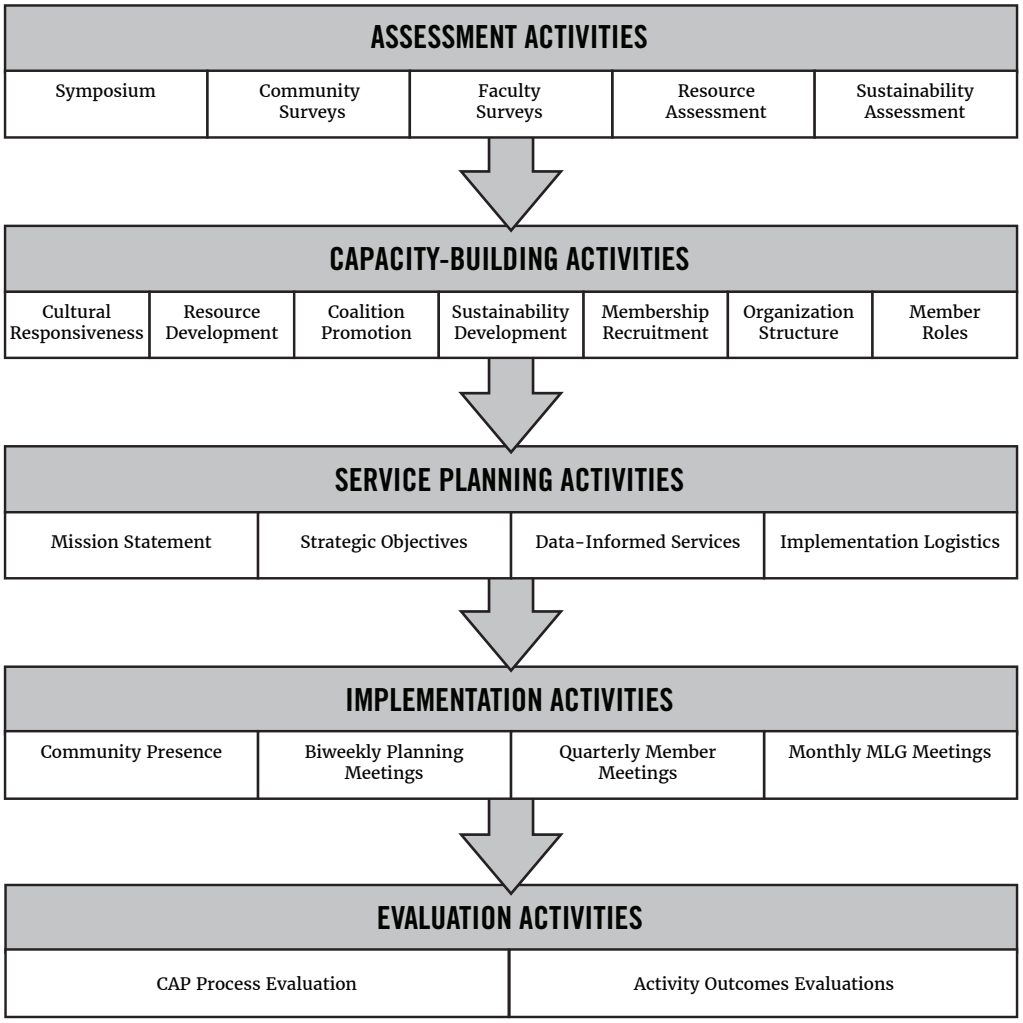


Figure 1 . CAP Development Model.

Disclosure of Interest

The authors report no conflict of interest.

About the Authors

Dane Minnick *is an assistant professor in the Department of Social Work and the director of the Center for Substance Use Research and Community Initiatives at Ball State University.*

Jean Marie Place *is an associate professor in the Department of Health Science at Ball State University.*

Jonel Thaller *is an associate professor in the Department of Social Work at Ball State University.*

References

Addictions Coalition of Delaware County. (n.d.). *Mission statement*. https://sites.bsu.edu/addictionscoalition/about-2/mission-statement/

Billau, C. (2018, March 2). *UT president creates Opioid Task Force*. The University of Toledo. https://news.utoledo.edu/index.php/03_02_2018/ut-president-creates-opioid-task-force

Butterfoss, F. D. (2007). *Coalitions and partnerships in community health*. Jossey-Bass.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2021). *Drug-Free Communities Support Program*. https://www.cdc.gov/drugoverdose/drug-free-communities/about.html

Community Anti-Drug Coalitions of America. (2018). *Community coalitions handbook*. https://www.cadca.org/sites/default/files/resource/files/community_coalitions.pdf

Community Anti-Drug Coalitions of America. (2021). *Drug Free Communities (DFC) Program*. https://www.cadca.org/drug-free-communities-dfc-program

Data Commons. (2021). *Muncie*. https://datacommons.org/place/geoId/1851876?topic=Demographics

Data USA. (2021). *Ball State University*. https://datausa.io/profile/university/ball-state-university

Indiana State Department of Health. (2021). *Stats Explorer: Delaware County*. https://gis.in.gov/apps/isdh/meta/stats_layers.htm

Indiana State Epidemiological Outcomes Workgroup. (2021). *The consumption and consequences of alcohol, tobacco, and drugs in Indiana: A state epidemiological profile 2020*. Center for Health Policy, Richard M. Fairbanks School of Public Health, Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis. https://fsph.iupui.edu/doc/research-centers/research/2020-SEOW-Report-Web.pdf

Kadushin, C., Lindholm, M., Ryan, D., Brodsky, A., & Saxe, L. (2005). Why it is so difficult to form effective community coalitions. *City and Community, 4*(3). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6040.2005.00116.x

NORC at the University of Chicago. (2012). *An assessment of the sustainability and impact of community coalitions once federal funding has expired*. Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. https://aspe.hhs.gov/report/assessment-sustainability-and-impact-community-coalitions-once-federal-funding-has-expired

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2019). *A guide to SAMHSA's Strategic Prevention Framework*. https://www.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/20190620-samhsa-strategic-prevention-framework-guide.pdf

United States Census Bureau. (2021). *Muncie City, Indiana*. https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/munciecityindiana,US/PST045221

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 129, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

A Framework to Understand and Address Barriers to Community-Engaged Scholarship and Public Engagement in Appointment, Promotion, and Tenure Across Higher Education

Helen Sdvizhkov[1], Kathryn Van Zanen[1], Neeraja Aravamudan[2], and Elyse L. Aurbach

Abstract

Scholarship addressing public and community engagement in tenure and promotion often invokes Ernest Boyer's landmark 1990 report, *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate*, and goes on to lament the lack of progress made in the three decades that have followed. This review intervenes: We synthesize extant scholarship on community-engaged scholarship and public engagement (CES&PE) in appointment, tenure, and promotion (APT); lay out three central challenges to the advancement of CES&PE; review the strategies institutions and individuals have leveraged to advance more equitable and effective processes; and caution against potential inadvertent, damaging consequences of reforms focused solely on CES&PE. We argue not only that recognition for CES&PE in APT is essential for fulfilling the institutional missions of universities for the public good, but also that it is essential to advancing diversity, equity, inclusion, and justice on college and university campuses.

Keywords: appointment, promotion, and tenure, public engagement, community-engaged scholarship, faculty development, institutional change

Promotion and advancement is a mechanism to re-craft higher education's relationship with society in a way that serves society more effectively.

—National Academies of Sciences, 2020, p. 2

Although higher education institutions frequently brand themselves as vehicles for the promotion of the public good, practices that delegitimize faculty public engagement—especially related to appointment, tenure, and promotion (APT) —undermine this claim. Three decades have passed since Ernest Boyer published the landmark 1990 report *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate*, which sheds light on the critical misalignment between genuine faculty desire to further the public good and the incentives that guide their work. Generations of scholars have followed Boyer in arguing that APT systems often undervalue, disincentivize, or even punish community-engaged scholarship and public engagement (CES&PE), despite its centrality to many institutional missions and stated faculty values (e.g., Abes et al., 2002; Antonio et al., 2000; Cavallaro, 2016; Changfoot et al., 2020; Glassick et al., 1997; Moore & Ward, 2010; Sherman, 2013). Compelling argumentation since 1990 notwithstanding, myriad institutions, academic units, and faculty have shied away from or actively protested large-scale APT reform that could welcome CES&PE into the fold of valued and rewarded academic activity. We synthesized literature on the inclusion of CES&PE within APT processes in order

to establish a holistic argument in favor of CES&PE-minded tenure reform and a starting point for those wishing to champion it.

Our efforts reflect a growing scholarly recognition in the fields of higher education and public and community engagement that faculty incentive structures inhibit faculty CES&PE (e.g., APLU, 2019; Blanchard & Furco, 2021; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020; McCall et al., 2016; PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020; VSNU et al., 2019; Working Group on Evaluating Public History Scholarship, 2010). This work also reflects our lived experiences in student and staff roles within institutional public engagement offices: We have observed this phenomenon via ongoing discussion in our national networks, including The Research University Civic Engagement Network (TRUCEN), a collective within Campus Compact (n.d.), the Support Systems for Scientists' Communications and Engagement workshop series (Smith, 2019), and in our day-to-day interactions and experiences with institutional, disciplinary, and cross-disciplinary colleagues and faculty. Nonetheless, we were and are cognizant of our positionality as proponents of CES&PE and the limitations posed or implied by the anecdotal nature of our individual experiences. Therefore, we turned to the literature to address our overarching questions: What challenges most inhibit the recognition of CES&PE within the APT process, and how do they manifest? Consequently, what structural, institutional change-making strategies might exist to address these issues? We further sought to identify gaps in the literature that we could address. Throughout the course of our research, we determined the need for a centralized source of arguments and interventions in favor of CES&PE-minded APT reform to advance dialogue and action on this issue and present our efforts for debate and expansion among the community of practice and scholarship at large.

Project Design

We conducted an extensive literature review, populating a citation manager with scholarship and reports about community engagement scholarship and public engagement in appointment, tenure, and promotion. To source materials, we reviewed individual resource lists from the members of the project team, major journals in the fields of higher education and community and public engagement, and public outlets such as *Inside Higher Ed* that address this intersection. We sorted these materials into categories, including "Institutional Guides and Documents," "Reports," "Scholarship," and "Media," then read, tagged, and compiled notes about each item, noting relevant terms, themes, and connections as they emerged.

We vetted themes and connections with members of working groups at both our institution, the University of Michigan, and TRUCEN. In doing so, we assessed the accuracy of our takeaways by comparing them against the experiences of faculty, practitioners, and administrators working in the field. Based on peer and expert feedback and additional research prompted by it, we identified and resolved gaps in our synthesis. In particular, we incorporated findings from organizational efforts to reform APT, including those by the National Academy of Sciences.

This literature review and drafting process informed our selected vocabulary for this article. Our review surfaced myriad terms used to describe engaged work, each with different scope and shades of meaning. Rather than elevate one specific term over another, we chose to use the term *community-engaged scholarship and public engagement* (CES&PE) to capture a wide range of projects that span the fields of research, teaching, and service. We refer readers to the Michigan Public Engagement Framework (Aurbach et al., 2020) and other efforts conducted by Doberneck et al. (2010), O'Meara et al. (2015), and Blanchard and Furco (2021) for discussions of the multifaceted efforts faculty and other CES&PE practitioners undertake to support community constituents outside the university and contribute to the public good.

Based on the literature, we also identified several key findings and themes that provided the structure for our article. First, we synthesized arguments most commonly cited in support of CES&PE-minded APT reform, described in the "Imperative for Change" section. Second, we identified and organized our observations around three central themes or core impediments to organizationally sanctioned prioritization of CES&PE: the lack of consistent definitions and standards for activity that constitutes CES&PE, insufficient structures to document and assess publicly engaged work, and limited or lacking promotion and reward mech-

anisms to actively incentivize it. In "Foci for Reform," we summarize the themes using verb pairs that also serve as section subheadings: define and standardize, document and assess, and promote and reward. These three foci for reform, discussed in the corresponding section, encapsulate nearly all of the APT-related issues called out in the literature as especially challenging for CES&PE scholars and succinctly capture much of the reform work that could address these issues. In "Strategies for Change," we use these challenges as a framework for reviewing and categorizing the interventions raised in the scholarship to address these issues; we then identify gaps in existing recommendations for CES&PE-related APT reform.

Although many organizations and scholars have come to similar conclusions about the problems related to CES&PE and APT, our review contributes to the literature by consolidating disparate findings on challenges and interventions into a singular framework that can help organize the efforts of APT reformers. In service to this goal, we not only address key foci for reform but offer an extensive overview of relevant change-making strategies raised in the literature. We conclude our essay with several critical tensions that receive limited discussion in the scholarship and yet pose important challenges that demand the attention of APT reformers. Ultimately, we hope that our analysis will inform and invigorate efforts to reform APT and move the national conversation toward action.

Imperative for Change

The stated priorities of many higher education institutions across the country evoke notions of community uplift, public good, and social improvement. Yet paradoxically, APT structures just as frequently invalidate faculty CES&PE work as a legitimate means to secure tenure—by glossing over CES&PE, applying limited standards to it (Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Korner et al., 2020; O'Meara, 2001; O'Meara et al., 2015), or even punishing involvement in it (Changfoot et al., 2020; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)—even though tenure policies set the tone for how the academy and institutions function and enact their stated values (National Academies of Sciences, 2020). Instead, traditional forms of research consistently receive the most recognition, with CES&PE activities often relegated to the least valued service bucket even when they easily align with research or teaching expectations (Christie et al., 2017; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016). Ultimately, the holistic incorporation of CES&PE into APT processes becomes a matter not of institutional or faculty preference but one of imperative to uphold the stated, socially conscious raison d'etre of the modern-day university.

On the most basic level, APT policies must reflect CES&PE to realize the very institutional values and aspirations explicitly lauded in mission and strategy statements. To start, CES&PE contributes to knowledge advancement, widely regarded as the epitome of academic pursuit (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). As Ellison & Eatman (2008) articulated, CES&PE allows faculty to "bring different knowledge to a project or program" (p. xii) and to "mak[e] knowledge 'about, for, and with' diverse publics and communities" (p. 1). CES&PE not only creates knowledge but offers an especially direct contribution to the public good, a hallmark of nearly all institutional missions (Ellison & Eatman, 2008). By extension, institutions must invest in intentional support for CES&PE in order to actualize explicit references to public engagement in mission statements, strategic plans, and other guiding documents. Efforts to promote CES&PE can then increase institutional accountability to the public, especially critical in today's tense climate around funding and public support for higher education.

Given the inextricable link between CES&PE, the public good, and public accountability, the success of institutional efforts to promote diversity, equity, inclusion, and justice (DEIJ) relies heavily on institutions' ability to deliver on their commitment to CES&PE. First, institutions and their constituent units that devalue CES&PE perpetuate structural discrimination against minoritized scholars (Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Korner et al., 2020; Ray, 2019). CES&PE often attracts scholars with marginalized identities, including race and gender (Misra et al., 2021; O'Meara, 2001; O'Meara et al., 2015; Settles et al., 2020), and appeals to scholars whose work or positions are additionally devalued in the academy, such as an interdisciplinary focus or adjunct or professional status (O'Meara et al., 2015). The absence of explicit standards for CES&PE means that APT reviews of CES&PE scholars exacerbate the harmful biases that pervade even the most formal evaluations of minoritized scholars

(McCall et al., 2016; Mitchell & Chavous, 2021; National Academies of Sciences, 2020; Settles et al., 2020.)

Second, lack of attention to and support for CES&PE disregards the demographics, interests, and needs of students and their communities. Given the increasing diversity of new generations of students and, subsequently, new faculty (Korner et al., 2020), organizational antiracism requires "acting on the needs of faculty and student communities within an institutional context" (PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020, p. 10). In terms of CES&PE, this imperative entails alignment of institutional priorities to students' desire to "connect their academic work to the societal issues they care about" (Furco, 2010, p. 380) and thus to robust support for faculty CES&PE. Notably, promoting CES&PE for students only can worsen the whiplash and disillusionment that graduate students experience upon joining a university faculty and encountering a "civically disassociated world" (Ellison & Eatman, 2008, p. 17). Support for and promotion of CES&PE activities must occur at every level of the institution and among all campus constituencies.

Finally, insufficient recognition of and funding for CES&PE ultimately harms communities and publics that stand to benefit from scholars' involvement in CES&PE. CES&PE often entails engagement with underresourced communities; therefore, barriers to faculty and student involvement in CES&PE deny communities the uplift that institutions claim to provide. Further, minoritized scholars for whom CES&PE is "especially risky" (Ellison & Eatman, 2008, p. xiii) often lead the way on impactful CES&PE work that embodies Boyer's (1990) ubiquitously cited gold standard for community engagement (Antonio et al., 2000; Kafka, 2021; Korner et al., 2020; Misra et al., 2021), which asserts "that academics' work is both created with and communicated to the public, and that it meets a public good" (Barker, 2004 and Starr-Glass, 2011, cited in Renwick et al., 2020, p.1233). Status quo APT processes deter the scholars most likely to actualize purported institutional support for local communities.

Ultimately, the importance of CES&PE to institutional missions and social advancement requires that institutional stakeholders move beyond one-off simple fixes ostensibly aimed at supporting CES&PE and instead exercise persistent leadership and collaboration within and across organizational levels to integrate CES&PE into APT standards. Attempts to include CES&PE in APT review rarely "accomplish much more than incorporation of definitional and valuing language" (O'Meara et al., 2015, para. 23) and often sideline complex issues like documentation, impact, and peer review (O'Meara et al., 2015). In part, this roadblock arises from the tendency to cherry-pick limited solutionist responses or singular interventions rather than reckon with the multifacetedness of the initiatives needed to effect APT change (J. Risien, personal communication, May 10, 2018). Changfoot et al. (2020) argued that contextual interventions entailing "individual faculty actions" and structural interventions involving "program and policy change" must occur in tandem, rather than with one used to excuse the absence of the other (p. 242). Further, because APT reform requires significant political capital with those "at the forefront of . . . reforming P&T" (Risien, 2018, n.p.), systemic reform requires backing from senior leaders who can insulate faculty from risks as consequential as job loss. Without prolonged, cross-cutting resource allocation to building CES&PE into APT, devaluation of CES&PE will continue to depress scholars' organizational affinity (Ellison & Eatman, 2008; O'Meara, 2001), undermine their job performance (O'Meara, 2001), and exacerbate recruitment and retention issues, especially for marginalized faculty (Aguirre, 2000; Antonio et al., 2000; Cavallaro, 2016; Misra et al., 2021; Vogelgesang et al., 2010).

Foci For Reform

Throughout our review, we gleaned three prerequisites—derived from "sticking points" and "hotspots" that stall reform (Janke et al., 2016)—for meaningful inclusion of CES&PE in APT processes: CES&PE must be formally defined and standardized, consistently documented and assessed, and visibly promoted and rewarded. In the following section, we delve into each of these three problem areas and their consequences for CES&PE-involved faculty. We contend that these three foci for reform remain actionable and essential areas of focus, even while we recognize that valid and significant technical and procedural barriers may present themselves across different institutional contexts. However, we also note that resistance to the notion of reform may represent symptoms of deeper issues, rather than procedural difficulties. Any APT reform that

would value CES&PE on even ground with a traditional scholarly portfolio necessarily challenges existing power structures in the academy. It may therefore occasion significant resistance from those who benefit from or align with the system as it stands. We urge readers to interrogate obstacles to defining and standardizing, documenting and assessing, and promoting and rewarding CES&PE in APT reform with these frames in mind.

Define and Standardize

The process of elevating CES&PE within APT requires that reformers establish and institutionalize standard language to describe CES&PE within their organizational contexts well before they tackle the development of corresponding metrics and reward structures. At every level—including faculty, departments, units, institutions, and disciplines—lack of consistency and clarity around what counts as CES&PE perpetuates confusion, frustration, disregard, and penalties that disincentivize the pursuit of CES&PE, as discussed below. Further, efforts to operationalize CES&PE often stall over epistemological debates about the nature of engagement and scholarship that distract from the work of creating practical, context-responsive language for CES&PE. Ultimately, the absence of agreed-upon definitions for CES&PE constitutes one of the most fundamental roadblocks to the integration of CES&PE into APT systems.

Several issues comprise the overarching "define and standardize" challenge, most apparent of which is the inconsistency—or in many cases, complete lack—of formalized language to describe CES&PE and to therefore set a positive tone for how people understand and interpret the value of CES&PE work. CES&PE is described in different terms depending on the department, field, or institution, including engaged scholarship, "outreach scholarship, public scholarship, scholarship for the common good, community-based scholarship, . . . community engaged scholarship" (O'Meara et al., 2015, p. 52), civically engaged scholarship, participatory research, and translational research (Doberneck et al., 2010). At the University of Minnesota–Twin Cities, a 2016 working group found 38 proxy terms for CES&PE across departments, including "broader impact," "extension," "outreach," and "public influence scholarship" (Blanchard & Furco, 2021, p. 10). Further, scholars and practitioners often observe misalignment between administration and faculty. "The generalized way publicly engaged scholarship is described by institutional leaders does not resonate with many faculty members," Doberneck et al. (2010, p. 6) wrote, emphasizing a need for mutually intelligible ways of describing CES&PE work. This lack of shared language and concepts muddies the efforts of individuals, departments, and institutions attempting to communicate the value of CES&PE to key stakeholders (Doberneck et al., 2010), including APT committees.

Perhaps even more insidiously, the official policies that do exist are often incongruent with what is informally promoted to faculty as acceptable and valid intellectual work, even when a department, unit, or institution ostensibly upholds the value of CES&PE in their formal APT criteria (Changfoot et al., 2020; National Academies of Sciences, 2020). Echoing common faculty frustration over discrepancies between stated and enacted guidelines (National Academies of Sciences, 2020), Risien (2018) reported that policies may express support for reviewing activities beyond grant funding and number of publications, but practice "does not generally follow policies and guidelines" (para. 2). For example, junior CES&PE scholars often receive advice to steer clear of CES&PE projects pretenure and to focus instead on traditional forms of peer-reviewed, discipline-specific, and single-authored research (Changfoot et al., 2020; Christie et al., 2017). In tandem, CES&PE scholars often encounter the perception that the community is only "an object to be studied" and community- and publicly engaged projects do not and cannot constitute "research" (Changfoot et al., 2020, p. 242). The popular conflation of CES&PE exclusively with "service" and restrictive understandings of what constitutes rigorous scholarship obscure and undervalue faculty work before, after, and at the point of tenure review (Blanchard & Furco, 2021).

Consequently, in the face of inconsistent formal standards and contradictory informal practices, faculty are disincentivized from CES&PE involvement because they struggle to discern how or if their CES&PE work will count toward tenure—a challenge especially pernicious for scholars of color and those with other backgrounds minoritized in the academy (Settles et al., 2020). Guiding documents often associate CES&PE with "the undervalued realm of service," rather

than using "inclusive language that allows for multiple and expansive impacts of faculty work" (Korner et al., 2020, p. 9). For example, CES&PE may manifest as "technical assistance, policy analysis, program evaluation, organizational development, community development, program development, or professional development" (based on Lynton, 1995, as cited in O'Meara, 2001, p. 47) rather than as a research article. In one department, these knowledge-making artifacts might count as research, in another, as service, and in a third, they find no avenue to institutional recognition (Cruz et al., 2013; Weerts & Sandmann, 2010). This inconsistency has particularly detrimental effects on minoritized scholars. "Faculty of color face so many barriers, so many doubts, [are] often marginalized, often given too much minority service, outreach responsibility. When the time comes for tenure, they learn that it doesn't count. . . . They don't get promoted," lamented Orlando Taylor (as cited in Ellison & Eatman, 2008, p. 18).

Document and Assess

As with defining and standardizing, inconsistency poses a major challenge to effective and equitable systems of evaluation for CES&PE scholars. Lack of clarity troubles APT processes for all academics, but the ambiguity of expectations is especially pronounced for engaged scholars. Like most faculty, CES&PE scholars undergoing APT encounter ambiguous standards, vague success metrics, if any, and a lack of clarity about the appropriate mix of teaching, research, and service (O'Meara, 2001, p. 46). These factors lead to negative downstream consequences, including lower performance, increased turnover, and lower commitment to the organization (O'Meara, 2001). APT evaluation requirements likewise do not offer useful indicators to track progress, particularly for CES&PE work that defies neat categorization into either research, teaching, or service (Christie et al., 2017). Specifically, many APT processes insist on artificial, line-in-the-sand distinctions between teaching, research, and service and the activities that count for each, rather than treating each category as a component of an inherently overlapping Venn diagram (Furco, 2010; National Academies of Sciences, 2020).

Just as institutional policies leave scholars in the dark, literature on CES&PE offers minimal guidance on how to measure CES&PE, leaving faculty without useful benchmarks or language to establish the quality and value of their work. Even foundational scholarship on APT standards often relies on abstract constructs to describe what makes CES&PE effective (Blanchard & Furco, 2021; O'Meara, 2001). For example, our review of the scholarship and institutional documents, including faculty handbooks, uncovered criteria for excellence in CES&PE such as "requires the rigorous application of discipline-related expertise" (Rutgers University, quoted in Korner et al., 2020, p. 22) and "address and help solve critical social problems" (Syracuse University, 2009, quoted in Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016, p. 75)—goals that, while admirable, offer little to faculty seeking to understand how their dossier will be evaluated when submitted for a review process. To further complicate matters, funding mechanisms generally overlook the costs associated with conducting meaningful and thorough evaluation (National Academies of Sciences, 2020). In the end, researchers who advocate for a standardized evaluation system concede that despite "a large number of toolkits and resources available to guide the evaluation. . . . evaluation of public engagement tends to be done rather poorly" and "evaluation findings are rarely shared widely or lead to demonstrable changes in engagement practice" (Reed et al., 2018, p. 145).

In the absence of clear structures to measure CES&PE and its outcomes, assessment of CES&PE frequently relies on an individual faculty member's ability to "sell" their work to their review committee or their committee members' preexisting level of familiarity with and support for CES&PE. Often, CES&PE faculty are forced to build a case for their work by downplaying its public engagement and relevance to the community and instead equating it to more traditional forms of scholarship (Blanchard & Furco, 2021; Changfoot et al., 2020; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016). Ultimately, the lack of clear CES&PE definitions and standards combined with confusing evaluation practices adds up to systemic disregard for publicly engaged work that institutions claim to value.

Promote and Reward

Inconsistent, informal, or biased evaluation of CES&PE undergirds equally inconsistent—and, at times, absent—structures for promoting, incentivizing, and rewarding engaged work. As a result, many insti-

tutions fail to formally reward in faculty advancement processes the very work that countless mission statements and even university marketing efforts cite as a hallmark of universities' contributions to the public good. The impact of this systemic disregard on engaged faculty and the fields of community and public engagement is severe: Lack of recognition for CES&PE within APT processes impedes faculty involvement in, and therefore the advancement of, CES&PE. Faculty interested in engaged work may delay CES&PE in favor of discipline-specific publishing, returning to CES&PE only after tenure or forgoing it entirely (Changfoot et al., 2020). As Saltmarsh and Wooding (2016) observed, "When institutional policies are silent on engagement, they create disincentives for faculty to undertake community engagement across their faculty roles and often punish them when they do" (p. 75). This lack of recognition, at least proportionally to time and effort, poses one of "the most significant deterrent[s]" (Abes et al., 2002, p. 6) to faculty involvement in CES&PE (Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007).

Two particular beliefs about academic research often drive institutional disregard for CES&PE. First, CES&PE is often seen as less valuable or rigorous than traditional research. As Christie et al. (2017) pointed out, "The evident consensus is that basic research followed by publication in top-tier, refereed journals is viewed with the weightiest consideration" (p. 29). With CES&PE often legible only as "service," it frequently falls outside the "research and scholarship and creative activity" that matter most in APT (Kafka, 2021; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016, p. 78). Further, collaborative and/or interdisciplinary research—foundational and valued in CES&PE spaces—comes in tension with many disciplines' APT emphasis on independent work aligned to a single field (HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020). These perspectives also stem from and entrench sexist and racist attitudes, which position CES&PE as the domain of women and people of color (Wiltz et al., 2016).

Second, CES&PE projects—often more local and less prescribed than other forms of knowledge-making—clash with approaches to scholarship focused on high productivity and national prestige. Some faculty resist CES&PE work because they erroneously believe that local impact counteracts regional or national preeminence and institutional prestige (O'Meara et al., 2015; Pelco & Howard, 2016). Further, senior tenured faculty commonly perpetuate their own experience-based assumptions about normative scholarly practice through their departments' hiring and APT processes. As a result, "new and tenure-track faculty are often encouraged to pursue narrow research paths toward highly specialized expertise that produces short-term outputs" (Changfoot et al., 2020, p. 241) rather than "involved, messy, and time consuming" CES&PE (p. 247). Ultimately, as Saltmarsh and Wooding (2016) observed, this "common dilemma" occurs across the United States when new faculty who "produce knowledge through new forms of scholarship" arrive on campus to find an academic system "that fails to recognize or reward their work and prevents them from thriving as scholars" (p. 74). Paradoxically, although tenure may be more difficult for CES&PE scholars to attain, it is especially necessary for protecting long-term work that does not satisfy commercial demand (Horn, 2015, p. 35).

Not only are they often unprotected by tenured status, CES&PE scholars may also be penalized because the lack of standards for CES&PE amounts to near-explicit punishment structures for engaged scholars. Because CES&PE often falls outside the scope of work recognized in APT, CES&PE involvement relies on faculty members' internal motivation and "free time" (Abes et al., 2002, p. 15; Banerjee & Hausafus, 2009). Faculty who choose to pursue CES&PE often find themselves sacrificing other professional responsibilities or pursuing it in addition to the "correct" research that qualifies them for appointment, tenure, and promotion (Banerjee & Hausafus, 2009; Changfoot et al., 2020, p. 242). Although this challenge creates especially inordinate pressure for scholars at research-intensive universities, it can lead to burnout and exhaustion for academics at any institution type (Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016). Critically, this dynamic further marginalizes minoritized scholars, who are often expected to contribute to DEIJ and service projects with no compensation or recognition and outside their other copious faculty responsibilities (Flaherty, 2021; Misra et al., 2021). Changfoot et al. (2020) questioned "whether meeting both specific disciplinary expectations and being engaged scholars is more than what should be expected of faculty" (p. 254). At best, "the incongruity between tenure and workload demands" (Christie et al., 2017, p. 32) keeps

faculty inside disciplinary boundaries and away from innovative scholarship and teaching. At worst, it traps scholars in less secure and less valued contingent positions (Korner et al., 2020, p. 4), upends their APT opportunities, or altogether ends their academic careers (Korner et al., 2020).

Strategies for Change

The three challenge areas to CES&PE-related APT reform gleaned from the literature—define and standardize, document and assess, promote and reward—not only elucidate the stumbling blocks to APT change but provide a framework for prioritizing interventions that best align to reformers' desired outcomes. Specifically, APT reformers can choose preferred change strategies based on the particular roadblock(s) they aim to address, thus ensuring that investments target their specific goal. To support these efforts, we have compiled into a single repository the disparate tactics identified across the scholarship as ways to better recognize CES&PE within APT processes. We opted to present all 34 identified interventions and make no value judgments so that reformers may identify and select relevant strategies based on their specific institutional contexts. As we compiled these interventions, we categorized them into nine themes (standardized definition, metrics, and expectations; expansion of criteria for valued research; CES&PE-specific APT dossier sections and templates; broadened scope of peer review; formalized competencies for APT reviewers with respect to CES&PE; demonstrated commitment to CES&PE; CES&PE-specific development opportunities; CES&PE-specific financial support; and grassroots efforts to promote CES&PE), identified which of the three roadblocks each one addresses best, and determined the organizational level at which leaders must be involved to implement each. An accompanying AirTable database provides the detailed, scholarship-grounded list and explanations of identified interventions, sortable and filterable by each of these three dimensions. Interested readers may access the AirTable database, which enables filtering by different categories, at https://airtable.com/shrpd7uI3IBRTEKD5. If readers are interested in exporting preferred views of the data for use with attribution, they may contact the corresponding author, Neeraja Aravamudan, directly. For immediate reference, we have summarized the 34 identified interventions by thematic category and roadblock(s) addressed in Table 1. The process by which a group of campus stakeholders might identify and implement interventions that advance their goals is illustrated in Figure 1 and discussed in the accompanying model scenario below.

Model Scenario

At Hypothetical University, unclear tenure expectations are holding back CES&PE scholars and discouraging them from performing further engaged work, because they don't know how that work will be assessed or they find out too late that it doesn't advance their tenure portfolio. An institution-wide response to this problem would be great, but advocates determine that, based on campus climate, a more grassroots approach has a greater chance of success. They use the AirTable to find possible responses and resources for change at the department level, locating an intervention that would both clarify definitions around community-engaged scholarship and public engagement (Define & Standardize) and delineate how work would be evaluated (Document & Assess). Members of the Sociology Department faculty then write a proposal for a committee to amend the departmental policy with specific criteria and metrics for CES&PE. The committee is charged with consulting the institution's diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) office and departmental DEI advocates about opportunities for collaboration—how could the amendment also explicitly support DEI work, or open rather than close doors for future change? It also draws on literature cited in the AirTable, resources from the American Sociological Association, the work of peer institutions, and discussions with the community engagement office on campus to draft the metrics. Advocates rally support through direct conversations with other faculty, and the amendment is approved at the department level. After celebrating, they set their sights higher: With a successful model from the Sociology Department, might the College of Arts & Sciences be willing to make similar changes?

