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*Journal of Higher Education
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The Editor's Page . . .

On October 5, 2010, at the 2010 National Outreach Scholarship Conference in Raleigh, North Carolina (hosted by North Carolina State University), we convened the first annual *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement (JHEOE)* editorial board meeting. Seven of our 17 board members participated in the meeting including: Jorge Atilas, Oklahoma State University; Karen Bruns, The Ohio State University; Jeri Childers, Virginia Tech; Phil Greasley, University of Kentucky; Audrey Jaeger, North Carolina State University; John Saltmarsh, University of Massachusetts Boston; and Lorilee Sandmann, University of Georgia. Also joining us was Hi Fitzgerald, associate editor for reflective essays and president of the National Outreach Scholarship Conference partnership.

At the meeting, I presented a *State of the Journal* report, and we discussed the *JHEOE's* mission, strategies for increasing the number of submissions as well as what constitutes – and how can we best measure – “success” or impact of the *Journal*. The paragraphs below represent where we have been since July 2009, and where we are headed in 2011.

The *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* was founded at the University of Georgia (UGA) in 1996 (under the name *Journal of Public Service and Outreach*), and is the premier peer-reviewed, interdisciplinary journal to advance theory and practice related to all forms of outreach and engagement between higher education institutions and communities. Upon assuming editorship of the *JHEOE* in 2009, I was charged with reducing production costs while at the same time increasing access to the *Journal's* content. Staff at the UGA libraries graciously agreed to pilot the migration of this print-based, subscription fee journal to an online, open access format under the aegis of the GALILEO Knowledge Repository (GKR) initiative. The GKR promotes Web-based open access approaches to scholarly communication at the institutions of the University System of Georgia by providing digital repository and related services. The new online version of *JHEOE* is managed and delivered using the Open Journal Systems platform (<http://pkp.sfu.ca/?q=ojs>).

This issue, Volume 14(4), represents the last “hard-copy,” printed issue of the *JHEOE*. Future issues, as well as all past issues, may now be found at <http://www.jheoe.uga.edu>. Let me underscore: beginning with Volume 15, no subscription fee will be required to access the *JHEOE*.

This final print-based issue, Volume 14(4), contains a research study conducted at Michigan State University that is informing the development of a typology of publically engaged scholarship; the results of a program at the University System of Georgia's newest public college to enhance student-learning outcomes through interdisciplinary authentic-learning projects; and a reflective essay describing and analyzing the transformational power of a cultural immersion youth program. Also in this issue are book reviews by faculty members at Mississippi State, Michigan State, and Auburn Universities on recently published works about how to increase the number of people practicing collaborative governance; what faculty members can learn about themselves and their work when *doing* engaged scholarship; and how university-community partnerships are stimulating regional development in Australia, China, Great Britain, Mexico, Portugal, Sweden, and the United States.

My thanks to the dedication of so many to bring Volume 14(4) to press, including the *JHEOE's* associate editors, editorial board members, guest peer-reviewers (the names of all guest reviewers for Volume 14, 2010 are listed on the inside back cover of this issue); Managing Editor Julia Mills; Graduate Assistant Drew Pearl; Copy Editor Cathy Krusberg; and Administrative Assistant Katie Fite. A special thanks to the UGA printing department's manager, Max Harrell, for his efficient and kind shepherding of the *JHEOE's* printing over these many years.

Looking ahead to 2011, our goal is to increase the number of quality manuscripts submitted for publication consideration. Strategies to realize this goal include announcing calls for manuscripts on special topics (Click on ANNOUNCEMENTS on the *JHEOE* home-page), and piloting other manuscript formats. For example, soon we will venture forward with a new category, Projects with Promise, for shorter pieces (2,000 words) that outline new university-community partnerships and initial steps to measure their impact. We will also include a section, Dissertation Briefs, for graduate students to present their dissertation topics and methodologies. Our overarching purpose for taking these steps is to advance the theory and practice of higher education outreach and engagement. We hope you will participate by accessing the *JHEOE's* content, submitting manuscripts for consideration, encouraging your colleagues to do the same, and volunteering to serve as a guest reviewer.

With best wishes for you in 2011,
Trish Kalivoda
Editor

RESEARCH ARTICLES

From Rhetoric to Reality: A Typology of Publically Engaged Scholarship

Diane M. Doberneck, Chris R. Glass, and John Schweitzer

Introduction

Across higher education, we lack a common understanding of the language of public service. A confusing myriad of terms has arisen, and the rhetoric of public service is not clear to everyone. . . . [T]he lack of clear and comparable definitions and terms such as service, public service, professional service, community service, service learning, internships, practica, and so on . . . constrain[s] faculty involvement and . . . make[s] effective documentation and evaluation difficult (Holland, 1999, p. 39).

Barbara Holland's words still ring true in 2010—scholars and practitioners of outreach and engagement continue the never-ending search for a shared language to describe faculty work that addresses society's practical concerns. In the decade since Holland's observation, a confusing myriad of terms has proliferated as various institutions, associations, and disciplines have defined and interpreted publicly engaged scholarship for their specific audiences and contexts (Barker, 2004; Boyte & Hollander, 1999; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Kellogg Commission, 1996, 1999, 2000; Sandmann, 2008; Schomberg & Farmer, 1994).

Although it is beyond the scope of this article to provide a comprehensive overview of all of the language used to describe publicly engaged scholarship, a few examples serve to illustrate the range of terminology used in different disciplines. First, in *Imagining America's Tenure Team Initiative Report (2008)*, based on a multi-year study of engagement in the arts, humanities, and design fields, Ellison and Eatman use a variety of terms, including *publicly engaged academic work*, *public scholarship*, *public engagement*, *public scholarly and creative work*, *community partnerships*, *publicly engaged humanists*, *civically engaged scholars*, *civic agency*, *civic professionals*, and *community engagement* to describe engaged scholars and engaged scholarship in the arts, humanities, and design fields. In contrast, the rhetoric of publicly engaged scholarship in health and medical fields often uses the term *clinical and translational science*, a type of *translational research* that bridges the gap between laboratory discovery and practice,

otherwise known as the “bench to bedside interface” (Feldman, 2008). Finally, in the social sciences, the language of publicly engaged scholarship includes *participatory research*, *community partnerships*, *public scholarship*, *public information networks*, and *civic literacy*, to name just a few terms (Barker, 2004). Each of these phrases has been used to describe the scholarly contributions faculty members make to the public good. On one hand, this rhetoric signifies a welcome maturing and deepening of the engagement movement in the disciplines. On the other hand, the expanding terminology leaves institutional leaders, faculty members, and scholars of engagement without a “set of precise terms to describe and capture the community-oriented activities of faculty that are closely associated with core research, teaching, and service roles of the professoriate” (Wade & Demb, 2009, pp. 13–14).

The lack of a language for publicly engaged scholarship poses a problem for institutional leaders, especially in light of

“Communicating the value of publicly engaged scholarship to key external stakeholders. . . requires a clear understanding of the types of publicly engaged activities in which faculty members are involved.”

public criticism concerning their institutions’ contributions to the greater good of society (Boyte, 2005; Kezar, Chambers, & Burkhardt, 2005; Matthews, 2006). In this demanding climate of public accountability, institutional leaders are challenged to move beyond the rhetoric of engagement to detail the contributions their faculty members make to better society. Communicating the value of publicly engaged scholarship to key external stakeholders—including legislators, funding agencies, foundations, alumni, and prospective

students—requires a clear understanding of the types of publicly engaged activities in which faculty members are involved.

In addition, the wide variety of terms creates a challenge for institutional leaders who want to strengthen publicly engaged scholarship on their campuses. Recent research has shown a disjuncture between administrators who promote publicly engaged scholarship at institutional levels and faculty members who collaborate with communities as part of their scholarly practice (Moore & Ward, 2008, p. 20). In short, the generalized way publicly engaged scholarship is described by institutional leaders does not resonate with many faculty members. Similarly, the ways in which faculty members conceptualize and enact their community-

engaged scholarship are strongly influenced by disciplinary discourse, reflecting approaches that are seldom universal enough to embody faculty activities in the entire institution (*Diamond & Adam, 1995; Diamond & Adam, 2000; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Kagan, 2009*). This leads to a disjuncture between the rhetoric of institutional leaders and the reality of engaged scholars. Needed is a way of describing publicly engaged scholarship that makes sense both to institutional leaders and to faculty members—a kind of middle ground where different types of publicly engaged scholarship are described in enough detail that faculty members may see their own scholarship reflected in the language, but in a language that is universal and avoids the specificities of disciplinary rhetoric.

To address these challenges, the researchers framed this study as an exploratory, qualitative inquiry to discover and name types of publicly engaged scholarship based on empirical data. Instead of analyzing the rhetoric promoted by institutional leaders, the researchers focused on understanding the reality of publicly engaged scholarship as described by faculty members themselves. Through this bottom-up approach, they sought to develop a typology that was both reflective of the faculty experience and useful at the institutional level.

“Instead of analyzing the rhetoric promoted by institutional leaders, the researchers focused on understanding the reality of publicly engaged scholarship as described by faculty members themselves.”

Research Design

The study’s purpose was to discover the types of publicly engaged scholarship in which faculty members are involved, and to develop a typology based upon faculty descriptions of engaged scholarship. Successfully promoted or tenured full-time faculty members at Michigan State University (MSU) provided consent for the researchers to use their promotion and tenure forms as this study’s initial source of data. A standard institution-wide promotion and tenure form is the one part of faculty members’ tenure dossiers that is kept on file with MSU’s Office of Academic Human Resources after the promotion or tenure decisions are rendered. As a result, the promotion and tenure forms were the only official institutional records available to the researchers for this study.

In addition to promotion and tenure forms from MSU, the researchers incorporated a second source of data into the analysis.

Documents generated by faculty members at other research-intensive institutions about types of publicly engaged scholarship served as a second source of data in the refinement of the typology that emerged from the MSU promotion and tenure data. This second step in data analysis ensured that the typology was not bound strictly by institutional characteristics specific to Michigan State University.

Research Questions

Relying on both sources of data, the researchers organized this exploratory, qualitative study around the following research questions:

1. What types of scholarly activities do faculty members report as publicly engaged scholarship?
2. What typology of publicly engaged scholarship emerges from faculty descriptions of publicly engaged scholarship?

The existing literature on faculty members' publicly engaged scholarship focuses predominantly on institutional influences that enable or prohibit faculty engagement (e.g., mission, culture, reward systems, institutional leadership); personal characteristics of engaged faculty (e.g., race/ethnicity, gender, motivation, age); or professional influences on faculty members' engaged scholarship (e.g., discipline, rank/status, length of time in academe) (*Wade & Demb, 2009*).

To date, few researchers have addressed the characteristics or qualities of the work faculty members conduct as their engaged scholarship (*Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007; Colbeck, 2002; Colbeck & Weaver, 2008; Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006; Schomberg & Farmer, 1994; Wade & Demb, 2009*). When they have examined the faculty work of engagement, researchers have typically been interested in a single type of publicly engaged scholarship, such as service-learning (*Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002; Hammond, 1994*) or campus-community partnerships (*McNall, Reed, Brown, & Allen, 2008; Phillips & Ward, 2009*). Little research has focused on understanding the full spectrum of activities in which faculty members are involved as part of their publicly engaged scholarship. This study and its resulting typology of publicly engaged scholarship rooted in the daily practice of engagement, and grounded in the faculty experience, represent a significant contribution to understanding the characteristics or qualities of engaged scholarship.

Definitions

At MSU, outreach scholarship is defined as “a scholarly endeavor that cross-cuts teaching, research [and creative activities], and service. It involves generating, transmitting, applying, and preserving knowledge for the direct benefit of external audiences in ways that are consistent with university and unit missions” (*Michigan State University, Provost’s Committee on University Outreach, 1993*). The researchers framed this study using MSU’s definition of outreach scholarship because it emphasizes three commonly agreed-upon elements of publicly engaged scholarship. Engaged scholarship (1) is expressed in all three land-grant traditional university missions (instruction, research, and service); (2) is both informed by and generative of scholarship; and (3) is for the public good of society.

Based on this definition and the report by the Provost’s Committee on University Outreach, the researchers further delineated what would and would not be considered publicly engaged scholarship in this study. Community service and volunteering were excluded when they lacked a scholarly foundation or connection to the faculty member’s disciplinary expertise. Private consulting (or outside work for pay) was also excluded when it fulfilled individual, not unit or university, missions. Faculty contributions to university, college, or department committees were not included because they do not directly benefit audiences external to the university. In addition, faculty contributions to scholarly and professional associations were typically excluded, again because they do not directly benefit audiences external to the university. However, in instances where the scholarly and professional associations served practitioners as well as academics, faculty members’ service to these organizations was considered to be publicly engaged scholarship.

The researchers interpreted MSU’s definitional phrase *for the direct benefit of external audiences* broadly to encompass publics or communities beyond the usual geographic communities defined by the physical boundaries of place, such as neighborhoods, cities, or regions. The researchers used a definition of community that included communities of identity (e.g., communities of individuals who share race, gender, or other individual characteristics); communities of affiliation or interest (e.g., groups of people who feel connected to one another through a common set of values they act upon together); communities of circumstance (e.g., communities that form around a common experience such as surviving a flood or managing a specific disease); and communities of faith, kin, or profession (e.g., communities organized around specific practices) (*Fraser, 2005; Ife, 1995; Marsh, 1999; Mattessich & Monsey, 1997*).

Not only does this definition draw upon contemporary scholarship in the community development field, but it also ensures that the study does not value some community partners over others. The researchers did not want to exclude, by definition, community partners naturally associated with some disciplines such as business and engineering, which tend to be underemphasized in the institutional rhetoric; or to highlight community partners associated with other disciplines such as health and social sciences, which tend to be overemphasized in the institutional rhetoric about engagement. For example, faculty members in business or engineering might use their disciplinary knowledge or expertise to improve management or manufacturing practices in industry. Industry may be a more natural public for these disciplines than a community-based nonprofit organization, human services organization, or city government—the community partners usually considered in engaged scholarship. As the typology developed, the researchers were mindful of the different disciplinary expressions of publicly engaged scholarship, and wanted to ensure from the outset that the emerging typology was pluralistic and equitable in its scope.

Site of the Study

Because little was known about types of publicly engaged scholarship, the researchers framed this research as an exploratory, qualitative study, and purposefully limited data collection to one institution (*Creswell, 1998, p. 118*). The researchers chose a study site where faculty members could be expected to provide rich, detailed descriptions of a broad range of publicly engaged scholarship. Michigan State University was selected as the study site because it is (1) a land-grant university with an institutional mandate to serve society; (2) a research-intensive university where faculty members are expected to achieve excellence in research and creative activities, instruction, and service; (3) a campus where senior faculty members and institutional leaders have led significant initiatives to define, promote, and support scholarly outreach and engagement; and (4) a university designated as a Carnegie Classified Community Engagement institution. Michigan State University is also a place where the researchers had little difficulty gaining access to the institutional data needed for the study.

Limitations of the Study

There were two limitations related to this study's research design. First, the study was based on faculty data from one institution—a research-intensive, land-grant university. Although a single

site was deemed to be an appropriate research design choice for an exploratory study, the specific nature, history, and characteristics of the institution where the study was conducted may have influenced the emergence of the types of publicly engaged scholarship. To address this limitation, the researchers expanded data analysis to include data from institutions other than the main study site. During the second phase of data analysis, the researchers incorporated scholarship generated by faculty members at the Pennsylvania State University (*Chang, 2000; Hyman, Ayers, Cash, Fahnline, Gold, Gurgevich, Herrmann, Jurs, Roth, Swisher, Whittington, and Wright, 2000*); North Carolina State University (*2010a, 2010b*); University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (*2007*); University of Saskatchewan (*2006; McLean, 2005*); University of Buffalo (*2005*); Middle Tennessee State University (*2010*); University of Wisconsin–Madison (*2010*); and University of Indiana/Purdue University, Indianapolis (*2010*). These institutions were selected for this study because their faculty members have published institutional documents or other scholarship defining types of publicly engaged scholarship.

The study's primary source of data, promotion and tenure documents, was another limitation. These data may not have been robustly reflective of publicly engaged scholarship due to the possibility that faculty members intentionally underreported publicly engaged scholarship during their promotion and tenure process. For example, at some institutions, pre-tenured faculty may be encouraged to postpone reporting engaged scholarship, especially more innovative or experimental community-based activities, until after they have achieved tenure (*Ellison & Eatman, 2008*). It is possible that these unreported activities affected the development of the typology. To address this limitation, the researchers incorporated non-promotion and tenure data sources into the second phase of analysis. These additional sources of data included the following: institutional documents defining outreach and engagement written by members of faculty task forces; promotion and tenure guidelines written by faculty committees; conference presentations about types of engaged scholarship given by faculty teams; and program planning documents written by members of faculty curriculum committees.

Despite these limitations, this study's research design and data represent a significant departure from past studies that have made use of promotion and tenure data for research related to publicly engaged scholarship. Past studies have employed designs with small sample sizes, such as the single autoethnographic case study (*Smith, 2003*) or the recent analysis of 25 promotion and tenure packets from around the country (*Moore & Ward, 2008*). For this study, the

researchers intentionally emphasized breadth and depth through the analysis of 173 promotion and tenure forms from multiple colleges within one university, and strengthened that analysis with documents generated by faculty members at other institutions.

Faculty Demographics

This study included data from tenure-track faculty members who successfully completed promotion and tenure review beginning in 2002, the year after Michigan State University's promotion and tenure instructions and form were revised to encourage the reporting of publicly engaged scholarship. Based on the availability of promotion and tenure forms, the researchers analyzed data from successful faculty members, and excluded tenure-track faculty members who underwent third-year reappointment reviews; were unsuccessful in promotion and tenure review; were no longer employed at the university; and/or no longer held tenure-track appointments at the university. In the 2002–2006 study period, 376 tenure-track faculty members met the study's eligibility criteria. The researchers received informed consent from 46% of those faculty members. Table 1 summarizes the demographic and appointment data for the faculty members in this study.

<i>Gender</i>		<i>College of Primary Appointment</i>	
Male	69%	Agriculture & Natural Resources	26%
Female	31%	Arts & Letters, including Music	12%
<i>Ethnicity/race</i>		Business	4%
White	80%	Communication Arts & Sciences	2%
Nonwhite	20%	Education	5%
Black	5%	Engineering	5%
Asian/Pacific Islander	10%	Human Medicine	4%
Hispanic	2%	Social Science	13%
American Indian/Alaska Native	3%	Natural Science	18%
<i>Current Rank</i>		Nursing	2%
Assistant professor	62.5%	Osteopathic Medicine	3%
Associate professor	37.5%	Veterinary Medicine	3%
		Other primary tenure home	3%

Using chi-square analysis, the researchers determined that this study's faculty members were representative of the full-time, tenure-track faculty at Michigan State University during the 2002–2006 study period.

Data Sources, Collection, and Analysis

Data Sources

In 2001, Michigan State University's promotion and tenure instructions and form were revised to encourage administrators and faculty members to report publicly engaged scholarship. The university-wide committee charged with making revision recommendations to the provost decided to embed opportunities to report scholarly outreach and engagement throughout the form, instead of creating a separate category dedicated to engaged scholarship. This decision reflected the institution's emphasis on the crosscutting nature of scholarly outreach and engagement (*for a full description of revisions to the promotion and tenure form, see Glass, Doberneck, & Schweitzer, 2009*). Because publicly engaged scholarly activities are reported throughout the form, the researchers read, coded, and analyzed each faculty member's promotion and tenure form from beginning to end.

MSU's promotion and tenure forms can be found at <http://www.chmfacultyaffairs.msu.edu/promotion.htm>. The forms comprise three sections: a cover sheet with demographic and appointment data; a section completed by university administrators (e.g., college deans, school directors, and/or department chairs); and a section completed by faculty members. Faculty members also include a personal statement and their curriculum vitae as an official part of their promotion and tenure packages (*MSU Office of the Provost, 2001*).

Because faculty descriptions of publicly engaged scholarship were this study's focus, the researchers limited the analysis to the faculty section of the promotion and tenure form, personal statements, and curricula vitae. The faculty section of the form comprises five parts: instruction; research and creative activities; service within the academic and broader community; additional reporting; and grant proposals.

- The **instruction** section contains five questions, relating to undergraduate and graduate credit instruction; noncredit instruction; academic advising;

instructional works; and other evidence of instructional activity.

- The **research and creative activities** section requires information in four categories, including a list of research/creative works; the quantity of research/creative works; the number of grants received; and other evidence of research/creative activities.
- The part pertaining to **service within the academic and broader community** consists of three sections, including service to scholarly and professional organizations; service within the university; and service within the broader community.
- The **additional reporting** section calls for information in three categories, including evidence of other scholarship; integration across multiple missions; and other awards/evidence.
- The **grant proposals** section comprises four areas, including grants for instruction; research/creative activities; service to the academic community; and service to the broader community. Faculty members reported scholarly outreach and engagement activities in all five faculty sections of the form as well as in their personal statements and their curricula vitae.