Outstanding Tensions and Strategic Considerations

Although literature in favor of CES&PE promotion within APT processes sheds light on the three external roadblocks to reform that we have discussed thus far, it gives limited if any attention to several especially conten-

Table 1. Interventions for Appointment, Tenure, and Promotion Reform

Thematic Category	Interventions	Define and Standardize	Document and Assess	Promote and Reward
Standardized definition/ metrics/ expectations	Institution-wide definition of CES&PE (APLU, 2019; Baker, 2001; Blanchard & Furco, 2021; Doberneck & Schweitzer, 2017; Furco, 2010; O'Meara et al., 2015; Pelco & Howard, 2016; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)	X		
	Unit-level alignment to institution-wide CES&PE definition (Cunningham et al., 2013; Pelco & Howard, 2016)	X		
	Explicit metrics for what "counts" as CES&PE within APT (Cunningham et al., 2013; Jordan et al., 2009; Pelco & Howard, 2016; PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020)	X	X	
	Publicly available APT criteria for CES&PE and relevant examples (Klein & Falk-Krzesinski, 2017; Korner et al., 2020; PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020)			X
	FAQ on CES&PE within APT (Liu et al., 2017)			X
	Formal mentorship/guidance on how best to fill out CES&PE sections of dossier (Ellison & Eatman, 2008; HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020; Korner et al., 2020; Klein & Falk-Krzesinski, 2017; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)		X	X
	Introduction of a tenure-by-objectives system (Boyer, 1990; Christie et al., 2017; O'Meara, 2001; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)		X	X
Expansion of criteria for valued research	Legitimization of short-term impact (Doberneck & Schweitzer, 2017; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020; O'Meara et al., 2015)	X	X	
	Legitimization of local impact (Doberneck & Schweitzer, 2017; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020; O'Meara et al., 2015)	X	X	
	Legitimization of collaborative and interdisciplinary work (APLU, 2019; Changfoot et al., 2020; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Klein & Falk-Krzesinski, 2017; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016; VSNU et al., 2019)	X	X	
	Diversified list of publication types that count as scholarship (Blanchard et al., 2012; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; O'Meara et al., 2015; Working Group on Evaluating Public History Scholarship, 2010)	X	X	

Table continues on next page.

Table 1. Continued

Thematic Category	Interventions	Define and Standardize	Document and Assess	Promote and Reward
CES&PE-specific APT dossier sections and templates	Inclusion of CES&PE-specific dossier sections (Doberneck & Schweitzer, 2017; HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020; Janke et al., 2016; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)		X	X
	Inclusion of case study portfolio option within APT dossier (Ellison & Eatman, 2008)		X	X
Broadened scope of peer review	Inclusion of CES&PE faculty within dept. in CES&PE candidate review (HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020)		X	
	Inclusion of CES&PE specialists from other departments in APT reviews (Klein & Falk-Krzesinski, 2017; PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020)		X	
	Inclusion of community members in peer review opportunities (Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Jordan et al., 2009; Korner et al., 2020; O'Meara et al., 2015; Working Group on Evaluating Public History Scholarship, 2010)		X	
	Solicitation of recommendation letters from outside the academy (Ellison & Eatman, 2008; McCall et al., 2016; PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020)		X	
	Maintenance of a centralized log of strong CES&PE peer reviewers outside the department (Ellison & Eatman, 2008)		X	
Formalized competencies for APT reviewers with respect to CES&PE	University- or unitwide CES&PE competencies (Blanchard et al., 2009; Jameson et al., 2012)		X	X
	APT reviewer trainings on CES&PE evaluation (Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007; Doberneck & Schweitzer, 2017; HIBAR Research Alliance, 2020; Jordan et al., 2009)		X	X
Demonstrated commitment to CES&PE	Establishment of formal reports on CES&PE (Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)		X	X
	Establishment of formal committees/councils/conferences on CES&PE (Baker, 2001; Blanchard & Furco, 2021; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Pelco & Howard, 2016; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)		X	X
	Incorporation of CES&PE into key strategy documents (Baker, 2001; Korner et al., 2020; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016)			X

Table continues on next page.

Table 1. Continued

Thematic Category	Interventions	Define and Standardize	Document and Assess	Promote and Reward
	CES&PE language within official offer letters for CES&PE faculty (Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Klein et al., 2016; Korner et al., 2020; Working Group on Evaluating Public History Scholarship, 2010)			X
CES&PE-specific development opportunities	Fellowship programs for developing and/or leading CES&PE faculty (PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020)			X
	Tailored CES&PE workshops and trainings (APLU, 2019; Doberneck & Schweitzer, 2017; Korner et al., 2020)	X		X
	CES&PE-focused mentorship for engaged graduate students (Ellison & Eatman, 2008)			X
CES&PE-specific financial support	Internal grants offered exclusively for CES&PE (APLU, 2019; Baker, 2001; Jordan et al., 2009; O'Meara et al., 2015)			X
	Internal rewards exclusively for exceptional CES&PE work (Baker, 2001; Jordan et al., 2009; O'Meara et al., 2015)		X	X
Grassroots efforts to promote CES&PE	Connection to institutional mission (Changfoot et al., 2020; Franz, 2011; O'Meara, 2001)			X
	Peer benchmarking (Changfoot et al., 2020)			X
	Demonstration of individual (over just project) impact (Changfoot et al., 2020; Jordan et al., 2009; Klein & Falk-Krzesinski, 2017; O'Meara, 2001)		X	X
	Ally network-building (Changfoot et al., 2020; Ellison & Eatman, 2008)			X
	Personal accountability in seniormost academic ranks (Changfoot et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2017; O'Meara, 2001)	X		X

tious issues that reformers themselves may perpetuate through their efforts to improve APT. In part, this omission may reflect that the tenure track and often individual faculty-level foci inherent to literature on the integration of CES&PE into APT draws attention away from a systems-level view of how changes in favor of tenure-track academics influence broader aspects of institutional operations. Hence, we believe it is imperative to raise awareness of four issues that we find can result from this phenomenon: threats to DEIJ reform, inequities between tenure-track and non-tenure-track CES&PE-involved faculty and staff, tensions between incremental and radical change, and debates around rigor and definitions of research. We frame these issues as a call to action for change agents to engage with the potential for unintended, perverse consequences of their efforts and preemptively contemplate means to address them.

Most critically, academics initiating CES&PE-related APT revisions must ensure that their work recognizes other important and ongoing reform efforts, in particular the push for robust recognition of marginalized

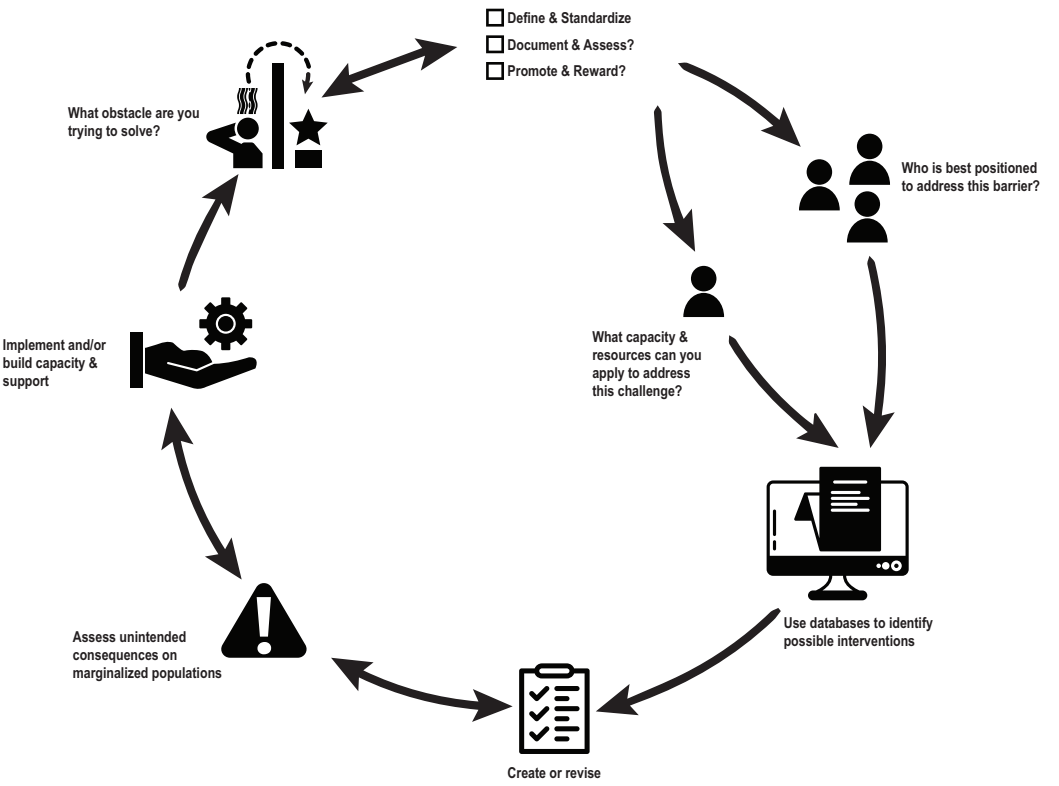


Figure 1 . The Framework in Action.

faculty and DEIJ work in tenure and promotion (e.g., Flaherty, 2021; Kafka, 2021; Sylvester et al., 2019). As we argued earlier, efforts to incorporate CES&PE into APT necessarily intersect with and can further tenure reform focused on DEIJ (Misra et al., 2021). For example, initiatives to produce clearer standards and evaluation strategies, diversify journals considered "top-tier" by review committees, and document inclusive teaching strategies that support CES&PE scholars also serve to recruit, retain, and support faculty of color and those focused on DEIJ scholarship (Misra et al., 2021). However, just as CES&PE-minded reform may uphold DEIJ objectives, it can easily devalue, jeopardize, or derail DEIJ work if performed in a vacuum in which emphasis on certain CES&PE goals overshadows equally important but adjacent DEIJ priorities. Other arenas—including innovation and entrepreneurship (Carter et al., 2021; PTIE Organizing Committee, 2020) and arts integration (Harp & Stanich, 2018)—face related challenges and should similarly be considered. Ultimately, CES&PE advocates should investigate and implement context-specific strategies for advancing CES&PE that credit and integrate the work of organizers pushing for more equitable APT structures that include a wide variety of scholarship and academic effort.

Given that CES&PE-minded APT reformers should account for imperative DEIJ outcomes, they must also strive to resolve inequities between tenure-track and non-tenure-track faculty and staff involved in CES&PE. To start, scholarship lamenting pervasive institutional devaluation of CES&PE remains largely silent on this phenomenon's equal—if not greater—effect on non-tenure-track CES&PE academics. By overlooking the work of non-tenure-track CES&PE practitioners, this literature implicitly reinforces tenure-track positions as more valuable and powerful than non-tenure-track ones. Such literature should, for example, address means to decrease the already heightened risk and job insecurity, further exacerbated by CES&PE work, of tenure-ineligible positions (National Academies of Sciences, 2020). It should also investigate how CES&PE-related APT reform may inadvertently harm the CES&PE efforts of those outside tenure-eligible ranks. With this gap in the literature in mind, we acknowledge that our review does not touch

on documentation and reward structures for non-tenure-track, publicly engaged faculty and staff. In doing so, we hope to raise readers' awareness of this problem within their own APT reform efforts.

As one strategy to narrow these equity gaps, scholars and administrators involved in APT redesign must account for the active, yet underrecognized and minimally rewarded, contributions of nonacademic staff to faculty members' and institutional public engagement efforts. Professional staff ensure the continuity and impact of institutionally sanctioned CES&PE work by fostering opportunities for campus constituents' public engagement, facilitating partnerships with community stakeholders, and offering project support and professional development (Martin & Ibbotson, 2021; Watermeyer & Rowe, 2021; Weerts & Sandmann, 2008, 2010). However, they rarely receive credit for their contributions to the CES&PE-related successes of the institution and the faculty they support, cannot easily access extramural funding, and are not formally reviewed on their CES&PE efforts within promotion processes—even as they must often "challenge the academic status quo and go the extra mile to accomplish something" (Watermeyer & Rowe, 2021; Weerts & Sandmann, 2010, p. 644). As a result, a focus on integration of CES&PE into reward structures solely for tenure-track faculty may inadvertently deepen existing inequities between faculty and staff and undermine stated goals to promote CES&PE. Ultimately, we urge readers to

- consider the applicability of the issues we highlight throughout this document to non-tenure-track scholars and staff;
- conceive of the challenges that APT presents for CES&PE not as a singular problem affecting tenure-track positions but as a manifestation of pervasive institutional devaluation of CES&PE that harms employees regardless of tenure status; and
- implement CES&PE-related APT reform that intentionally avoids perpetuating devaluation of CES&PE outside the tenure-track ranks and interlocks with efforts to raise organizational awareness, respect, and appreciation for CES&PE conducted by all institutional employees.

In addition to keeping DEIJ concerns top of mind, APT reformers must grapple with the tension between progress via immediate but incremental changes meant to help CES&PE academics secure tenure and the possibility that these changes may undermine more substantive APT reform that would elevate and celebrate CES&PE—and other work undervalued in the academy—in its own right. For example, given the persistent promotion and valuation of research as "greater than" both teaching and service at research-intensive institutions, many CES&PE academics are forced to frame their publicly engaged work as research to receive sufficient recognition and qualify for APT (Blanchard & Furco, 2021; Changfoot et al., 2020; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016). On one hand, this strategy can contribute to the success of scholars imminently facing APT. On the other hand, advice on how scholars can acquiesce to the current system reinforces that system's devaluation of CES&PE in the long term. Specifically, only a fraction of CES&PE work fully qualifies as research by standard institutional and APT policy definitions. As a result, scholars' attempts to incorporate as much of their CES&PE work into the research bucket as possible may "perpetuate a persistent misperception that engaged scholarship is a less rigorous form of scholarship" and therefore that CES&PE as a whole deserves less attention (Blanchard & Furco, 2021, p. 15).

This case-in-point showcases two foundational questions that APT reformers must contemplate and resolve within the context of their institutions. First, as posed by Laurie Leshin, president of Worcester Polytechnic Institute: "Are we trying to take the current [APT] road, full of potholes, and make it as easy a road as possible for anyone who would like to go down it, or are we trying to build a different type of highway?" (National Academies of Sciences, 2020, p. 3). And second, as Tom Rudin, director of the National Academies' Board on Higher Education and Workforce, asked, can both these charges be accomplished simultaneously? (National Academies of Sciences, 2020).

As also inadvertently evident through this example, APT change agents must strategize how to navigate the contentious debates around conceptualizations of research and rigor that CES&PE work invariably invokes and that may overly widen the scope of intended reform. To start, many scholars and

activists would argue that current definitions and operationalizations of "research" within APT policies are overly restrictive (National Academies of Sciences, 2020). Pushing the boundaries on the kinds of CES&PE that can and should count as research can catalyze more overarching APT reform. For example, it can lead to evaluation systems that formally and consistently recognize more diverse forms of research, including many CES&PE initiatives. However, simultaneous efforts to redefine research and incorporate CES&PE into APT would likely encounter significant resistance and might further entrench misconceptions about CES&PE. Further, although an expansion of the "research" concept may benefit CES&PE, it still does not account for the reality that CES&PE spans research, teaching, and service boundaries, as well as other activities that complement but do not fit neatly into one of these categories. Neither does it address how the perceived merit of diverse CES&PE projects should not hinge on whether they qualify as research. Attempts to increase recognition for CES&PE within APT therefore must also promote recognition for nonresearch activities, yet again expanding the scope of an already contentious intended reform.

Conclusion

APT may be primarily experienced as a reward structure for individual faculty members, yet the daily operations of this process can easily obscure the systems-level view of APT as a means to work toward the public good. In an ideal world, APT procedures should incentivize teaching, research, and service that serve and improve the welfare of communities beyond the campuses of higher education institutions. To revisit the epigraph for this essay, "promotion and advancement is a mechanism to re-craft higher education's relationship with society in a way that serves society more effectively" (National Academies of Sciences, 2020, p. 2). From this perspective, shifting policies in favor of community-engaged scholarship and public engagement within APT systems constitutes a prerequisite of effective academic evaluation.

As CES&PE-minded APT reformers strive to close the gap between this ideal and the current reality, our tripartite framework and corresponding repository of interventions can guide the development of their high-priority goals and steps to pursue them. We posit that the categories of define and standardize, document and assess, and promote and reward capture the array of issues that preclude effective evaluation of CES&PE work within APT processes. Therefore, they offer an organizing mechanism to ensure that change agents' efforts collectively target substantive areas of reform rather than drive marginal, disparate, or only short-term improvements. Even so, we urge reformers to build on the natural alignment of CES&PE promotion within APT structures and institutional commitments to DEIJ, as well as the parallel need for recognition and reward for non-tenure-track faculty and staff who facilitate institutional CES&PE work. Conscientious work to recognize and reward CES&PE in APT processes shifts the balance of power among institutions, individuals, and the broader public to honor often-sidelined faculty, communities, and local partners. This kind of APT reform thereby aligns the university more closely with the institutional mission statements that give them their charge.

Note

[1] These authors share first authorship.
[2] Corresponding author.

About the Authors

Helen Sdvizhkov[1] *is a public engagement fellow in the Center for Academic Innovation at the University of Michigan-Ann Arbor.*

Kathryn Van Zanen[1] *is a doctoral candidate in English and education at the University of Michigan-Ann Arbor.*

Neeraja Aravamudan[2] *is the director of the Edward Ginsberg Center at the University of Michigan-Ann Arbor.*

Elyse L. Aurbach *is the assistant director for public engagement and research impacts in the Office of the Vice President for Research at the University of Michigan-Ann Arbor and an APLU Civic Science Fellow for the Association of Public and Land-grant Universities.*

References

Abes, E. S., Jackson, G., & Jones, S. R. (2002). Factors that motivate and deter faculty use of service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 9*(1), 5–17. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0009.101

Aguirre, A., Jr. (2000). *Women and minority faculty in the academic workplace: Recruitment, retention, and academic culture* (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, Vol. 27, No. 6; Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series; ED447752). Association for the Study of Higher Education, George Washington University Graduate School of Education and Human Development, ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED447752

Antonio, A. L., Astin, H. S., & Cress, C. M. (2000). Community service in higher education: A look at the nation's faculty. *The Review of Higher Education, 23*(4), 373–397. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2000.0015

Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities. (2019). *Public impact research: Engaged universities making the difference*. https://www.aplu.org/library/public-impact-research-engaged-universities-making-the-difference/file

Aurbach, E. L., Kuhn, E., & Sdvizkhov, H. (2020). *The Michigan Public Engagement Framework—Version 4.0.* Center for Academic Innovation at the University of Michigan. https://researchinsociety.org/project/expanding-utility-impact-michigan-public-engagement-framework/

Baker, D. A. (2001). *The evaluation of university–community engagement scholarship within the college level promotion and tenure process* [Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University]. VTechWorks. http://hdl.handle.net/10919/27625

Banerjee, M., & Hausafus, C. O. (2007). Faculty use of service-learning: Perceptions, motivations, and impediments for the human sciences. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 14*(1), 32–45. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0014.103

Blanchard, L. W., Belliard, J. C., Krichbaum, K., Waters, E., & Seifer, S. D. (2009). Models for faculty development: What does it take to be a community-engaged scholar? *Metropolitan Universities, 20*(2), 47–65. https://journals.iupui.edu/index.php/muj/article/view/20390

Blanchard, L. W., & Furco, A. (2021). *Faculty engaged scholarship: Setting standards and building conceptual clarity*. The Academy of Community Engaged Scholarship. https://doi.org/10.17615/0xj1-c495

Blanchard, L. W., Strauss, R. P., & Webb, L. (2012). Engaged scholarship at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill: Campus integration and faculty development. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 16*(1), 97–128. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/919

Bloomgarden, A. H., & O'Meara, K. (2007). Faculty role integration and community engagement: Harmony or cacophony? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 13*(2), 5–18. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0013.201

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

Campus Compact. (n.d.). *TRUCEN*. Retrieved November 16, 2021. https://compact.org/trucen/

Carter, R. G., Mundorff, K., Risien, J., Bouwma-Gearhart, J., Bratsch-Prince, D., Brown, S. A., & Campbell, A. L. (2021). Innovation, entrepreneurship, promotion, and tenure. *Science, 373*(6561), 1312–1314. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abj2098

Cavallaro, C. C. (2016). Recognizing engaged scholarship in faculty reward structures: Challenges and progress. *Metropolitan Universities, 27*(2), 2–6. https://doi.org/10.18060/21122

Changfoot, N., Andrée, P., Levkoe, C. Z., Nilson, M., & Goemans, M. (2020). Engaged scholarship in tenure and promotion: Autoethnographic insights from the fault lines of a shifting landscape. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 26*(1), 239–264. https://doi.org/10.3998/mjcsloa.3239521.0026.114

Christie, L. D., Djupe, P. A., O'Rourke, S. P., & Smith, E. S. (2017). Whose job is it anyway? The place of public engagement in the liberal arts college. Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 21(4), 23–50. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1358

Cruz, L., Ellern, G. D., Ford, G., Moss, H., & White, B. J. (2013). Navigating the boundaries of the scholarship of engagement at a regional comprehensive university. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 17*(1), 3–26. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1023

Cunningham, M., Johnson, T. R., Karubian, J., Lewis, N., Lopez, A., Lusnia, S., & Shomade-Smith, B. (2013). *Academic review and engagement at Tulane University* [White paper]. Tulane University. https://provost.tulane.edu/sites/default/files/Academic-Review-and-Engagement-February-2013.pdf

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

Doberneck, D. M., & Schweitzer, J. H. (2017). Disciplinary variations in publicly engaged scholarship: An analysis using the Biglan classification of academic disciplines. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 21*(1), 78–103. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1318

Ellison, J., & Eatman, T. (2008). *Scholarship in public: Knowledge creation and tenure policy in the engaged university*. Imagining America. https://bit.ly/3EgoKNL

Flaherty, C. (2021, May 14). *The DEI pathway to promotion*. Inside Higher Ed. https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2021/05/14/iupui-creates-path-promotion-and-tenure-based-dei-work

Franz, N. K. (2011). Tips for constructing a promotion and tenure dossier that documents engaged scholarship endeavors. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 15*(3), 15–30. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/850

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

Glassick, C. E., Huber, M. T., & Maeroff, G. I. (1997). *Scholarship assessed: Evaluation of the professoriate*. Jossey-Bass.

Harp, G., & Stanich, V. D. (2018). *Insights: Tenure & promotion* (Tenure & Promotion Research Brief). The Alliance for the Arts in Research Universities. https://a2ru.org/research/tenure-promotion-research-brief/

HIBAR Research Alliance. (2020). *Making changes in the academic incentive system* (HIBAR Research Alliance Discussion Paper). https://hibar-research.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/06/Making-changes-in-the-academic-incentive-system-June-3-2020.pdf

Horn, M. (2016). Tenure and academic freedom in Canada. *Ethics in Science and Environmental Politics, 15*(1), 23–38. https://doi.org/10.3354/esep00163

Jameson, J. K., Jaeger, A. J., Clayton, P. H., & Bringle, R. G. (2012). Investigating faculty learning in the context of community-engaged scholarship. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 18*(2), 40–55. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0018.204

Janke, E., Holland, B., & Medlin, K. (2016). Intense, pervasive and shared faculty dialogue: Generating understanding and identifying "hotspots" in five days. *Metropolitan Universities, 27*(2), 19–35. https://doi.org/10.18060/21124

Jordan, C. M., Joosten, Y. A., Leugers, R. C., & Shields, S. L. (2009). The community-engaged scholarship review, promotion, and tenure package: A guide for faculty and committee members. *Metropolitan Universities, 20*(2), 66–86. https://journals.iupui.edu/index.php/muj/article/view/20391

Kafka, A. C. (2021, September 8). Does tenure impede diversity? *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* https://www.chronicle.com/article/does-tenure-impede-diversity?

Klein, J. T., & Falk-Krzesinski, H. J. (2017). Interdisciplinary and collaborative work:

Framing promotion and tenure practices and policies. *Research Policy, 46*(6), 1055–1061. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2017.03.001

Klein, J. T., Moranski, K., & Schindler, R. (2016). *Guidelines for tenure and promotion for interdisciplinary faculty*. Association for Interdisciplinary Studies. https://interdisciplinarystudies.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/06/AIS_Tenure_Promotion_Guidelines.pdf

Korner, B. O., O'Connor, C., Marks, C., & Hamilton, K. (2020). *Guidance for rewarding and recognizing community-engaged scholarship in the arts*. Big Ten Arts Administrators. https://www.a2ru.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/Big-Ten_Evaluating-Community-Engagement.pdf

Liu, J., Mattis, J., Queen, R., Shipan, C., Whittier-Ferguson, J., & Wittkopp, P. (2017). *Report of the Associate Professor Rank Committee*. University of Michigan.

Martin, L., & Ibbotson, P. (2021). Boundary spanning as identity work in university business engagement roles. *Studies in Higher Education, 46*(7), 1272–1284. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2019.1688281

McCall, L., Hetland, G., Kalleberg, A., Nelson, A., Ovink, S., Schalet, A., Smith-Doerr, L., Lamont, M., Lareau, A., & Wray, M. (2016). *What counts? Evaluating public communication in tenure and promotion: Final report of the ASA Subcommittee on the Evaluation of Social Media and Public Communication in Sociology*. American Sociological Association. https://www.asanet.org/sites/default/files/tf_report_what_counts_evaluating_public_communication_in_tenure_and_promotion_final_august_2016.pdf

Misra, J., Kuvaeva, A., O'Meara, K., Culpepper, D. K., & Jaeger, A. (2021). Gendered and racialized perceptions of faculty workloads. *Gender & Society, 35*(3), 358–394. https://doi.org/10.1177/08912432211001387

Mitchell, T., & Chavous, T. (2021). Centering social justice in the scholarship of community engagement. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 27*(1), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.3998/mjcsloa.3239521.0027.101

Moore, T.L., & Ward, K. (2010). Institutionalizing faculty engagement through research, teaching, and service at research universities. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 17*(1), 44–58. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0017.104

National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2020). *Re-envisioning promotion and advancement for STEM faculty: Proceedings of a workshop—in brief*. The National Academies Press. https://doi.org/10.17226/25742

O'Meara, K. (2001). Assessing and improving outreach through objectives. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 6*(2), 45–56. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/451

O'Meara, K., Eatman, T., & Petersen, S. (2015). Advancing engaged scholarship in promotion and tenure: A roadmap and call for reform. *Liberal Education, 101*(3), 52–57. http://www.aacu.org/liberaleducation/2015/summer/o'meara

Pelco, L. E., & Howard, C. (2016). Incorporating community engagement language into promotion and tenure policies: One university's journey. *Metropolitan Universities, 27*(2), 87–98. https://doi.org/10.18060/21129

PTIE Organizing Committee. (2020). *PTIE findings: Expanding promotion and tenure guidelines to inclusively recognize innovation and entrepreneurial impact*. Oregon State University. https://ptie.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/PTIE-Recommendations.APPROVED.pdf

Ray, V. (2019). A theory of racialized organizations. *American Sociological Review, 84*(1), 26–53. https://doi.org/10.1177/0003122418822335

Reed, M. S. C., Duncan, S., Manners, P., Pound, D., Armitage, L., Frewer, L. J., Thorley, C., & Frost, B. (2018). A common standard for the evaluation of public engagement with research. *Research for All, 2*(1), 143–162. https://doi.org/10.18546/RFA.02.1.13

Renwick, K., Selkrig, M., Manathunga, C., & Keamy, R. (2020) Community engagement is. . .: Revisiting Boyer's model of scholarship. *Higher Education Research & Development, 39*(6), 1232–1246. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2020.1712680

Saltmarsh, J., & Wooding, J. (2016). Rewarding community-engaged scholarship: A

state university system approach. *Metropolitan Universities, 27*(2), 74–86. https://doi.org/10.18060/21128

Settles, I. H., Jones, M. K., Buchanan, N. T., & Dotson, K. (2020). Epistemic exclusion: Scholar(ly) devaluation that marginalizes faculty of color. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 14*(4), 493–507. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000174

Sherman, D.J. (2013). Partnering to survive: Reflections on the pursuit of campus-community initiatives prior to tenure. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 17*(4), 155-173. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1072

Smith, B. (2019). *Support Systems for Scientists' Communication and Engagement: An exploration of the people and institutions empowering effective impact*. InformalScience.Org. https://www.informalscience.org/support-systems-scientists%E2%80%99-communication-and-engagement-exploration-people-and-institutions

Sylvester, C.-Y., Sánchez-Parkinson, L., Yettaw, M., & Chavous, T. (2019). The promise of diversity statements: Insights and a framework developed from faculty applications. *Currents, 1*(1), 151–170. https://bit.ly/3UJxjaB

Vogelgesang, L. J., Denson, N., & Jayakumar, U. M. (2010). What determines faculty-engaged scholarship? *The Review of Higher Education, 33*(4), 437–472. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.0.0175

VSNU, NFU, KNAW, NWO, & ZonMw. (2019). *Room for everyone's talent: Toward a new balance in the recognition and rewards of academics* [Position paper]. https://www.vsnu.nl/recognitionandrewards/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Position-paper-Room-for-everyone%E2%80%99s-talent.pdf

Watermeyer, R., & Rowe, G. (2021). Public engagement professionals in a prestige economy: Ghosts in the machine. *Studies in Higher Education, 47*(7), 1297–1310. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2021.1888078

Weerts, D. J., & Sandmann, L. R. (2008). Building a two-way street: Challenges and opportunities for community engagement at research universities. *The Review of Higher Education, 32*(1), 73–106. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.0.0027

Weerts, D. J., & Sandmann, L. R. (2010). Community engagement and boundary-spanning roles at research universities. *The Journal of Higher Education, 81*(6), 632–657. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2010.11779075

Wiltz, F., Veloria, C., Harkins, D., & Bernasconi, A. (2016). We're in this together: Exploring challenges related to service-learning. *Journal of Modern Education Review, 7*(7), 465–478. http://www.academicstar.us/UploadFile/Picture/2017-11/2017112391218640.pdf

Working Group on Evaluating Public History Scholarship. (2010). *Tenure, promotion, and the publicly engaged historian*. American Historical Association, National Council on Public History, Organization of American Historians. https://communityengagement.uncg.edu/wp-content/uploads/2014/08/WGEPHS_Tenure_Promotion_Publicly_Engaged_Historian_2009.pdf

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 149, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Theorizing Relationships in Critical Community Engaged Research: Justice-Oriented Collaborations as Resistance to Neoliberalism

Dani O'Brien, Kysa Nygreen, and Jen Sandler

Abstract

Academic writing about community-engaged research has long emphasized the importance of relationships and examined practices of relationship-building. Critical scholars have further argued that the neoliberalization of higher education distorts and narrows the quality of relationships in community-engaged research, a change that makes attending to relationships simultaneously more challenging and more important. Taking these observations as our starting point, in this reflective conceptual essay we draw from our experience as community-engaged researchers to reflect on the meaning, significance, and practices of relationship-building, particularly in the context of academic neoliberalism. We call for a reframing of relationships as an *outcome* (rather than simply a *means*) of community-engaged research, and as a *network* (rather than a binary) that builds collective power. Furthermore, we call on community-engaged scholars to reclaim and center relational practices. We argue that rethinking relationships in this light can be a form of resistance to academic neoliberalism.

Keywords: relationships, community-engaged research, community–university partnership, neoliberalism, solidarity

University-based practitioners of community-engaged research have long emphasized the importance of cultivating meaningful relationships with community partners. The nature of university–community relationships profoundly influences the processes and products of community-engaged research. Critical community-engagement scholars have further argued that the neoliberalization of higher education distorts and narrows the quality of relationships in community-engaged research, a trend that makes attention to relationships more urgent and more challenging. In this reflective conceptual essay, we draw from these insights and our combined three decades of experience as community-engaged scholars and community service-learning educators who work with youth, teachers, and community-based organizations on issues related to educational justice and equity, in order to reflect on practices of relationship-building with community partners in the context of academic neoliberalism. We argue that reframing and recentering relational practices in community-engaged research can be a form of resistance to academic neoliberalism. By making the micropolitical practices of relationality the highest priority, community–university partnerships can pivot around community partner realities and visions rather than the metrics and framings of the projects of the neoliberal academy.

Our opportunity to collectively reflect on these issues emerged when we collaborated on a project, Constructing a Vision for Racial Justice at the School–Community Nexus (CVRJ). In this essay, we describe the context and vision of the project, the

choices we made to translate our vision into practice, and some lessons learned. We do this in order to ground our conceptual arguments in a concrete example; this essay is not a research report on the CVRJ project but rather an argument that the practices of community-engaged research can—and often should—place multilateral partnerships, rather than research output, at the center. To set the stage for our discussion, we first situate the CVRJ project within a typology of community–university partnership approaches. Aligning ourselves with the critical, or solidarity, approach (Clifford, 2017), we explore how scholars working in this tradition have theorized relationships in community-engaged research, and how they have critiqued the rise of academic neoliberalism. We then describe the CVRJ project and identify lessons learned. These lessons fall into two categories: simple, concrete ingredients needed to construct and sustain richly collaborative community–university partnerships, and barriers that serve to undermine and/or devalue the relational work of collaborative partnerships. In the discussion, we draw from our description of the CVRJ project to advance a view of relationships as an outcome of community-engaged research (not just a means to outcomes) and a network (rather than a binary) that builds the collective power of the groups we work with.