Data Collection and Analysis

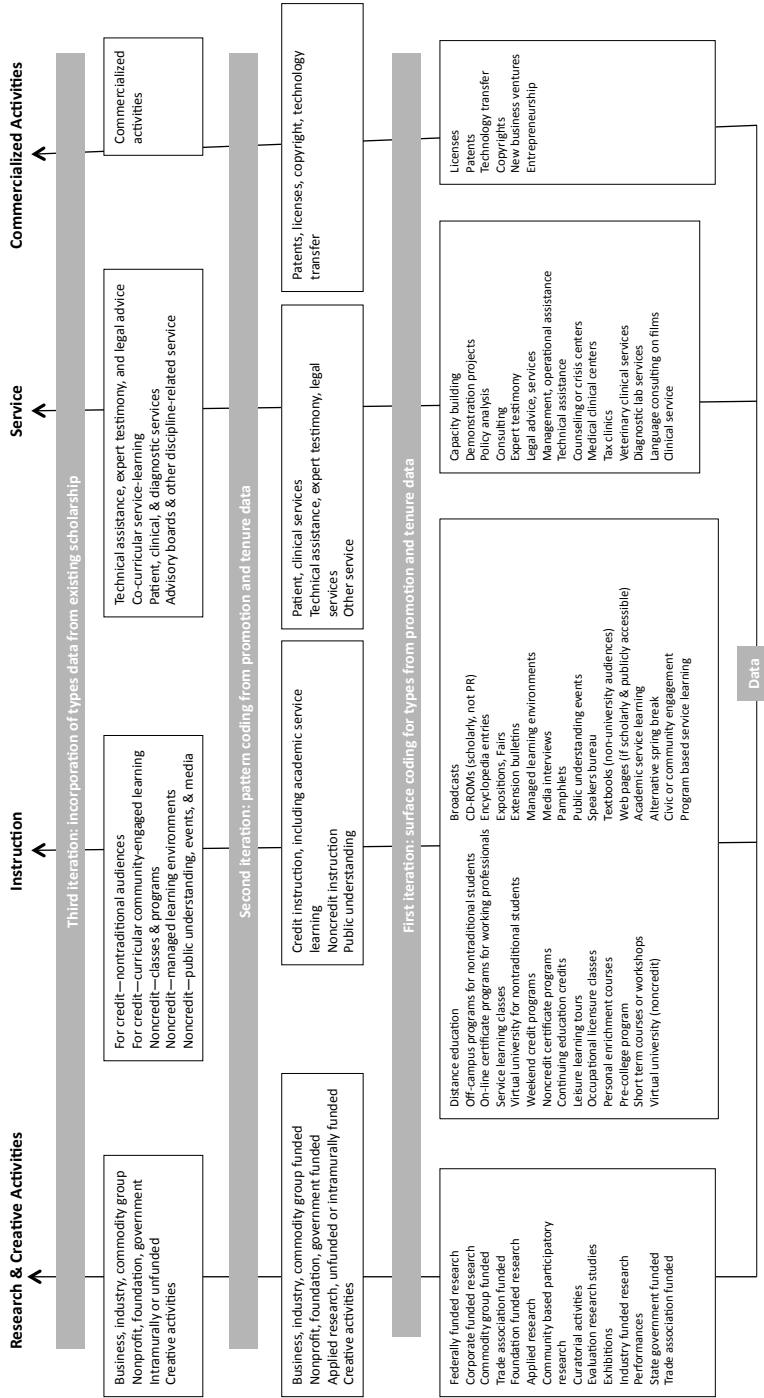
After receiving informed consent from participants, the researchers accessed faculty members' promotion and tenure forms at the Office of Academic Human Resources. The researchers scanned the documents electronically for ease of storage but coded the data by hand in order to attend to the nuanced language used by faculty members in describing their publicly engaged scholarship. The researchers followed data analysis practices guided by interpretive content analysis, which is well-suited for the analysis of large volumes of unstructured data, especially when content does not have singular or shared meanings, and when the context of the given text influences the interpretation of its meaning (Krippendorff, 2004). For example, in faculty descriptions of their publicly engaged scholarship, a plant biologist may use the word *community* to refer to a grouping of species in an ecosystem, while a social worker may use it to refer to individuals who attend a support group associated with a particular disease or situation. In other words, the word

community may have a completely different meaning depending on the context in which the faculty member uses it. Interpretive content analysis allowed the researchers to take nuanced meanings into consideration as they coded and analyzed the data. They developed a systemic coding scheme to make judgments about the meanings of words based on their contexts both reliable and consistent.

The researchers selected the scholarly engagement activity as the unit of analysis. They took care to code each unique scholarly engagement activity reported by faculty members regardless of the level of detail the faculty member used to describe the activity (e.g., sometimes the descriptions were paragraphs long, and other times the activities were mentioned as a single line on a faculty member's curriculum vitae). This variation in the amount of descriptive detail was not salient given this study's research questions, which were focused on the identification of types, and not the evaluation of the quality or enumeration of the described activities.

The researchers developed the coding scheme inductively using the constant comparative method over the course of three iterations (Glaser, 1965; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). During the first iteration, the researchers independently reviewed a subsample of the promotion and tenure forms and recorded as many potential types of publicly engaged scholarly activities as possible, as reported in the faculty sections, personal statements, and curricula vitae. Based on this surface coding, the researchers compared the activities, discussed differences and similarities, and agreed upon an initial set of types. During these meetings, the researchers worked to identify types that were mutually exclusive and clarified the coding rules to ensure consistency. As the researchers moved from surface coding to pattern coding in the second iteration, they coded the data until the types reached the saturation point (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Eleven types of publicly engaged scholarship reported by faculty members emerged from the promotion and tenure data. The researchers assigned each type of publicly engaged scholarship a label, and wrote a detailed definition to specify the characteristics of the type (Boyatzis, 1998). The researchers also developed rules for inclusion and exclusion, and continuously updated the codebook to improve intercoder agreement among team members (MacQueen, McLellan, Kay, & Milstein, 1998; Mayring, 2000).

Figure 1. Mapping the emergence of types of publicly engaged scholarship through three iterations of data analysis



Existing Scholarship as a Second Source of Data

To strengthen this study, the researchers turned to existing research as a second data source. Initially, the researchers focused on other empirical studies about types of publicly engaged scholarship. Discovering only one such study (*Schomberg & Farmer, 1994*), the researchers expanded this phase of analysis to include other scholarly (but not empirical) materials that addressed publicly engaged scholarship, including institutional documents defining outreach and engagement written by members of faculty task forces; promotion and tenure guidelines written by faculty committees; and conference presentations about types of engaged scholarship given by faculty research teams (*Bargerstock, Church, Joshi, & Zimmerman, 2004; Chang, 2000; Checkoway, 1998; Frank, 2008; McLean, 2005; North Carolina State University, 2009; Schomberg, 2006; Schomberg & Farmer, 1994*). The researchers used interpretive content analysis and the constant comparative method to incorporate information from the literature review into the typology. At the conclusion of this third phase of analysis, the researchers expanded the number of types from 11 to 14. The three additional types—nontraditional audiences, managed learning environments, and cocurricular service-learning—were subdivisions of existing types and represented a more nuanced understanding of the publicly engaged scholarship conducted by faculty. The researchers documented the emergence of the final typology in Figure 1 (*Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002*).

Findings: A Typology of Publicly Engaged Scholarship

Combining the analysis of promotion and tenure data with the existing scholarship, the researchers identified 14 different types of activities that faculty members are involved in as publicly engaged scholarship (see Table 2). These types fell into four broad categories—publicly engaged research and creative activities (four types); publicly engaged instruction (five types); publicly engaged service (four types); and publicly engaged commercialized activities (one type). This section continues with detailed descriptions of each type, including definitions, examples, and exclusions. The researchers have illustrated the types with examples from the promotion and tenure data (paraphrased to ensure the confidentiality of the faculty members' identities).

Table 2. Sample of the Program's Weekly Schedule

Publicly Engaged Research and Creative Activities
1. Research—business, industry, commodity, group funded
2. Research—nonprofit, foundation, government funded
3. Research—unfunded or intramurally funded applied research
4. Creative activities
Publicly Engaged Instruction
5. Instruction—credit—nontraditional audiences
6. Instruction—credit—curricular, community-engaged learning
7. Instruction—noncredit—classes and programs
8. Instruction—noncredit—managed learning environments
9. Instruction—noncredit—public understanding, events, and media
Publicly Engaged Service
10. Service—technical assistance, expert testimony, and legal advice
11. Service—cocurricular service-learning
12. Service—patient clinical, and diagnostic services
13. Service—advisory boards and other discipline-related service
Publicly Engaged Commercialized Activities
14. Commercialized activities

Publicly Engaged Research and Creative Activities

Publicly engaged research and creative activities are associated with the discovery of new knowledge, the development of new insights and understanding, and the creation of new artistic or literary performances and expressions—in collaboration with community partners, broadly defined. Researchers and community partners may collaborate in defining research questions, deciding on the research design, gathering data, analyzing and interpreting data, and disseminating the results (*Stanton, 2008*). Types 1, 2, and 3 are related to research, discovery, and inquiry, while Type 4 is related to creative activities. At some institutions, this broad category is called outreach-research and focuses on the generation of knowledge conducted in collaboration with community.

Type 1. Research-business, industry, commodity, group funded.

Business, industry, or commodity group funded research includes sponsored research or inquiry supported through grants or contracts from businesses, industries, trade associations, or commodity groups (e.g., agricultural or natural resource groups)

that generates new knowledge to address practical problems experienced by public or practitioner audiences. General examples include market analysis; consumer research; sales analysis; software research and development; engineering and manufacturing research; advanced materials science; field trials and tests; food quality, production, and safety research; improvement of postharvest and postproduction processes; improved facility design; gene mapping and genomic research; prevention and management of crop and animal diseases; and other scholarship to generate new knowledge to solve practical problems experienced by business, industry, trade associations, or commodity groups. Research conducted to advance an academic field (e.g., basic research), or that is shared solely with research audiences is excluded.

Business, industry, or commodity group funded examples from the promotion and tenure data include a multi-business-funded center to study the effects of direct delivery to customers; research sponsored by the national pork producers on biosensors to determine pathogenic contamination; and a study of depression treatment in nursing homes funded by a major pharmaceutical company.

Type 2. Research-nonprofit, foundation, government funded.

Nonprofit, foundation, or government funded research includes sponsored research or inquiry supported through grants or contracts from community-based organizations, nonprofit organizations, foundations, or government agencies that generates new knowledge to address practical problems experienced by public or practitioner audiences. General examples include community-based participatory research; public policy analysis; evaluation research; community needs assessments; applied research; educational research; research conducted collaboratively with community partners; community assessments and evaluations; and other scholarship to generate new knowledge at the direct request of, or in conjunction with, a public (nonuniversity) audience, including neighborhoods, agencies, schools, museums, park districts, towns, cities, counties, regional governments, state or federal governments, or professional associations. Research conducted to advance an academic field (e.g., basic research) or that is shared solely with research audiences is excluded.

Nonprofit, foundation, or government funded examples from the promotion and tenure data include the establishment of a

stroke surveillance system, funded by the Michigan Economic Development Corporation; a study about children of battered women, funded by the National Institute of Mental Health; and a participatory action-research project on integrated farming systems and rural transformation, funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Type 3. Research-unfunded or intramurally funded applied research.