Conceptual Framework: Academic Neoliberalism and Community–University Partnerships

Neoliberal ideologies and metrics frequently obfuscate the ethics of relationality that is at work in any collaboration or partnership. Contemporary neoliberal universities are particularly organized around audit and accountability in ways that force faculty to focus their energy on accounting for time and resources with efficient outputs that are recognizable to the system (Canaan, 2008; Shear & Hyatt, 2015; Shore & Wright, 2000; Strathern, 2000). The explicit standardized metrics of research outputs employed by UK universities are one form of audit culture that shapes faculty work (Shore & Wright, 2000). In the United States, public universities deploy neoliberal mechanisms through different means. One particularly powerful mechanism is the pressure to entrepreneurialize our research endeavors by perpetually seeking grant funding. Indeed, grant funding is an increasingly important metric for measuring faculty productivity; publications are often seen as almost secondary. Funding is increasingly what signifies the legitimacy of faculty research endeavors. In the context of the neoliberal university, university–community partnerships are often imagined and framed in ways that conform to neoliberal logic—prioritizing outcomes, products, or the potential for future revenue or funding.

To describe the influence of neoliberal logic on university–community partnerships, it is helpful to view such partnerships in terms of three basic paradigms: extraction, service, and solidarity (see Table 1). Although these categories inevitably represent an oversimplification of a vast spectrum of approaches, and are not mutually exclusive, the schema allows us to describe and look frankly at the different priorities, aims, and understandings of distinct community

Table 1. University–Community Partnership Paradigms

Paradigm	Purpose of partnership	Source of expertise	Role of community partner	Outcome of Partnership
Extraction	Procure data from community	University	Source of data, access to data	Generalizable knowledge
Service	Solve local problems	University	Recipient of services & knowledge	Generalizable & applied knowledge & practice
Solidarity	Seek justice or social change	University and community participants in relationship	Coproducer of knowledge	Transformative knowledge, structural change

engagement approaches. This classification also helps us locate ourselves and name the impact of neoliberal ideology on university–community partnerships.

In the extraction paradigm, the community partner is positioned as a source of data or an entrée into a community that will become a source of data. Data is collected from the community—sometimes mediated by a partnering community organization—for the aim of producing generalizable knowledge through research publication or grants. Although the results of such research might benefit the community that supplied the data or the community partner that mediated the relationship, the research is intended for broad application and its primary aim is to advance scholarly knowledge beyond the community site. The extraction model is the most common form of community–university partnership, though it is not often understood in these terms. Researchers are always in partnership with the people and places from which we collect data; in the extraction model, this is an unequal partnership in which the purpose is to extract data for scholarly knowledge production. The extractive research paradigm has long been critiqued, particularly by Indigenous communities and scholars, for its settler–colonial origins and colonizing outcomes (e.g., Smith, 2012). We call attention to how research relationships with a wide range of communities have been shaped in recent decades by individualizing, productivity-oriented discourses of neoliberalism. Because of the emphasis on outcomes and its transactional framing of community partnerships, the extraction model is the most aligned with neoliberal ideology of the three paradigms.

The service paradigm pushes back against the extractive model by insisting that community–university partnerships be reciprocal rather than exploitative, and prioritizing service to community partners alongside research outputs that benefit university partners. Instead of simply producing academic knowledge in the form of publications and grants, the service paradigm aims to advance the public good by applying academic knowledge to address local problems or meet community needs. Sometimes the local need being addressed is defined by a university-based researcher, sometimes by a partnering community organization, and sometimes through a process that brings researchers and community partners together. Drawing from land-grant universities' self-proclaimed commitment to serve broader publics, this approach frames the university as a source of knowledge that can be mobilized to solve immediate social problems faced by local communities (Aronson & Webster, 2007). It positions the university as the producer of knowledge and provider of service, and the community as the recipient of both. Historically, particularly in land-grant universities, the service model of partnership stems from the settler–colonial project. The narrow university goal of "serving broader publics" is based on an ideology of education and university knowledge-sharing as "civilizing," which went hand in hand with the displacement of Native people that made land-grant university establishment possible in the first place (Nash, 2019). The extent to which service-based partnerships align or conflict with neoliberal framings depends on how local community needs are defined and addressed. Projects that prioritize technocratic solutions, measurement, and reporting of quantifiable project outcomes are easier to align to neoliberal benchmarks of legitimacy than those that prioritize movement-based solutions, micropolitics of relationships, and power in the research process.

Like the service paradigm, the solidarity paradigm pushes back against some exploitative aspects of the extractive model, and strives to serve the public good; however, the service and solidarity paradigms differ in three ways. First, the solidarity paradigm challenges the assumption that university–community partnerships are always benevolent. This paradigm acknowledges how university–community partnerships can reproduce unequal power relationships in ways that further marginalize community partners; in this way, such partnerships can be harmful to communities and work against social change (e.g., Bortolin, 2011; Clifford, 2017; Cruz & Giles, 2000; Danley & Christiansen, 2019). Second, instead of solving narrowly defined social problems, the solidarity approach aims to produce structural change to address root causes of social problems (e.g., Brydon-Miller & Maguire, 2009; Clifford, 2017; Hall, 1992; Marullo & Edwards, 2000). Third, the solidarity paradigm recognizes marginalized communities as a source of valuable knowledge, not just recipients of university-based knowledge and not just sources of data. It assumes knowledge is not only transmitted from university to community,

but produced through collaborative practices (Caraballo et al., 2017; Dyrness, 2008; Glass & Newman, 2015). This paradigm is a challenge to dominant epistemological assumptions about who has knowledge, how knowledge is created, and what or whose knowledge counts.

Reflecting these assumptions, scholars working in the solidarity-oriented partnership paradigm write about the importance of cultivating equitable relationships between university and community partners (e.g., Danley & Christiansen, 2019; Dyrness, 2008; Hale, 2008; Morton, 1997; Strier & Shechter, 2016; Vakil et al., 2016). Highlighting power inequities between university-based and community-based actors, and the consequent dangers of cooptation and exploitation, they call on university partners to mitigate such inequities by working collaboratively with community partners to define problems, contribute knowledge, and share control of the partnership's processes and products (Caraballo et al., 2017; Dyrness, 2008; Glass & Newman, 2015; Warren, 2018). They call for paying close attention to the quality of relationships with community partners, and the practices used to build and maintain them. They emphasize the importance of ongoing relationship-maintenance, rather than viewing relationship-building as an initial step to be checked off at the start. In this paradigm, the process and micropolitics of collaboration matter more than short-term outcomes.

Scholars in the solidarity paradigm have also written about the effects of neoliberalism in higher education, or academic capitalism (Hyatt et al., 2015; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004), on the quality and type of relationships forged between university and community partners (e.g., Brackman, 2015; Clifford, 2017; Nygreen, 2017; Peacock, 2012; Westoby & Shevellar, 2019; Williams, 2019). As these scholars (and others) have argued, neoliberalism, or the encroachment of "market logic" into higher education, threatens to reduce relationships to commodities valued solely for their transactional uses, thus distorting the spirit and purpose of community engagement. The very idea of reciprocity that is central to community-engaged research can, in the context of neoliberalism, devolve into a commodified exchange: The university partner provides access to resources, the community partner provides access to data or a site for service-learning, and both provide some form of legitimacy to each other. With this arrangement, the challenge of creating and sustaining richly collaborative and equitable relationships with community partners becomes more essential and more difficult.

We situate our own work within the solidarity paradigm. We view social problems as inherently connected to structural injustices, and we strive to draw those connections in our work. We bring the assumption that justice-oriented social change must put the lived experiences of marginalized people at the forefront, and that university–community collaborations for social justice must involve those who are most affected by a social problem in theorizing and strategizing about how to address it. Research topics, questions, and frameworks should therefore be developed collaboratively with community partners, and community partners should share power in determining research processes and products. We view relationship-building as an ongoing practice and central ingredient of community-engaged research. Collectively and in our individual work, we strive to understand and attend to the relational practices that enable richly collaborative partnerships to unfold. Below, we describe the CVRJ project we worked on together, illustrating how we attempted to implement the above principles in practice.

The CVRJ Project

In spring 2017, our rurally located, predominantly White university offered 14 small grants to faculty who were interested in exploring how the university might develop a Center for Racial Justice and Urban Affairs located in (and ostensibly in some way serving) the neighboring cities of Springfield and Holyoke. Both cities are home to large communities of color, contain areas of concentrated poverty, and have persistently low-scoring public schools. Though aware of possible pitfalls and power dynamics common to university–community partnerships (e.g., Bortolin, 2011; Cruz & Giles, 2000; Clifford, 2017; LeCompte, 1995; Vakil et al., 2016), we viewed the grant as an opportunity to support community-led work that was already under way. Our project, Constructing a Vision for Racial Justice at the School–Community Nexus (CVRJ), was based on a small and short-term grant, but it was embedded within longer term community partnerships that each of us was (and remains) engaged in. It supported

those ongoing partnerships by allowing us to dedicate time, energy, and resources to one particular aspect of the work, and ultimately to make connections between youth/student activists in two cities and between our own distinct (but thematically connected) research projects and agendas.

Background and Purpose

The CVRJ project grew from a long-term partnership with a grassroots community organizing coalition called Pioneer Valley Project (PVP), which that was already in place. One of us (Sandler) had worked with PVP for 4 years prior through a campus program that brings University of Massachusetts (UMass) students to community organizations, and community organizers to UMass as part of a university course on grassroots community organizing. The long-term nature of this partnership provided a solid foundation for collaboration. Two of us (O'Brien and Nygreen), both education researchers and former public-school teachers, had collaborated with schools in the two cities and with PVP

In the school year prior to the CVRJ project, PVP created a Youth Committee to organize high school students around racial justice issues affecting youth. About a dozen teenaged members of the Youth Committee worked with an adult community organizer to identify key issues affecting their lives that could be the basis of an organizing campaign. Through this process they decided to focus on racial disparities in school discipline and the school-to-prison pipeline. They conducted a survey of students' experiences with school discipline and the criminal–legal system; they designed and hung posters in their schools to raise consciousness about the racialized nature of the school-to-prison pipeline; and they staged a major public action (see videos here: https://fb.watch/e-wZTVV5Gy/)

To be clear, the Youth Committee was a project of PVP, who initiated and led it for a year with no university partner involvement. We knew about the Youth Committee's work because of our involvement with local public schools and PVP. We conceived of the CVRJ project as a way to strengthen and support work the Youth Committee was already doing. Over a period of 2 months, our project team arranged, hosted, and facilitated nine meetings with the Youth Committee. The purpose of the meetings was for Youth Committee members to share about and reflect on their work, engage in a visioning process, and strategize about next steps. Meetings were also meant to promote intentional relationship-building, both within the current membership of the Youth Committee and with other youth activists or potential youth activists. Six core members of the Youth Committee attended regularly. We were able to support these meetings by providing facilitation, food, transportation, and coordination by a graduate research assistant. Meetings were facilitated by O'Brien and two undergraduate students trained in Sandler's grassroots community organizing course.

Process and Outcomes

From the first few meetings it became clear that Youth Committee members were knowledgeable about structural injustices and how they fueled the school-to-prison pipeline, and understood that community organizing was a strategy for building power to advance justice-oriented social change. However, they did not have concrete ideas for smaller, winnable demands or interventions they could push for at the level of their individual schools. This is where O'Brien's long-term partnership with a school-based group, Pa'lante Restorative Justice, became relevant (see O'Brien, 2019, for a detailed description of the project and their relationship). Pa'lante is a youth-led organization in Holyoke that promotes restorative justice as an alternative to punitive school discipline and uses youth-led participatory action research (YPAR) to fight against the school-to-prison pipeline. Both PVP and Pa'lante were supporting youth-led organizing on racial justice issues, but in two different cities and with slightly different approaches, and they were not in relationship with each other.

As a project team we decided to bring youth from the two organizations together. First, students from Pa'lante visited a Youth Committee meeting, where they led the CVRJ project team in a restorative justice community-building circle. This opportunity gave our team firsthand experience with a restorative justice circle to see how this practice can build community, mediate conflict, and create a more humanizing school culture. In a follow-up meeting, Youth Committee members visited Pa'lante at their school to share how they were organizing against the school-to-prison pipeline. In both meetings students shared about

their work, asked questions, and strategized together. While the youth from Pa'lante learned about community organizing as a way to push for broader policy change, the Youth Committee members learned about restorative justice as a feasible alternative to punitive school discipline, and concrete steps they could take to promote it at their schools. As an outcome of this dialogue, Youth Committee members contacted their school superintendent to request a restorative justice circle with members of the school district administration, led by youth. Their goal was to demonstrate the power of restorative justice and cultivate relationships with school administrators on the youth's terms. Although the circle was rescheduled multiple times and ultimately did not happen during the time frame of our project, Youth Committee members had established a relationship with their superintendent and had a concrete action step to work toward as they continued organizing.

Overall, the CVRJ project resulted in a viable beginning to a restorative justice project in Springfield Public Schools, as well as a new set of relationships—the beginning, we hope, of a network—between young racial justice activists in two neighboring cities, with concrete and ongoing links to various university-based resources. In fact, as we reflected on the project, we came to believe its most important outcome was the formation of new relationships in multiple directions. Relationships that were developed as a result of the project include those between youth activists in two cities; between youth activists and a school superintendent; between youth and adult community organizers; and between university-based scholars and community organizers in two cities. These relationships were not merely a by-product or added bonus of this project; they were arguably its most crucial outcome. The project is over, the funding is gone, the Center for Racial Justice and Urban Affairs has yet to be realized, but the relationships remain and have continued to make new things possible. In fact, a year after the project ended, the PVP Youth Committee organized an action at a local gun manufacturer to protest gun violence, and students from Pa'lante showed up to participate and helped spread the word in their city. Each of the authors continued to collaborate with youth and educators in the two cities after the CVRJ project formally ended, and new research partnerships developed through these collaborations, providing examples of how relationships can endure long after an official project (i.e., funding) has ended.

Lessons Learned

The choices we made in structuring the CVRJ project reflect our intention to center the knowledge and voices of youth partners. However, as our above description shows, centering youth does not mean everyone plays the same role or has the same responsibilities. The adults on the team took responsibility for structuring the relationship-building meetings (including scheduling, transportation, etc.) and holding the youth to the project they initiated. This is not a hands-off approach. Instead, we followed the conceptual lead and interests of the youth participants, and we (university faculty and adult community organizers) facilitated and removed barriers to the development of the project they articulated. The lessons learned from the CVRJ project can be grouped into two categories: specific ingredients for justice-oriented collaboration, and barriers to collaboration.

Ingredients for Collaboration

In our experience, and confirmed through this project, there are clear needs and ingredients to producing equitable justice-oriented collaborations between university and community partners. These ingredients include the material conditions of collaboration (space, transportation, and food), as well as time and facilitation. First, the material conditions of collaboration—specifically, the physical space where collaboration takes place, food, and transportation—are highly influential in shaping the quality and extent of collaboration. Universities should provide space, both on campus and within the community/communities they are in partnership with, where people can work individually and collectively, host meetings, and socialize. These spaces should be accessible to youth, people of different abilities, and those who will arrive not dressed in a "professional" way. But having space works only if people have an easy and free way to get to that space. Universities can and should provide funding to transport partners to campus and to visit other collaborators, as well as make vans and cars accessible to faculty, students, and staff engaging in partnerships. If meetings are scheduled during mealtimes or evenings, providing food can make the difference between participation and no participation

for parents and youth. A relatively small amount of cash goes a long way in making a meeting or event more accessible in this way.

Relationships that are authentic and sustaining require time together where partners are able to express personal connections to the issues and work through identifying problems, planning actions, and reflecting on outcomes. Establishing relationships is a slow process requiring significant investments of time; it cannot be achieved in a single meeting or through asynchronous forms of communication. The informal time before and after an official meeting agenda is often the most fruitful time for relationship-building. This is why providing food, and ideally gathering in person rather than virtually, are so important. In our experience, there is no shortcut to this process. This need for informal time should be anticipated, and time should be made available and compensated. However, we know people will stop participating if they feel their time is not well spent, rewarding, or moving a project forward. People are busy, with many demands on their time; this is as true for community partners as it is for university-based participants. For this reason, skilled facilitation is also a critical ingredient.

Well-facilitated meetings, in our experience, literally make the difference between a successful and unsuccessful collaboration. Simply bringing people together into a room does not ensure that all voices are heard and perspectives recognized. Nor does having people in a room ensure that actual collaboration is taking place, or that meaningful relationships are built. Facilitating groups across salient lines of difference—especially race, age, and structural power—is extraordinarily challenging. We should not assume that faculty members, simply due to teaching experience or expertise in their field, are skilled at facilitating effective meetings with community partners. Indeed, we have seen time and time again that they often lack precisely the facilitation skills necessary for effective partnership. For this reason, we dedicated almost our entire grant to supporting meeting facilitation. The facilitators had been trained in grassroots community organizing and brought skills for running an effective community meeting that builds authentic relationships and moves participants toward a common goal. Grassroots community organizers have developed these skills over generations of community meetings. Although there are multiple ways to ensure meetings are well-facilitated, we argue that community-engaged researchers must be thoughtful and intentional about facilitation. We need to think about how collaborative spaces are facilitated, and how we will ensure all voices are heard, throughout the course of a project. Drawing on the expertise of community organizers or professional meeting facilitators is one approach. Building in regular feedback from participants, about whether they feel heard and their time is well spent, is also important.

Barriers to Collaboration

The above ingredients may appear basic, even obvious, but they are often overlooked when university-based researchers initiate projects with community partners. If our goal is to cultivate rich, equitable collaborations with community partners, then the consequences of overlooking these ingredients are significant. It creates what Linda Stout (1996) described as "invisible walls" that people of color and low-income people face when organizing across lines of race and class. Although Stout was writing about community organizing, her insights about the invisible walls, specifically the invisible "wall of simple logistics" (p. 129) and the invisible "wall of meeting format and organizational structure" (p. 135), resonate with our experience that time, facilitation, and material conditions are in fact crucial elements that help better ensure that those most marginalized have the opportunity to participate. Even though these ingredients will not guarantee a successful collaboration, they are simple things that make a difference; we need to claim, prioritize, and sufficiently fund them.

If these ingredients are so important to rich community–university collaboration, why are they so often missing or overlooked? One reason, we believe, is the pressure of academic neoliberalism. The publish or perish, funding or famine culture common to the neoliberal university is set up to reward output, namely publications and grant dollars. The slow intentional work of meaningful collaborative partnerships stands in tension with this incentive structure. As Antonia Darder (2012) pointed out, the focus of

> professors in major public research universities today is not directed toward teaching nor public engagement (despite the rhetoric), but rather toward becoming published within refereed journals; getting publicly noticed as stars in the academic conference circuit; and developing effective grant writing skills—all the while, competitively shaping their research agendas in ways that will procure them greater access to private and public funds, along with the institutional benefits and privileges that these resources afford them. (p. 415)

As a further disincentive, many universities' guidelines for evaluating community-engaged research do not take into consideration the significant investment of time it requires and how its aims may differ from those of other types of research (i.e., producing materials that may be useful to a community partner rather than traditional academic publications; Morrison, 2020; O'Meara, 2018; Saltmarsh & Wooding, 2016).

We have also come to believe these ingredients are overlooked because they constitute "soft" aspects of collaboration akin to a form of "women's work." To take just one example, providing food at a meeting often involves anticipating participants' needs, making choices about what and how much to provide, going shopping, arriving early to display food and staying late to clean up—packing leftovers, wiping down counters, taking out trash, sweeping up crumbs. These tasks may appear tangential to a project, yet they matter, as argued previously. Feminist scholars have long argued that tasks like feeding, housekeeping, and caregiving are necessary to sustain life and community but are generally uncompensated, undervalued, or rendered invisible (e.g., Bakker, 2007; Bakker & Gill, 2003; Guy & Newman, 2004; Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008; Hart, 2013). In capitalist societies, these life-sustaining tasks are typically assigned to women and coded as "women's work" in contrast to *productive* labor (Hart, 2013; Mies, 1982; Rioux, 2015). In a similar vein, ensuring our basic ingredients are provided is essential yet undervalued. Like women's work, it requires not just time but also cognitive, emotional, and physical labor. It is work, but not considered "productive." Rather than take this work for granted, however, we argue that community-engaged researchers should claim and center it as essential work within community-engaged scholarship.

Discussion: Theorizing Relationships in Community-Engaged Research

As noted earlier, scholars working in the solidarity paradigm of community-engaged research have written extensively about the role, meaning, and significance of relationships in this work, and many have critiqued the rise of academic neoliberalism. Their ideas have inspired and deeply informed our approach to community-engaged scholarship. Like them, we believe relationships are essential and researchers should center practices of relationship-building when we think about, perform, and represent community-engaged research in writing. Building from these assumptions, from the lessons learned in the CVRJ project, and from our collective experience with other community partnerships, we propose three contributions to move the field of critical community-engaged research forward.

First, many have examined the relationship between university and community partners, and rightly so, because it is a major axis of power inequality in which university-based scholars are directly implicated. However, the singular emphasis on one axis of power/difference may contribute to a binary notion of relationship between "university" and "community." This perspective constructs the university–community relationship as the most central and important one, thereby (perhaps unwittingly) (re)centering the university-based participants in this work, and presenting "community" and "university" as monoliths. In the CVRJ project, however, one of the most promising outcomes was a set of new relationships between youth organizations in two different cities, youth and a school district leader, and university-affiliated partners who had not previously collaborated. Throughout the project, we intentionally centered and took steps to develop relationships across, among, and between community partners. Therefore, following Danley and Christiansen (2019), we argue that community-engaged scholars should conceptualize relationships as a network rather than a binary, and this conceptualization should shape how we think about, write about, and practice community engagement.

Second, relationships are often framed as a means to community-engaged scholarship. This is why critical community-engaged scholars have given so much attention to the quality of relationships, often emphasizing the time, care, and labor required to develop and nurture meaningful, equitable relationships with community partners. However, as we reflected on the CVRJ project, we concluded that new relationships (and the strengthening of prior relationships) were not merely a means to accomplish new things; they were also an important and enduring outcome of the project. The community-organizing approach to social change seeks first and foremost to build power by cultivating relationships (Garza, 2020; Schutz & Sandy, 2011; Whitman, 2018). Although this practice of relationship-building ideally leads to desired outcomes (e.g., a policy is changed, a program created, a candidate elected), it is valuable even if a particular campaign is unsuccessful. Over the long term, strong relationships build power, or the ability to influence structures and practices. As community-engaged scholars committed to justice-oriented social change, we view relationship-building as an ongoing practice that is intricately connected to the work, and a legitimate outcome. To advance the scholarly conversation about community-engaged research, we want to reclaim and reframe relationships as not just a means to community-engaged research, but one of its most significant results.

Third, critical community-engaged scholars have critiqued the rise of academic capitalism (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004), or educational neoliberalism, for imposing a market-based logic on community partnerships. Our experience resonates with their critiques, and we have struggled to find the balance between sustaining meaningful relationships with community partners and surviving within the neoliberal university's metrics of productivity and success. As we reflected on this tension, we observed how neoliberalization obscures and distorts the relational work of community engagement by casting relationships in transactional terms. As universities are governed by market logic, our value as faculty members is derived from our ability to produce; in turn, we may value community partnerships based on what they enable us to produce. Even those of us who understand and critique the impact of neoliberalism may find ourselves being shaped by it. We are forced to think in terms of grants, possible publications, and access; therefore, however unintentionally, we end up positioning relationships as a commodity or currency. Doing so has the effect of casting our relationships with community partners as transactional. If they do not clearly and quickly lead to a measurable, tangible outcome that we can claim credit for in our scholarship, they may not be worth our time and energy. In light of the effects of educational neoliberalism, it is essential to reclaim the relational practices that lie at the center of community-engaged scholarship. This means claiming time, space, and funding for relationship-building; ensuring the ingredients for justice-oriented collaboration are present; naming, recognizing, and compensating the labor needed to ensure the ingredients are present; centering and theorizing what relationship-building practices look like; refusing to define relationships in transactional terms or reduce community engagement to bounded projects with discrete outcomes; and recognizing the value of long-term sustained community relationships instead of just-in-time, grant-driven collaborations. Approaching relationships this way, we argue, is a form of resistance to academic neoliberalism.

Conclusion: A Call for Justice-Oriented Collaborations

Over 4 years have passed since our university allocated funds to 14 research teams with the goal of exploring how the university could develop a Center for Racial Justice and Urban Affairs. When the work first began, the university publicized the work in press releases and on university blogs and websites. One post boasted that "nearly 100 community partners are directly engaged in or will be touched by the work of the faculty teams" (News & Media Relations, 2017) Despite all this promise, after each research team turned in their final report describing their work, possible next steps, and funding potential, nothing happened. Not only was the center not realized, but the opportunity for cross-project collaboration and learning was dropped. The reports were not shared or made public. The various research teams never convened as a group to share our learning; likewise, there were no opportunities to bring together or answer to the 100 community partners who were involved in this work. Although some research teams, like ours, undoubtedly stayed connected to

their community partners and continued to collaborate, doing so was not supported at the institutional level. We find that this approach taken by universities—a hurried timeline (5 months), public relations posts that overpromise, and a lack of reciprocity or accountability to community partners—is emblematic of academic neoliberalism and the churn of administrator-designed projects that so often characterizes it. This tendency to overpromise and underdeliver is not merely unfortunate; it can break down and prevent future authentic relationships between university people and community people.

Many universities claim to support community partnerships and community engagement, and many academics pursue research that strives to make a positive impact by involving community participation. No one disputes that good relationships are essential to a productive collaboration, or that cultivating relationships in community-engaged research merits care and attention. However, it is one thing to argue that equitable relationships matter and should be centered; it is quite another to articulate what that means and how to achieve it on a practical level. In this reflective essay, we drew lessons from our collective experience with community–university partnerships to advance three modest contributions to scholarly discussions about relationships and relationship-building in critical community-engaged research. Grounding our arguments in one example, the CVRJ project on which we collaborated, we advanced a view of relationships as a network rather than a binary, and as an outcome rather than (solely) a means to community-engaged research. Further, we argued that reframing relationships in this way is both especially challenging and especially necessary in the context of academic neoliberalism. Centering relational practices and claiming them as a legitimate outcome of community-engaged scholarship might not only support more richly collaborative justice-oriented community partnerships, but also help push back against the effects of academic capitalism.

About the Authors

Dani O'Brien *is an assistant professor of education at Northland College.*

Kysa Nygreen *is an associate professor in the Department of Teacher Education and Curriculum Studies, University of Massachusetts Amherst.*

Jen Sandler *is senior lecturer and director of the UMass Alliance for Community Transformation in the Department of Anthropology, University of Massachusetts Amherst.*

References

Aronson, K. R., & Webster, N. (2007). A model for creating engaged land-grant universities: Penn State's engagement ladder model. *Innovative Higher Education, 31*(5), 265–277. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-006-9031-7

Bakker, I. (2007). Social reproduction and the constitution of a gendered political economy. *New Political Economy, 12*(14), 541–556. https://doi.org/10.1080/13563460701661561

Bakker, I., & Gill, S. (2003). Global political economy and social reproduction. In I. Bakker & S. Gill (Eds.), *Power, production, and social reproduction: Human in/security in the global political economy* (pp. 3–15). Palgrave Macmillan.

Bortolin, K. (2011). Serving ourselves: How the discourse on community engagement privileges the university over the community. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 18*(1), 49–58. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0018.104

Brackman, S. M. (2015). Community engagement in a neoliberal paradigm. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 19*(4), 115–146. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1235/1232

Brydon-Miller, M., & Maguire, P. (2009). Participatory action research: Contributions to the development of practitioner inquiry in education. *Educational Action Research, 17*(1), 79–93. https://doi.org/10.1080/09650790802667469

Canaan, J. (2008). A funny thing happened on the way to the (European Social) forum: Or how new forms of accountability are transforming academics' identities and possible responses. In J. Canaan & W. Shumar (Eds.), *Structure and agency in the neoliberal university* (pp. 256–277). Routledge.

Caraballo, L., Lozenski, B. D., Lyiscott, J. J., & Morrell, E. (2017). YPAR and critical epistemologies: Rethinking education research. *Review of Research in Education, 41*(1), 311–336. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X16686948

Clifford, J. (2017). Talking about service-learning: Product or process? Reciprocity or solidarity? *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 21*(4), 7–19. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1357/1354

Cruz, N. I., & Giles, D. E. (2000). Where's the community in service-learning research? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, Special issue No. 1, pp. 28–34. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.spec.104

Danley, S., & Christiansen, G. (2019). Conflicting responsibilities: The multi-dimensional ethics of university/community partnerships. *Journal of Community Engagement and Scholarship, 11*(2), 8-18. https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A689991226/AONE?u=googlescholar&sid=googleScholar&xid=5f71c284

Darder, A. (2012). Neoliberalism in the academic borderlands: An on-going struggle for equality and human rights. *Educational Studies, 48*(5), 412–426. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131946.2012.714334

Dyrness, A. (2008). Research for change versus research as change: Lessons from a mujerista participatory research team. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 39*(1), 23–44. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1548-1492.2008.00003.x

Garza, A. (2020). *The purpose of power: How we come together when we fall apart*. One World.

Glass, R. D., & Newman, A. (2015). Ethical and epistemic dilemmas in knowledge production: Addressing their intersection in collaborative, community-based research. *Theory and Research in Education, 13*(1), 23–37. https://doi.org/10.1177/1477878515571178

Guy, M. E., & Newman, M. A. (2004). Women's jobs, men's jobs: Sex segregation and emotional labor. *Public Administration Review, 64*(3), 289–298. http://www.jstor.org/stable/3542594

Guy, M. E., Newman, M. A., & Mastracci, S. (2008). *Emotional labor: Putting the service in public service*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315704852

Hale, C. (2008). *Engaging contradictions: Theory, politics, and methods of activist scholarship*. University of California Press.

Hall, B. (1992). From margins to center? The development and purpose of participatory research. *The American Sociologist, 23*(4), 15–28. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02691928

Hart, M. (2013). Women, migration, and the body-less spirit of capitalist patriarchy. *Journal of International Women's Studies, 7*(2), 1–16. https://vc.bridgew.edu/jiws/vol7/iss2/1

Hyatt, S. B., Shear, B. W., & Wright, S. (Eds.). (2015). *Learning under neoliberalism: Ethnographies of governance in higher education*. Berghahn Books.

LeCompte, M. (1995). Some notes on power, agenda, and voice: A researcher's personal evolution toward critical collaborative research. In P. McLaren & J. Giarelli (Eds.), *Critical theory and educational research* (pp. 91–112). State University of New York Press.

Marullo, S., & Edwards, B. (2000). From charity to justice: The potential of university–community collaboration for social change. *American Behavioral Scientist, 43*(5), 895–912. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764021955540

Mies, M. (1982). *The lace makers of Narsapur: Indian housewives produce for the world market*. Zed Books.

Morrison, E. A. (2020). Exploring community-engaged scholarship: Insights and questions for HRD. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 22*(1), 41–56. https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422319886301

Morton, K. (1997). Campus and community at Providence College. In Corporation for National Service (Ed.), *Expanding boundaries: Building civic responsibility within higher education* (Vol. 2, pp. 8–11). Cooperative Education Association (in cooperation with the Corporation for National Service).

Nash, M. (2019). Entangled pasts: Land-grant colleges and American Indian dispossession. *History of Education Quarterly, 59*(4), 437–467. https://doi.org/10.1017/heq.2019.31

News & Media Relations, University of Massachusetts Amherst. (2017, March 30). *Faculty, community groups lay groundwork for Center for Racial Justice and Urban Affairs in Springfield*. https://www.umass.edu/archivenewsoffice/article/faculty-community-groups-lay-groundwork

Nygreen, K. (2017). Troubling the discourse of both/and: Technologies of neoliberal governance in community-based educational spaces. *Policy Futures in Education, 15*(2), 202–220.

O'Brien, D. (2019). *When healing and high-stakes meet: Restorative justice in an era of racial neoliberalism* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts Amherst]. ScholarWorks. https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_2/1612

O'Meara, K. (2018, August 8). *Accurately assessing engaged scholarship*. Inside Higher Ed. https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2018/08/22/academe-needs-better-evaluate-engaged-scholarship-opinion

Peacock, D. (2012). Neoliberal social inclusion? The agenda of the Australian Universities Community Engagement Alliance. *Critical Studies in Education, 53*(3), 311–325. https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2012.703138

Rioux, S. (2015). Embodied contradictions: Capitalism, social reproduction, and body formation. *Women's Studies International Forum, 48*, 197–202. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2014.03.008

Saltmarsh, J., & Wooding, J. (2016). Rewarding community-engaged scholarship: A state university system approach. *Metropolitan Universities, 27*(2), 74–86. https://doi.org/10.18060/21128

Schutz, A., & Sandy, M. (2011). *Collective action for social change: An introduction to community organizing*. Springer.

Shear, B., & Hyatt, S. (2015). Introduction: Higher education, engaged anthropology, and hegemonic struggle. In S. Hyatt, B. Shear, & S. Wright (Eds.), *Learning under neoliberalism: Ethnographies of governance in higher education* (pp. 1–29). Berghahn Books.

Shore, C., & Wright, S. (2000). Coercive accountability: The rise of audit culture in higher education. In M. Strathern (Ed.), *Audit cultures: Anthropological studies in accountability, ethics and the academy* (pp. 57–89). Routledge.

Slaughter, S. A., & Rhoades, G. (2004). *Academic capitalism and the new economy: Markets, state, and higher education*. Johns Hopkins University Press.

Smith, L. T. (2012). *Decolonizing methodologies: Research and Indigenous Peoples* (2nd ed.). Zed Books.

Stout, L. (1996). *Bridging the class divide and other lessons for grassroots organizing*. Beacon Press.