Unfunded or intramurally funded applied research includes community-responsive or community-based research or inquiry that is not funded by a community partner but instead is pursued by faculty members through intramural support or as financially unsupported research or inquiry. The focus is on generating new knowledge to address practical problems experienced by public or practitioner audiences. General examples include pilot studies; applied research; community-based participatory research; public policy analysis; program evaluation research; process design and improvement; needs assessments; and other scholarship to generate new knowledge at the direct request of or in conjunction with a public (nonuniversity) partner. Research conducted to advance an academic field (e.g., basic research), or that is shared solely with research audiences is excluded.

Unfunded or intramurally funded applied research examples from the promotion and tenure data include internally funded (Extension, and university outreach and engagement) research on increasing nutrition literacy through interactive technology; an unfunded, experimental evaluation of a residential “tagged” abatement program; and a study funded by a Michigan State University business-incubator grant to examine racial, socioeconomic, and geospatial cancer incidence in Detroit.

Type 4. Creative activities.

Creative activities are original creations of artistic, literary, fine, performing, or applied arts and other expressions or activities of creative disciplines or fields that are made available to or generated in collaboration with a public (nonuniversity) audience. General examples include musical compositions, literary performances, artistic performances, and curatorial activities. Excluded, for example, is the presentation and maintenance of a collection of artifacts or materials in a managed learning environment (see Type 8).

Creative activity examples from the promotion and tenure data include the recitation of original poetry at community poetry

night; free and publicly available software designed to generate poetry; and a new English singing translation of an Italian composer's comic opera.

Publicly Engaged Instruction

Publicly engaged instruction is organized around sharing knowledge with various audiences through either formal or informal arrangements. Types of publicly engaged instruction vary by the relationship among the teacher, the learner, and the learning context. Types 5 and 6 are related to credit instruction. Types 7, 8, and 9 are related to noncredit instruction and public understanding generally. At some institutions, this broad category is known as outreach-teaching and focuses on the transmission of knowledge to and from audiences external to the university.

Type 5. Instruction-credit-nontraditional audiences.

The nontraditional audience type includes classes and instructional programs that offer student-academic credit hours and are designed and marketed specifically to serve those who are neither traditional campus degree seekers nor campus staff. Such courses and programs are often scheduled at times and in places convenient to the working adult. General examples include weekend or evening degree programs; off-campus degree programs; for-credit offerings available through distance technology to nontraditional audiences; and online credit-bearing, certificate programs. Excluded are faculty or staff development programs, and for-credit experiences, either campus-based or community-based, for traditional degree seekers (see Type 6).

Examples of publicly engaged scholarship for the nontraditional audience from the promotion and tenure data include teaching an online course to students at the Industrial Design Center at Mumbai, India; teaching a two-week, for-credit music learning theory certificate summer workshop for teachers; and the development of a five-week, web-based module for the professional M.S. program in food safety offered by the National Food Safety and Toxicology Center.

Type 6. Instruction-credit-curricular, community-engaged learning.

Curricular, community-engaged learning refers to classes and curricular programs in which students learn with, through, and

from community partners, in a community context, under the guidance and supervision of faculty members. Structured reflection on the connection between the experience of working with community members and the content of the academic experience is expected. These experiences may be credit-bearing, or may be organized by a curricular program such as the Honors College. Examples include academic service-learning; community-based research; overseas study or international engagement with service-learning in a foreign country; student research for industry or other community partners as part of a credit-bearing course; and clinical instruction and supervision in medical, veterinary, or other clinics. Excluded are forms of experiential education, such as internships, career-oriented practica, and cooperative placements in which the emphasis is on learning career skills, or reflection on the connections between practice and content is not required; service-learning experiences that are nonacademic or not-for-credit (see Type 11); and most study abroad programs.

Curricular, community-engaged learning examples from the promotion and tenure data include industry-sponsored projects in a capstone course in computer science and engineering; service-learning courses focused on getting out the vote; community-based research for local planning departments and environmental agencies; and clinical instruction and supervision in the College of Veterinary Medicine.

Type 7. Instruction-noncredit-classes and programs.

Noncredit classes and programs include classes and instructional programs marketed specifically to those who are neither degree seekers nor campus staff. They are designed to meet planned learning outcomes for which academic credit hours are not offered. Workshops and conference presentations for practitioner (not academic) audiences count. In lieu of academic credit, these programs sometimes provide certificates of completion or continuing education units, or meet requirements of occupational licensure. General examples include continuing education; contract courses for specific individuals; short courses for practicing professionals; educational programs for alumni; precollege programs; personal enrichment programs; leisure learning tours; and noncredit, virtual university programs. Excluded are programs designed for and targeted to faculty and staff (such as professional development programs) or MSU degree-seeking students (such as career preparation or study skills classes); any credit-bearing class (see Types 5 or

6); and learning that takes place outside the classroom (see Types 8 and 9).

Noncredit classes and program examples from the promotion and tenure data include development and management of state-wide pesticide applicators' training; courses on pavement design, rehabilitation, management, and materials for the private sector and Department of Transportation engineers; and a three-day training session for national park staff on estimating the economic impact of national park visitors.

Type 8. Instruction-noncredit-managed learning environments.

Managed learning environments are scholarly resources designed for general public audiences that are often learner-initiated and learner-paced. General examples include museums, libraries, gardens, galleries, exhibits; expositions; demonstrations; and fairs. Excluded are collaborations with the general public to create new understanding (see Types 1, 2, or 3); original artistic or interpretive creations (see Type 4); formal presentations of scholarly materials to practitioner audiences (see Type 7); and translation of scholarship to general public audiences through media (see Type 9).

Managed learning environment examples from the promotion and tenure data include the management of educational programming in the Michigan 4-H Children's Garden, and a museum exhibition about Native American warriors at a local community-based resource center.

Type 9. Instruction-noncredit-public understanding, events, and media.

The public understanding, events, and media category concerns the creation of scholarly resources designed for the general public that are accessible through print, radio, television, or web media. General examples include self-paced educational materials and products (e.g., bulletins, pamphlets, encyclopedia entries, educational broadcasting, CD-ROMs, software, and textbooks for lay audiences); dissemination of scholarship through media (e.g., speakers' bureau, TV appearances, newspaper interviews, radio broadcasts, web pages, and podcasts, if scholarly and readily available to the public); and popular writing in newsletters, popular press, or practitioner-oriented publications. Excluded are collaborations with the general public to create new understanding (see

Types 1, 2, or 3); original artistic or interpretive creations (see Type 4); formal presentations of scholarly materials to practitioner audiences (see Type 7); and presentation of scholarly materials in managed learning environments (see Type 8).

Public understanding, events, and media examples from the promotion and tenure data include a free, publicly available digital library of African resources; an annual statewide public event to introduce Michigan residents to opportunities for enjoying and sustaining natural heritage; a pocket guide for identifying pests on small fruit trees, distributed through Cooperative Extension; and popular press writing to explain breakthroughs in science to the public.

Publicly Engaged Service

Publicly engaged service is associated with the use of university expertise to address specific issues (ad hoc or longer term) identified by individuals, organizations, or communities. This type is not primarily driven by research questions (though research may be of secondary interest). Types 10, 11, 12, and 13 are related to ways in which university students, graduate students, staff, and faculty members use their knowledge in service to individuals, organizations, or communities. In Types 10, 11, and 13 members of the university usually attend to community concerns *in* the community, whereas in Type 12 members of the community usually physically come to the university for assistance. Types 10, 11, and 12 address a specific short- or medium-term issue or need, while Type 13 is often related to an ongoing type of assistance or advice. At some institutions, this broad category is known as outreach-service, and focuses on the application of knowledge to address specific community issues or identified needs.

Type 10. Service-technical assistance, expert testimony, and legal advice.

Technical assistance, expert testimony, and legal advice includes the provision of university-based knowledge, or other scholarly advice, through direct interaction with nonuniversity clients who have requested assistance to address an issue or solve a problem. General examples include technical assistance, expert testimony, legal advice, and organizational management consulting (e.g., strategic planning, human resources consulting). Excluded are activities where research questions drive the process or relationship with the public (see Types 1, 2, and 3); service on advisory boards, government commissions, or task forces (see Type 13); and

indirect provision (e.g., websites or bulletins) of university expertise or knowledge to solve community problems (see Type 9).

Technical assistance, expert testimony, and legal advice examples from the promotion and tenure data include an on-call advisory service about swine reproduction; consultation and translation of a lesser-spoken language for a movie company; and technical advice to several community-based organizations on asset mapping.

Type 11. Service-cocurricular service-learning.

Cocurricular service-learning refers to service-learning experiences that are not offered in conjunction with a credit-bearing course or academic program, and do not include reflection on community practice or connections between content and the experience. General examples include service-learning organized by student organizations (e.g., service fraternities or sororities); alternative spring break programs (as long as they are not associated with for-credit classes); and faculty members serving as advisors to student groups who perform community or volunteer service. Excluded are individual volunteerism unrelated to disciplinary expertise; and for-credit service-learning experiences (see Type 6).

One cocurricular service-learning example from the promotion and tenure data is the development of a statewide judging competition for students, industry representatives, and faculty members involved in the dairy sciences.

Type 12. Service-patient, clinical, and diagnostic services.

The patient, clinical, and diagnostic services category includes services offered to human and animal clients, with care provided by university faculty members, or professional or graduate students, through hospitals, laboratories, and clinics. General examples include medical/veterinary clinical practice, forensics laboratories, genetic testing clinics, counseling clinics, or crisis center services. Excluded are activities that are primarily for clinical instruction of medical and graduate students as part of their professional education (see Type 6).

Patient, clinical, and diagnostic service examples from the promotion and tenure data include forensic investigations performed at a campus lab; clinical services provided by a campus-based pediatrician; and rehabilitation counseling services offered to individuals with disabilities.

Type 13. Service-advisory boards and other discipline-related service.

Advisory boards and other discipline-related service pertains to contributions of scholarly expertise made by MSU faculty members, staff members, and students at the request of nonuniversity audiences on an ad hoc or ongoing basis. General examples include serving on advisory committees, government boards, task forces, or nonprofit boards of directors, where disciplinary knowledge is expected. Excluded are contributions to departmental, college, or university committees, task forces, or academic governance (because this service does not benefit communities external to the university); service to scholarly, disciplinary, or professional organizations (except when those organizations serve both practitioners and academics); and individual volunteerism or community service unrelated to the individual's scholarly area of expertise.

Advisory board and other discipline-related service examples from the promotion and tenure data include serving as a member of an advisory group to a corporate foundation or on a business management research team at an accounting firm; serving as a board member at a local educational outreach center with exhibits relating to Native American people; and providing leadership and assistance to the Fisheries Division of the Michigan Department of Natural Resources.

Publicly Engaged Commercialized Activities

Publicly engaged commercialized activities are associated with a variety of projects in which university-generated knowledge is translated into practical or commercial applications for the economic benefit of individuals, organizations, or communities.