Strathern, M. (2000). Introduction: New accountabilities. In M. Strathern (Ed.), *Audit cultures: Anthropological studies in accountability, ethics and the academy* (pp. 1–18). Routledge.

Strier, R., & Shechter, D. (2016). Visualizing access: Knowledge development in university–community partnerships. *Higher Education, 71*(3), 343–359. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-015-9907-5

Vakil, S., McKinney de Royston, M., Suad Nasir, N., & Kirshner, B. (2016). Rethinking race and power in design-based research: Reflections from the field. *Cognition and Instruction, 34*(3), 194–209. https://doi.org/10.1080/07370008.2016.1169817

Warren, M. R. (2018). Research confronts equity and social justice—building the emerging field of collaborative, community engaged education research: Introduction to the special issue. *Urban Education, 53*(4), 439–444. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085918763495

Westoby, P., & Shevellar, L. (2019). "Singing up the second story": Acts of community development scholar "delicate activism" within the neoliberal university. In D. Bottrell & C. Manathunga (Eds.), *Resisting neoliberalism in higher education: Vol. 1. Seeing through the cracks* (pp. 205–222). Palgrave Macmillan.

Whitman, G. (2018). *Stand up! How to get involved, speak out, and win in a world on fire*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Williams, J. (2019). Educational partnerships for social justice and community empowerment. In D. Bottrell & C. Manathunga (Eds.), *Resisting neoliberalism in higher education: Vol. 1. Seeing through the cracks* (pp. 283–302) Palgrave Macmillan.

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 163, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Higher Education Institutions' Roles in Strengthening Local Capacity for Community Development: An Analytical Framework

Carmen Luca Sugawara

Abstract

Responding to an ongoing disconnect between higher education institutions (HEIs) and contemporary challenges communities face worldwide, universities can become a driving force to strengthen communities' capacity toward innovative solutions to the challenges they face. This article introduces an analytical framework that provides a roadmap to design, examine, and measure the potential contributions of community-engaged university education in strengthening local capacity for community development (LCCD). The framework proposes three pillars of analysis: community assets, functioning capacity, and transformational capacity. Better understanding the contribution of community-engaged university programs in strengthening LCCD can create the conditions for local communities to leverage their power to foster positive social change while universities reexamine the way they engage communities. Finally, the article discusses implications for social development actors involved in promoting local capacity development to strengthen democracy and civic engagement and the benefits of involving HEIs as key stakeholders for social development.

Keywords: community-engaged education, community capacity development, campus–community partnerships, analytical framework, local capacity for community development

As democracy is challenged and local communities experience heightened socioeconomic and political divisions with increased alienation from community life, higher education institutions (HEIs) must continually reexamine their roles and responsibilities across teaching, research, and service. For the past two decades, universities and local communities have created stronger ties through community engagement. Mutually beneficial exchanges are central to promoting "community-engaged universities" (EOSLHE, 2019). This commitment is evidenced, in part, by the number of regional networks (e.g., Asia, Australia, Canada, Latin America, Middle East, South Africa) and associations (e.g., Campus Compact, Europe Engage, Talloires Network) across the globe that now support community engagement in higher education. Additionally, the Carnegie Elective Classification for Community Engagement (2022) validates excellence in campus–community partnerships in the United States, and this framework for classification is currently being adapted by HEIs in Europe, Canada, and Australia. Much of this work is enacted through HEIs' community-engaged educational programs that involve students in direct service with local community organizations, institutions, social networks, or alike social structures. These educational platforms can be transformative for all participants, including students, faculty, and host communities.

However, scholarship on community-engaged education has primarily centered on measuring the impact of such initiatives

on students' learning (Colby et al., 2007; Longo, 2007; Thomas, 2011) and on faculty's research and engagement (Boyte, 2004; Calleson et al., 2005; Neumann & Terosky, 2007). There has been only modest examination of the impact of HEIs on local community development (Hatcher & Bringle, 2012; Hodges & Dubb, 2012). Evidence indicates that when communities engage in educational partnerships with HEIs, the communities also gain from such partnerships. The literature, which remains sparse (Koekkoek et al., 2021; Shiel et al., 2016), points to types of outcomes that support local capacity for development (LCD). These include outcomes such as incorporating new project ideas for community organizations, implementing interorganizational strategies, developing solutions to local problems (Bushouse, 2005), and creating new community structures such as advisory boards or research committees to engage in partnerships with universities (Brugge & Missaghian, 2006; Freeman et al., 2006; Heaney et al., 2007). Even more specific, as in the case of Brazilian universities, outcomes include developing sustainable regional tourism and supporting biodiesel with used oil (Shiel et al., 2016).

Despite the growth in these educational partnerships, the voice of the community organization often remains unheard, and the relationship between the community and university is often imbalanced. This imbalance makes it difficult to demand accountability of such partnerships and to identify clear contributions for all involved in these learning platforms. Paying attention to the relationships formed between participants involved in community–university partnerships (Muse, 2018) is proposed as a step forward in rebalancing power, as both sides reap the benefits of the partnership (Bacon, 2002; Gelmon, 2003). Whether through relationship building or programmatic approaches developed to address local challenges, community–university engaged programs have the potential to develop social capital and increase civic engagement, both of which are important in fostering local capacity for development (Luca Sugawara et al., 2017).

Building the capacity of community structures, individuals, and organizations is the main focus of international development, a field that identifies LCD as a central tenet of its work in all sectors (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010; Morgan, 1998). Historically, international development agencies have partnered with local universities and program evaluators to develop and monitor best practices. However, universities have not been seen as critical partnering institutions in strengthening local capacity for development. LCD projects often focus on strengthening civil society organizations, increasing citizen participation, or enacting public policy reform. To date, the field of international development, and the funding, have given only modest attention to the potential roles of universities in this vital work, with the main focus on engaging U.S.-based universities (Office of Global Partnerships, n.d.; USAID, 2021a). Perhaps as a result of this neglect, a general disconnect exists between HEIs and community development (Luca Sugawara et al., 2013; Muse, 2018; Shiel et al., 2016), especially in countries where social development projects take place. Like other social institutions, local universities can become a driving force to strengthen community capacity toward innovative solutions to address community challenges (Dewey, 1916; McNight & Kretzman, 1990).

Responding to this disconnect between HEIs and LCD, as well as to the potential for innovative and meaningful collaboration, this article proposes an analytical framework that establishes conceptual connections between community-engaged universities and local capacity for community development (LCCD). The framework identifies and describes the characteristics of three pillars (i.e., community assets, functioning capacity, transformational capacity) that support LCCD. In addition, the article offers guidance for practice and a pathway for empirically measuring LCCD at the micro-, mezzo-, and exosystem. In moving forward with this inquiry, the article begins with the theoretical underpinnings of this analytical framework and its relevance to the field of community engagement.

Theoretical Underpinnings

Popular education (Dewey, 1938;1944; Freire, 1970) and social capital (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1990) are key theoretical pillars for this framework. Although these two theories occupy distinct academic spheres, they share a common origin that few acknowledge. In bringing these two theories together, this article recognizes that social capital, as a term and a concept, was coined by Dewey (1907, as cited in Farr,

2004) and later adapted by Putnam (1995). Dewey's (1907) fundamental assertion in his democratic philosophy of education is that educational purposes should be intimately interconnected with the community and help students build knowledge and competencies to address "social necessities" (p. 24). Dewey (1907) also viewed higher education institutions as a central hub in shaping democracy and democratic capacity for the larger society.

The theory of popular education indicates that community-engaged education is a complex educational process that anchors students in local communities while shaping their understanding of the world, social connections with local groups, and ability to influence change and leverage collective power. Individual experiences and realities of the context are central in moving learners toward taking action and becoming change-makers in their communities. As founding fathers of community-engaged education, Dewey and Freire (Hyman, 2002) both recognized that among many benefits, this educational approach helps students get closer to the community and develop social networks and opportunities to collaborate with local groups and residents. Such engagement increases students' sense of civic duty and belonging and helps to build their confidence in their abilities to effect change (Zaff et al., 2010, as cited in Jemal, 2017).

Additionally, the theory of popular education also describes the social function of HEIs in supporting local communities in a democracy. Education in a democracy must navigate and respond to the tensions of meeting social aims while promoting individual development (Hatcher & Erasmus, 2008). A significant number of leading community-engaged campuses in the United States align their educational resources with local community development goals (Hodges & Dubb, 2012). It would be an oversight to disregard the learning and structural changes that happen at the community level, but existing literature does not often consider them (Koekkoek et al., 2021). We have yet to identify and gain consensus on specific community outcomes that result from community-engaged university partnerships. Only in doing so can the field of community engagement critically examine the impact on and responsibilities in working with local communities. The framework proposes such perspectives.

The second theoretical underpinning for this analytical framework is social capital. As a precursor of community engagement social processes (Hyman, 2002), social capital helps to explain how the social connections between faculty, students, and local communities create a "flow of goods and services to individuals and groups" (Edwards & Foley, 2001, p.12). This flow creates pathways for deep learning processes, resource mobilization, and leveraging power. Social capital is defined mainly by its elements: social networks, relations, affinities, responsibilities, and resources that enable people to act toward a collective purpose (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1990). Putnam (1995) described the central thesis of social capital as strong associational life that generates networks, trust, and norms of reciprocity essential for a functioning democracy. However, the concept was first introduced by Alexis de Tocqueville in his 19th-century statement that active civic life is the basis of American democracy, and Dewey first coined the term in 1900 (Farr, 2004).

Even with the field's current emphasis on associational life, social capital scholars reference Dewey's placement of schools as a central hub in shaping democracy and democratic capacity for the larger society. Dewey linked the two, recognizing that promoting action-oriented education produces spillover benefits to social capital formation. Dewey (1907) challenged educational institutions to rethink how they can become "centers of community life" (p. 11) He pointed to the importance of connecting with local communities and promoting social processes that facilitate learning, "bind people together" (1915 in *The Middle Works, 1899–1924*, 8:362, as cited in Farr, 2004), help those involved access resources, and generate the power of civic activism. This type of power is capital in itself, reshaping social structures to give otherwise unconnected individuals and groups access to the combined resources of the broader social network.

Unlike Putnam's (1995) normative approach to social capital, the social structural perspective places social capital in the relationships among individuals, not in the individuals per se, generating resources and leveraging power for only those involved in the social linkages (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Foley & Edwards, 1998). For example, Coleman (1990) argued that social capital becomes an "asset for individuals

and facilitates a certain action or outcome for those who occupy a given structure" (p. 302). This structural approach reminds us that people come together and form webs of social relations and support one another by leveraging power, exercising greater control and power over the flow of capital, and accessing resources to form new structures to help achieve individual or collective aims. For higher education representatives or community development actors, this approach to social capital theory highlights the importance of fostering university–community partnerships for the social capital inherent within the relationships developed, not just for the resources accessed.

Social capital helps explain how individuals access resources within specific social structures (Foley & Edwards, 1997, 1998). For example, knowing that a leading community organization serving refugees exists in the community does not help a HEI social work program train the next generation of social work practitioners to work with refugees. What does help is for the faculty of the local university and the staff of the community organization to establish an educational partnership. Still, another equally important element that gives social capital value in this context is the timing of its accessibility. Social capital is not valuable unless it is accessible. Resources must be available now—not next spring or the year after. Resources and their immediate accessibility are the necessary elements in strengthening the social capital needed for collaborative learning platforms (Foley & Edwards, 1998). To understand the value of such community–university partnerships, many questions are worth asking. Examples include who benefits from community-engaged education initiatives? How do we design program interventions so all stakeholders—universities, faculty members, students, communities, citizens involved—achieve their respective goals?

Understanding the types of resources brought into the partnership is equally essential to sustainable development initiatives. Therefore, mapping community assets (McKnight & Kretzmann, 1990) is another critical step in community-engaged university partnerships. Inviting community members representing diverse groups and holding local wisdom to help craft joint commitments can lead to meaningful educational partnerships for all involved. In doing so, community–university engagement initiatives can also become robust platforms for strengthening local community capacities while shaping new generations of engaged citizens committed to local communities.

Analytical Framework

The analytical framework (see Figure 1) supports understanding and analyzing the inherent effects of university–community partnerships on LCCD. In this framework, communities are defined as a group of people or organizations linked by social ties and collective goals; communities may share a physical location or be virtual. The framework identifies community well-being as the main social development goal. Such focus helps to unpack the complexity of social processes that facilitate synergetic relationships among institutions, community groups organized for collective purposes, and community members. Expanding upon Morgan's (1998) definition of LCD, which aims at building on existing assets to improve social structures and institutional performances for local benefits, as well as the United Nations Development Programme's (2009) capacity development depiction, LCCD is defined as *the social processes through which individuals, community groups, and organizations maintain, strengthen, and develop local capabilities to function and to improve community well-being for the long term*.

The heart of the framework rests on the interdependence among three essential community capacities, their supportive community capabilities, and how community–university engagement programs enact these capacities. This is because developing local capacity requires more than strong institutions or highly skilled community members. It involves community members working with one another for a collective purpose. Within this context, universities are important foci of change for promoting local capacity for community development. This line of thinking is echoed by the United States Agency for International Development's most recent LCD strategy, in which universities are clearly highlighted as "local systems" (USAID, 2021b, p. 4) essential for local development.

Following Baser and Morgan's (2008) work on LCD, the analysis looks at all three

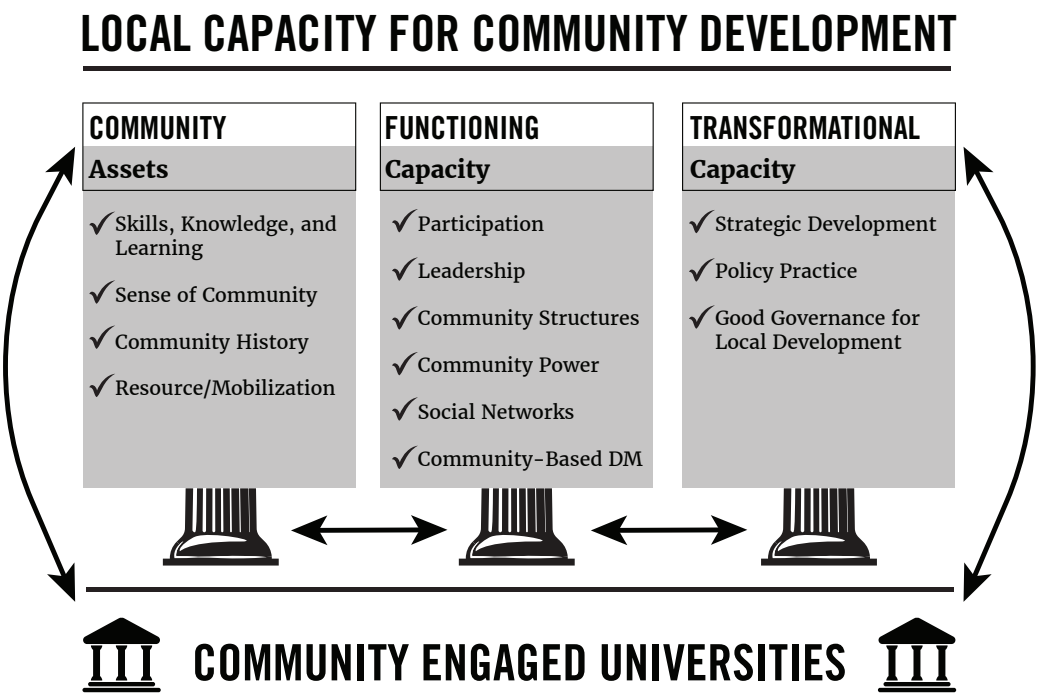


Figure 1 . Framework for Strengthening Local Capacity for Community Development through Community-Engaged Universities.

levels—micro-, mezzo-, and exosystem—focusing on the capacity of academic communities to support local organizations' and community members' responses and abilities to address local challenges. Unlike the traditional LCD approach embraced by foreign development agencies, which focuses on concrete outputs, macro practice research, and a technocratic strategy for development (Baser & Morgan, 2008; Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010), this LCCD framework points to the importance of capturing social processes and individual transformations that strengthen community members' ability to engage with one another and respond to community needs. Capacity development is not a linear process, nor can it be reduced to the transferability of skills and knowledge through training materials, workshops, or grants (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010; Dichter, 2014). Therefore, the framework embraces complexity and a multidimensional phenomenon that emphasizes measuring the community's strengths by leveraging existing resources, shaping community capacities and capabilities, strengthening social networks, and defining collective aims, all to address systemic and long-lasting change. Fundamental principles that guide LCCD include promoting participation, inclusiveness, decentralization, and sustainability, and practicing mutuality and cultural humility, while appreciating and building on local wisdom and capacities for all involved (Luca Sugawara et al., 2013; USAID, 2021b).

Through community members' participation, local citizens experience increased community identity to respond collaboratively and comprehensively to new contexts over time (Danish International Development Agency, 2014; European Commission, 2011; UNDP, 2009). USAID's (2021b) most recent Local Capacity Development Strategy also highlights the importance of increasing local ownership, sustainability, and partnerships with local organizations, donors, social structures, and other stakeholders. Its motto, "nothing about us, without us" (USAID, 2021b, p. 14), encompasses the critical message of promoting positive social change with the community and for the community. Thus, sustainability is a backbone in LCCD, pointing to the importance of fostering capacity and social processes that could facilitate systemic and positive lasting change.

The operationalization of LCCD in this analytical framework uses three key pillars: (1) community assets, (2) functioning capacity,

and (3) transformational capacity. These three pillars are synergistically dependent upon one another, for community well-being results from multidimensional, nonlinear, and ongoing social processes among assets, stakeholders, existing resources, and local capabilities. For example, one cannot examine local capacity for community development by evaluating how strong local community organizations are, or by mapping the individual skills and knowledge that exist in the community. Rather, the collaborative social processes among individuals, local groups, and community agencies themselves are important. The types of engagement they employ with one another to fulfill collective needs, and the support systems developed to strengthen local responses for greater community actions, are all necessary. We might ask these questions: Are local communities reshaping their identities as they take on new roles in leading students' experiential learning in their communities or interacting with university experts? Are students strengthening their ability to be a voice for long-term change? What are some of the concrete capabilities developed as a result of community-engaged educational partnerships' programs? The three pillars proposed in this analytical framework aim to identify such changes.

To bring further clarity to the concepts used to build this analytical framework, *community capacity* refers to an aggregate of community resources, local organizations, collective capabilities, and synergies that enable a community to address collective issues and expand on community opportunities (Chaskin, 2001; Tonon, 2018). Capacity is not about reaching specific ends but developing those social processes that focus on social means, which can be used in different contexts for other community or individual gains. However, capabilities are the collective abilities, counting as skills or aptitudes to carry out a particular function or community aim (Baser & Morgan, 2008; George et al., 2016). Community capabilities result from social interactions or individuals' involvement in collective action (Ibrahim, 2006). Collective capabilities are complex social dynamics that require collective decision-making processes, united goals, and social trust at a minimum.

The first pillar of the framework is *community assets*. Understanding that regardless of existing challenges, every human community has its local assets is the starting point in capacity-building initiatives. It promotes a bottom-up approach to local capacity building. In addition, working with local resources requires understanding the history of social structures. Therefore, the framework proposes to examine how a community interprets its history in moving forward with one strategy over another.

In examining the community assets, careful consideration of the following four dimensions is proposed, along with some illustrative examples of how community-engaged university programs can contribute to the development of each dimension.

- *Skills, knowledge, and learning*—these represent assets present in a given community at individual and organizational levels. Maclellan-Wright et al. (2007) proposed including new sets of skills and knowledge or accessing skills and expertise needed for a project's success or to address community needs. Knowing that learning is dialogical (Dewey, 1916; Freire, 1970) and that they—the students, faculty, and community members—enter a transformative learning process poses straightforward questions on the impact of community assets. What type of knowledge, skills, and learning generated from these exchanges can benefit local communities? Are community members or host organizations gaining new knowledge and sets of competencies to lead them into the future? These questions can be examined through the application of the proposed framework.

- *Sense of community* references a collective sense of connection with the place and people, who ultimately aid in fulfilling needs through group membership (Goodman et al., 1998; Maclellan-Wright et al., 2007). We know that for students to become civically engaged and committed social agents of change, they must develop a sense of belonging and a responsibility to serve. Can such exchanges between students/faculty and various community members/groups strengthen a sense of community? For example, during a community forum event organized at the end of an international study

abroad in the host community, local community members reported new ways of looking at community participants joining the event. Some reported that by learning what the participating organizations were doing in working with our students, they began to define new roles and responsibilities with one another at the local, regional, or global levels (Luca Sugawara et al., 2017).

- *Community history* is key to understanding how a community interprets its history in moving forward with one strategy over another (Goodman et al., 1998). It also helps to understand and propose various social processes over others. Who would work with whom? Who is being included speaks to the community values that define norms and guide community-engaged programs. Highlighting community history through readings or guest speaker presentations by a community member allows students to learn from lived experiences and local wisdom, adding new meaning not only to the students' understanding of local context but for the narrator as they reflect on their past.
- *Resources/resource mobilization*—knowing that existing assets reside in a given community is not sufficient to support LCCD initiatives. However, mobilizing those resources through partnership development, goal setting, and clear expectations can be essential to fostering positive development (Maclellan-Wright et al., 2007). Resources such as physical capital (e.g., tractors, laboratory, technology) can become critical assets in a given community initiative if accessed through a collaborative learning/exchange and an increased sense of trust in one another. Universities bring varied resources to community development, yet we do not have a very clear understanding of how community partners build on such opportunities for their collective benefits.

Functioning capacity is the second pillar identified to operationalize the concept of local capacity for community development. Functioning capacity streams from the interaction between various collective capabilities, actors, existing social structures, and local interests. It is the ability of groups of people or organizations to come together, leveraging specific community characteristics and assets, and form or transform social structures through different levels of social agency to perform specialized functions (Chaskin, 2001). Community functioning grows and becomes more visible when engaged in local social processes. Thus, functioning capacity is understood as the ongoing synergies and dialogical exchanges between actors and their social structures. Functioning capacity enables local community members to participate in community life, develop leadership, form or solidify community structures, strengthen community power, develop partnerships/social linkages/networks, and engage in community-based decision-making processes.

For example, youth disengagement in a community cannot be addressed only by recognizing the issue. It requires providing opportunities for young people to become involved in sociopolitical community events. High participation of youth in community life results from collective community capabilities to participate in community events, the availability of support structures to facilitate such engagements, and the creation of social networks, among others. Therefore, recognizing the importance of collective agency (Pelenc et al., 2015) in fostering collective capabilities to increase the functioning capacity of a community, this pillar is operationalized by the following six dimensions: participation, leadership development, community structures, community power, partnerships/social linkages/networks, and community-based decision-making.

- *Participation* is the active involvement of people in collective actions to achieve individual or collective goals. Community members' capabilities to engage in collective action are fundamental in recognizing and mobilizing local resources, expertise, and increasing commitment to others while creating a collective identity and boosting personal responsibilities vis-à-vis community life. Community-engaged university programs give an opportunity not only to students to participate in local events or action plans but

allow local community members to attend new social structures and local events.

- *Leadership development* includes developing and nurturing both formal and informal local members who could influence and lead change within a community and a desire to be transformational. Another essential measure of effective leadership is the accountability of leaders and their ability to nurture informal relationships (Maclellan-Wright et al., 2007).
- *Community structures* are social processes allowing community members to leverage preexisting social networks or improve existing ones, smaller or less formal ones, and committees that foster belonging and give the community a chance to express views and exchange information (e.g., youth groups, self-help groups, grant-writing groups; Maclellan-Wright et al., 2007).
- *Community power* refers to the ability of a group to create or resist change regarding community turf, interests, or experiences (Goodman et al., 1998). It is the ability of the community to decide what to do, when, and how to proceed in response to local community changes or existing opportunities.
- *Partnerships/social linkages/networks* support the ability of the community organizations/individuals to network with diverse sectors, sharing information resources, and working with various individuals, groups, and organizations to take collective action on addressing local issues or reaching a common goal (Maclellan-Wright et al., 2007).
- *Community-based decision-making* is a social process by which community members collectively decide what is good for the community (e.g., engaging various representatives in local decisions). We know that when various groups are involved in collaborative processes, both individuals and social agencies begin a solidification process through which meaningful adaptation takes place, transforming social systems to become a driving force for community decision-making with the community and for the community (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010).

Finally, *transformational capacity* rests in the community's collective capabilities to envision its long-term goals; influence policy practice and social change through its ability to approve, disapprove, or recommend long-term solutions; and tackle structural changes to improve the community's well-being. At this level, the three dimensions proposed for analysis include strategic development, policy practice, and good governance for local development.

- *Strategic development* takes into account the community's ability to intentionally plan, build, and engage collectively for long-term positive change within a community. Key to this dimension is the importance of developing collective aims that respond to community interests (not external goals).
- *Policy practice* represents efforts to change policies in the legislative, agency, and community settings aiming at contributing to the well-being of communities and those in need of services and support (Jansson, 2008; Weiss-Gal & Gal, 2014). Policy practice may involve moving specific issues to higher visibility in the community, lobbying for policy change, monitoring oppressive or progressive policies, or making efforts to change policies through captaining or deliberative democracy practices that engage various stakeholders in research and policy practice formation (Weil et al., 2015).
- *Good governance for local development* explores the levels of community representation, participation, accountability, transparency, effectiveness, security, and equity (UNDP,2015). For community participation to occur, increased visibility of organizations' or local groups' commitments to the community's well-being is necessary. Equally important is to hold accountable the leading organizations in fulfilling their promises to the community, partnering organizations, or its member participants.

Discussions and Implications

The proposed framework establishes conceptual connections between community-engaged university programs and LCCD. Community engagement represents the "collaborative processes 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" (Community Engagement Classification, 2022). To move this work forward, there needs to be a greater focus on LCCD and the close synergies established between community-engaged universities and local host communities. These educational processes not only aim to serve a public purpose but to build the capacity of those involved (e.g., individuals, groups, organizations) to understand and collaborate on addressing issues of public concern (UNC Greensboro, 2022).

This framework is introduced as a generative design for community-engaged research and scholarship to help develop, examine, and assess shared goals between community-engaged university programs and local capacity for community development. When used in empirical research, the framework can help strengthen the argument for reciprocity and clarify how universities can contribute to LCCD. For higher education institutions' representatives, the framework can be used as conceptual pillars for designing and establishing collaborative educational programs with local community partners.

For close to a century, universities have built a robust scholarship with a history of community-engaged education, bringing clear philosophical reasoning in promoting education for democracy (Dewey, 1916; Freire, 1970) and its relevance in supporting civic engagement and participative democracy (Ehrlich, 2000). Despite the attention to reciprocity, community-engaged scholarship comes short in documenting its impact on local and host communities. Conceptually, several scholars point to the importance of reciprocity when designing community-engaged programs through a clear delineation of shared activities and outcomes such that all feel the experience to be equitable (Dostilio et al., 2012). Others (Hodges & Dubb, 2012) use vignettes to capture some social transformations that are potential promoters of local capacity. Still, we have not paid sufficient attention to documenting the contributions, or adverse effects, of community-engaged education upon local communities.

Building on the existing community capacity development literature (Baser & Morgan, 2008; Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010; Chaskin, 2001; Goodman et al.,1998; Maclellan-Wright et al., 2007; Merino & Carmenado, 2012), this framework proposes the analysis of three fundamental pillars in measuring LCCD—community assets, functioning capacity, and transformational capacity. By focusing on mapping the community assets and assessing the collective abilities, social networks, and community social structures against their existing synergies, the framework recognizes that community capacity is multidimensional and does not focus on community outcomes per se, but rather on the social processes that sustain and support reaching collective aims.

New to the existing measures of community capacity is the pillar of *transformational capacity* generated by local community groups' collective capabilities to envision their long-term goals, shape progress toward these goals, achieve desired outcomes, and influence policy practice. Should this framework bring empirical evidence to support the argument that community-engaged programs contribute to strengthening local capacity for community development, HEIs can regain relevance and a key role in designing and promoting social development initiatives in countries transitioning to democracy. Whether through the promotion of service-learning education or participative action research centers, this framework provides a roadmap to measure the possible contributions of community-engaged university programs in strengthening LCCD.

Finally, local community representatives can use this framework to clarify possible partnership goals, setting ways to hold universities accountable in choosing local partners to engage in educational exchanges. Especially for social development actors involved in promoting local capacity development (e.g., USAID, the World Bank, foundations), this framework sheds light on the importance of inviting HEIs as key stakeholders in promoting local capacity for community development. It also serves as methodological bridges to measure local processes and positive changes realized through community-engaged universities.

Conclusions

This framework provides a roadmap to design, examine, and measure the potential contributions of community-engaged university programs in strengthening local capacity for community development (LCCD). Understanding the benefits of community-university engagement in strengthening LCCD can create the conditions for local communities to leverage their own power in engaging in partnership programs with HEIs. Such understanding invites universities to reexamine how they engage with communities for more effective community-campus partnerships. Developing educational programs with community groups to address local challenges gives recognition to the reciprocity argument of community-engaged education while empowering communities to become key drivers in their development efforts. Further research needs to empirically explore the application and usefulness of the framework to further strengthen this article's central thesis—that community-university engaged programs are fundamental pathways in strengthening local capacity for community development.

Dedication

I dedicate this article to my mentor Richard Blue, who had an exceptional mind, kind and nurturing spirit, and was always available to unpack complexity and anchor me on what was important in life. The initial conversations I had with him were fundamental in framing my research work on community-university engagement, giving me the courage I needed to move this project forward. His contributions to USAID's impact evaluation office and social development initiatives worldwide are well known, yet his dedication to inspiring others, supporting mentees, and being with local communities in Richard's humble way is what I'll forever be grateful for!

Acknowledgment

I thank Julia Hatcher for her thoughtful conversations and comments throughout the development of this paper. I am also grateful to Kristin Farthing, who helped edit the initial version of this article. Special thanks go to also Thomas Dichter and Darcy Ashman, who provided me with feedback and comments to strengthen this paper. Finally, none of this work would matter without recognizing the Slavonian local community organizations which continue to inspire me through the force they have to lead college students into new ways of learning and transforming their local contexts.

About the Author

Carmen Luca Sugawara *is an associate professor at the Indiana University School of Social Work.*

References

Bacon, N. (2002). Differences in faculty and community partners' theories of learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 9*(1), 34–44. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0009.104

Baser, H., & Morgan, P. (2008). *Capacity, change and performance study report* (Discussion Paper No. 59B). European Center for Development Policy Management. http://ecdpm.org/publications/capacity-change-performance-study-report/

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). Greenwood Press.

Boyte, H. C. (2004). *Going public: Academics and public life*. Kettering Foundation.

Brinkerhoff, D. W., & Morgan, P. J. (2010). Capacity and capacity development: Coping with complexity. *Public Administration and Development, 30*(1), 2–10. https://gsdrc.org/document-library/capacity-and-capacity-development-coping-with-complexity

Brugge, D., & Missaghian, M. (2006). Protecting the Navajo People through tribal regulation of research. *Science and Engineering Ethics, 12*(3), 491–507. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11948-006-0047-2

Bushouse, B. (2005). Community nonprofit organizations and service-learning: Resource constraints to building partnerships with universities. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 12*(1), 32–40. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0012.103

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

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. (2022). *The Elective Classification for Community Engagement*. https://carnegieelectiveclassifications.org/the-2024-elective-classification-for-community-engagement

Chaskin, R. J. (2001). Building community capacity: A definitional framework and case studies from a comprehensive community initiative. *Urban Affairs Review, 36*(3), 291–323. https://doi.org/10.1177/10780870122184876

Colby, A., Beaumont, E., Ehrlich, T., & Corngold, J. (2007). *Educating for democracy: Preparing undergraduates for responsible political engagement*. Jossey-Bass.

Coleman, J. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology, 94*, S95–S120. http://www.jstor.org/stable/2780243

Coleman, J. (1990). *Foundations of social theory*. The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Danish International Development Agency. (2014). *Capacity Development Support Programme*. Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark. Retrieved June 14, 2021, from https://amg.um.dk/policies-and-strategies/policy-for-danida-capacity-development-and-support-programme

Dewey, J. (1907). *The school and society*. University of Chicago Press.

Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*. Macmillan Company.

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

Dewey, J. (1944). Between two worlds [Lecture notes]. In J. A. Boydston (Ed.), *Later works of John Dewey* (Vol. 17, pp. 451–465). Southern Illinois University Press.

Dichter, T. (2014). *The Capable Partners Learning Agenda on Local Organization Capacity Development*. USAID. https://usaidlearninglab.org/sites/default/files/resource/files/LA-Complete-Final-Report-to-USAID_2.20.14.pdf

Dostilio, L. D., Harrison, B., Brackmann, S. M., Kliewer, B. W., Edwards, K. E., & Clayton, P. H. (2012). Reciprocity: Saying what we mean and meaning what we say. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 19*(1), 17–32. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0019.102

Edwards, B., & Foley, M. W. (1998). Civil society and social capital beyond Putnam. *American*

Behavioral Scientist, 42(1), 124–139. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764298042001010

Edwards, B & Foley, M.W. (2001). A civil society and social capital: A primer. In Edwards, B., Foley, M.W. & Diani, M. (eds.) Beyond Tocqueville: Civil society and the social capital debate in comparative perspective (pp. 1–14). University Press of New England.

Ehrlich, T. (2000). *Civic responsibility and higher education*. The American Council on Education and The Oryx Press.