Type 14. Commercialized activities.

Commercialized activities involve the translation of new knowledge generated by the university to the public through the commercialization of discoveries. General examples include copyrights, patents, and licenses for commercial use; innovation and entrepreneurship activities; technology transfer; new business development and entrepreneurship activities; and community and economic development activities such as university-managed business incubators or technology parks. Excluded are applied research or inquiry that forms the basis for commercialized activities (see Types 1, 2, 3, or 4), and individual consultations conducted by faculty members outside work-for-pay (consulting as part of assigned unit or university responsibilities is included).

Commercialized activity examples from the promotion and tenure data include patents associated with subsequent business venture lasers and spectrometry; development of multiple FDA-cleared products to use in human patients to repair rotator cuffs; development of surgical implants to use in veterinary orthopedic applications; and patents for the use of a form of copper as a wood preservative.

Uses of the Typology: Implications for Research, Policy, and Practice

This article proposes a typology of publicly engaged scholarship: an empirical, systematic way of conceptualizing, documenting, and communicating about the scholarly contributions faculty members make to the public good. Encompassing the full gamut of faculty contributions across their research, instruction, and service roles, this typology may be used as the basis for future research and improved policy and practice.

Future Research Directions

The purpose of exploratory research, almost by definition, is to provide an empirical basis for continued inquiry into the issue of interest. This study is no different. The typology that emerged from this analysis should be considered a starting point for future research. The first two suggestions for future research concern continued development and refinement of the typology itself; the remaining recommendations include suggestions for coupling the typology with other analyses to advance understanding about faculty involvement in publicly engaged scholarship.

First, future researchers may be interested in conducting similar studies at other research-intensive, land-grant, or Carnegie Classified Community Engagement institutions. These studies may be framed emicly (with typologies emerging from data at the other institutions) or eticly (with the current typology used as a framework). Refinements based on this research would ensure the typology's utility for cross-institutional purposes by minimizing the limitations of a single-site study.

Second, researchers may seek to develop the typology at colleges and universities that do not share institutional characteristics with the study site. For example, research at liberal arts colleges might reveal more nuanced types of publicly engaged instruction, and research conducted at universities with campus-based teaching hospitals might reveal different points of emphasis in the publicly engaged service types. Whether conducted at similar or

dissimilar institutions, a worthwhile goal of future research would be to reduce the number of types from 14 to a number under 10 to improve the typology's overall usefulness.

Third, faculty involvement in publicly engaged scholarship is shaped by a complex interaction between personal and professional factors (Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006; Wade & Demb, 2009). Most research has focused on the relationship between publicly engaged scholarship and personal factors (e.g. gender, race/ethnicity, age) or professional factors (e.g. rank, tenure status, appointment, discipline) (Abes et al., 2002; Antonio, 2002; Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Baez, 2000; Jaeger & Thornton, 2006; O'Meara, 2002; Vogelgesang, Denson, & Jayakumar, 2005; Wade & Demb, 2009). The question of which faculty members become involved in what types of publicly engaged scholarship remains largely unexplored.

Fourth, the influence of the disciplines on faculty involvement in publicly engaged scholarship has been of long-standing interest to researchers interested in publicly engaged scholarship. Much of the macro-level disciplinary research has sought to ascertain which disciplines are more likely to have faculty members involved in publicly engaged scholarship (Abes et al., 2002; Antonio et al., 2000; Kagan, 2009; Vogelgesang et al., 2005; Ward, 2003; Zlotkowski, 2005). Other researchers have approached the question from a disciplinary perspective seeking deeper insight into what engagement looks like in a specific discipline or in disciplinary groupings (Ellison & Eatman, 2008). Despite Schomberg's (2006) conclusion that "what was a preferred form of public service in one college was not in another," (p.81) few scholars, if any, have studied how different types of publicly engaged scholarship are more or less likely to be undertaken by faculty members in different disciplines.

Finally, the typology may be useful in future research about faculty members' motivations for involvement in publicly engaged scholarship. Existing research about faculty motivation has either focused on service-learning (a single type of publicly engaged scholarship) (Abes et al., 2002; Hammond, 1994; McKay & Rozee, 2004), or on faculty community engagement writ large (i.e., all types of publicly engaged scholarship combined) (Antonio et al., 2000; Colbeck & Weaver, 2008; O'Meara, 2008). As this line of inquiry—motivation for engagement—matures, a more nuanced understanding of why faculty members become involved in different types of publicly engaged scholarship will be of interest.

Implications for Policy and Practice

In addition to future research directions, the study's findings suggest several implications for policy and practice, including

cross-institutional comparisons, institutional responses to public accountability, more effective faculty development programs, and strategic decision-making by individual faculty members and graduate students.

First, the typology may be salient cross-institutionally. Since the mid-1990s, a number of national organizations and foundations have been interested in fostering cross-institutional conversations about ways to document publicly engaged scholarship for cross-institutional comparisons and national rankings. A number of organizations have convened national conversations about the significance and impact of publicly engaged scholarship, including the Committee on Institutional Cooperation's Committee on Engagement; two subcommittees of the Association of Public and Land-grant Universities (APLU, formerly NASULGC), namely the Council on Engagement and Outreach, and the Commission on Innovation, Competitiveness, and Economic Prosperity; Campus Compact; the Kellogg Foundation; and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. This typology, grounded in the daily practice of faculty members, may be of interest to these groups as they continue to find ways to promote engaged scholarship nationally, especially through standardized benchmarks and metrics.

Second, institutional leaders may benefit from the typology as well. In an age of increasing public accountability, institutional leaders are challenged to move beyond the rhetoric of engagement to detail the real contributions their faculty members make for the betterment of society. The lack of language that is both specific (not generalized institutional rhetoric) and encompassing (not couched in the discourse of any particular discipline) poses a challenge. This typology, when coupled with institutional data, may serve as the basis for institutional leaders to communicate with external stakeholders about the myriad ways faculty members collaborate with community partners to improve the world around them.

Third, the typology could be used as the basis for more effective faculty development programs. Instead of referring to publicly engaged scholarship as an ill-defined, monolithic set of activities, faculty developers could use the typology as a starting point for faculty conversations around different types of commonly accepted engagement in different departments and different disciplines. With these distinctions in mind, they may identify more effective and strategic approaches to skill building for publicly engaged scholarship. For example, the skills required for community-based learning are different from those needed for commercialization of research and creative activities.

Finally, individual faculty members and emerging engaged scholars may benefit from the typology as they make choices about their involvement in publicly engaged scholarship. Many young scholars, especially those trained at research-intensive universities, have found that their doctoral education did not prepare them for professional lives as engaged scholars (Applegate, 2002). The typology, especially when coupled with institutional and disciplinary perspectives, may be an effective way for young scholars to envision professional pathways to publicly engaged scholarship (Doberneck, Brown, & Allen, 2010).

Conclusion

Although the researchers certainly advocate for differentiating among different types of publicly engaged scholarship, they do not believe that any one type of publicly engaged scholarship is inherently more valuable than another. As The Research Universities Civic Engagement Network (TRUCEN) advocates (Stanton, 2008), so too do the researchers support the idea that different types of publicly engaged scholarship are appropriate for and responsive to different contexts, mediated by community needs, faculty interests, institutional priorities, and disciplinary concerns. The researchers simply hope that this typology, based on empirical analysis of faculty work, allows institutional leaders, faculty members, faculty developers, emerging engaged scholars, and other researchers to begin sharing a common, concrete language, grounded in the faculty experience, unconstrained by disciplinary discourse, and free from institutional rhetoric.

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PALs: Fostering Student Engagement and Interactive Learning

Thomas Hancock, Stella Smith, Candace Timpte,
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Introduction

In 2002, the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) issued the report *Greater Expectations: A New Vision for Learning as a Nation Goes to College*, and called upon educators to rethink and reinvigorate education for the 21st century by embracing the concept of a “liberal education” that enables students to become empowered, informed, responsible, and intentional life-long learners (*Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2002*). Drawing upon extensive research regarding educational practices and in-depth explorations of innovative learning models from almost two dozen campuses, the report consistently stresses that liberal education is most effective “when studies reach beyond the classroom to the larger community, asking students to apply their developing analytical skills and ethical judgment to concrete problems in the world around them, and to connect theory with the insights gained from practice” (*Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2002, pp. 25–26*).

There is ample evidence to support *Greater Expectations'* emphasis on learning strategies that merge intellectual and practical skills, including research indicating that students report increased motivation and display deeper learning and better retention when asked to solve real-world problems and construct knowledge from their experiences both in and beyond the classroom (*Ames, 1992; Downing, Kwong, Chan, Lam, & Downing, 2009; Edens, 2000; Hmelo-Silver, 2004*). Not surprisingly, increasing numbers of educators in the last few decades also have asserted that active learning, learning by doing, is a rich and engaging strategy (*Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Herrington & Herrington, 2006; Lombardi, 2007b; Ramsden, 2003*). However, many students are still taught via the stand-and-deliver approach. A lecture format continues to dominate many classrooms not only because of the challenges posed by designing and assessing active learning projects drawn from real life, but also because of concerns regarding various factors such as class sizes, time constraints, and content. Concerned with delivering the necessary content knowledge in a limited amount of time, instructors can feel compelled to focus on delivering the facts that students are

expected to reproduce on exams, without putting learning in a real-world context (Herrington & Herrington, 2006; Lieux, 2001).

This approach, however, fails to take advantage of insights gained from research regarding how people learn, and it often does not best serve students' needs and goals or those of higher education and the communities in which colleges and universities reside. This is particularly true as more scrutiny is placed on higher education to ascertain whether learning outcomes correlate to skills desired in the workplace. A key finding of not only the *Greater Expectations* report, but also a more recent 2007 report of the Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce, is that today's educational systems have failed to adopt creative and challenging approaches to learning because these systems were built for another era. Addressing the leadership needed to make deep and lasting changes to our educational system, the Commission stated: "That kind of leadership does not depend on technology alone. It depends on a deep vein of creativity that is constantly renewing itself" (*National Center on Education and the Economy, 2007, p. 6*).

How, then, can educators address this problem and not only take the lead by adapting classroom practices to facilitate the kinds of learning necessary for success in the 21st century but also, in the process, create the leaders of tomorrow? How can we combine subject knowledge with technological innovation while also drawing on the creative tendencies and resources to be found in our colleges and our communities and encouraging the same creative tendencies in our students? Finally, what approaches should colleges and universities take to provide learning outcomes appropriate to these goals? Georgia Gwinnett College (GGC), the nation's first new baccalaureate liberal arts college of the 21st century, is committed to finding answers to these questions.

Literature Review: The Value of Authentic Learning Pedagogy

As the body of literature and number of proponents supporting active and deep learning in experiential, problem-based, and real-world contexts grow, teachers have increasingly begun to incorporate more "authentic" learning methods into the curriculum (Bransford et al., 2000; Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Merrill, 2007). Authentic learning is generally defined as learning centered on rich, immersive, and engaging tasks. It is considered participatory, experimental, and carefully contextualized via real-world applications, situations, or problems, and it can be extended to incorporate a variety of activities or exercises such as the use of role-playing,

case studies, and simulations that assist students in acquiring both knowledge and transferable skills (Herrington & Herrington, 2006; Lombardi, 2007a, 2007b; Merrill, 2007). Based on an extensive review of research regarding authentic learning, Herrington, Oliver, and Reeves (2003) have proposed that authentic learning activities

- have real-world relevance;
- are ill-defined, requiring students to identify tasks to complete the activity;
- comprise complex tasks to be investigated by students over a sustained period of time;
- provide the opportunity for students to examine the task from different perspectives, using a variety of resources;
- provide the opportunity to collaborate;
- provide the opportunity to reflect;
- can be integrated across different subject areas and lead beyond domain-specific outcomes;
- are seamlessly integrated with assessment;
- create polished products valuable in their own right rather than as preparation for something else; and
- allow competing solutions and diversity of outcomes (pp. 61–62).

Although multiple, more specific views on the criteria for authenticity also exist, opinions regarding this reflect not so much a disagreement about the goals underlying authentic learning as an awareness of the flexibility and range of possibilities for incorporating it not only across disciplines but also across environments (e.g., face-to-face, blended, and distance learning environments). Herrington and Herrington (2006) have emphasized that the key is to “provide an authentic context that reflects the way the knowledge will be used in real life,” and “that it is the cognitive authenticity rather than the physical authenticity that is of prime importance in the design of authentic learning environments” (pp. 3–4).

Examples of authentic learning and the forms it takes can be found on many college campuses. Students in history courses at the University of Virginia (UVA) participate in an ongoing project in which they act as historians and produce “episodes” that analyze and synthesize data from the Southern History Database. They

contribute these episodes to the UVA *History Engine*, a searchable online database documenting and providing insight into the 19th century American South (Lombardi, 2007a). Purdue University students use sophisticated simulation software and materials via Purdue's *nanoHUB* online portal to conduct nanotechnology experiments and engage in an online research community (Lombardi, 2007a). At Dickinson College, some students participate in learning communities with politically, socially, or civically relevant themes tied to service-learning cocurricular activities designed to promote deeper learning and to help students make personal connections between their education and the broader community in which they live (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2010). Princeton University's Community Based Learning Initiative brings together faculty members and community leaders who identify research projects that will benefit community organizations. Students enrolled in participating courses have the option to conduct directed, hands-on research, the results of which they share with both the faculty members and organizations involved. Their efforts not only result in greater student engagement with the subjects studied, but also enable them to make meaningful contributions to the community (Princeton University, n.d.).

As these examples suggest, there are many ways to deploy authentic learning in the classroom, and activities and projects exist upon a continuum in which some might be considered more "real" than others. Herrington and Herrington (2006) and others have correctly noted, however, that authenticity should not be confused with absolute "fidelity" or verisimilitude when it comes to creating an environment or learning scenario. In some instances, particularly those of simulations, there is evidence suggesting that novice and intermediate learners may even attain outcomes at a higher rate when only a moderate degree of verisimilitude exists (Alessi, 1988; Tashiro & Dunlap, 2007). In fact, research about what authentic learning is, and what it need not be, suggests that students are quite willing to engage in a suspension of disbelief and can learn effectively as long as learning environments make manifest and encourage students to build connections between what they are doing in a course and the world beyond (Herrington, Oliver, & Reeves, 2003). The point is to create scenarios or activities that students can conceive of as occurring in reality and that require students to engage with the discipline-specific concepts, principles, and skills that they need to learn (Savery & Duffy, 1995).

The value of active, student-centered, problem-based, and authentic learning models has been documented at all levels of

higher education. For example, in his review of research regarding multiple methods defined as active learning, Prince (2004) found that active learning results in a wide range of improved learning outcomes, both content- and skills-based. In *Problem-Based Learning: A Research Perspective on Learning Interactions*, Hmelo and Evensen (2000) concluded that students engaged in variations of problem-based, authentic learning attend class more often, see material studied as more relevant, value what they are learning more, learn to collaborate more effectively, and express greater levels of motivation and more confidence in their problem-solving skills. When active, student-centered, problem-based, and authentic learning processes were compared to more traditional teaching methods, Ames (1992) found that they promoted deeper understanding and, again, greater motivation than other methods. Blumberg (2000) noted that they increased students' capacity for self-directed learning; and Dochy, Segers, van den Bossche, and Gijbels (2003) and Hmelo and Lin (2000) argued that they compelled students to assess knowledge bases; identify and develop learning strategies and plans; transfer those strategies to new problems; and effectively integrate, synthesize, and retain knowledge. Many practitioners and researchers have echoed these conclusions (Duke, 1999; Moore, Cobb, & Garfield, 1995; Root & Thorne, 2001).

Authentic learning has these effects because it provides students with meaningful experiences where they feel their efforts can impact those around them (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Shwartz, Lin, Brophy, & Bransford, 1999). When students engage in properly contextualized exercises or take part in lines of inquiry or projects that simulate experiences valued by the discipline of study and relevant to the world outside academia, they tend to persevere, even in the face of incomplete or misleading information (Herrington et al., 2003). They also spend more time, in general, working with assigned materials at more meaningful and applied levels. They experience the materials in several different contexts, and the increased "depth of processing" significantly improves long-term retention of the materials (Bjork & Richardson-Klavhen, 1989; Craik & Lockhart, 1972; Healy & Sinclair, 1996). Furthermore, this type of learning provides opportunities for knowledge transfer from abstract to contextual, concrete realms, which has been shown to improve student comprehension (Ewell, 1997; Wason & Johnson-Laird, 1972).

In addition, authentic learning not only enables students to build connections between specific content learned in classes and future careers, but also helps them acquire broader disciplinary knowledge and helps them see the role such knowledge might play

in addressing contemporary issues (Windham, 2007). As Siemens (2004) has argued, educators should aspire to make connections precisely because they strengthen students' overall abilities to learn. In *Authentic Learning for the 21st Century: An Overview*, Lombardi (2007b) effectively summarizes the research of Jenkins, Clinton, Purushotma, Robison, and Weigel (2006): authentic learning can empower students by providing them with

- the judgment to distinguish reliable from unreliable information;
- the patience to follow longer arguments;
- the synthetic ability to recognize relevant patterns in unfamiliar contexts; and
- the flexibility to work across disciplinary boundaries to generate innovative solutions (p. 3).

The Partners in Active Learning (PALs) Program at Georgia Gwinnett College

The College Context

Georgia Gwinnett College (GGC) opened its doors in 2006 and accepted its inaugural class of first-year students in 2007. During the 2007–2008 academic year, faculty members and administrators worked together to develop a model for Partners in Active Learning, or PALs—an initiative designed to fit the GGC vision and mission to build an outcomes-based college that offers students an “integrated educational experience” based on continuous learning “in and beyond the confines of the traditional classroom” (*About GGC,* n.d.). The college’s mission “emphasizes the innovative use of technology and active-learning environments to provide its students enhanced learning experiences and practical opportunities to apply knowledge” in order to produce “contributing citizens and future leaders for Georgia and the nation” and graduates who “are inspired to contribute to the local, state, national, and international communities and are prepared to anticipate and respond effectively to an uncertain and changing world” (*About GGC,* n.d.). PALs is a direct response to the *Greater Expectations* report as well as the 2006 Spellings Report calling upon schools to “embrace a culture of continuous innovation and quality improvement by developing new pedagogies, curricula, and technologies to improve learning” and draw upon research of the last few decades regarding authentic learning

(U.S. Department of Education, 2006, p. 5). Moreover, it is an effort to meet the educational demands and “Essential Learning Outcomes” of the 21st century articulated in the 2007 and 2008 reports “College Learning for the New Global Century” authored by the AAC&U’s National Leadership Council for Liberal Education & America’s Promise (LEAP) (*Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2007, 2008*).

The basic PALs model is one in which faculty members from multiple disciplines team with community partners and each other to focus their teaching efforts in their courses on cross-course collaborative projects that provide a rich learning environment in which students critically evaluate and respond to real-world issues. To make a PAL, college faculty, staff, and students

- collaborate with the community to identify issues of interest;
- select topics adaptable to study in a range of courses;
- form small groups of courses across disciplines;
- coalesce around projects aligned with a variety of course objectives and outcomes;
- work together to reach goals defined by the college and community; and
- present project results to the college and partnering community organizations.

PALs projects can comprise a mix of lower- and upper-level classes and include a range of activities applicable across knowledge domains. To name only a few example activities, a PALs project might include

- cross-course peer mentoring via mixed teams drawn from all involved classes;
- guest lecturers and community speakers presenting information across classes;
- student presentations across classes with one class presenting project plans, core knowledge, and/or project materials to other classes involved;
- communication among classes in synchronous and asynchronous environments using various forms of multimedia; and
- service-learning events with community organizations.

In fall 2008, faculty members at GGC began implementing and refining the PALs model in their classrooms. This article details the grounding principles of PALs; the implementation, growth, and refinement of PALs pilot projects over the course of three college semesters; and the challenges faced and the solutions devised to answer those challenges as well as strategies for readers interested in creating a PALs program on their campuses.

Georgia Gwinnett College is an outcomes-based college that places strong emphasis on interdisciplinarity, teaching, and purposeful student engagement. The college has neither tenure nor departments. Faculty members are required to submit annual portfolios to their deans for evaluation documenting their work and achievements in four areas: teaching, student engagement, service, and scholarship. The most weight is placed on strong teaching and student engagement. Significant value is placed on service to both the college and the community and to scholarship, including scholarship of engagement that meets two of the college's institutional goals: (1) "engage with Gwinnett [County] and surrounding communities to support student development and community needs," and (2) "serve as a resource for innovation for the broader educational community" (*About GGC*, n.d.). PALs projects effectively incorporate three of the four areas of faculty evaluation, and include potential for scholarship in the fourth. Thus, PALs projects represent an attractive option for GGC faculty. In addition, because the college is outcomes-based, all faculty members must document student achievement of outcomes in individual courses taught. This acts as an incentive for faculty members to adopt effective teaching methods such as authentic learning. The combined emphases on teaching, broad and varied engagement, service, and curricular assessment are designed to foster and explicitly reward creativity and innovation within an interdisciplinary environment that yields contributions to the community. PALs projects are particularly well-suited to meeting these goals.

The college's defined student learning outcomes, including general education competencies, also lend themselves well to PALs projects. At present, GGC has identified seven Integrated Educational Experience (IEE) outcomes that produce civically engaged graduates.

1. Clearly communicate ideas in written and oral form.
2. Demonstrate creativity and critical thinking in inter- and multidisciplinary contexts.