European Commission. (2011). *Toolkit for capacity development* (Tools and Methods Series, Reference Document No. 6). Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. https://doi.org/10.2783/59212

European Observatory of Service Learning in Higher Education. (2019, November 11). *Europe Engage*. Retrieved June 15, 2021, from https://www.eoslhe.eu/europe-engage/

Farr, J. (2004). Social capital: A conceptual history. *Political Theory 32*(1), 6–33. https://doi.org/10.1177/0090591703254978

Foley, M. W., & Edwards, B. (1997). Editors' introduction: Escape from politics? Social theory and the social capital debate. *American Behavioral Scientist, 40*(5), 550–561. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764297040005002

Foley, M. W., & Edwards, B. (1998). Beyond Tocqueville: Civil society and social capital in comparative perspective. *American Behavioral Scientist, 42*(1), 5–20. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764298042001002

Freeman, E. R., Brugge, D., Bennett-Bradley, W. M., Levy, J. I., & Carrasco, E. R. (2006). Challenges of conducting community-based participatory research in Boston's neighborhoods to reduce disparities in asthma. *Journal of Urban Health: Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine, 83*(6), 1013–1021. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11524-006-9111-0

Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (30th anniversary ed.). Continuum.

Gelmon, S. B. (2003). Assessment as a means of building service-learning partnerships. In B. Jacoby & Associates (Eds.), *Building partnerships for service learning* (pp. 42–64). Jossey-Bass.

George, A. S., Scott, K., Mehra, V., & Sriram, V. (2016). Synergies, strengths, and challenges: Findings on community capability from a systematic health system research literature review. *BMC Health Services Research, 16* (Suppl. 7), Article 623. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-016-1860-1

Goodman, R. M., Speers, M. A., McLeroy, K., Fawcett, S., Kegler, M., Parker, E., Smith, S. R., Sterling, T. D., & Wallerstein, N. (1998). Identifying and defining the dimensions of community capacity to provide a basis for measurement. *Health Education & Behavior: The Official Publication of the Society for Public Health Education, 25*(3), 258–278. https://doi.org/10.1177/109019819802500303

Hatcher, J. A., & Bringle, R. G. (Eds.). (2012). *Understanding service-learning and community engagement: Crossing boundaries through research*. Information Age Publishing.

Hatcher, J. A., & Erasmus, M. A. (2008). Service-learning in the United States and South Africa: A comparative analysis informed by John Dewey and Julius Nyerere. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 15*(1), 49–61. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0015.104

Heaney, C. D., Wilson, S., & Wilson, O. R. (2007). The West End Revitalization Association's community owned and managed research model: Development, implementation, and action. *Progress in Community Health Partnerships: Research, Education, and Action, 1*(4), 351–358. https://doi.org/10.1353/cpr.2007.0037

Hodges, R. A., & Dubb, S. (2012). *The road half traveled: University engagement at a crossroads*. Michigan State University Press.

Hyman, J. B. (2002). Exploring social capital and civic engagement to create a framework for community building. *Applied Developmental Science, 6*(4), 196–202. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532480XADS0604_6

Ibrahim, S. (2006). From individual to collective capabilities: The capability approach as a conceptual framework for self-help. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities, 7*(3), 397–416. https://doi.org/10.1080/14649880600815982

Jansson, B. S. (2008). *Becoming an effective policy advocate: From policy practice to social justice* (5th ed.). Thomson, Brooks/Cole.

Jemal, A. (2017). Critical consciousness: A critique and critical analysis of the literature. *The Urban Review, 49*(4), 602–626. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-017-0411-3

Koekkoek, A., Van Ham, M., & Kleinhans, R. (2021). Unraveling university–community engagement: A literature review. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 25*(1), 3–24. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1586/2648

Longo, N. (2007). *Why community matters: Connecting education with civic life*. State University of New York Press.

Luca Sugawara, C. G., Hermoso, J. C., Popescu, M. L., & Dichter, T. W. (2013). Strengthening democracy through local capacity development: The case of Moldova. *Social Work Review, 2*, 1–13.

Luca Sugawara, C. G., Carlson, J. M., Makki, S., & Vukovic, S. (2017, July). *International service-learning in post war Croatia: Capacity building for the social work profession*. Paper presented at the 20th Biennial International Symposium of the International Consortium for Social Development, Zagreb, Croatia.

Maclellan-Wright, M. F., Anderson, D., Barber, S., Smith, N., Cantin, B., Felix, R., & Raine, K. (2007). The development of measures of community capacity for community-based funding programs in Canada. *Health Promotion International, 22*(4), 299–306. https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/dam024

McKnight, J. L., & Kretzmann, J. P. (1990). *Mapping community capacity*. Center for Urban Affairs and Policy Research, Northwestern University. Retrieved June 2021, from https://mn.gov/mnddc/parallels2/pdf/90s/90/90-MCC-McKnight_Kretzmann.pdf

Merino, S. S., & Carmenado, I. R. (2012). Capacity building in development projects. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 46*, 960–967. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.231

Morgan, P. (1998). *Capacity and capacity development—some strategies*. CIDA. http://nsagm.weebly.com/uploads/1/2/0/3/12030125/strategies_for_capacity_development_cida_1998.pdf

Muse, D. D. (2018). *Exploring the community impact of community–university partnerships* (Publication No. 1415) [Doctoral dissertation, University of Denver]. Electronic Theses and Dissertations. https://digitalcommons.du.edu/etd/1415

Neumann, A., & Terosky, A. L. (2007). To give and to receive: Recently tenured professors' experiences of service in major research universities. *Journal of Higher Education, 78*(3), 282–310. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2007.11772317

Office of Global Partnerships. (n.d.). *Diplomacy Lab*. U.S. Department of State. https://www.state.gov/diplomacy-lab

Pelenc, J., Brazile, D., & Ceruti, C. (2015). Collective capability and collective agency for sustainability: A case study. *Ecological Economics, 118*(C), 226–239. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2015.07.001

Putnam, R. (1995). Bowling alone: America's declining social capital. *Journal of Democracy, 6*(1), 65–78. https://doi.org/10.1353/jod.1995.0002

Shiel, C., Leal Filho, W., do Paço, A., & Brandli, L. (2016). Evaluating the engagement of universities in capacity building for sustainable development in local communities. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 54*, 123–134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2015.07.006

Thomas, N. (2011). *Educating for deliberative democracy* (New Directions for Higher Education No. 152). Jossey-Bass.

Tonon, G. (2018) Communities and capabilities. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities, 19*(2), 121–125. https://doi.org/10.1080/19452829.2018.1454288

UNC Greensboro. (2022). *Definitions*. https://communityengagement.uncg.edu/definitions/

United Nations Development Programme. (2015). *Capacity development: A UNDP primer*. Retrieved September 2019, from https://www.undp.org/publications/capacity-de-

velopment-undp-primer

United States Agency for International Development. (2021a, December 30). *Higher Education Solutions Network.* https://www.usaid.gov/hesn

United States Agency for International Development. (2021b). *Local capacity development policy*. https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/LCD_Policy_-_FORMATTED_508_01-11.pdf

Weil, M., Reisch, M. S., & Ohmer, M. L. (2015). *The handbook of community practice* (2nd ed.). SAGE.

Weiss-Gal, I., & Gal, J. (2014). Social workers as policy actors. *Journal of Social Policy, 43*(1), 19–36. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047279413000603

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 177, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Doing What We Can With What We Have: Engaged Scholarship Among Community Psychology Doctoral Students

Katherine Cloutier, Kathryn A. V. Clements, and Sara McGirr

Abstract

Graduate students newly embarking on community-engaged scholarship often find themselves in a unique context, wherein as students they may enjoy a wealth of opportunities but a dearth of other resources that contribute to quality community-engaged research. This reflective essay explores how three ecological–community psychology doctoral students used their student status to leverage opportunities for community-engaged research despite resource-limited/shifting resource situations. After positioning the essay within existing thought and research, each author provides an in-depth description of a community-engaged project. Each vignette includes an assessment of the level of community engagement during various phases of the project using Doberneck and Dann's (2019) abacus for collaboration. The authors then reflect on commonalities among their approaches and lessons learned and conclude with recommendations for graduate students and their mentors who may be operating in opportunity rich, resource poor contexts.

Keywords: community-engaged scholarship, graduate student education and training, ecological–community psychology

Community-engaged graduate training has received increased attention over the past three decades and is a cornerstone of quality, social-justice-oriented higher education (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017; Doberneck & Dann, 2019; Morin et al., 2016). University systems have begun to place great value on community-engaged scholarship, such that many institutions now include faculty community engagement efforts throughout the tenure and staff review process (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017; Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010, 2012). Though central to many graduate programs for both students and faculty mentors, engaged scholarship is not a streamlined or simple process. Specific to research-based programs, community engagement requires flexibility around resources such as time, space, data collection/analytical tools, and dissemination platforms. Such flexibility illustrates a departure from the traditional university methods, timelines, and tools, which is accompanied by shifting expectations and opportunities for evaluation by faculty advisors. This departure from traditional research, although not the focus of the current essay, has been detailed elsewhere and is important to consider when embarking on any community-engaged scholarly research project (Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017; Doberneck & Dann, 2019; Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010, 2012; Jaeger, Sandmann, & Kim, 2011; Jaeger, Tuchmayer, & Morin, 2014; O'Meara & Jaeger, 2006; Stanton, 2008; Warren et al., 2016)

Graduate school tends to present many opportunities to students; however, these opportunities yield varying access to resources. In our experience, graduate students tend to move along this resource spectrum

within and across research opportunities, complicating the community-engaged research process further. How do we, as graduate students in an ecological–community psychology graduate program, navigate the unique pressures of the community-engaged research process while playing in these resource-limited/shifting resource settings? How can graduate student mentors support community-engaged capacity development among their students? How can graduate students and mentors codevelop within and across community-engaged research opportunities?

Ecological–Community Psychology and Community-Engaged Research

Ecological–community psychology focuses on working with communities and community members from a social justice position, while honoring individual and community context and lived realities (Kingry-Westergaard & Kelly, 1990; Trickett, 1996, 2009a, 2009b, 2011; Trickett et al., 1985). Many community psychologists utilize community-engaged methods landing on a spectrum that holds community-based participatory action research (CBPAR) in very high regard (Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010; Kral & Allen, 2015). CBPAR involves collaboration with community members such that they are coinvestigators (Kral & Allen, 2015), and refers to the "engagement of the people who are the community of concern as co-researchers in the research process. This act of engagement involves a sharing of power, a democratization of the research process, and an action component" (Kral & Allen, 2015, p. 253). On the other end of this spectrum are more simplified community-engagement methods that may not necessarily meet the gold standard of CBPAR but value community participation throughout the research process. These methods may include involving community voice in identifying research questions, or even tools to involve community partners in disseminating research. We do not claim that the graduate student projects shared within the vignettes below meet the gold standard of CBPAR projects; however, they do serve as strong examples of community-engaged research projects (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017; Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010; Kral & Allen, 2015).

Doberneck, Glass, and Schweitzer (2010) developed a typology of publicly engaged scholarship, including research and creative activities, publicly engaged instruction, publicly engaged service, and publicly engaged commercialized activities. The vignettes below will showcase graduate student projects that fall within the publicly engaged, or community-engaged, research category, demonstrating processes such as the collaborative development of research questions, design, data gathering, and dissemination with community partners and/or community members (Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010; Stanton, 2008). At times, community partners (community organizations) and community members are simply referred to as "the community." We recognize that although community members can be represented within and among staff across community organizations, that is not always the case. "Community partners" and "community members" are not necessarily interchangeable terms, given the power differentials observed in many community organizations. Consequently, we have tried to specify who we are considering the community partner and the extent to which community members were also involved in the research process across each of the vignettes presented below.

Sharing Our Experiences: Community-Engaged Research Vignettes

The community-engaged research vignettes below aim to demonstrate that despite what graduate students and their mentors are up against, performing community-engaged research as a student is possible. These reflective pieces show how three ecological–community psychology doctoral students from a large Midwestern research university used their student status to leverage opportunities for community-engaged research despite resource-limited situations and, at times, inconsistent support. Their navigation through these projects as well as their progress through their graduate school milestones will be explored.

The community-engagement literature provided guidance on how to organize the vignettes presented. Three references were instrumental in the early stages of crafting and processing each vignette, including Stanton's (2008) structure of purpose, process, and product as core components of community-engaged scholarship; Doberneck and Dann's (2019) collaboration

abacus, which will be the primary focus of the vignettes; and Doberneck, Glass, and Schweitzer's (2012) community-engagement rating scale. The overlap between Stanton's core components of community-engaged scholarship and Doberneck and Dann's collaboration abacus was integral to our methodology in each vignette. Figure 1 illustrates the community-engaged research abacus, organized by Stanton's purpose, process, and product (on the left).

Community-engaged research "must have an intentional *public purpose* and direct or indirect benefit to a community" (Stanton, 2008, p. 24). This departure from traditional research suggests the work is intended to create positive change, rather than solely contribute to knowledge. Stanton has developed a spectrum of engaged research purposes, ranging from public education to democratic practice. When looking at Doberneck and Dann's (2019) abacus, Stanton's *purpose* aligns well with the first two elements of identifying community issue(s) and assets and deciding on research questions. Though Stanton's question may be a bit more directed, establishing the issue and research question requires the community-engaged researcher to formulate ideas around the questions that define the foundation of the project purpose (Doberneck & Dann, 2019).

Process (Stanton, 2008) refers

> to the methods investigators use to pursue research with a public purpose. How "democratic" or collaborative is their approach? What level of collaboration is sufficient or appropriate at each stage of the research: determining the research questions and research design; data gathering and analysis; application of findings, etc.? (p. 25)

	Steps in Community-Engaged Research Process	Voice & Responsibility Community ⟷ University
Purpose	Identify community issue(s) & assets	⟷
	Decide on research question(s)	⟷
Process	Select research design	⟷
	Develop instrument/process	⟷
	Collect data	⟷
	Analyze data	⟷
	Interpret data	⟷
	Critically reflect, incl. limitations	⟷
	Disseminate findings	⟷
Product	Create academic products	⟷
	Create public products	⟷

Figure 1. Stanton's (2008) Purpose, Process, and Product Mapped Onto Doberneck and Dann's (2019) Community-Engaged Research Abacus

Although Stanton (2008) included the determination of the research question as part of the process, the graduate students preferred to map that onto the *purpose* stage. As can be seen above, selecting the research design, developing the instrument, collecting data, analyzing data, interpreting data, critically reflecting on the data, and disseminating findings were all elements of the abacus that aligned with this stage of the community-engaged research journey. And finally, as argued by Stanton (2008):

> advocates of engaged research point to the fact that when it is truly responsive to community information needs, as identified by community members, and collaborative in its approach, it yields knowledge that is field-tested and more likely to "work" than traditional research outcomes. (p. 27)

These community-engaged research steps (Doberneck & Dann, 2019) across purpose, process, and product (Stanton, 2008) are explored in each of the three vignettes below. Each student presents an overview of their community-engaged research project carried out during their graduate student tenure, emphasizing the resource-shifting landscape of graduate education. Each abacus, modeled after the one above, will be supplemented with the low, medium, or high rating derived from the guidance of Doberneck, Glass, and Schweitzer's (2012) scoring system for degree of community engagement.

The essay will end with an exploration of common elements, lessons learned, and recommendations for graduate students and graduate student mentors. The continued reflection and critical examination of examples such as these, in combination with the building and evolving of training opportunities available to graduate students (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017), shows promise for bringing the field closer to a place of esteem and recognition within and beyond university systems.

The following vignettes are written in the respective researcher's voice and illustrate three unique community-based stories of engaged research. The first vignette takes place on an island in the Caribbean, and the other two take place in the Midwestern United States.

Vignette 1: Fulbright Scholarship Using Photovoice in the Caribbean

My student-led community-engaged research project was initiated by me. It was not a part of a larger, faculty-led project or university initiative. I saw this opportunity as a chance to explore a specific research area for my doctoral-level work. Throughout the course of the project, different partners (both community and university) initiated different elements; however, I remained the sole individual initiating the project from the start. As an ecological–community psychology graduate student, I was eligible and applied for a Fulbright award. I worked closely with my Fulbright campus advisor and enrolled in a grant-writing seminar that enabled me to focus solely on my Fulbright application. Access to the Fulbright advisor's resources, as well as the grant-writing seminar, greatly impacted my capacity to secure a Fulbright scholarship and pursue a community-engaged research project in the Caribbean. I was diligent about securing this award and accessing the resources to make this happen. However, I was also met with extreme restriction to resources (e.g., lost graduate student stipend, tuition support), given that a long-term project in another country meant that I would be straying from the traditional graduate student path. This student journey of simultaneous resource abundance and restriction is outlined below, demonstrating the purpose, process, and product as described by Stanton (2008).

Purpose

The Fulbright project was intended to partner with youth around program development related to civic mobilization and sexual health practices, while engaging youth and community leaders together in community conversation and change. To do so, a community-engaged research project utilizing the Photovoice methodology was developed (Wang, 1999; Wang & Burris, 1994, 1997). The network of engaged parties involved me, a local sexual health and youth empowerment community-based organization, an international U.S. agency, and the local secondary school system. In collaboration with these partners, youth participants shared their Photovoice work at the U.S. Embassy on World AIDS Day, where they presented their ideas around achieving an AIDS-free generation to the U.S. ambassador, policymakers, practitioners, activists, and educators. The strategic planning of this project aimed for the results to be used in

several ways. Intended outcomes included the further enhancement of sexual health programming, the development of public knowledge around sexual health practices, and the engagement of youth and adults in advocacy efforts for policy change.

Process

The degree of collaboration is illustrated in the abacus in Figure 2. Throughout this vignette, the "community" refers to the local sexual health organization, the participating secondary school students, and the partnering international agency. The "university" refers to my contribution as a graduate student and Fulbright scholar. Using Doberneck, Glass, and Schweitzer's (2012) rating system, I would evaluate the overall degree of collaboration as medium. The local organization and partnering agency played major roles in the World AIDS Day Event, as well as the logistical side of the Photovoice project, while I took on the Photovoice implementation in partnership with the secondary school students. Although the community in this vignette consists of the aforementioned partners (community organization, partnering [local] international agency, and the secondary school participants), it is limited in the sense that it does not encompass youth or students across the entire secondary school system on the island. It could be argued that the abacus elements more heavily weighted toward the community side need further consideration based on this limitation, recognizing that a larger youth voice beyond the immediate program participants should have informed, for instance, the research questions. However, given the significant involvement of the community *partners*, this

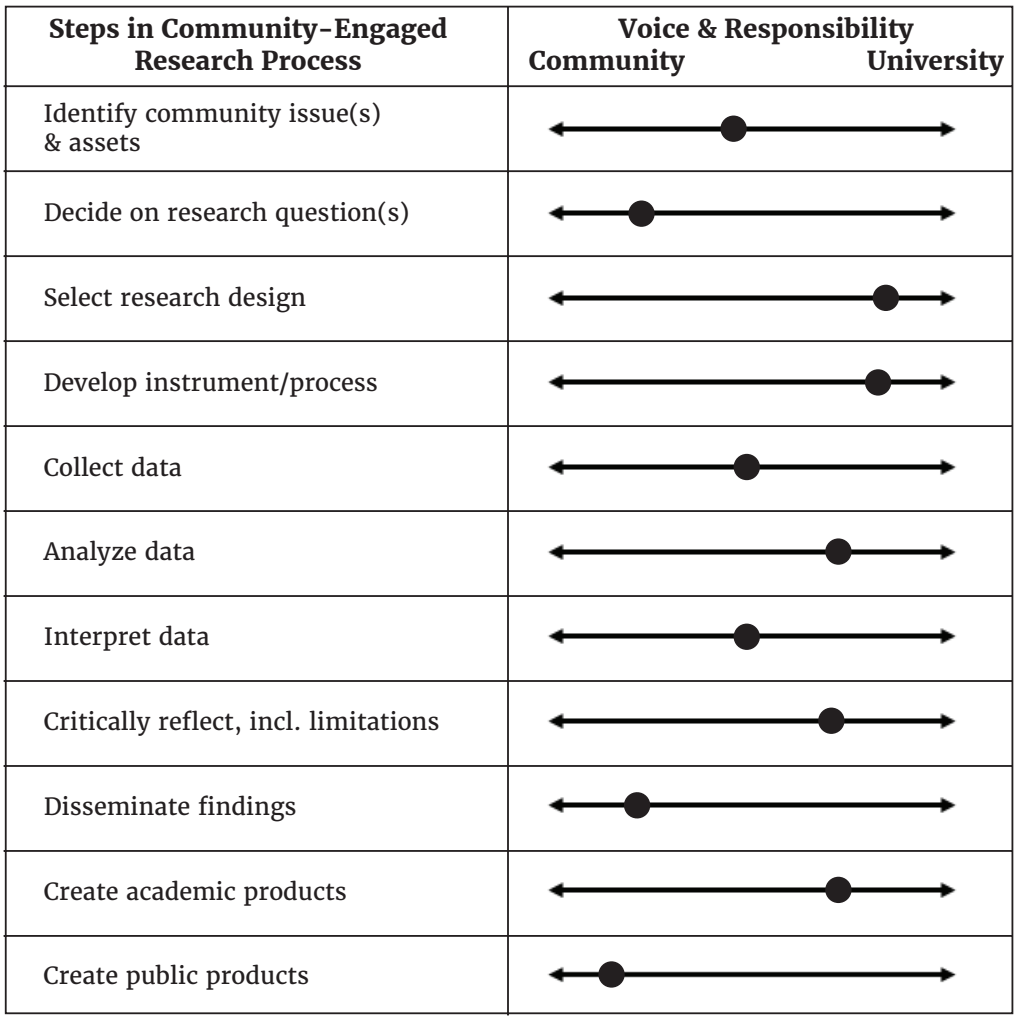


Figure 2. Community-Engaged Research Abacus (Doberneck & Dann, 2019) for Fulbright Project in the Caribbean

element was still weighted more toward the community side. The abacus components are described in more detail below.

Identify Community Issues/Assets. The early stages of this project were focused on contextual exploration. As a community psychologist, I recognize this is a crucial part of our research process; it refers to the researcher embedding herself within the community settings with which she is working (Trickett et al., 1985). During this exploration phase, direct attention is paid to the overall setting: what resources are available, what communities and cultures are present, and what historical elements of the setting may impact research. This phase also enables a strong relationship between the researcher and leaders in the community system and provides a stronger opportunity for successful interventions that reflect the lived realities of community members (Trickett et al., 1985). To a community psychologist, you cannot achieve what Stanton (2008) refers to as "public purpose" (p. 24) without first performing contextual exploration.

In addition to assisting with the implementation of the regular programming by the local organization across secondary schools, I employed the Photovoice project to better understand the impact of the program as well as youth issues more generally. This phase involved setting up working sessions with the participating youth, as well as building relationships with school staff. Two major milestones of the project were completed at this stage: narrowing the focus of the project and selecting project space within the school buildings of the participating secondary school.

Decide on Research Questions, Select Research Design, Develop Instrument/Process. I had arrived at the project with a research design and process (Photovoice) of interest (Wang & Burris, 1997). The Photovoice process involves several iterations of presenting questions to research participants, to which they respond by taking photos and writing narratives. A focus-group-style meeting follows. The process culminates into participatory analysis and public dissemination (Wang, 1999; Wang & Burris, 1994, 1997). Although my community partner had some influence over specifics once I arrived, I evaluated these two elements in the abacus as weighted on the university side. We collaborated with our partnering international agency to develop the first official Photovoice question posed to the secondary school research participants. Given the partner agency's mission, the question they drafted for the secondary school participants focused heavily on HIV/AIDS. Although this is a focus of the community partner's program, it is not the *only* focus of their curriculum. To uphold the participatory nature of the project, the secondary school students and I drafted additional Photovoice questions that they would explore after first prioritizing the question put forth by the partner agency. Given that sexual health *is* an important topic for and among youth, the participants began the Photovoice project by responding through photos and written narrative to this question: What does an AIDS free generation look like? Once the first round of Photovoice was complete and the World AIDS Day Event had passed, we continued the iterative Photovoice process for several months. The overall project included two research questions: (1) How are youth experiencing this school-based program? (2) What are the most pressing issues with which youth are faced? Subquestions for each were drafted and ultimately translated for/aligned with the Photovoice questions.

Collect, Analyze, and Interpret Data. The slider for data collection, analysis, and interpretation was placed in the middle, as this step was completed collaboratively with the participating youth and the community partner. I began to recruit students from one secondary school on the island in which we were already providing the community partner's program. Given their relationship with this school, we were able to assemble the necessary data collection resources with relative ease. However, the school's timelines did not align well with the ethics review board timelines at my home university, requiring that I ask for the school's patience in recruiting and starting the project until all approvals were granted. The data collection happened in response to the Photovoice questions, followed by the focus group meeting for each round. Some of the participants assisted in the data analysis and interpretation stages as well. Critical reflection was primarily on the university side, as I was hyperaware of my outsider status and spent a great deal of time dissecting and interpreting how this presence may have influenced the data.

Disseminate Findings. The dissemination of findings and creation of public prod-

ucts was easily weighted on the community side as the design and preparation of the Photovoice materials for the World AIDS Day event were spearheaded by the community partner through their partnership with the international agency. This collaboration was a big win since my Fulbright funding at the time did not cover the expense of the enlarged prints, and without financial support from my graduate program I was unable to cover these costs out of pocket. Participants presented their photos and narrative data, and their voices were heard by the U.S. ambassador, as well as program developers, advocates, policymakers, and community members. The event was televised, plans were made regarding the future of the project and data usage, and participating youth were involved in each step.

Product

The main product for this project was the set of Photovoice prints that were presented at the embassy on World AIDS Day. Although a few publications are in progress, the prints represent the most important product in terms of the data as well as capturing the community-engaged nature of this endeavor.

Create Academic and Public Products. Traditional academic journal articles will pale in comparison to the youth-led presentation at the embassy. Television coverage and a youth-focused radio show to further connect with the participating youth around policy issues and sexual health followed, and though the impact of these efforts was not measured, from my perspective and that of my community partner, this achievement was a step in the right direction.

My community partner has since focused on gaining legislative leverage to shift policies that prevent youth from accessing sexual health resources until the age of 18 (the legal age of consent for sexual activity is 16; L. Raphael, personal communication, March 15, 2014). Youth broached this topic through their photos and narratives presented at the U.S. Embassy, and advocacy efforts for this change have been taken on by the community partner's youth council ever since. The youth council still stands as a cornerstone to their programming, and extensive community partnerships have been formed over the years thanks to their efforts. Three publications are in progress, and the organization's directors will be involved as coauthors. Furthermore, the methods used during the Photovoice project were somewhat innovative in that video was incorporated. An academic paper focused on this integration is in progress to further disseminate this alteration to the Photovoice method.

I believe the community impact would be quite high for this project, specifically among the youth who participated. Although no community-level impact data were collected, I believe the World AIDS Day event may have paved the way for continued conversation around youth sexual health. The printed Photovoice materials continue to be used by my community partner in various capacities and have served as a sustainable conversation piece for subsequent events. In terms of academic impact, the three in-progress publications land this project near average.

Reflections and Lessons Learned

The development of community partnerships along the way was highly successful. I was lucky in that the community-engaged research project I presented to my community partner, even before applying for the Fulbright scholarship, was supported. I brought my own funding and intended to not be a burden on my community partner's operation. They work diligently across communities, and I most certainly did not want to be a hindrance to their efforts. Their presence in the country is vital and well respected, and I was able to benefit directly from that. Once the international agency heard about our project, the history of their relationship with my community partner facilitated the elevation of the Photovoice work to the World AIDS Day event. The success of the project dissemination was entirely due to their hard work and reputation.

Had I not been a graduate student, I would not have had access to the Fulbright application process, and therefore would not have had the opportunity to receive the award. With my Fulbright status came funding to solely focus on this community-engaged research project. I had a small amount of funds to use for the Photovoice meetings (purchased pizza for the participants, audio recorders, and printed materials), and I was also enrolled in online classes so I could continue the progress of my degree. These classes provided me with the opportunity to refine my community-engaged processes in real time. I was also connected to a network of community-engaged scholars through

my affiliation with a graduate certificate program at my home university and had benefited from coursework and seminars prior to my departure that enabled me to develop the necessary skills to complete this community-engaged work.

Unfortunately, accepting the Fulbright scholarship led to a loss in graduate student funding from my home institution. For me as a first-generation college student, all forms of support are important, especially for community-based research. However, these resource restrictions did not outweigh the importance of eventually completing my degree. Support for first-generation college students looking to engage in community-based research is vital.

Vignette 2: Practicum in Mid-Michigan

A two-semester, community-based practicum was a critical component of my doctoral program first-year requirements. Consequently, my student-led community-engaged research project was initiated by me. My practicum's first semester consisted of a field portion in which students explored the local landscape related to their issues of interest. The second semester, students committed to a 4-month relationship with a community partner wherein the student provided technical skills (e.g., evaluation, research, intervention development). The "community" I focused on learning about within the practicum was recently arrived unaccompanied refugee minors, and the community partner in this vignette was senior staff from a resettlement organization that worked with this community. The classroom portion of the second semester consisted of troubleshooting, resource sharing, and group reflection. This arrangement allowed me to develop community-engaged scholarship skills in a safe environment where I could regularly receive guidance and support. As it was a classroom project, our community-engaged work was not supported by any funding.

Exploring my practicum site's goal of organizational development as a student and not a staff member encouraged staff to be open and explanatory in ways that I may not have been able to access without student status. Likewise, student status afforded me an open sense of curiosity that was not tied to evaluation or the conduct of the organization's daily work. It also made my technical, skilled labor particularly appealing, as it came at no cost to the organization.

Purpose

The goal of practicum for students is to gain experience collaborating with a community partner. Therefore, the end deliverable product is intentionally designed and executed with the main purpose of being useful to the community partner. In the spirit of developing a public purpose that includes direct benefits to the community, the research questions were mainly determined by the community partner (Stanton, 2008). The organization's goal was to create a new group living arrangement for unaccompanied refugee and immigrant minors. In this case example, the project was entirely designed to provide answers that the organization needed to move forward with their plans. Specifically, they wanted to reference any existing best practices, and supplement that with input from current staff who were most familiar with the needs of the youth who would be receiving those services. I had access to university library systems and a cursory knowledge of the relevant fields of institutional-style placements for minors and of the needs of immigrant youth. A review of literature underscored the novelty of what the organization was planning, and therefore we shifted our approach to one of gaining insight from current staff. The individual interviews and group analysis resulting from that process were intended to guide the way the new placement program and structure were designed.

Process

To follow the degree of collaboration during the collaborative process (Stanton, 2008), refer to Figure 3, based on Doberneck and Dann's (2019) abacus. In the abacus and throughout this vignette, the "community" refers to the organization's senior staff with which I was working on the practicum project. The "university" refers to my contribution as a student conducting technical research to meet their needs. I was supervised by a senior staff member of the organization, and most of the decision sharing described in this vignette was performed with that specific person, unless stated otherwise. Since my interest was in the types of services needed by and available to unaccompanied minors, and the organization's interest was in expanding their services, the senior staff was really the proxy for the "community" partner in my abacus application. Applying the abacus, I would rate the overall degree of project collaboration as medium. Early phases

were driven almost entirely by the organization, data design and collection phases were driven almost entirely by me, and the analysis, reflection, and dissemination were moderately mutual. The abacus components are described in more detail below.

Identify Community Issues/Assets. First, the community partner established that older teen immigrants they served had specific challenges after arrival, due to the novel nature of the U.S. unaccompanied immigrant minor legal system. The current foster care system in place for them was not always a good fit. At the time this partnership was developing, the number of unaccompanied immigrant youth had skyrocketed, and the federal government was struggling to meet the demand with existing structures (UNHCR, 2015). Therefore, the organization intended to respond to a federal call for a new placement option for unaccompanied immigrant minors by creating a structure for older teenagers who might not be good fits for the refugee foster care system but needed more support than an independent living structure. The organization took on the full responsibility of identifying community assets for placement as well as identifying issues with creating a new placement option locally.

Decide on Research Questions, Select Research Design, Develop Instrument/Process. Originally, the community's research question sought best practices for a semi-independent living group home facility for unaccompanied immigrant minors. After I conducted a futile search for literature, the research question shifted from best practices to defining needs for that particular group, based on staff experiences help-

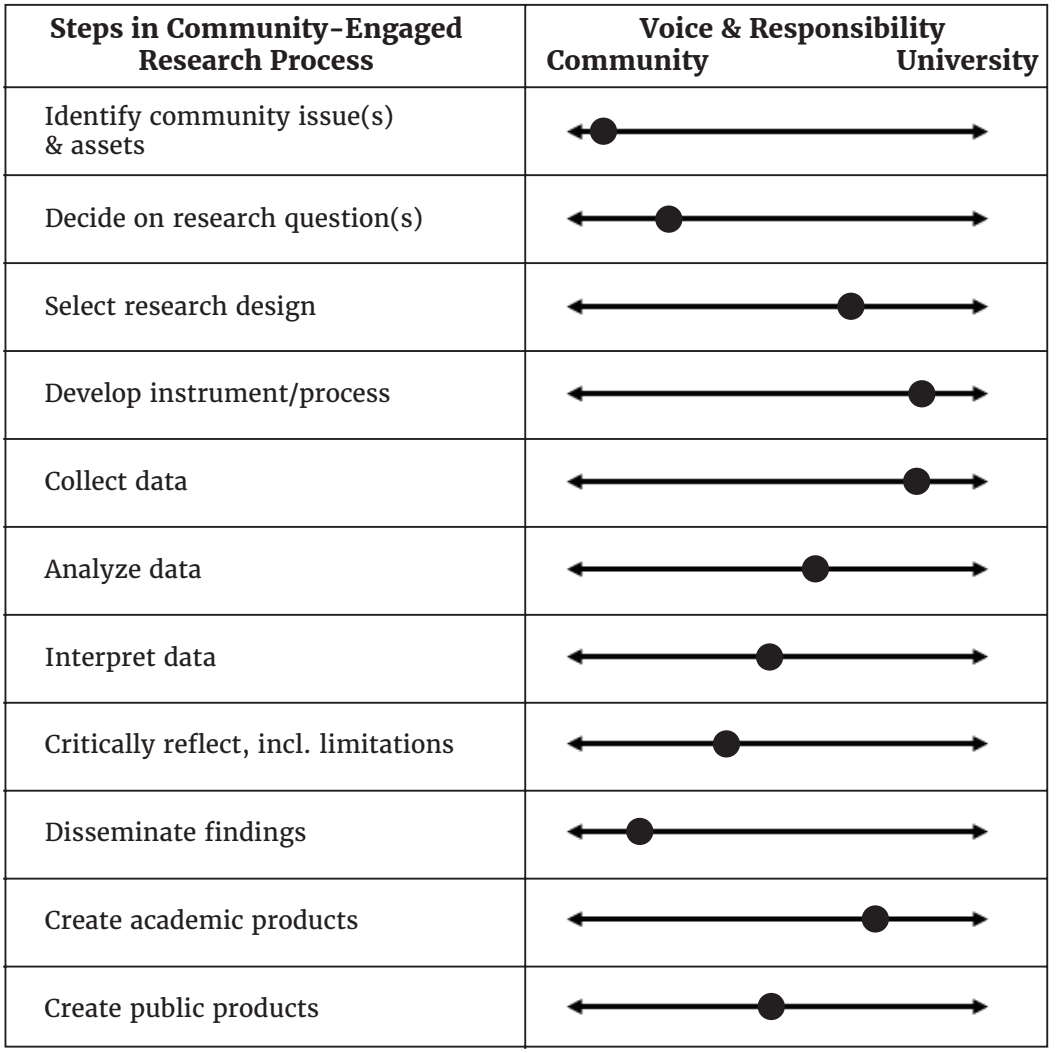


Figure 3. Community-Engaged Research Abacus (Doberneck & Dann, 2019) for Mid-Michigan Practicum Project

ing youth navigate independent living. We discussed the option of collecting our own data to inform the new project. The community partner drove the discussion about what was useful for them to know and developed the overarching research questions. I considered design options and suggested that individual interviews with youth and current staff in their organization were the best way to gather input because it allowed them to give in-depth responses without the social pressure of describing their challenges and recommendations in front of others. We agreed I would develop the interview protocols for youth and staff based on the research questions that the community partner had outlined. The partner had final decision-making power in approving the interview protocol. The overall project included the following questions: (1) What components of a group home setting would make the youth comfortable? (2) What kind of structure would make the group home setting successful? What services and skills did youth want from a group home setting, and how should staff implement those?

Collect, Analyze, and Interpret Data. I was primarily responsible for collecting data. The community partner created a list of all staff and some clients who could contribute, and I sampled from the list. The partner was responsible for letting potential staff and clients know that I would be contacting them to try to set up an interview. I attempted to get an equal mix of youth and staff, although more youth (N = 8) than staff (N = 4) participated. Most data were collected on site at the organization in private rooms.

Because of the time-limited nature of a practicum project, we used a rapid analysis technique. I decided to use a novel approach to data analysis and interpretation rooted in a participatory method. I first reviewed the interview notes and identified recurring themes across participants, keeping the staff and youth data separate. I used these notes to organize similar themes into paragraphs. I kept the themes loosely defined, knowing my perspective would be only the first step in interpreting the data.

After I had created general thematic groupings, I generated word clouds using the themed paragraphs. Word clouds are an abstract shape made up of words, in which larger words represent words appearing more frequently in the data, and smaller words represent words appearing less frequently in the data. I then turned the unnamed word clouds into an electronic visual presentation using Prezi. The word clouds were organized visually by matching the youth and staff clouds by theme. They were grouped as loosely addressing each of the main sections of the interview protocol. I presented the data to staff at the quarterly all-staff meeting—including those who participated and those who did not. Using word clouds preserved participant anonymity: Only individual words or phrases were included. The lack of context of individual sentences presented a broad picture of thoughts and feelings from the two different perspectives. These data organization and presentation formats were chosen because they were free and publicly accessible, but still somewhat novel and therefore engaging. My limited time and funding resources as a student prevented me from being able to create elaborate or visually sophisticated presentations. Moreover, the principles of community-engaged research dictated that my presentation be accessible by the community. This meant I would use resources that weren't only *currently* accessible by the community but would remain accessible if and when our partnership ended.

The community partner and I then facilitated a group discussion with the staff to interpret the word cloud data. The goal of this process was to have staff identify and name themes that emerged from the data. I facilitated a parallel data interpretation process with youth, although only two youth were available for follow-up participation in that process. In these analysis processes, the "community" partner in the abacus is broader than the senior staff and includes other program staff and interviewed youth clients. Conducting the same process in both groups allowed us to compare perspectives and generated credibility for the other group when similarities emerged. This method of presenting alternate perspectives was useful in bridging what the staff considered irreconcilable differences with their clients regarding needs. The staff then discussed how to convert the themes into suggestions for the new placement structure.

Critical reflection opportunities or prompts were built into the discussion with staff. Specifically, the interviews highlighted a tension based in conflict between staff and their clients, rooted in what staff perceived as incompatible goals. The researcher and

program director encouraged staff to consider how the ways they were currently operating might work better, given the actual compatibility of word clouds revealed during analysis. In other words, what structures (policies, practices, etc.) can the organization take from their current work and *improve* for the new program? This step generated critical reflections about their current attitudes and how they impacted the effectiveness of their policies and practices, and how more effective ones could be implemented in the new program. Not all the youth participants were available for a data interpretation follow-up, which limited the diversity of interpretations and the overall impact of the process. One of the limitations of the process was that it was more directly useful for staff in their current positions and was perhaps less concretely applicable to building a new program that was still largely hypothetical to staff and young people.

Disseminate Findings. The results were created for the purpose of guiding the development of a new placement program for the organization's youth. The information gathered and recommendations made were therefore disseminated within the organization and presented to organizational leaders at the national level on a site visit. IRB permission was not sought to use the findings for publication outside the organizational context, so results were never shared via traditional academic channels such as journal publications. The bounded time of the practicum and my role as a student contributor discouraged me from seeking IRB approval at the time, and ultimately limited that opportunity, which could have contributed to future degree milestones or publications. In that sense, my student status both limited my time and shifted the utility of the data as a future resource. The products generated are detailed below.

Product

The goal of the collaboration was to produce a set of recommendations for the development of a new placement program for unaccompanied immigrant minors. Externally generated recommendations based on best practices proved impracticable due to a lack of published practices for this type of setting, which led to internally generated recommendations. The collaboration and resulting recommendations were so well-received by the local organization site that they requested a formal presentation of the process and product for their site visit by the national representative of the organization.

Create Academic and Public Products. An electronic tour of the process was created and presented by the researcher in front of local and national organization directors. This presentation was again organized in Prezi, for the reasons described above. This software choice, although straightforward, was received with delight by the national organization's representatives. Little technical expertise is required to use this software, so this presentation could be easily adopted by the organization in the future should they wish to present data to stakeholders using a novel yet engaging format. Despite the lack of academic products generated by the process and research, the partnership continued, and future research questions were generated and investigated with the organization. This further progress did result in academic products. The discussions that took place during the course of this practicum project led to a closer examination of the differential experience these youth were having in communities. Research produced from that collaboration resulted in a master's thesis and a journal article (Clements et al., 2019) coauthored by the community partner.

Reflections and Lessons Learned

The intentional integration of a collaborative process for the sake of learning how to conduct a researcher–community partnership was invaluable. There was explicit attention to identifying which partner was responsible for each stage of the project, and support and guidance from experienced university faculty throughout the project. This arrangement simplified troubleshooting moments that were hard to navigate and offered me a way to "pause" difficult parts of the process and consult faculty.

Among the reasons for taking a participatory approach to data interpretation was the negative connotations of some data; the participatory process helped staff to recognize and discuss those implications in their work, without putting an outsider in the position of casting staff in a negative light. However, this particular interpretation approach is not always feasible, and its success depends on the buy-in and engagement of the group. In all cases, potential negative findings should be anticipated and

discussed before data collection, so that there is a plan in place for how they will be presented.

Furthermore, the resource constraints imposed at the time forced me to find creative ways to analyze data and present it to the community partner. In doing so, I introduced multiple publicly available resources that intrigued them and their stakeholders. Ultimately, that constraint may have served as an opportunity to develop their resources in ways they may not have considered. For me as a community-engaged student-scholar, it reified the value in presenting data outside the university setting in ways that are particularly relevant, useful, and engaging to communities.

Vignette 3: Survey on Domestic Violence Advocates' Practices Related to Reproductive and Sexual Health

My student-led community-engaged research project was initiated by my faculty mentor. She invited her four advisees to work together on a project to gain experience conducting research and publishing as a team. Without grant or other funding support for our labor, this endeavor was intended to be pro bono and as efficient as possible. She could provide mentorship and connections to community partners, two resources that are of critical concern to emerging community-engaged scholars. Given the multiple time pressures on graduate students' schedules, the four participating students undertook a negotiation to determine the time each would contribute to the effort. I was currently between milestone projects and had less pressure in my graduate assistantship role, so it was determined that I would lead this initiative. The team would follow my lead in selecting a topic that was aligned with my interests, and the other three students would provide support.

Purpose

Given my academic focus on the intersections of domestic violence and reproductive and sexual health (RSH) and connections to other researchers in this area, our team undertook a study related to these topics. We set out to develop and implement a nationwide online survey of human service professionals that work with victims of domestic violence (hereafter referred to as DV advocates). The survey was intended to explore how DV advocates incorporate reproductive-coercion-responsive and HIV-responsive practices into their work with victims of domestic violence. Although initial training efforts on these topics had begun, little to no research existed on the current state of the field's response to RSH, barriers DV advocates may be encountering, or how to best facilitate a more robust response. We sought to develop a survey that would provide insight into very basic and more advanced facets of such practice. Survey items focused on advocates' comfort with and barriers to talking about these topics, their current practices, the extent of their training on the topics, and their related organizational practices and policies. We hoped the results of this survey would provide the field with important information on the current level of RSH-responsive practices, and guide future training and technical assistance in this area. With these dual goals in mind, we embarked on the process of developing and implementing the survey in our low-resource context.

Process

The degree of collaboration throughout the various phases of this research process (Stanton, 2008) is summarized in Figure 4, based on Doberneck and Dann's (2019) collaboration abacus. In the abacus and throughout this vignette, the "community" refers to domestic violence service professionals and those who support this work through training and technical assistance. This conceptualization of "community" was determined to be appropriate given the focus of the survey (the strengths and gaps in professionals' practices) and the intended use of the data (guiding future training and technical assistance for professionals). The specific roles that different community collaborators play in this group are detailed throughout each step in the process. The "university" anchor refers to the graduate students and faculty mentor that constituted our research team. Applying the abacus, I would rate the overall degree of project collaboration as low. Early phases were informed extensively by experts and advocates in the field, but later phases were driven almost entirely by the university research team. The abacus components are described in more detail below.

Identify Community Issues/Assets. Our research team took steps throughout the course of the project to involve experts on the incorporation of RSH in DV services to ensure the survey design, administra-

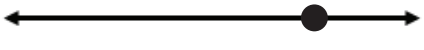
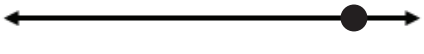
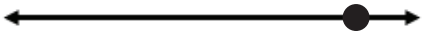
Steps in Community-Engaged Research Process	Voice & Responsibility Community University
Identify community issue(s) & assets	
Decide on research question(s)	
Select research design	
Develop instrument/process	
Collect data	
Analyze data	
Interpret data	
Critically reflect, incl. limitations	
Disseminate findings	
Create academic products	
Create public products	

Figure 4. Community-Engaged Research Abacus (Doberneck & Dann, 2019) for Domestic Violence Advocates' Practices

tion, and reporting processes were well-aligned with the needs of the community. We wanted the survey to focus on the incorporation of RSH concerns into DV advocates' practice, and we needed to consult with experts doing this work in the field to ensure we were asking the right questions. To gain this perspective, I reached out to several of my faculty mentor's contacts for informational interviews. I was able to speak with eight experienced practitioners and trainers who were doing this work. These included representatives of national training and technical assistance organizations, state domestic violence coalition staff members, and local service programs. These organizations have led the field in incorporating RSH-responsive practices into domestic violence organizations through innovative approaches and/or providing related training and technical assistance. Representatives of these organizations provided insight into advocates' attitudes and practices in this arena and informed the researchers where additional work was needed to guide future intervention efforts.

Decide on Research Questions, Select Research Design, Develop Instrument/Process. Based on these conversations, the university research team formulated research questions that would contribute to the academic literature as well as inform practitioners' understanding of current practices and further intervention development. We decided to use a survey design to answer these questions for several reasons. First, an online survey was relatively inexpensive and quick to administer. As students, we had free access to a university license for an online survey software that allowed a great deal of flexibility in

number and structure of questions and an unlimited number of participants. Such survey systems allowed for passive data collection, which was much less time intensive than interviews or other person-to-person data collection strategies. This economy was critical given our volunteer status and competing graduate school timelines. Second, a survey allowed us to collect quantitative information that practitioners gravely needed from a larger sample of the population. Leaders in this area already had an anecdotal sense of the state of the field through their conversations with trainees and technical assistance with advocates but expressed a need for additional quantitative information. They needed to better understand the extent to which those anecdotal reports of experiences and behavior patterns were shared by others in the field. Similarly, they also wanted to know if the increased confidence and knowledge they were hoping to cultivate through their efforts was indeed empirically linked with better practice outcomes.

Our faculty mentor's connections were also an incredible resource in developing our recruitment strategy. She connected us with her long-time collaborator, the director of a national DV training and technical assistance organization, who provided us with guidance on our survey methodology. This community partner made suggestions regarding sampling and recruitment strategies that were ultimately critical to the high response rate this survey garnered. Without existing measures in this area of research, the study scales were developed based on the input from community members and a review of relevant literature from social work, public health, and nursing. Access to a vast amount of such literature represented another strength of our status as students, as such library resources are not always readily available outside a university setting. Likewise, one of our research team members was able to use this scale development process as a final project for her psychometrics class that semester. By combining these efforts, she received extra support in and devoted more time to scale development than would have otherwise been possible given our time and funding constraints.

We developed four survey versions (two focused on reproductive coercion response and two focused on HIV response) with the intention that participants would be randomly selected into one of the four. The surveys were reviewed for clarity, appropriateness for local DV advocates, and usefulness to the field by five of the eight original community experts. After incorporating their feedback, the online survey was piloted by staff of two local domestic violence programs for clarity and functionality. The staff at the pilot sites provided detailed feedback regarding how to ask certain questions and how to frame the research. We used five research questions for the overall project: (1) To what extent are advocates knowledgeable about the facts of RSH topics? (2) What training have DV advocates received on RSH-relevant practices? (3) To what extent have DV advocates executed RSH-relevant practices with survivors? (4) What are DV advocates' attitudes toward RSH-relevant topics and practices? (5) What are DV organizations' practices and policies related to RSH?

Collect, Analyze, and Interpret Data. Once the survey was finalized, the invitation to participate was disseminated by the national training and technical assistance organization who advised our team on recruitment in the design phase. The organization's mailing list of state domestic violence coalitions received an email on our behalf, informing them of the purpose of the survey and inviting them to use various modes of online contact to recruit advocates in their states to participate. State coalition staff who opted to help recruit participants then sent out information about the survey to local DV-focused programs who were members of their coalition. After the survey had been available for 2 weeks, our faculty mentor and national community partner sent additional emails to coalition leaders in states where we had not seen any participation. The group and individual contacts facilitated by decades-long relationships were an incredible resource contributed by our faculty mentor and community partner that greatly increased survey participation. When state coalition leaders received a personalized email from someone they were familiar with and respected, they seemed somewhat more likely to make the effort to forward the information to their memberships. If we had simply reached out to these coalitions as students, we would likely have been much less effective in garnering their support and participation.

Once the survey was closed, the university research team jumped into the data cleaning, analysis, and interpretation processes. These efforts were carried out in a largely traditional, nonparticipatory manner be-

cause of limitations to team members' resources. Unfortunately, the pressure of comprehensive exams, a heavy course load, and increased assistantship pressure left me with less time for this project than I would have liked. The other graduate students were not able to take over leadership either, and my faculty mentor was still unable to provide other resources (assistantship funding, statistical support, editorial support) that would have alleviated these pressures. As a result, we did our best to devote our few available hours each week to work toward transmitting a portion of the large amount of the collected data to the academic and practitioner audiences. Such limited time does not lend itself well to participatory analysis or interpretation processes, so community members were not involved at this stage.

Disseminate Findings. The findings were intended to shed light on the extent of reproductive-coercion-responsive and HIV-responsive practices among DV advocates. More specifically, the results were used to better understand barriers to employing, training around, and organizational integration of these responsive practices, and were later shared with a range of audiences, including national leaders, scholars, and practitioners. The products generated are detailed below.

Product

The goal of this community-engaged research was twofold, in that we hoped the research would contribute to the generation of new knowledge regarding practitioner and DV advocate RSH-responsive practices, while also guiding future training and technical assistance in the field. These two goals aligned well with both academic products and practitioner resources. Both are detailed below.

Create Academic and Public Products. Given the waning time resources described above, the results of this survey were shared more slowly than we would have liked, and solely via written academic and practitioner-focused channels. Several academic publications were produced using the data from this survey. These works are in various stages of the publication process in journals that cater to both academic and practitioner audiences. In addition to simple descriptive papers intended to bring to light frequencies of key practices and barriers, our team produced more complex papers using advanced statistical techniques intended to model relationships among such factors and to validate the newly created scales. Two practitioner trainers involved with the initial interviews during survey development provided manuscript feedback before submission.

For audiences less likely to read academic journals, the results of the study were shared via technical reports and a series of infographics. The technical reports were designed to provide no-frills baseline information about frequencies and key relationships to inform intervention development and to provide empirical support for these initiatives that could be included in related grant applications. The technical reports were authored by our team, reviewed by our community partners, and final versions were disseminated by our national partners. The infographics were designed to capture the interest of the wider DV field regarding the topic, and to provide ideas for how to better incorporate RSH-responsive practices into their work at a local level. These pieces were designed by a volunteer undergraduate graphic design major recruited through graduate student contacts. This was especially valuable because we could not provide or afford this student's skillset outside our academic setting. These infographics were distributed at a national advocate conference and will be disseminated by our national partner to state coalitions, who can then share them with their partner agencies and participating advocates.

Reflections and Lessons Learned

Through this opportunity, I developed greater knowledge and skills in conducting community-engaged research as a graduate student. I learned that working with a faculty mentor who is well-connected to influential community partners in the movement, and generous in connecting us, brought our project a level of legitimacy we could never have achieved independently. I also came to appreciate the depth of resources that a university affiliation can bring to otherwise resource-limited settings. Conversely, I also learned the hard way that limited time and funding can negatively impact the success and level of community participation in a scholarship effort. Fluctuations of these resources over the course of the project often occurred in ways that were difficult to anticipate as a new researcher.

I also experienced the contrasting norms around academic timelines and practitioner timelines. Things move slowly in academia, due to bureaucratic considerations like IRB approvals, other projects competing for our attention, or our tendency to agonize over minute details in pursuit of the most rigorous examination possible with available resources. Whatever the cause, our practitioners sometimes became confused or frustrated with our laggard processes.

Another huge lesson learned was the necessity of engaging practitioners in the survey development process. Without the viewpoints of the experts we interviewed, we could only have guessed at the information that would forward their work. Expert input was particularly important for this project because the existing academic literature on the topic was so scarce. This expertise even extended into selecting language for survey items that matched advocates' language. If we had developed items using our overly clinical terminology, survey participants might not have known what we were talking about!

Finally, if I were to do this project over again, I would press harder for additional resources to develop and execute a more intentional process for including practitioners in the data interpretation and dissemination. Perhaps we could have explored departmental or university community-engaged scholarship funding resources to hire a statistical or writing consultant. Alternatively, we could have recruited other graduate or undergraduate students to help with these tasks. We could have attempted to leverage other ongoing projects with DV advocates by folding in interpretation and dissemination of this information with other findings. Lastly, we could have leaned on our community partners more for member checking or dissemination via existing channels.

Cross-Case Themes and Discussion

Cross-Case Themes

As young graduate students, we found that our community relationships were enabled or enhanced by our advisor or program referrals, connections, and reputations. The ability of each of us to make a meaningful connection with a community partner underscores the importance of understanding context, a foundational tenet in our field of community psychology (Kingry-Westergaard & Kelly, 1990; Trickett, 2011). The democratization of research as a CBPAR value was demonstrated in each of our vignettes by the inclusion of those most impacted by the research at various points of our projects. All of us were guided in the direction of the study design and measures by the needs and input of the community partner. This democratization neatly overlaps with the value placed on the collaborative process of community-engaged scholarship (Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010; Kral & Allen, 2015).

Each of us was mindful of the financial constraints of graduate-student-level research and developed low-cost data collection methods. The process of collaborating with the community partners to develop data processes that were accessible to both university and community partners further promoted democratization of the research and the capacity of graduate students to develop praxis (Allen & Moore, 2010; Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017; Franz, 2013).

Ultimately, the collaboration between university and community partners encouraged wider dissemination than might otherwise have been expected. In community-engaged scholarship, it is expected that the findings will be shared with participants (Franz, 2013), but in all vignettes, findings were shared beyond participants at the local and national stakeholder levels.

Unique Positionality of Graduate Students

The vignettes presented here also emphasize the unique situations of graduate students entering the work of community-engaged scholarship. Three different research methods were implemented (Photovoice, interviews, and surveys) at three different phases of the graduate learning career. One of the unique aspects of the graduate experience is having the skills and knowledge to conduct research semi-independently while being supervised or advised by an experienced faculty mentor. Each of the vignettes presented here described situations in which the faculty advisor was minimally involved in the students' research. This level of independence encouraged students to develop foundational scholarship, and the level of community voice depicted in the abacuses led to the production of scholarly products for public audiences (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017). Faculty researchers may be under more institutional

pressure to produce scholarly products for academic audiences, so graduate students' career stage may offer them an advantage for producing public products.

Some differences across the vignettes may be worth exploring. In Figure 5 below, vignette highlights are presented to demonstrate areas for continued questioning around how the overall degree of community engagement (as rated by each vignette author based on the Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2012 scoring system) is connected to specific abacus elements.

Perhaps it should be noted that Vignette 3 was described as being initiated by a faculty member, whereas Vignettes 1 and 2 were initiated by the graduate student. It arguably makes sense that Vignette 3 was self-rated as having low community engagement, with more abacus elements weighted on the university side, in comparison. This simple observation points out the importance of how encouraging, supporting, normalizing, and creating space for students to *initiate* milestone projects may yield further opportunities for community engagement across the research process. Of course, project initiation by faculty versus graduate students involves a delicate balance, given the lack of resources available to graduate students and the tendency to utilize faculty member existing projects, datasets, or research portfolios to accomplish their goals and milestones. Finding the right balance of utilizing advisor resources while also maintaining creative research independence and initiation would be beneficial. Navigating that balance needs more attention in graduate school training and curriculum building.

Limitations and Future Directions

One of the recommended competencies of community-engaged scholarship is an enduring relationship between the academic and community partners (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017). Each of these vignette experiences was limited by an inability to remain engaged with our partners and follow the impact of our public or academic products. Ideally, we would be able to better understand how communities use research publications and how our partnership led to changes in operations of partner organizations. Another challenge in conceptualizing our reflections is that the abacus was not used prior to the vignette projects, and therefore our reflections are novel and post hoc.

Dominant scholarly frameworks do not clearly articulate how to measure collaboration around policy implications and considerations. This essay is one example

	Vignette 1	**Vignette 2**	**Vignette 3**
Self-rated degree of community engagement	Medium	Medium	Low
Community-anchored abacus dimensions	Decide on research question(s) Disseminate findings Create public products	Identify community issue(s) & assets Disseminate findings	Identify community issue(s) & assets
University-anchored abacus dimensions	Select research design Develop instrument/process	Develop instrument/process Collect data	Collect data Analyze data Interpret data Create academic products Create public products

Figure 5. Vignette Highlights and Community Engagement Ratings

of the application of the abacus framework (Doberneck & Dann, 2019); however, the framework can more widely serve to encourage collaboration around policy. Moreover, the abacus should be used in future collaborations to ensure all stakeholders and partners have the same understanding about how they are contributing to their projects. Below is a shortlist of recommendations for both graduate students and faculty mentors embarking on community-engaged scholarship.

Recommendations for graduate students:

1. Use degree of collaboration abacus as a guide for developing partnership roles together.
2. Stay current on technological resources available to the university and the public.
3. Consider how to sustain graduate scholarship postgraduation—milestones are often big projects (e.g., leverage smaller projects into larger projects).
4. Do not be afraid to ask supportive people for help—we should all be lifelong learners.
5. Seek formal or informal training on community-engaged scholarship via coursework, independent study, external workshops/conferences, or books.
6. Share your interest in conducting community-engaged scholarship widely around the university—projects or partners may be anywhere.
7. Seek student-specific funding for projects that value an engaged approach.
8. Pitch community-engaged projects to community groups you are otherwise involved with to gain skills and build your reputation.
9. Build community-engaged scholarship into your required course projects or milestone projects (thesis, dissertation, etc.).

Recommendations for faculty mentoring graduate students:

1. Introduce your community partners and other connections to your students, legitimize their skills and knowledge with your reputation, and provide opportunities for your students to shine in front of them to encourage future partnering.
2. Convene a research team to provide structure and accountability for student-led initiatives.
3. Provide a safe space for students to process their engaged research challenges; encourage experimentation and provide developmental support.
4. Give students concrete examples of tools or processes used in your own community-engaged scholarship.
5. Speak to students intentionally and regularly about the interpersonal/political dynamics inherent in collaborative work.
6. Consider sharing a small amount of start-up funding or other resources with students, to use as participation incentives or payment for collaborators.
7. Discuss alignment with faculty competencies (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017) to prepare students for their work with other scholars.
8. Transfer budgeting skills that financially sustain research and develop research products.

Conclusions

The collaboration abacus created by Doberneck and Dann (2019) is an engaging and flexible tool that allows for a variety of uses throughout the community-engaged research journey. In the vignettes presented, the abacus was used post hoc by the graduate students to reflect on their use of community-engaged practices. However, the abacus can be used across various stages of the research process: for example, in early collaborative planning stages with involved parties, as a midpoint check in activity, or, similar to its use here, as a post hoc activity to assess the extent to which community-engaged practices were utilized to critically reflect on improvements moving forward. As described by Doberneck and Dann (2019), the abacus should also be considered as a

> storytelling tool, to explain who had voice and authority at different steps of the engagement process. Without taking the time to carefully think through and document who had the most influence on decision-making and when, much

> of the richness of this community-engaged research project would have been lost. (p. 98)

Although community-engaged research is highly regarded in many university systems, protocols for developing such capacities among graduate students remain relatively unrefined. A push in this direction can be seen most recently in *Publicly Engaged Scholars: Next-Generation Engagement and the Future of Higher Education* (Post et al., 2016), as well as across earlier publications that advocated for stronger research values and action as promoted by faculty mentors (Colbeck, 2008; Franz, 2013), resource and skill development regarding basic methods for community-engaged research (Allen & Moore, 2010; Franz, 2013), and training related to power and oppression and how they are translated both within and outside graduate school settings (Warren et al., 2016).

Perhaps the most influential piece of literature regarding the development of graduate student capacities for community engagement hails from a special issue of the *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* and documents the critical evaluation of a university-based certificate program (Doberneck, Bargerstock, et al., 2017). Its authors have cultivated a promising model for graduate student education and training that has effectively tested various iterations of a community-engaged scholarship curriculum and mapped their refined curriculum onto community-engagement faculty competencies. The codevelopment and evolution of curriculum dimensions and competencies provides a sustainable approach to the challenging process of graduate student community-engaged research. Such initiatives are moving the field closer to "a time and place where community engagement is sufficiently valued and rewarded within higher education" (Morin et al., 2016, p. 154). We hope that our perspectives as graduate students working in resource-limited community-engaged scholarship projects provide descriptive examples of creative solutions to the problems that arise from resource and institutional constraints.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Dr. Diane Doberneck of University Outreach and Engagement at Michigan State University, who has served as a key mentor for community-engaged research throughout their graduate school experience, specifically throughout the Graduate Certification in Community Engagement program.

About the Authors

Katherine Cloutier, Ph.D., *is a senior program specialist in the Department of Health and Human Services.*

Kathryn A. V. Clements, Ph.D., *is a fixed term assistant professor in the Department of Psychology at Michigan State University.*

Sara McGirr, Ph.D., *is a research scientist in the Center for Healthy Communities at the Michigan Public Health Institute.*

References

Allen, A., & Moore, T. L. (2010). Developing emerging engagement scholars in higher education. In H. Fitzgerald, C. Burack, & S. D. Seifer (Eds.), *Handbook of engaged scholarship: Contemporary landscapes, future directions: Vol. 2. Community–campus partnerships* (pp. 447-458). Michigan State University Press.

Austin, A. E., & McDaniels, M. (2006). Using doctoral education to prepare faculty to work within Boyer's four domains of scholarship. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 2006*(129), 51–65. https://doi.org/10.1002/ir.171

Clements, K. A. V., Baird, D., & Campbell, R. (2019). "It's hard to explain.": Service providers' perspectives on unaccompanied minors' needs based on minors' forms of immigration relief. *Journal of International Migration & Integration, 21*, 633–648. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-019-00668-x

Colbeck, C. L. (2008). Professional identity development theory and doctoral education. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 2008*(113), 9–16.

Doberneck, D. M., Bargerstock, B. A., McNall, M., Van Egeren, L., & Zientek, R. (2017). Community engagement competencies for graduate and professional students: Michigan State University's approach to professional development. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 24*(1). https://doi.org/10.3998/mjcsloa.3239521.0024.111

Doberneck, D. M., & Dann, S. L. (2019). The degree of collaboration abacus tool. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(2), 93–107. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1453

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

Doberneck, D. M., Glass, C. R., & Schweitzer, J. H. (2012). Beyond activity, place, and partner: How publicly engaged scholarship varies by intensity of activity and degree of engagement. *Journal of Community Engagement and Scholarship, 4*(2), 18–28. http://jces.ua.edu/beyond-activity-place-and-partner-how-publicly-engaged-scholarship-varies-by-intensity-of-activity-and-degree-of-engagement/

Franz, N. K. (2013). Preventing graduate student heroic suicide in community-based research: A tale of two committees. *Journal of Public Scholarship in Higher Education, 3*, 111–127.

Jaeger, A. J., Sandmann, L. R., & Kim, J. (2011). Advising graduate students doing community-engaged dissertation research: The advisor-advisee relationship. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 15*(4), 5–25. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/899

Jaeger, A. J., Tuchmayer, J. B., & Morin, S. M. (2014). The engaged dissertation: Exploring trends in doctoral student research. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 18*(4), 71–96. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1165

Kingry-Westergaard, C., & Kelly, J. G. (1990). A contextualist epistemology for ecological research. In P. Tolan, C. Keys, F. Chertak, & L. Jason (Eds.), *Researching community psychology: Issues of theory and methods* (pp. 23–31). American Psychological Association.

Kral, M. J., & Allen, J. (2015). Community-based participatory action research. In L. A. Jason & D. S. Glenwick (Eds.), *Handbook of methodological approaches to community-based research: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods* (pp. 253–262). Oxford University Press.

Morin, S. M., Jaeger, A. J., & O'Meara, K. (2016). The state of community engagement in graduate education: Reflecting on 10 years of progress. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 20*(1), 151–156. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1263

O'Meara, K., & Jaeger, A. J. (2006). Preparing future faculty for community engagement: Barriers, facilitators, models, and recommendations. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 11*(4), 3–26. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/

view/537

Post, M. A., Ward, E., Longo, N. V., Saltmarsh, J. A., Eatman, T. K., & Levine, P. (2016). *Publicly engaged scholars: Next-generation engagement and the future of higher education*. Stylus Publishing.

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

Trickett, E. J. (1996). A future for community psychology: The contexts of diversity and the diversity of contexts. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 24*(2), 209–234. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02510399

Trickett, E. J. (2009a). Community psychology: Individuals and interventions in community context. *The Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 395–419. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163517

Trickett, E. J. (2009b). Multilevel community-based culturally situated interventions and community impact: An ecological perspective. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 43*(3–4), 257–266. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-009-9227-y

Trickett, E. J. (2011). From "water boiling in a Peruvian town" to "letting them die": Culture, community intervention, and the metabolic balance between patience and zeal. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 47*(1–2), 58–68. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-010-9369-y

Trickett, E. J., Kelly, J. G., & Vincent, T. A. (1985). The spirit of ecological inquiry in community research. In E. C. Susskind & D. C. Klein (Eds.), *Community research: Methods, paradigms, and applications* (pp. 283–333). Praeger.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. (2015). *UNHCR statistical yearbook 2014*.