3. Demonstrate effective use of information technology.
4. Demonstrate an ability to collaborate in diverse and global contexts.
5. Demonstrate an understanding of human and institutional decision making from multiple perspectives.
6. Demonstrate an understanding of moral and ethical principles.
7. Demonstrate and apply leadership principles
(*“Institutional Effectiveness,” n.d.*).

Students are expected to achieve these outcomes through involvement across campus in courses, in groups, and in activities that encompass the entire student experience. General education outcomes specific to the core curriculum feed into Integrated Educational Experience outcomes. Beyond the core, each disciplinary major program offered at GGC defines outcome goals that are linked to the Integrated Educational Experience outcomes. Vertical integration is required throughout. At the course level, faculty members within a discipline designate course-specific outcomes that intentionally support general education outcomes and thus the Integrated Educational Experience outcomes. These Integrated Educational Experience outcomes, in turn, support the college’s mission, vision, and institutional goals. This systemic outcome integration means that when designing courses, faculty members across disciplines always have at least one common Integrated Educational Experience outcome upon which to collaborate. This holds true in upper- or lower-level courses and in skills- or content-based courses.

Moreover, because the Integrated Educational Experience outcomes are specific not only to college courses but also to the entire college experience, the institution’s divisions, such as Student Activities and Affairs, are also charged with helping students meet the outcomes. As a result, participants in PALs projects come from all sectors of the college. Participants include administrators, faculty members, and students from the Schools of Liberal Arts, Business, Science and Technology, and Education as well as vice presidents, directors, and staff members from offices such as the Center for Teaching Excellence; Educational Technology and Media; Public Affairs; Advancement and Development; and Service-Learning, Active Citizenship, and Community Engagement. The common college goals encourage widespread support and participation that have been significant factors in the success of PALs.

The PALs Model: First Steps to Develop

The PALs model at GGC was developed with the previously discussed principles, practices, and goals in mind. During the 2007–2008 academic year, members of the faculty and administration formed a committee to explore the benefits of authentic, enriched learning, and to design a process for faculty members to more easily create the kinds of collaborative and interdisciplinary environments that make authentic learning possible in not just one class or course, but across multiple classes and courses. At the end of the year, the committee submitted for approval to the vice president of Academic and Student Affairs a proposal that (a) described the ways in which the mission, goals, outcomes, and possible activities for a PALs program would align with the college’s mission, vision, and institutional goals; and (b) proposed organizational structures under which PALs would operate. The PALs steering committee was created to oversee projects proposed by faculty teams; to identify, initiate, and facilitate contact with possible community partners; and to coordinate interactions among faculty teams, the administration, and community partners, thereby allowing professors to focus on PALs projects at the classroom level. As a college-wide committee, PALs falls under the purview of GGC’s vice president of Academic and Student Affairs, who lends support to the initiative.

The PALs Pilot Project: Implementation

During the summer of 2008, a small number of faculty members designed PALs projects and submitted them to the PALs steering committee for approval. The steering committee selected one project for the initial PALs pilot during fall of 2008. For the PALs pilot project, Georgia Gwinnett College was the “community partner.” This allowed the project leaders to test a PALs interdisciplinary project and the teaching methods involved on a limited scale. It also enabled the PALs committee to easily assess the pilot project’s challenges and successes and to make modifications to the PALs model before promoting it to the Gwinnett County community. Students in Jennifer Wunder’s Composition I class teamed with members of Candace Timpte’s Principles of Biology class to collaborate on a joint project to raise awareness on the GGC campus about the potential national and global impacts of genetically modified and bioengineered foods. The faculty members and the 42 students enrolled in the classes selected the topic together based on content requirements in the biology course and the stated outcomes for both courses.

The PALs pilot project: What the students did.

The PALs pilot project students planned and executed “BioQuest: Genetically Modified Foods and Organisms,” an educational event that took place at the end of the semester in the primary public student venue on the campus. The event included taste testing of genetically modified and non-genetically modified foods, student-made research posters, and trivia quizzes to test what participants learned at the displays and tables. About 200 people, representing 12% of the campus community, attended the event.

To prepare for the event, the PALs pilot project students completed individual and team writing assignments; gave individual and team oral presentations to peers, members of the administration, potential sponsors, and event participants; drafted work plans, task lists, timelines for deliverables, and budgets; held meetings with Student Activities and Affairs staff; completed requests for sponsorship forms required by the Office of Development, and solicited sponsorship from entities outside GGC; planned, designed, and sought and received approval for promotional materials and images, including t-shirts; completed periodic team- and self-assessment forms and reports; and collaborated across the two courses (composition and biology) to conduct research on genetically modified and bioengineered foods, and to craft research displays with written and visual elements for use during the event. Throughout the semester, students identified and invited to their classes guest speakers who could provide the content and workplace knowledge. As a result of their PALs pilot project, students’ authentic learning efforts met course and college outcomes.

The PALs pilot project resulted in significant and meaningful work for the students and demanded that they operate in a flexible, changing, and sometimes uncertain environment. The students engaged in negotiations, often compromising, as happened when their original promotional images were not approved due to copyright and fair use concerns. The students often had to wait for responses and adapt to circumstances. The project required extensive teamwork, which caused frustration at times (e.g., when some members did not deliver elements on time, or correctly, to their teammates), but which served to develop stronger collaboration and leadership skills. These and other factors led the PALs committee to conclude that future projects should include a greater mix of interdisciplinary classes, especially more upper-level classes, so that upper-level students could share the workload as well as mentor first-year students on how to adapt and learn in flexible, team-oriented environments.

The PALs pilot project: Outcomes.

GGC employs a process of structured and ongoing assessment at the course level. Faculty members define and designate student-learning outcomes for each course that demonstrate mastery via assignments, projects, and exams assessed according to established rubrics and criteria. Courses are then evaluated as to the percentage of students achieving individual outcomes and the course outcomes overall. Course assessment reports delineate highlights of a course and indicate both problems and successes in the course based on analysis of student achievement of the outcomes. Reports are used to identify promising approaches and increase program effectiveness.

In the PALs pilot project, analysis of data indicated that students met course outcomes in strong numbers. The course assessment report for Composition I indicated that students in the PALs project class met course outcomes overall at a higher rate than students taught by the same professor in a non-PALs Composition I section using different, more traditional assignments such as multiple formal academic essays based on thematic course readings (90% versus 88%). The comments from PALs project student final reports, reflective essays, and portfolios required as part of the assessment measures were markedly positive. Students highlighted not only the benefits of participating in authentic learning activities but also their achievement of a range of authentic learning goals. Many students noted that the challenges helped them better understand both the content and skills taught in their classes as well as the nature of real business. One student commented,

I learned so many things that I will certainly take with me to my future jobs. . . . If I were to forget anything from this experience I would never want to forget the relevance that each element of this planning process had on my college education and my future career.

Another remarked that

It was nice to have a purpose behind my writing assignments other than trying to get a good grade. I feel that I have put more thought and effort into my work this semester than I normally would have in another class. I also feel that I have learned a lot about working as a team, and about my own strengths and shortcomings from this experience.

Another student reflected that

Every step that we took to host this event has put me that much closer to deciding what I am going to do when I get out of college. I now know that I have the ability to plan long term and have the knowledge that will help me succeed in whatever career I choose.

The strength of the results encouraged the PALs committee to approve a PALs project with a Gwinnett County community partner.

PALs Project #2

GGC's criteria for selecting a community partner include (a) the organization must be supportive of the college and its goals as embodied in PALs projects, and (b) that the organization must be interested in developing long-term educational projects with the college. In spring semester 2009, three classes—a biology, a psychology, and an English class—partnered with Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful to create Talking Trash in Gwinnett, a problem-based PALs project for upper- and lower-level classes tasked with (a) identifying litter issues on the GGC campus, (b) developing and proposing strategies to address the identified litter issues, and (c) educating the GGC campus about litter issues. Members of the PALs steering committee and the PALs project faculty members met multiple times with representatives from Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful to learn which of the organization's goals could be aligned with and supported by GGC goals and stayed in contact with organization representatives via phone and e-mail throughout the duration of the project. Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful identified college-age students as a high-target audience for education regarding litter issues. The executive director of Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful expressed the desire for a project that could both educate students and encourage them to take action to address litter issues. Faculty members proposed the Talking Trash in Gwinnett PALs project, which would integrate activities to meet Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful goals as well as GGC-specific goals, including content, skills, and outcomes. Some 36 students in Composition I, Cognitive Psychology, and Biology Interdisciplinary Applications, a capstone course in biology requiring students to apply biology concepts and core knowledge to current issues, collaborated throughout the semester to develop Talking Trash in Gwinnett. Students used the same types of authentic learning activities as

previously described, as well as various assignment templates and models of student work from the previous semester.

PALs project #2: What the students did.

Students learned about litter issues via multiple guest speakers provided by Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful; multimedia and educational materials supplied by the guest speakers; online resources gathered by all the classes involved; and informational presentations, videos, and research posters produced by the psychology and biology classes. In the junior level cognition class, students designed and created a study that investigated people's attitudes and behaviors toward litter, including individual beliefs about the causes of litter. Students conducted research to determine the most appropriate methodology to use (*Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998*), wrote and submitted an IRB proposal, received approval, and collected data from the campus body. The biology students conducted brainstorming sessions with Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful's education coordinator to develop ideas for K-12 classroom projects and demonstrations. They also worked with her to host demonstrations on the GGC campus using an interactive enviro scape (a 3-D model of a city and suburb) showing the effects of litter that can flow into the waterways during rain, lawn watering, and activities such as car washing. Students conducted the demonstrations, then took questions from the audiences and discussed their research findings regarding the environmental impacts of litter. Both the biology and the psychology class developed short videos and informational posters illustrating aspects of litter problems. The English class handled all the communications components of the project.

Addressing course schedule issues.

Because the classes met at different times, professors made innovative use of technology to allow everyone asynchronous access to shared materials. While the synergy that developed among the classes differed from face-to-face interaction, it allowed for a wider range of activities. What might have been a problem instead became a way for students to learn effective use of technology. With the assistance of the Office of Educational Technology, guest speakers presented in specially equipped classrooms that captured speaker and student interaction, video and voice, for subsequent viewing by other classes. The Office of Educational Technology also set up a cooperative course on BlackBoard, an online course management system used in all classes at the college, for the PALs

litter project in which all the students from the three courses were enrolled. The site served as a central location for links to research materials, presentations, videos of guest speakers, and group discussion boards, as well as student-produced materials such as proposals. Students used the site to learn about litter issues asynchronously, access shared materials, set up face-to-face meetings among teams, and collaborate and craft arguments, proposals, and educational products.

PALs litter project: Authentic learning activities.