Wang, C. (1999). Photovoice: A participatory action research strategy applied to women's health. *Journal of Women's Health, 8*(2), 185–192. https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.1999.8.185

Wang, C., & Burris, M. A. (1994). Empowerment through photo novella: Portraits of participation. *Health Education & Behavior, 21*(2), 171–186. https://doi.org/10.1177/109019819402100204

Wang, C., & Burris, M. A. (1997). Photovoice: Concept, methodology, and use for participatory needs assessment. *Health Education & Behavior, 24*(3), 369–387. https://doi.org/10.1177/109019819702400309

Warren, M. R., Park, S. O., & Tieken, M. C. (2016). The formation of community-engaged scholars: A collaborative approach to doctoral training in education research. *Harvard Educational Review, 86*(2), 233–260. https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.86.2.233

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 199, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

A Visual Model for Critical Service-Learning Project Design

Jason Wollschleger

Abstract

Drawing from Stith et al.'s (2018) Critical Service-Learning Conversations Tool, this article provides a visual model for developing critical service-learning projects. This model proposes to assist the analysis of critical service-learning projects by grounding them in contemporary scholarship and literature. The model also reveals the interplay of the five key themes in critical service-learning literature: understanding systems, authentic relationships, redistribution of power, equitable classrooms, and social change skills.

Keywords: critical service-learning, community engagement, project design, visual model

This article seeks to provide a visual, conceptual model for developing critical service-learning projects that is grounded in contemporary scholarship and literature on critical service-learning. This effort began as a project for a community engagement faculty fellows' program in which I attempted to design a critical service-learning project for a class. I was having trouble holding all of the components and the relationships between them together, so I designed this model. It enabled me to view all the critical service-learning themes identified by Stith et al. (2018), my operationalization of these themes into project goals, and the connections and relationships between them. I ultimately found my project in the space in the center of the conceptual model. The existing literature offers a number of excellent models for service-learning: models for assessing learning (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Ash et al., 2005), creating an engaged campus (Saltmarsh et al., 2015), critical reflection and assessment (Ash & Clayton, 2009), and designing projects with long-term impacts (Bringle & Clayton, 2012; Bringle et al., 2011; Stith et al., 2018). This current model offers the unique ability to help faculty build projects that incorporate the key elements of critical service-learning in their design from the very beginning. This aspect of the conceptual model is drawn from Stith et al.'s (2018) self-assessment and reflection tool for faculty, Critical Service-Learning Conversations Tool, and their summary of the five key themes in critical service-learning literature: understanding systems, authentic relationships, redistribution of power, equitable classrooms, and social change skills. This model operationalizes these concepts for project design and puts them into a visual format that is intended to help faculty examine the interplay among these five key themes while they design critical service-learning projects.

Critical Service-Learning

The rise in popularity of service-learning at the end of the 20th century led to the widespread establishment of a dominant model of service-learning that was rife with problems. Recognition of these problems led to early calls for alternative approaches from critical scholars (Brown, 2001; Marullo, 1999; Marullo & Edwards, 2000; Rhoads, 1997; Robinson, 2000). Early critics focused on the paternalistic nature (Cipolle, 2004; Robinson, 2000) and forced volunteerism (Boyle-Baise, 1998) of traditional service-learning practices. The critical perspec-

tive on service-learning finally coalesced with the publication of Mitchell's (2008) literature review, "Traditional vs. Critical Service-Learning: Engaging the Literature to Differentiate Two Models." In this piece, Mitchell clearly identified parameters of critical service-learning in relation to and against the traditional, dominant model. Latta et al. (2018) argued that Mitchell's article redefined the field by observing three key aspects: "working to redistribute power amongst all participants in the service-learning relationship, developing authentic relationships in the classroom and community, and working from a social change perspective" (Mitchell, 2008, p. 50). Traditional service-learning was embedded in a set of relationships with unequal power dynamics. Traditional service-learning tended to privilege the needs of the university and its students over those of the community partner (Brown, 2001). Mitchell (2008) argued that an effective critical service-learning model must identify this differential power distribution and seek ways to analyze and discuss power dynamics and to work to equalize the relationships by empowering the community (Marullo & Edwards, 2000; Liu et al., 2020), working alongside the community and using campus resources to address community needs, and focusing on long-term partnerships to prevent burnout among community partners (Brown, 2001). Additionally, critical service-learning should question the distribution of power within the classroom (Mitchell, 2008; Wollschleger et al., 2020). Strategies for community empowerment include incorporating community knowledge and input into the course curriculum (Brown, 2001) through involving community members in the classroom. Mitchell (2008) also suggested reconfiguring the physical layout of the traditional classroom to decenter the class and create opportunities for shared leadership among teachers, students, and community members, as well as creating a "professorless" environment where students and community members can interact without the influence of faculty (Addes & Keene, 2006).

Drawing explicitly on Mitchell (2008) and others, Stith et al. (2018) at Duke Service-Learning have developed a Critical Service-Learning Conversations Tool. This tool serves as a "self-assessment and resource tool to help faculty implement critical, justice-oriented service-learning" (Stith et al., 2018, cover). The tool itself serves as a useful instrument for faculty to assess the degree to which their community engagement/service-learning projects incorporate critical theory and a social justice orientation (Stith et al., 2018, p. 1). But importantly, for this article, Stith et al. identified five key themes for critical service-learning: understanding systems, authentic relationships, redistribution of power, equitable classrooms, and social change skills. Critical service-learning as an approach is still developing (Mitchell & Latta, 2020), but these themes provide a solid grounding in existent literature.

Understanding systems is the first theme that Stith et al. (2018) drew from the critical service-learning literature. This theme relates specifically with students' ability to analyze and understand the root causes of social problems, moving from a shallow and simplistic understanding to one that is more nuanced and complex that considers the context—both the historical conditions that have shaped the social problems and structural causes (Buttaro, 2009; Kahne & Westheimer, 1994; Liu et al., 2020; Mitchell, 2008; Stith et al., 2018). *Authentic relations* is the second theme, specifically between the community partner and the university. Projects that are built on authentic relationships allow both the community partner and the university to "understand each other's history, culture and positionality" (Stith et al., 2018, p. 4), as well as making sure both parties' needs are met (Liu et al., 2020; Mitchell, 2008; Sandy & Holland, 2006; Smith & Sobel, 2010; Stith et al., 2018). Building projects based on authentic relationships requires a long-term commitment, clear communication, and a willingness to listen.

Redistribution of power is the third theme identified by Stith et al. (2018) in critical service-learning. This theme is based on the recognition that service-learning relationships between community partners and universities often create an unequal distribution of power in which the university's educational needs are given priority over the needs of the community partner. Such relationships also often include an implied assumption that students are assets or resources and the host communities are deficient or in need (Arnstein, 1969; Eby, 1998; McKnight & Kretzmann, 1993). In projects developed from a critical service-learning framework, these potentials for unequal distribution of resources are acknowledged

and addressed, as are inequalities between the community partner and the university as well as in the classroom by reframing students' understanding of need and resources or strengths in the community.

Equitable classrooms, the fourth theme, relates to the work performed in Theme 3. In their approach, Stith et al. (2018) emphasized that universities have a history of exclusion of certain voices, including those of "women, low-wealth students and racial minorities" (p. 8). In order to create a critical service-learning course, it is essential to bring to the foreground the voices and perspectives that have been marginalized (Landis, 2008; Mitchell et al., 2012). Other ways to create equitable classrooms for critical service-learning include engaging with underrepresented authors, fostering a classroom environment for engaging diverse perspectives, and bringing to center nontraditional sources of knowledge from community partners.

Social change skills is the fifth and final theme emphasized in Stith et al.'s (2018) Critical Service-Learning Conversations Tool. Its focus equips students with social change skills (Bobo et al., 2001; Mitchell & Coll, 2017; Rost-Banik, 2020; Yee, 2020). This may be accomplished through hands-on instruction and practice of these skills, assessing the impact of the course on social change, and partnering with community partners who themselves are making real change for their communities.

The Model

The purpose of this model (Figure 1) is to facilitate the creation of critical service-learning projects that are informed by the five themes identified by Stith et al. (2018). We can think of these themes as goals for a critical service-learning project. Creating this model involved two primary steps: operationalizing the goals into something relevant to the class and then arranging them visually in relation to each other. For the first step I simply took themes and dropped them down a level of abstraction into something that was more practical for project creation while still abstract enough to allow for variation.

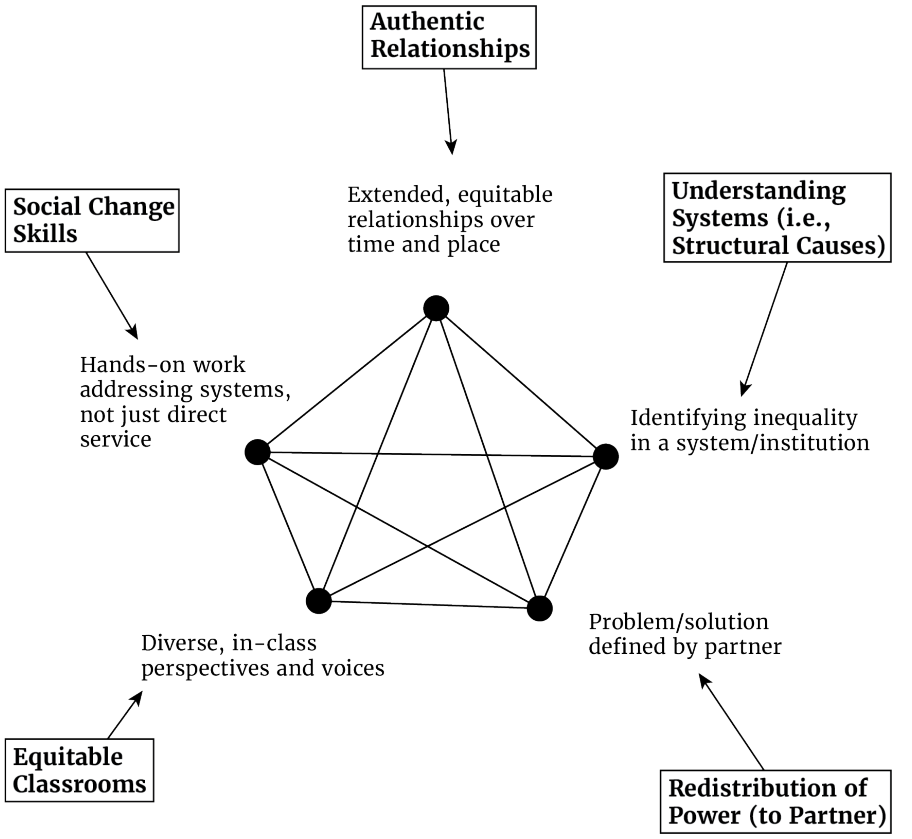


Figure 1. Visual Model of a Critical Service-Learning Approach to Project Design. Adapted from Stith et al. (2018).

Authentic relationships are foundational to the critical service-learning perspective—reflecting a critique of transactional relationships embedded in the traditional model. I conceived of authentic relationships in practical terms as extended, equitable relationships over time and place. These relationships can include faculty and community partner, community partner and student, student and faculty, and even community partner and department relationships. It may be unnecessary or not possible to facilitate extended relationships between students and community partners (Fouts, 2020), due to many factors but especially the transient nature of students and the short duration of academic terms. However, it is very feasible to develop extended faculty and community partner relationships.

From *authentic relationships* we move clockwise to *understanding systems* or identifying structural causes. I conceived of this outcome as the practice of identifying inequalities in a system or institution. Inequalities may include unequal access to resources, as well as inequalities by race, gender, social class, sexual/gender identity, and so on. The practical conceptualization must be concrete enough to focus attention but broad enough to allow for multiple critical approaches. Then we move to the *redistribution of power*, and here specifically I understood the action/practice as redistributing power to the community and/or community partner. In other words, the community partner should have the power and agency in the relationship to define the problem to be addressed and/or the solution they are looking for. It is worth recognizing here that sometimes, depending on the project, the community partner is a representative of and a member of the community, and sometimes they are not. Recognizing this upfront and working to be inclusive of all constituents in decision making and problem definition is essential to a critical service-learning project.

The next point in the model is the goal of *equitable classrooms*, which I understood in practice as the inclusion of diverse perspectives and voices within the class. Inclusion can be achieved through readings from diverse perspectives and identities, in-person discussions or lectures from outside experts, especially community members, and student-led contribution to the class environment. The final point in the model is the development of *social change skills*, which is operationalized in this model as prioritizing hands-on work to address systemic or structural inequities, not simply direct service provision. These five points together define the parameters of critical service-learning project design, but it is exploration of the relationships inside the model that creates the space for the project to be mutually reinforcing.

For example, if we start tracing the internal connection of the visual model at *understanding systems*, it becomes easy to see that identifying inequality in systems is dependent upon and connected to engaging with diverse perspectives and voices in the classroom. This process must include the voices of the community partner, which is one path toward building extended, equitable relationships. These relationships can enable a redistribution of power by letting the community partner define the problem and solution. Doing so in turn creates opportunities to engage students in hands-on work that actually addresses systems rather than simply providing direct service. This recognition of systems then feeds back into equipping students to understand and begins to address structural causes of social issues. The act of making visible these interconnections can help faculty create effective critical service-learning projects that are grounded in the literature. When faculty can grasp the connections visually, seeing both the practices and the manner in which they support other outcomes, they can conceptually hold them together to give shape to the project that lies in the center.

Discussion

This model is designed to assist faculty in creating critical service-learning projects by providing a map that has key stops and the routes between them. In the previous section I provided an overview of the outcomes of the model and the practical possibilities under each outcome, as well as the interior connections among practices that reinforce other outcomes. The model is flexible and one can move through it in any direction and from any starting point. Whatever way one moves through the model, it will reveal key linkages and set constraints on the shape of the project. Utilizing the model in this way allows faculty to build a critical service-learning project from any starting point, guiding them from one known outcome to outcomes and practice elsewhere. If you have a relationship with a community partner, you can start there.

If you are focused on a specific system or systemic inequality, you can start there. A dynamic class in which diverse perspectives are brought to the center may lead the faculty and students outward from the classroom. Whatever piece of a project one has, or ingredient in the critical service-learning recipe, the model helps identify the connections to other parts, which will lead to next steps and ultimately the creation of an effective project that is well-grounded in the literature.

Furthermore, the model is adaptable to other projects or interpretations of the five themes or goals for critical service-learning projects. You can keep the same shape along with the outcomes in the outer boxes and devise different practical applications, depending on your discipline or the subject of the class. For example, equitable classrooms could be operationalized as student-led classrooms or professorless classes. The model can be made more specific by drilling down on practical activities under a given outcome. For instance, rather than conceive of understanding systems practically as the work of identifying inequality in a system/institution, you could give detail to the inequality and/or the institution, such as identifying racial inequality in health care. Thus, the model allows for differing interpretations of the key outcome (as long as they are grounded in the literature of a given field) or a more specific and concrete practical application. Either way, it will work the same by highlighting the linkages between the nodes and providing direction for project design.

This paradigm also gives you the freedom not to have all outcomes or applications perfectly involved all the time. For instance, as discussed above, it may in fact be impossible to create authentic relationships between one's students and the community partner (see Fouts, 2020). In fact, even trying to achieve this outcome may be overly burdensome for the community partner and detrimental to the project. However, if the project is taking place in the context of extended and equitable relationships between the faculty person or department and community partner, the existence of such relationships can potentially be an ideal embodiment of the key theme.

Finally, the model can help with assessment, evaluation, and research. In whatever way the key goal is put in action, each node in the model will imply a source for evaluation. In its current form, the activity associated with the theme *equitable classrooms* is diverse, in-class perspectives that can be assessed through student feedback and evaluation as well as the collection of class artifacts. *Understanding systems*, when put in action by identifying inequality in a system/institution, can be assessed using student outcome data, whereas community partner feedback would help evaluate both the nature of the relationship and the distribution of power. Thus, the model illustrates what needs to be evaluated from a critical service-learning perspective and points to the proper unit of analysis. It also allows faculty to think about specific evaluation needs in the project design stage and to be intentional about building effective and informative assessment and evaluation into their projects.

Conclusion

Drawing from Stith et al.'s (2018) Critical Service-Learning Conversations Tool, this article provides a visual model for developing critical service-learning projects from theory to practice through assessment. The visual model assists the analysis of critical service-learning projects by grounding them in practice and by linking them to contemporary scholarship and literature. This article is an attempt to share this model with others in the hope of providing a useful framework for designing critical service-learning projects that are grounded in the literature. It is also my hope to encourage critical engagement from readers to move the model forward.

About the Author

Jason Wollschleger *is a professor of sociology at Whitworth University.*

References

Addes, D., & Keene, A. (2006). Grassroots community development at UMass Amherst: The professorless classroom. In E. Zlotkowski, N. Longo, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Students as colleagues: Expanding the circle of service-learning leadership*. (pp. 227–240). Campus Compact.

Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Planning Association, 35*(4), 216–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/01944366908977225

Ash, S. L., & Clayton, P. H. (2004). The articulated learning: An approach to guided reflection and assessment. *Innovative Higher Education, 29*(2), 137–154. https://hdl.handle.net/1805/9644

Ash, S. L., & Clayton, P. H. (2009). Generating, deepening, and documenting learning: The power of critical reflection in applied learning. *Journal of Applied Learning in Higher Education, 1*(1), 25–48. https://hdl.handle.net/1805/4579

Ash, S. L., Clayton, P. H., & Atkinson, M. P. (2005). Integrating reflection and assessment to capture and improve student learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*(2), 49–60. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0011.204

Bobo, K., Kendall, J., & Max, S. (2001). *Organizing for social change: Midwest academy manual for activists*. Seven Locks Press.

Boyle-Baise, M. (1998). Community service learning for multicultural education: An exploratory study with preservice teachers. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 31*(2), 52–60. https://doi.org/10.1080/1066568980310207

Bringle, R. G., & Clayton, P. H. (2012). Civic education through service learning: What, how, and why? In L. McIlrath, A. Lyons, & R. Munck, *Higher education and civic engagement* (pp. 101–124). Palgrave Macmillan.

Bringle, R. G., Studer, M., Wilson, J., Clayton, P. H., & Steinberg, K. S. (2011). Designing programs with a purpose: To promote civic engagement for life. *Journal of Academic Ethics, 9*(2), 149–164. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10805-011-9135-2

Brown, D. M. (2001). *Pulling it together: A method for developing service-learning community partnerships based in critical pedagogy*. Corporation for National Service.

Buttaro, L. (2009). Social justice and democracy in marginalized urban settings. *Scholarlypartnershipsedu, 4*(1), 48–76. https://paperity.org/p/82625688/social-justice-and-democracy-in-marginalized-urban-settings

Cipolle, S. (2004). Service-learning as counter-hegemonic practice: Evidence pro and con. *Multicultural Education, 11*(3), 12–23.

Eby, J. W. (1998). *Why service learning is bad*. DIGITALCOMMONS@UNO, Service learning, general, Article 27. https://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/slceslgen/27

Fouts, S. (2020). When "doing with" can be without: Employing critical service-learning strategies in creating the "New Orleans Black Worker History" digital timeline. *Journal of Community Engagement and Higher Education, 12*(1), 29–38. https://discovery.indstate.edu/jcehe/index.php/joce/article/view/560

Kahne, J., & Westheimer, J. (1994). In the service of what? The politics of service learning. *Phi Delta Kappan, 77*(9), 1–14.

Landis, K. (Ed.). (2008). *Start talking: A handbook for engaging in difficult dialogues in higher education*. University of Alaska Anchorage & Alaska Pacific University. https://cdn.vanderbilt.edu/vu-wp0/wp-content/uploads/sites/59/2017/03/01130311/Start_Talking_full_book_pdf.pdf

Latta, M., Kruger, T., Payne, L., Weaver, L., & VanSickle, J. (2018). Approaching critical service-learning: A model for reflection on positionality and possibility. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 22*(2), 31–56. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1386

Liu, R., Fischmann, S., Hong, A., & Melville, K. (2020). Spatializing community-based learning: How a critical geography framework can foster understandings of structural inequality and egalitarian relationships. *Journal of Community Engagement and Higher*

Education, 12(1), 16–28. https://discovery.indstate.edu/jcehe/index.php/joce/article/view/539

Marullo, S. (1999). Sociology's essential role: Promoting critical analysis in service learning. In J. Ostrow, G. Hesser, & S. Enos (Eds.), *Cultivating the sociological imagination: Concepts and models for service-learning in sociology*. (pp. 11–27). American Association of Higher Education.

Marullo, S., & Edwards, B. (2000). From charity to justice: The potential of university community collaboration for social change. *American Behavioral Scientist, 43*(5), 895–912. https://doi.org/10.1177/00027640021955540

McKnight, J. L., & Kretzmann, J. P. (1993). *Building communities from the inside out: A path toward finding and mobilizing a community's assets*. Center for Urban Affairs and Policy Research, Northwestern University.

Mitchell, T. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 14*(2), 50–65. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0014.205

Mitchell, T. D., & Coll, K. (2017). Ethnic studies as a site for political education: Critical service learning and the California Domestic Worker Bill of Rights. *PS: Political Science & Politics, 50*(1), 187–192. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1049096516002419

Mitchell, T. D., Donahue, D. M., & Young-Law, C. (2012). Service learning as a pedagogy of Whiteness. *Equity and Excellence in Education, 45*(4), 612–629. https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2012.715534

Mitchell, T. D., & Latta, M. (2020). From critical community service to critical service learning and the futures we must (still) imagine. *Journal of Community Engagement and Higher Education, 12*(1), 3–6. https://discovery.indstate.edu/jcehe/index.php/joce/article/view/613

Rhoads, R. A. (1997). *Community service and higher learning: Explorations of the caring self*. State University of New York Press.

Robinson, T. (2000). Dare the school build a new social order? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 7*(1), 142–157. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0007.116

Rost-Banik, C. (2020). Educating for social justice through activist-oriented sites. *Journal of Community Engagement and Higher Education, 12*(1), 104–118. https://discovery.indstate.edu/jcehe/index.php/joce/article/view/551

Saltmarsh, J., Janke, E. M., & Clayton, P. H. (2015). Transforming higher education through and for democratic civic engagement: A model for change. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 22*(1), 122–127. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0022.119

Sandy, M., & Holland, B. A. (2006). Different worlds and common ground: Community partner perspectives on campus–community partnerships. Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning, 13(1), 30–44. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0013.103

Smith, G., & Sobel, D. (2010). *Place- and community-based education in schools*. Routledge.

Stith, M., Emmerling, D., & Malone, D. (2018). *Critical service-learning conversations tool: A self-assessment and resource tool to help faculty implement critical, justice-oriented service-learning*. Duke Service-Learning. https://servicelearning.duke.edu/sites/servicelearning.duke.edu/files/documents/Critical%20Conversations%20Tool.pdf

Wollschleger, J., Killian, M., & Prewitt, K. (2020). Rethinking service learning: Reciprocity and power dynamics in community engagement. *Journal of Community Engagement and Higher Education, 12*(1), 7–15. https://discovery.indstate.edu/jcehe/index.php/joce/article/view/550

Yee, J. A. (2020). Civic engagement through Asian American and Pacific Islander studies: Cultivating capacity for social justice through critical service learning. *Journal of Community Engagement and Higher Education, 12*(1), 39–49. https://discovery.indstate.edu/jcehe/index.php/joce/article/view/557

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 207, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Are the International Components of Global Learning Programs Ethical and Appropriate? Some Considerations Utilizing a Fair Trade Learning Framework

Mathew H. Gendle and Amanda Tapler

Abstract

Educational approaches that emphasize engagement within community-based contexts in both domestic and international settings are widely recognized as high-impact pedagogical practices. However, the international components of global learning programs are increasingly being viewed through rigorous ethical lenses as the potential and actual harms of these initiatives have become more widely recognized. Six common criticisms of international components embedded within global learning programs are highlighted in this essay, along with responses and counterpoints to each. We assert that although each of these concerns warrants significant discussion, all six can be satisfactorily addressed using proactive and ethical strategies that are already employed in best-practice community-based global learning (CBGL) work.

Keywords: community engagement, global, community-based global learning, service-learning, international partnership

The Association of American Colleges and Universities has recognized diversity/global learning, service-learning, and community-based learning as significant high-impact practices in undergraduate pedagogy (Kuh, 2008). In particular, educational approaches that combine these practices are viewed as especially powerful, as they can facilitate students' understanding of the deep transnational interdependence of political, economic, and social systems (Hartman & Rola, 2000). The set of pedagogical practices collectively referred to as "international service-learning" has been historically viewed as the gold standard for global education (Crabtree, 2008). However, this work has been increasingly reframed by academics and local and international partner organizations as "global inquiry" through a more widely recognized understanding that such critical global inquiry can be effectively accomplished within both international and domestic/local partnerships (Alonso García & Longo, 2013; Longo & Saltmarsh, 2011; Whitehead, 2015). This philosophical shift is critically important, as it replaces earlier conceptual frameworks—that were linear, location-based, and focused on divisions defined by political boundaries—with frameworks that are interdependent, interconnected, holistic, and focused on ecological networks of relationships (Alonso García & Longo, 2013; Keith, 2005). Recently, Hartman et al. (2018) have provided a model of critical global inquiry that both advances collaborative community development and mitigates some of the recognized perils of this work, such as the reinforcement of stereotypes and patterns of privilege, as well as significant potential harms to vulnerable populations, especially children and medical patients. In this essay, we will avoid use of the term "service-learning" whenever possible, and instead follow the lead of Hartman et al. (2018) by referring to programs and initiatives that integrate critical global inquiry

as *community-based global learning* (CBGL). Unfortunately, some of the "international service-learning" programs of the past are now being erroneously referred to as CBGL despite not being in line with the best-practice principles set forth by Hartman et al. (2018). In many cases, these programs have not been adjusted to properly reflect the evolution, systemic complexity, and reciprocity vital to high-impact, equitable, sustainable, and ethical practice standards of CBGL.

Regardless of the program's title, international global learning initiatives are increasingly being viewed through rigorous ethical lenses. As a result, the potential and actual harms of these initiatives have been brought into sharp focus. These ethical concerns are not new—Ivan Illich (1968/1994) spoke poignantly about them in his famous 1968 speech "To Hell With Good Intentions," delivered to the Conference on InterAmerican Student Projects (CIASP) in Cuernavaca, Mexico In this work, Illich pointed a damning spotlight at "voluntourist" attitudes; the perceptions of United States economic, political, and social exceptionalism that are commonly held by U.S. volunteers working in international contexts; and the extensive damage caused by well-intentioned but ignorant "community development" initiatives that are created without input from the communities they hope to serve. More recently, Mitchell (2008) has suggested that academic service-learning has bifurcated into two distinct subgroups: (1) "traditional" service-learning, which emphasizes service experiences that are largely disconnected from their broader economic, political, social, cultural, and historical contexts, and (2) "critical" service-learning, which is grounded in multiple contexts and is intentional about seeking to disrupt systems of injustice and inequality. Mitchell's conceptualization of critical service-learning has advanced the field by encouraging academic service activities that are explicitly political and function to shift power dynamics toward permanently dismantling the societal structures that underlie inequity. Additionally, critical service-learning emphasizes the reflective and analytical engagement of participants with the concept of what it means to "serve," as well as their positionality within broader power structures (Rice & Pollack, 2000). Hartman et al. (2018) promoted a model of critical global inquiry that further extends Mitchell's concept of critical service-learning by explicitly focusing on deeper considerations of student engagement in broad, multilevel, and globally interconnected systems. Although the field is becoming more accepting of the important role of criticality in this work (Jones & Kiser, 2014), many mainstream academic institutions have only recently begun to reenvision their service programming in response to the significant ethical concerns raised by Illich, Mitchell, and many others (for example, see Smaller & O'Sullivan, 2018).

Contemporary conceptualizations of ethically acceptable critical global inquiry increasingly center on the value of the local in addition to the international (Longo & Saltmarsh, 2011). The reorientation toward the local has only been enhanced by the travel restrictions resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic (Motley et al., 2021). These pandemic-related travel limitations, a heightened sensitivity to issues of student inclusion and access to international experiences, and the focus on being community-oriented instead of service-oriented, have all increased interest in internationalization at home (IaH) strategies that enhance international engagement entirely from within local contexts (Agnew & Kahn, 2014). For all of these reasons, we believe that the international components of all global learning programs are at a crossroads, presenting multiple important ethical questions that must be meaningfully considered and equitably addressed.

Common Objections to International Experiences

As academic and community practitioners become more aware of these ethical concerns, some have begun to question (largely outside the published peer-reviewed literature) the value and appropriateness of offering international experiences to students. Thoughtful criticism of international "service" programming has been present in the public sphere as well, perhaps most notably from Cole (2012). In our experience, the following statements capture six of the most common objections to international components of global learning:

1. *Why international instead of local?* There are an essentially infinite number of opportunities for students to participate in meaningful community-based global inquiry work on campus or within an hour's drive of nearly any college or university in the United States.

Students, academics, and colleges/universities should not expect, model, or promote traveling around the globe as the standard to measure critical global inquiry, global engagement, and global learning.

2. *International programming frequently lacks depth.* Short term or relatively brief international learning engagements do not allow for the deep level of building and sustaining equitable and mutually beneficial partnerships that community-based global learning ethically requires.

3. *Inequities in who benefits financially.* The funds spent on transportation, food, lodging, and global inquiry work for international global learning efforts often end up in the hands of corporate multinationals and a small number of United States– and European Union–based service providers instead of staying within the local communities.

4. *Monetary and temporal expense.* International travel is expensive and time consuming. Both of these concerns limit student access and inclusion of diverse student populations.

5. *Low return on investment.* From a return-on-investment perspective, the cost of international student travel is not "money well spent." This is especially true when considering what those funds could be used to accomplish in the hands of a capable local partner organization.

6. *Environmental costs.* International components of global learning are inexcusably bad for the environment—they create an elective and unnecessary carbon emissions burden at a time when the planet can least afford it.

Through our roles as academic leaders of community-based global learning programs, we believe that each of these concerns is important, legitimate, and worthy of discussion. However, we also strongly assert that, if planned and executed properly, international components of CBGL can both address these criticisms and play a fundamental and ethical role in holistic student learning and development that cannot be fully replicated in other contexts. Incorporating international components to CBGL must be carefully investigated, preplanned, and aligned with high-quality, high-impact standards of practice. We believe that we have developed CBGL programs that put into practice the programmatic strategies that effectively mitigate and/or diffuse each of these concerns. Much of our thinking in this area is explicitly grounded in the principles of fair trade learning (Hartman, 2015; Hartman et al., 2014). Fair trade learning provides international as well as domestic/local CBGL with a powerful framework of practical ethical standards that promote equity, justice, and an understanding of interconnectedness.

In the following sections, we address each of the concerns listed above in turn, and do so using both our personal CBGL program leadership experience and the fair trade learning guidelines as foundations for our responses. It is important to understand that both the fair trade learning guidelines and the suggestions we offer are intended to be aspirational (Hartman et al., 2018). Each academic program, institution, and community relationship is unique, and limits on temporal and financial resources may constrain the practical execution of these best practices. Following the motivation of Hartman et al. (2018), we hope that sharing our thinking and experiences can challenge others in the field to work toward these common goals to create and sustain programming that is rooted in equity, justice, and reciprocity.

1. Why International Instead of Local?

Although potential local partnerships and engagement opportunities are sometimes overlooked in favor of international experiences that may seem more appealing to students, this criticism is based on the antiquated view and model of international service-learning versus high-quality CBGL. This antiquated model also perpetuates a false domestic/international dichotomy within this work that must be rejected. Both local and international settings have important and complementary roles in the emerging conceptualization of critical global inquiry, and programs built around current best practices frequently utilize both. CBGL emphasizes interdependency and an ecological view of interrelatedness—through this lens, the importance and centrality of political borders and other constructed artifacts falls away (Alonso García & Longo, 2013; Hartman et al., 2018; Longo & Saltmarsh, 2011; Whitehead, 2015).

Without question, internationally situated global learning programs that are poorly conceptualized and executed are wasteful

of resources and pose significant risks to partner communities. These risks include potential harms to children and medical patients, as well as the perpetuation of stereotypes, "voluntourist" mindsets, and unjust relational power dynamics (Hartman et al., 2018). However, local experiential programming is not immune to these risks—consider, for example, the widespread and problematic practice of "community service days" on college and university campuses throughout the United States. Simply keeping things local will not inoculate programs from "do-gooder-ism," unjust othering, and other problematic mindsets. International experiences that are short in duration; fail to promote authentic reciprocal student–community relationships; and patronize hotels, restaurants, and transportation providers that are external to the communities being engaged must be discouraged. Such "parachute" experiences do not push students into uncomfortable new spaces that are personally or intellectually challenging, offering no progress toward the meaningful or transformational student development outcomes that are their ostensible goals: (1) a sustained reorientation of personal and lifestyle choices, habits, and values; (2) a deeper understanding of self and purpose; (3) an expanded sense of solidarity and social responsibility; (4) increased appreciation for complexity and ambiguity; (5) enhanced awareness and questioning of culturally constructed social norms, assumptions, or values; and (6) increased personal actions to promote equity and justice (Kiely, 2004, 2005).

This observation, however, does not yet address the question of "why travel internationally?" International CBGL experiences that avoid the above-stated pitfalls can serve as unique drivers of powerful student growth. When partner communities are engaged as equals, utilized as true cocreators and coeducators in academic experiences, treated as experts, and exert meaningful agency in regard to how programmatic relationships are developed and maintained, the outcomes from such relationships will produce substantial developmental benefits for both students and community partners alike. Programs must carefully plan and implement meaningful academic engagement for all participants and support the practice of cultural humility, which emphasizes a lifelong and ongoing personal commitment to engage in (1) meaningful self-evaluation/self-critique, (2) identifying and resolving power imbalances, and (3) cocreating and codeveloping mutually beneficial partnerships (Tervalon & Murray-García, 1998). Programs must also emphasize the use of local resources and providers for student food (locally sourced), lodging (such as homestays or community hostels), and transportation (providers that community members identify, oversee, and benefit from) needs prior to, during, and following all CBGL experiences. When performed properly, international CBGL experiences foster moments of powerful integrative personal development, in circumstances where student engagement with diversity is intentional and scaffolded (Salisbury & Goodman, 2009). Ethical engagement with unfamiliar cultural practices; educational, economic, and social contexts; and physical environments in international settings can drive student intellectual and personal growth in ways that simply cannot be replicated within domestic locations.

The other point to be made here is one that is often overlooked: How can partner communities derive benefit from international CBGL experiences? One of the primary contributions of the principles of fair trade learning (Hartman, 2015; Hartman et al., 2014) to this dialogue is a recentering of academic organization–partner relationships in ways where positive and definable outcomes to all stakeholders are of equal importance. When developing and maintaining international partnerships, it is critical to avoid paternalistic approaches as well as ones that may, inadvertently or not, be rooted in colonialism (such as relationship structures that implicitly place partner communities solely in the role of resource providers, or inequities in systems grounded in colonial-era policies) or other problematic power dynamics (Sharpe & Dear, 2013; Tiessen et al., 2018; VanLeeuwen et al., 2017). When performed in an ethically appropriate way, such partnerships will yield significant and unique benefits to all stakeholders (Bringle et al., 2009).

2. International Programming Frequently Lacks Depth

We completely agree with this criticism. The typical historical model of "service-learning" that involves brief encounters between communities and students who "parachute" in for a few days (or less) is a harmful practice. Short term, superficial partnerships are not ethically appropriate, and are based on

an impoverished model of community engagement that must not be further perpetuated. Thankfully, professionals in the field are increasingly recognizing the problematic nature of this type of superficial encounter (such as student participant emphasis of difference, rather than similarity, when relating to community members; Adarlo et al., 2019) and have advanced multiple models (including fair trade learning) that support deeper, more meaningful, and equitable relationships between students and community members. We assert that best practices of international CBGL should include the development and support of program/community partnerships over a multiyear time span. Community partners must have a meaningful and authentic role in cocreating such partnerships, including (1) active agency in determining how success is defined and the ways in which benefits from the partnership are allocated, (2) coownership in the creation and implementation of learning objectives and syllabi, (3) selection of program participants, and (4) codeveloping and participating in evaluation and reflection activities (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Tiessen et al., 2018). Prior to the experience itself, both program and community participants in a partnership must engage in significant educational experiences that will function to maximize outcomes and programmatic success. For visiting students, such experiences may take the form of extended coursework and readings to better understand issues related to ethics, cultural humility, and cultural literacy. Ideally, these activities should occur before, during, and after the visit itself. For community members, such experiences might include learning more about the program's overarching educational goals and coming to understand the motivations for their partnership being sought. The equitable and meaningful incorporation of community voices in international CBGL efforts is particularly important during program evaluation as well as the production and publication of program-related scholarship.

As noted by Cayuela et al. (2020) and VanLeeuwen et al. (2017), the existent peer-reviewed literature on CBGL is skewed heavily toward work conducted in the United States (and/or by U.S. scholars) and published in English-language journals by organizations located in the United States or Europe. Additionally, the critical differences in how CBGL is conceptualized and undertaken within diverse academic institutional and community partner contexts both inside and outside the United States must not be overlooked (Aramburuzabala et al., 2019; Bheekie et al., 2016; Cayuela et al., 2020; Cress et al., 2010; Gregorová & Heinzová, 2019; Hatcher & Erasmus, 2008; Iverson & Espenschied-Reilly, 2010; Leung et al., 2007; Ma et al., 2019; Patrick et al., 2019; Thomson et al., 2011; VanLeeuwen et al., 2017; Xing, 2010). For these reasons, community partners should be incorporated as lead or colead authors on any scholarship that results from a CBGL partnership (see Gendle & Senadeera, 2020, for an example of one such coauthorship). A failure to do so will only serve to perpetuate dominant narratives and United States–centric lenses in the literature and further marginalize critically important viewpoints and perspectives.

3. Inequities in Who Benefits Financially

Unfortunately, many international global learning programs have not done a proper job in creating financial benefits for their partner communities through their logistical expenditures. Often, this is a consequence of these programs' failure to develop authentic and mutually beneficial community partnerships. Such partnerships allow for the open, honest, and direct discussion of finances and provider options without requiring a third party to negotiate or make arrangements. Indeed, the use of such third parties to handle logistical details is orthogonal to the principles of fair trade learning and must be avoided. Of course, there are no alternative options in regard to arranging international flights, as locally owned and operated international air carriers do not exist. For this reason (along with the large carbon burden of air travel), programs must utilize public state transportation infrastructure (such as trains and bus services) or locally owned and operated transportation providers for transit within international locations and avoid commercial domestic air travel whenever possible. Programs must be intentional in their use of community-based logistics providers (homestays, local ground transport companies, food prepared by locally owned businesses or in private homes) that keep the capital from these expenditures in the pockets of local communities.

When utilizing local providers, it is critical to ensure that all parties are receiving fair compensation for services rendered, and that the providers themselves are able to dictate compensation models and amounts

that meet their needs. It is also important that university programs take the time to understand the power dynamics and structures within their partner communities, in order to avoid outcomes where the financial benefits of partnerships are directed toward a small subset of community beneficiaries, or otherwise distributed in an inequitable way. When executed thoughtfully and intentionally, sustained CBGL programs can directly benefit communities in a number of ways: (1) creation of new business and employment opportunities, particularly for young people; (2) promotion of economic diversification; (3) preservation and conservation of rural cultural practices, heritage, and natural resources; and (4) creation of markets for local arts, crafts, and other goods (Gendle & Senadeera, 2020; Wijesundara, 2019, 2020).

4. Monetary and Temporal Expense

It is incumbent upon all professionals in this work to be both attentive and responsive to all issues related to student access and inclusion. Unfortunately, there is no denying the reality that international travel is expensive and beyond the financial and temporal resource capacities of some of the students that we serve. Yet, given the multiple ways in which an authentic and ethical international learning experience can positively affect holistic student growth, we must be careful not to throw the baby out with the bathwater. In other words, valid criticisms of international experiences that are grounded in concerns related to financial or temporal pressures must be constructively utilized in arguments to advance institutional inclusion and equity efforts (including fundraising), rather than as a justification to do away with international experiences entirely.

A number of strategies can be employed in the service of enhancing student access and inclusion to international experiences. First, program leaders must be creative in both aggressively cutting costs and identifying resources to support students. One of the benefits of utilizing local providers for lodging and meals is that these services are often markedly less expensive (even after ensuring a fair rate of compensation) than establishments that cater primarily to tourist groups. By utilizing local community knowledge and expertise, providers can be identified that are both eager to offer students an enhanced experience and equipped to do so in an ethical way. The use of local providers is also critical because it keeps capital within local communities—this capital can then support economic, social, and environmental development that might not otherwise occur. Program leaders must also be prepared to engage in the critical on-campus work of effective fundraising to support international engagement and donor stewardship with individuals and organizations both internal and external to their institution. Additionally, program leaders must also be willing to listen to, and work with, the students they serve to identify particular times where international experiences can be best accommodated. For example, we have identified a 3-week block in late May and early June (after the end of our university's spring semester, but before the beginning of many of the students' summer jobs, classes, and internship experiences) for scheduling international CBGL experiences that both offers significant temporal flexibility and minimizes opportunity costs borne by the students.

Nevertheless, we must also be ever mindful of the reality that for some students, an international experience will remain inaccessible. Additionally, some students may have no interest in international travel, but would still benefit from the types of engagement that such programs offer. For all students, we must advance IaH strategies that are in parallel with, rather than in lieu of, traditional international programming (Agnew & Kahn, 2014). In this work, we suggest a best practice model that incorporates both international and domestic opportunities for learning that collectively support a more cohesive and holistic educational experience. For example, one of the authors (MG) has constructed immersive, student cohort-based, multiyear CBGL experiences that involved student work on the ground in Sri Lanka as well as with Sri Lankan Tamil diaspora groups in central North Carolina and at a local Tamil language school. This integrative experience facilitated meaningful student engagement across multiple contexts, and increased access and inclusion by providing ways for students to take part in international experiential components that were situated within 60 miles of campus.

5. Low Return on Investment

Some may suggest that from a return-on-investment perspective, the cost of international student travel is not "money well spent," and these funds could be used to

accomplish much more in the hands of a capable local partner organization. From a detached economic viewpoint, this is indeed true. However, this argument implies that student tuition used to provide coursework to support international components of community-based global learning is also not "money well spent." Such economic criticism of international experiences is misplaced. As educators, we must never lose sight of our primary objective—which is to promote the holistic development of our students, not to run or fund an NGO or aid organization. Of course (as discussed above), student development must not come at the expense of partner communities, as one of the core principles of fair trade learning is *dual purposes*—the idea that student learning and community outcomes must be accorded equal importance at all times (Hartman et al., 2014). Meaningful student and partner community growth is indeed a significant return on investment, but it is also one that programs need to make an effort to describe and/or quantify. Programs should work with their community-based partner organizations to cocreate assessment strategies that can provide evidence to support student development, community growth, and the realized value of the partnership to the community. These strategies can include both instruments that are publicly available, such as the Global Engagement Survey (GES; Hartman et al., 2015), the Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale (TRES; Clayton et al., 2010), or surveys and other metrics unique to a given program. As discussed in our response to Criticism 1, community-based experiences with an international component offer truly unique opportunities to facilitate deeply meaningful student growth. These experiences can also have a multiplicative effect for both students and partner communities. Students return to their own home communities with an enhanced understanding of the complexity of global systems, as well as the value of local educational, political, social, and economic investments. Cocreated relationships may also facilitate sustainable positive growth and benefits within partner communities as well. It is therefore difficult to argue that, when executed equitably and ethically, such experiences could truly constitute a waste of resources.

6. Environmental Costs

International components of global learning carry a large environmental burden, and of the six criticisms we present, this is the most difficult to effectively resolve. Carbon outputs generated by international academic travel will continue to be a major concern until humanity develops and adopts a meaningful global renewable energy strategy. For now, the question of principal importance is whether the benefits (in terms of student and community growth) of international travel outweigh the significant environmental costs. We believe that if international experiences are constructed with great thought and care, the answer to this question can potentially be yes. In our own work, we have successfully employed a number of strategies to minimize the carbon footprint of our program's international activities.

Much of this impact minimization boils down to being thoughtful and intentional in regard to planning student experiences. In addition to the positive community benefits that are derived from patronizing locally owned businesses, the avoidance of large commercial hotels and restaurants can significantly reduce the environmental impact of international programming. Additional carbon savings can be achieved by minimizing the number of trips that are made for each experience, choosing flights that have the smallest possible number of connections (as a notable proportion of a flight's carbon burden comes from the large amount of fuel expended during takeoff), and utilizing public transportation in host communities whenever it is possible and safe to do so. Environmental costs can be reduced further still by focusing on international locations that are hemispherically local. Programs can also calculate carbon footprints for all travel activities, and make it a standard practice to purchase carbon offsets for travel that are "additional" (meaning the offset activity would not have occurred without the capital derived from the offset purchase), retired to prevent reuse, permanent, and third-party certified.

It must be recognized that carbon offsets are, at best, a "Band-aid" in this work, rather than a long-term solution to carbon emissions. They do not prevent emissions from happening, nor do they stop the negative effects of those emissions on global climate systems. However, offsets do provide the best solution at present to mitigate the environmental burdens of travel within the current global energy economy. Whether thinking about costs in terms of money,

time, potential community partner harm, or burdens to the environment, no international CBGL experience will ever be free. It is incumbent upon the administrators of these programs, in equal partnership with community members, to meaningfully and carefully consider the broad benefit/harm ratio for any program, and be willing to significantly adjust or terminate activities if this ratio is not positive. To facilitate these considerations, as well as to hold programs accountable for both their impacts and operational improvements, programmatic incorporation of some type of systematic sustainability reporting should be encouraged (Ceulemans et al., 2015).

Conclusions

In this essay, we have attempted to respond to what we consider six main criticisms of internationally situated global learning programs. Although each of these criticisms is serious and must be afforded significant thought and consideration, none (in our view) are an Achilles' heel to this type of work. Creating and sustaining programs that properly and ethically address these concerns is a complex endeavor, but this is work that can and must be performed. However, it is also critical to note that such work should never be considered complete—humility is key to this endeavor, as there will always be something new to be learned and changes to make based upon the wisdom of partner communities and experienced practitioners in the field. Although this essay has focused on international components of global learning, we assert that all CBGL programs should be constructed in thoughtful ways that follow a global inquiry model that incorporates substantive geographically local partnerships and engagement experiences (along with international opportunities) as a central component to all programmatic offerings. Critical global inquiry, rooted in a community-based participatory approach, is ideal for a number of reasons: the ability to engage with substantive challenges and opportunities across a variety of contexts, increased programmatic flexibility, reduced financial costs, increased student access and inclusion, and active involvement and collaboration with communities as equal partners. By adopting such a framework, programs that are in line with CBGL practices will be best able to serve and meaningfully advance the interests of their students, community partners, and institutions.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Bob Frigo (assistant dean of campus life and director of the Kernodle Center for Civic Life at Elon University, in Elon, NC) for his helpful commentary on an early draft of this manuscript, as well as for many thoughtful conversations over the years regarding the topics addressed here.

About the Authors

Mathew H. Gendle *is the director of Project Pericles and is a professor of psychology at Elon University.*

Amanda Tapler *is the associate director of Project Pericles and is a senior lecturer of public health studies at Elon University.*

References

Adarlo, G., Amor, U., & Marquez, N. D. (2019). Dilemmas in service-learning: (Missed) opportunities for transformative partnership. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(3), 54–70. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1520

Agnew, M., & Kahn, H. E. (2014). Internationalization-at-home: Grounded practices to promote intercultural, international, and global learning. *Metropolitan Universities, 25*(3), 31–46. https://journals.iupui.edu/index.php/muj/article/view/20580

Alonso García, N., & Longo, N. V. (2013). Going global: Re-framing service-learning in an interconnected world. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 17*(2), 111–135. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1045

Aramburuzabala, P., Vargas-Moniz, M.-J., Opazo, H., McIlrath, L., & Stark, W. (2019). Considerations for service learning in European higher education. In P. Aramburuzabala, L. McIlrath, & H. Opazo (Eds.), *Embedding service learning in European higher education: Developing a culture of civic engagement* (pp. 230–242). Routledge.

Bheekie, A., van Huyssteen, M., Rae, N., & Swartbooi, C. (2016). "I just kept quiet": Exploring equity in a service-learning programme. *International Journal of Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, 4*(1), 217–233. https://journals.sfu.ca/iarslce/index.php/journal/article/view/216

Bringle, R. G., Clayton, P. H., & Price, M. F. (2009). Partnerships in service learning and civic engagement. *Partnerships: A Journal of Service Learning & Civic Engagement, 1*(1), 1–20. https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/handle/1805/4580

Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (2002). Campus–community partnerships: The terms of engagement. *Journal of Social Issues, 58*(3), 503–516. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4560.00273

Cayuela, A., Aramburuzabala, P., & Ballesteros, C. (2020). *Research report: A review of service-learning in European higher education*. European Observatory of Service-Learning in Higher Education. https://www.eoslhe.eu/wp-content/uploads/2020/11/RESEARCH-REPORT_web.pdf

Ceulemans, K., Molderez, I., & Van Liedekerke, L. (2015). Sustainability reporting in higher education: A comprehensive review of the recent literature and paths for further research. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 106*(1), 127–143. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.09.052

Clayton, P. H., Bringle, R. G., Senor, B., Huq, J., & Morrison, M. (2010). Differentiating and assessing relationships in service-learning and civic engagement: Exploitative, transactional, or transformational. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 16*(2), 5–21. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0016.201

Cole, T. (2012, March 21). *The White-savior industrial complex*. The Atlantic. https://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2012/03/the-white-savior-industrial-complex/254843/

Crabtree, R. D. (2008). Theoretical foundations for international service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 15*(1), 18–36. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0015.102

Cress, C. M., Yamashita, M., Duarte, R., & Burns, H. (2010). A transnational comparison of service-learning as a tool for leadership development. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 18*(2), 228–244. https://doi.org/10.1108/19348831011046281

Gendle, M. H., & Senadeera, B. (2020). Sarvodaya and Elon University: A model for transnational partnership in community based tourism (CBT). *Tourism in Paradise, 3*, 38–42.

Gregorová, A. B., & Heinzová, Z. (2019). Specifics of measuring social and personal responsibility of university students after completion of a service-learning course in Slovak conditions. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(3), 104–123. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1523

Hartman, D., & Rola, G. (2000). Going global with service learning. *Metropolitan Universities, 11*(1), 15–23. https://journals.iupui.edu/index.php/muj/article/view/19846

Hartman, E. (2015). A strategy for community-driven service-learning and community engagement: Fair trade learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 22*(1), 97–100. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0022.113

Hartman, E., Kiely, R. C., Friedrichs, J., & Boettcher, C. (2018). *Community-based global learning: The theory and practice of ethical engagement at home and abroad*. Stylus Publishing.

Hartman, E., Lough, B. J., Toms, C., & Reynolds, N. (2015). Assessing intercultural capacities, civic engagement, and critical thinking: The Global Engagement Survey. In J. Friedman, V. Haverkate, B. Oomen, E. Park, & M. Sklad (Eds.), *Going glocal in higher education: The theory, teaching, and measurement of global citizenship* (pp. 125–143). University College Roosevelt.

Hartman, E., Morris Paris, C., & Blache-Cohen, B. (2014). Fair trade learning: Ethical standards for community-engaged international volunteer tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 14*(1–2), 108–116. https://doi.org/ 10.1177/1467358414529443

Hatcher, J. A., & Erasmus, M. A. (2008). Service-learning in the United States and South Africa: A comparative analysis informed by John Dewey and Julius Nyerere. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 15*(1), 49–61. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0015.104

Illich, I. (1994). To hell with good intentions. In G. Albert (Ed.), *Service-learning reader: Reflections and perspectives on service*. National Society for Internships and Experiential Education. https://www.southwestern.edu/live/files/1158 (Original work published 1968)

Iverson, S. V., & Espenschied-Reilly, A. (2010). Made in America? Assumptions about service learning pedagogy as transnational: A comparison between Ireland and the United States. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 4*(2), Article 15. https://doi.org/10.20429/ijsotl.2010.040215

Jones, A. L., & Kiser, P. M. (2014). Conceptualizing criticality as a guiding principle for high quality academic service learning. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 26*(1), 147–156. https://www.isetl.org/ijtlhe/pdf/IJTLHE1737.pdf

Keith, N. Z. (2005). Community service learning in the face of globalization: Rethinking theory and practice. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*(2), 5–24. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0011.201

Kiely, R. (2004). A chameleon with a complex: Searching for transformation in international service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 10*(2), 5–20. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0010.201

Kiely, R. (2005). A transformative learning model for service-learning: A longitudinal case study. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 12*(1), 5–22. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0012.101

Kuh, G. D. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. American Association of Colleges and Universities.

Leung, K.-K., Liu, W.-J., Wang, W.-D., & Chen, C.-Y. (2007). Factors affecting students' evaluation in a community service-learning program. *Advances in Health Sciences Education, 12*, 475–490. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10459-006-9019-1

Longo, N. V., & Saltmarsh, J. (2011). New lines of inquiry in reframing international service learning into global service learning. In R. G. Bringle, J. A. Hatcher, & S. G. Jones (Eds.), *International service learning: Conceptual frameworks and research* (pp. 69–88). Stylus Publishing.

Ma, H. K. C., Chan, W. F. C., & Tse, I. P. H. (2019). A common outcome measurement for service-learning in Hong Kong. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(3), 3–19. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1517

Mitchell, T. D. (2008). Traditional versus critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 14*(2), 50–65. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0014.205

Motley, P., Allocco, A., Gendle, M., & Vandermaas-Peeler, M. (2021). COVID-19: A catalyst for rethinking global engagement. *The Global Impact Exchange: A Quarterly Publication of Diversity Abroad*, Summer 2021, pp. 24–27.

Patrick, C.-J., Valencia-Forrester, F., Backhaus, B., McGregor, R., Cain, G., & Lloyd, K. (2019). The state of service-learning in Australia. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 23*(3), 185–198. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1528

Rice, K., & Pollack, S. (2000). Developing a critical pedagogy of service learning: Preparing self-reflective, culturally aware, and responsive community participants. In C. R. O'Grady (Ed.), *Integrating service learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities* (pp. 115–134). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Salisbury, M., & Goodman, K. (2009). Educational practices that foster intercultural competence. *Diversity and Democracy, 12*(2), 12–13.

Sharpe, E. K., & Dear, S. (2013). Points of discomfort: Reflections on power and partnerships in international service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 19*(2), 49–57. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0019.204

Smaller, H., & O'Sullivan, M. (2018). International service learning: Decolonizing possibilities? *Journal of Global Citizenship and Equity Education, 6*(1). https://journals.sfu.ca/jgcee/index.php/jgcee/article/view/175/367

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

Thomson, A. M., Smith-Tolken, A. R., Naidoo, A. V., & Bringle, R. G. (2011). Service learning and community engagement: A comparison of three national contexts. *Voluntas, 22*, 214–237. https://hdl.handle.net/1805/4594

Tiessen, R., Roy, P., Karim-Haji, F., & Gough, R. (2018). Expanding our understanding of ethical considerations in North–South student mobility programs: Insights for improved institutional practice. *Journal of Global Citizenship and Equity Education, 6*(1). https://journals.sfu.ca/jgcee/index.php/jgcee/article/view/174/363

VanLeeuwen, C. A., Weeks, L. E., & Guo-Brennan, L. (2017). Indigenous perspectives on community service-learning in higher education: An examination of the Kenyan context. *International Journal of Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, 5*(1), 129–143. https://journals.sfu.ca/iarslce/index.php/journal/article/view/252

Whitehead, D. M. (2015). Global service learning: Addressing the big challenges. *Diversity and Democracy, 18*(3), 8-11.

Wijesundara, N. (2019). Reinforce local communities through community-based tourism. *Tourism in Paradise, 2*, 46–47.

Wijesundara, N. (2020). Advantages of rural tourism development in post-war economy of Sri Lanka. *Tourism in Paradise, 3*, 64–65.

Xing, J. (2010). Service learning in Asia: Local practices and diverse contexts. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences, 3*(14), 96–105.

© Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Volume 26, Number 3, p. 219, (2022)
 eISSN 2164-8212

Hoffman, A. J. (2021). *The Engaged Scholar: Expanding the Impact of Academic Research in Today's World.* Stanford University Press. 184 pp.

Review by Sheila A. Martin

In *The Engaged Scholar*, Andrew Hoffman asks us to consider the question, "Why did you choose to become a professor, and what kind of academic do you want to be?" (p. 23). In my case, my experiences prior to academia set me on a path that predisposed me to a particular academic role. As a research economist at RTI International, my job was to answer questions posed by federal and state agencies, utilities, or foundations. A common question was something like, "How much will it cost for industry to implement this new regulatory measure, how will the cost affect the price of the final product, and how does that compare to the degree of added health or safety it might provide?"

I learned how to use the tools of economic analysis to answer these sometimes very complex questions. When I became an economic policy advisor for a governor, my academic and research background empowered me to distill and present the academic science to answer similar very practical questions, while I also understood, due to my political science and policy background, how to anticipate stakeholders' positions and address stakeholder concerns.

When I finally entered academia well into my career, it was unlikely that I would be a star of A-level, high-impact journals. Not only had I developed my career in a different direction, but my responsibilities managing an applied policy research institute simply didn't compel me to conduct theoretical or narrowly focused empirical research. Instead, I adopted the role that Hoffman mentions, as developed by Pidgeon and Fischhoff (2011), of a decision scientist, integrating and distilling information about the potential consequences of policy decisions.

I attained tenure and the rank of full professor despite my lack of A-level publications—or perhaps because I understood my strengths and used them to fulfill the engagement mission of my institution. I was lucky enough to work for a university and in a field that valued and rewarded engaged, applied research and public communication.

But not everyone is that fortunate. Many academics struggle to balance their desire for a career that includes engaging the public in their work with the pressure to publish in A-level, high-impact journals year after year, with little time left to engage audiences who could benefit from their ability to distill, interpret, and communicate important and policy-relevant findings from their research.

With this book, Hoffman aims to inspire, support, and celebrate the work of scholars who are dissatisfied with narrowly defined roles of academics and the standards used to define their success. He speaks directly to those who understand the importance of cultivating a scientifically literate and curious society, but who encounter the barriers of academic structures and norms that impede their progress. He speaks to scholars who want to do more than publish papers in academic journals read by a small sliver of the already informed population, despite the importance of high-impact journals on the progress of their careers. These scholars crave a broader conversation about the results of their discoveries and the satisfaction of knowing that they influence decisions large and small.

Hoffman is also speaking to university leaders—presidents, provosts, deans, and others—who maintain the infrastructure of academic career advancement. Although he represents and reflects the desires and ambitions of those who seek out broader engagement, he also appreciates and supports administrators who are working to change structures, traditions, and attitudes

that inhibit those who seek broader engagement. He illuminates a way forward for those working to clear the path for those interested in engaged scholarship.

In today's divisive, confusing, and cynical political and social environments, connecting with an audience beyond academia isn't just a fun diversion from a scholar's focus; rather, it is necessary to our democratic process and key to keeping academia relevant. How can voters, policymakers, business leaders, and consumers make informed choices without understanding the difference between fact and opinion, science and fantasy, the possible and the impossible?

Hoffman places the book in the context of the crises we have faced over the past few years and the misinformation and confusion that have divided the country. Protests over Covid-19 restrictions reflect a lack of appreciation for the years of scientific discovery on which the vaccines were built. Dismissal of the threat of global warming results from misunderstanding how scientists formulate and test climate models, and how rapidly scientists are improving these models' ability to predict how global climate change will affect all of Earth's systems, including social systems.

Hoffman also points out that not every scholar can or should take on this role. He discusses the diversity of scientific roles within the science ecosystem. The ecosystem includes those who deliver specific scientific findings, decision scientists who excel at determining what is most relevant to public decision making, science communicators who share those findings in an approachable way, and organizers who can orchestrate the process of public engagement (p. 21). He imagines an academic enterprise that creates this ecosystem and appreciates and rewards each of these roles. Hoffman further points out that academic leaders can assess the balance of these roles at the department or college level, just as they might assess the balance between teaching, research, and service at the department or college level. Thus, although not every individual must take on a public engagement role, every department, institute, or college should have an ecosystem that performs a complete set of academic functions, including engaging with the public.

In Chapter 1, Hoffman describes why engaged scholarship matters and what motivates faculty to become engaged. He cites public scientists such as Jane Lubchenco in noting that we have a responsibility to hold a mirror up to society and to say things that people may not want to hear. He puts that responsibility in the historical context of science and technology policy, and points to the linear applied research model that led to the rise of research funding after Vannevar Bush's *The Endless Frontier* (1945). The linear model of basic to applied research on which this policy was based failed to break down the disciplinary silos that prevent the transdisciplinary research necessary to address the complex policy problems perplexing policymakers. More realistic models of innovation introduced later by authors such as Stokes (1997) have begun breaking down these silos. At the same time, calls for a more engaged university, such as those of the Kellogg Commission (1997) and Michael Crow and William Dabars (2015), reflect the emergence of a new cadre of faculty determined to address the current deficiency of effective public science communication. Hoffman again quotes Lubchenco, who warns that academia's role is not to dictate, which would filter scientific results through a values lens, but merely to inform (p. 17) with the intention of allowing decision makers to process that information using their own values and those of the society they represent.

What stands in the way of faculty who are dedicated to taking their scientific findings to the public to inform public debate and policy decisions? In Chapter 2 Hoffman argues that the current system of incentives and rewards at universities and the culture that it has generated is a significant barrier. Faculty are rewarded for publishing in A-level, high-impact, scholarly journals that are read by a small number of their colleagues. These journals serve as a platform for scholarly peers to critique methods, debate logic, and surface alternative explanations and conclusions. Although discourse on this platform is useful for ensuring replicability, honesty, and integrity in the science, it does not inform the public or decision makers who, for the most part, neither read those journals nor speak the language in which they are written. But finding the time, support, and training to take their findings to the public can not only be difficult but may also be counter to academics' self-interest because it may not contribute to their career advancement. Thus, faculty may find it easier to simply set aside public engagement activities in favor of working

on their next publication to ensure their advancement on the path toward promotion and tenure.

And yet, many academics find deep meaning and satisfaction in careers in which they step outside academia to offer the public the benefit of their findings and their understanding of how the world works. In Chapter 3, Hoffman explains why and how many scholars pursue the rewards of public engagement. Public communication and engagement require skills that are often not part of an academic's training. Some possess natural talent in engagement; however, most need to invest in learning the science of public communication and practicing the skills required to be effective in engaging with the public. These skills include building trust and authenticity, distilling knowledge into wisdom, putting science in a context and language that is relatable to the public, and understanding the limits of one's own capacity to field controversy.

Hoffman spends some time discussing the difference between sharing knowledge and imparting wisdom because it has implications for the degree of vulnerability we must bring to the work of public engagement. Knowledge can be shared without revealing much about one's own journey or struggle to understand the implications of a set of findings. But sharing wisdom requires that we reveal how we contextualize those findings based on our lifetime of observation and experience. Whereas knowledge can be gleaned from a table of statistics, wisdom can be shared only by revealing a part of our personal story that explains our relationship to the phenomena we study.

Perhaps the most important skill academics must bring to public engagement, according to Hoffman, is humility. Gaining the trust of our audience requires that we be open to their experiences, knowledge, wisdom, and interpretations. Public engagement gives us an opportunity to add their experiences and interpretations to our own. Broadening our understanding in this way can improve others' receptiveness to our message, leading not only to improved policy but also to a profoundly rewarding career.

Many academics shy away from using social media to engage the public in their work. In Chapter 4, Hoffman makes the case for using social media not only to bring their research results to the public, but also to fight the "truth decay" and echo chamber that social media can become. He offers academics a road map of technologies, tools, and platforms that determine the effectiveness of using social media for public engagement. Importantly, he provides some alternative metrics that scholars can use to demonstrate the impact they are having beyond the academic audience. These tools can support the movement to gain broader acceptance of public engagement as a legitimate addition to an academic career that can be quantified and rewarded.

An academic need not delay their entry into public engagement until after they've achieved tenure. In Chapter 5, Hoffman describes how public engagement can enhance each stage in an academic career and contribute to one's satisfaction throughout that career. In the recent past it may have been unusual—particularly for a young scholar—to pursue a career with significant engagement, but this is changing. More universities are staking their reputations on being engaged institutions and are providing support. That support might include an infrastructure of engagement that includes staff, training, and changes in promotion and tenure policy along with innovation in the metrics that make quantifying public impact possible. Hoffman argues that academic culture, beyond individual universities, is changing as these innovations reach accrediting agencies and other institutions that set the rules of the game for the institutional rankings and other signals of prestige heeded by university governing boards.

Hoffman succeeds in motivating those interested in practicing engaged scholarship and offering support and advice to those trying to change culture within a department, college, or university. His call to action points to the rejection of science and the public's questioning of the value of academia, characterizing these trends as an "existential crisis" (p. 5). To solve them, the academy needs to accept its role in public engagement, or watch its relevance and support continue to wane.

What I didn't find in this book was more discussion of how academics might better leverage reciprocal relationships with the public. Engagement shouldn't be simply communication, but a willingness to acknowledge an academic's blind spots, or more usefully, the areas where the knowledge of the community is important to having a broader impact. Hoffman acknowledges the importance of humility, but

reciprocity is not an overall theme of the book. Rather, he seems to privilege academic forms of knowledge with the argument that we must learn to communicate that knowledge. Even though he tips his hat to the possibility that combining academic with other forms of knowledge can be powerful, this reciprocity received very little space. Readers looking for advice on how to build more reciprocal relationships with the public in engaged research and teaching might refer to the extensive literature on the subject, starting with Kliewer et al. (2010), who explored how power dynamics interfere with reciprocity.

Nevertheless, this is a great little book, and I thoroughly enjoyed reading it. Hoffman makes his main points easy to access—his own experience with approachable writing really shines in this quick read that will serve to inspire and bolster any faculty member or administrator passionate about engagement but unsure whether the results are worth the investment.

Coming back to Hoffman's original question—"Why did you choose to become a professor, and what kind of academic do you want to be?"—this book might just make it a bit easier for more scholars to choose the satisfying and impactful path of public engagement.

About the Reviewer

Sheila Martin *is Strategic Advisor for Economic and Community Engagement at the Association of Public and Land-grant Universities and Principal of Triple Helix Partnerships.*

References

Bush, V., & United States. (1945). *Science, the endless frontier: A report to the President*. United States Government Printing Office.

Crow, M., & Dabars, W. (2015). *Designing the new American university*. Johns Hopkins University Press.

Hoffman, A. J. (2021). *The engaged scholar*. Stanford University Press.

Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities. (1997). *Returning to our roots: The student experience*. National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges.

Kliewer, B., Sandmann, L. R., Kim, J., & Omerikwa, A. (2010). *Toward understanding reciprocity in community–university partnerships: An analysis of theories of power*. Adult Education Research Conference. https://newprairiepress.org/aerc/2010/papers/42

Pidgeon, N., & Fischhoff, B. (2011). The role of social and decision sciences in communicating uncertain climate risks. *Nature Climate Change, 1*(1), 35–41. https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1080

Stokes, D. (1997). *Pasteur's quadrant: Basic science and technological innovation*. Brookings Institution Press.