Students identified litter issues on campus and researched the negative results of litter as well as the decision-making processes that lead people to litter. Using these materials, they devised creative solutions to address the litter problem on campus. With the help of professors and community partners, the students educated each other and then crafted formal proposals and pitches to implement their ideas on campus. The products they developed drew upon a variety of media to make their case and included ideas for an educational campaign to change campus culture and attitudes about litter while also addressing key factors that contribute to litter, such as absence of trash cans and ash bins for cigarette butts. As the semester drew to a close, students presented their work and participated in a campus festival hosted by the School of Science and Technology, where they displayed campaign elements and research posters they had created, and teamed with members of Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful to serve at interactive, hands-on displays designed to educate the campus about the effects of litter.

PALs project #2: Outcomes.

As with the previous endeavor, data collected from course assessment reports indicate that students in the second PALs project successfully met course and college outcomes, and in this project, also supported Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful's goal of educating and engaging college students. Students responded positively to the learning experience in reflective essays, final reports, and portfolios. Students in the biology class indicated on their student evaluations that, because it was derived from their personal experiences and enhanced the connection between their coursework and applications of course content and outcomes to real-life situations, the PALs project was more meaningful to them than other topics they studied. For example, when asked to rate the topics that were most useful to them, students rated the

Talking Trash in Gwinnett project 4.7 on a scale of 5, whereas a more theoretical project undertaken assessing the feasibility of a wind farm on the local coastal plain scored 3.2, even though it was a student-selected project. The PALs project also directly addressed two individual course outcomes for Biology Interdisciplinary Applications requiring students to “apply biological principles and information to real world issues” and “effectively and clearly communicate scientific information in written and oral form” (*Georgia Gwinnett College, 2009a*). Through the PALs litter project, 88% of students in the biology class achieved these course outcomes. In the Composition I class, the project addressed several individual course outcomes leading to an overarching goal of effective written and oral communication in a variety of mediums and with multiple audiences. Students ultimately demonstrated proficiency via a portfolio, and 94% of students met the course outcomes. In the PALs Cognitive Psychology class, 100% of the students enrolled met the course’s outcome requiring them to “demonstrate the ability to apply psychological theory and/or research methodology to real world, culturally diverse situations, apply the appropriate statistical tools, and abide by ethical foundations” (*Georgia Gwinnett College, 2009b*).

PALs Project #3

Fall semester 2009, the PALs committee and Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful decided to again collaborate while significantly expanding participation in the project. The PALs project, Every Litter Bit Hurts, included representatives from Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful, faculty members, and students from upper- and lower-level composition, biology, psychology, math, digital media, and first-year experience courses for a total of seven courses with 168 students involved. Project goals were also expanded to meet Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful’s desire to encourage student volunteerism with the organization.

PALs project #3:What the students did.

Participating faculty members followed previously established practices, and students assessed the solutions that were proposed and the materials that were produced during spring semester 2008. Students added new research, including field research and surveys for which they sought and received IRB approval, and contributed discipline-specific skills and content from their respective classes to improve and extend the antilittering campaign. They also participated in an off-campus community litter clean-up project

sponsored by Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful. The students ultimately proposed and developed a complete antilittering campaign with marketing slogans and tag lines; multimedia graphics, logos, and posters; and educational and persuasive animations, commercials, and video presentations to be played on the campus plasma screens or in classes.

PALs project #3: Outcomes.

Course assessment reports indicate that 91% of students in the PALs Composition I class met overall course outcomes, compared to 86% of students taught by the same professor in a non-PALs class. Similarly, 85% of students in the PALs psychology course Introductory Cognition and Learning met a specific course outcome requiring them to effectively relate course concepts to real-world situations, compared to only 70% of students in a non-PALs section of the same course. In the biology classes, the project addressed outcomes requiring students to “effectively collect and analyze data and draw conclusions,” and “apply scientific concepts to global issues and perspectives and distinguish between well-documented scientific studies and popular opinion” (*Georgia Gwinnett College, 2009c*). In the PALs biology classes, 95% of students met the first outcome and 86% met the second outcome, compared to 84% and 75%, respectively, of students enrolled in the same biology course overall (PALs and non-PALs). Students also gave the project high marks for its engaging nature, relevance, and usefulness. One student summed up the experience by writing, “Developing a litter campaign was a good vehicle to deliver the lessons in the course. All the lessons were salient and will be (and have been) useful for the rest of my life. A bonus is that we have made a difference in the litter problem on GGC’s campus.”

Finally, Connie Wiggins, executive director of Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful, has noted that the PALs projects have resulted in faculty and students “having a better understanding of the issue of littering and its impacts on their community and school environment” and “a greater appreciation for the complexities of littering” while “engaging in addressing this issue,” and she looks forward to a continued and long-term partnership (*personal communication, September 2009*).

The PALs Program: Challenges and Next Steps

Throughout the process of implementing and expanding the PALs projects program, participants (GGC faculty, staff, students, and community) have faced practical challenges. The PALs

committee, however, discovered ways to turn challenges into problem-based learning opportunities.

Challenge One: Workload

The workload required in PALs projects is significant for both faculty members and students. Initially, there appeared to be danger of burnout for both the students and the professors. Time often became a key factor. Student tendencies to procrastinate created too much work at the end of the semester, when other classes required much time as well, and by semester's end, some students had grown weary of working on the same projects throughout the semester. One solution to these problems was to redesign the project, front-loading research and significant writing assignments so that the majority of the coursework was completed no later than two weeks before the end-of-semester's culminating event. The faculty members and students ensured that the work was completed on time by crafting clear work plans, setting firm deadlines for student work, and emphasizing that those deadlines were set in order to deliver products to the public, thereby placing work in the context of business stakes rather than classroom stakes. Framing student work in this fashion yielded better results, as shown in the third term of the PALs project.

Another solution to address workload was to involve multiple courses in a single project. Dividing the work across more courses, so that each class could focus on one area of expertise or mastery while still coordinating with others to share information, made it possible to reduce large tasks to more manageable size. In addition, this addressed professors' concerns about simultaneously participating in PALs while covering course content and teaching other courses. The members of the PALs committee learned that the time constraints of a single semester and content-knowledge demands in disciplines like biology and psychology meant that some courses could not focus too heavily on a PALs project. Instead, PALs projects functioned more effectively in those courses when activities or products represented a discrete piece, or only a few pieces, of the overall project and course. Discrete yet interconnected and project-integrated activities generated good results. The PALs program now outlines that PALs projects can be big or small. A course can make an important contribution to a PALs project even when only one assignment contributes to the whole.

A third way to address workload is to adapt templates and educational materials designed during previous PALs projects. This

repurposing made some components of course preparation and execution easier for faculty members. It had the added benefit of creating connections among new and returning students while also providing new students with peer models. For example, by continuing the partnership with Clean & Beautiful in subsequent PALs projects, students could become part of an ongoing community project and learn from those who had participated in the process before them. The continuing partnership allowed GGC to develop a stronger relationship with Gwinnett Clean & Beautiful.

Challenge Two: Assessment

Quantitative assessment of the impact of PALs projects has proven to be a challenge because of the decision to deploy initial PALs projects on a limited scale. The PALs program developers have focused on ensuring that the PALs model is a strong educational approach for students and faculty and that PALs projects can be effectively managed across the college. This approach allows for incremental improvements each semester and has helped GGC cultivate a long-term collaboration with a community partner. The carefully controlled scope of the first three projects, however, has yielded a small sample size of student reflective responses or learning-outcome data points. Preliminary data is encouraging and warrants more analysis, but commitment to the PALs model will also entail a commitment to long-term evaluation of the program on all levels as it grows. A next step is to develop a robust evaluation that measures the impact of the PALs program on the community partners, on the participating students (academic, personal growth, and civic responsibility outcomes), on the participating faculty members, and on GGC as a whole.

While assessment is still in the early stages and ongoing, the authors are developing multiple measures for structured evaluation, such as pre- and postproject surveys, that will include not only faculty, staff, and students at GGC, but also community partners. This is an area for continued development. Initial results, however, indicate that PALs will fulfill the promise of authentic learning and can aid students in their acquisition of important learning outcomes.

Sustaining and Expanding the PALs Program

GGC continues to refine the PALs program to improve course design and project planning and to identify best practices while also expanding the program's reach. In spring 2010, GGC created

an Office of Service Learning, Active Citizenship and Community Engagement. The PALs program is working with the office's staff to identify needs in the broader community and form new relationships. The PALs program leaders also are promoting PALs across the GGC campus and beyond via workshops, presentations, and a public website (<http://wiki.ggc.usg.edu/mediawiki/index.php/PALs>) containing action plans, templates, and forms for use in PALs project planning and implementation.

Conclusion

Using Georgia Gwinnett College templates and sample guidelines for its Partners in Active Learning program, interested readers can develop their own flexible and sustainable organizational structure for PALs programs. They can design policies and procedures to support, manage, and scale up a similar program; identify incentives that attract faculty, students, staff, and community organizations to collaborative projects; and create promotional materials, Frequently Asked Question sheets, project proposal templates, and approval forms to educate people about PALs.

A PALs program supports a college culture for the 21st century. PALs projects help students take an active role in understanding the issues that concern their community and form relationships between the college and the surrounding community. They enable

“PALs projects help students take an active role in understanding the issues that concern their community and form relationships between the college and the surrounding community.”

faculty members to engage in interdisciplinary, student-centered learning that builds ties among a range of courses and disciplines; expose students to critical thinking and enriched, problem-based learning by encouraging them to explore the complexity of current issues and asking them to develop and implement plans to address these issues; and provide students the opportunity to develop a range of skills by helping community organizations and showcasing

their creative endeavors in public venues.

Partners in Active Learning programs foster the time-honored goals of higher education while moving beyond the traditional confines of the classroom, using the kinds of high-impact

educational practices necessary for students to acquire the intellectual and practical skills employers are looking for and communities need. They do this by incorporating integrative learning across the higher education institution and within the broader community. By working with community organizations, the students, faculty, and staff from all levels of a higher education institution can pool resources, knowledge, and skills to create interdisciplinary, collaborative endeavors that develop richer educational environments and encourage students to become contributing citizens today and active leaders tomorrow.

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REFLECTIVE ESSAY

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We Shared the Same Chapter: Collaboration, Learning, and Transformation from the 2008 Subsistence, the Environment, and Community Well-Being Native Youth Exchange in Old Harbor, Alaska Project

Laurie Richmond, Daniela Di Piero, Flowers Espinoza,
Teacon Simeonoff, and Margaret Faraday

On a small island belonging to the Alutiiq people of Old Harbor, 11 people sat around a campfire. Two community leaders, a nonprofit organizer, an academic scholar, a native filmmaker, and six young people from the Indian reservation of Taos Pueblo in New Mexico gathered after a day of interacting with Old Harbor residents—fishing, hunting and dressing a deer, and carving and cooking the food we had caught. As the fire burned late into the night, we talked about what brought us to this island and what issues we face in our lives. We discussed substance abuse and the early passing of young people from Old Harbor and Taos Pueblo in substance- or violence-related incidents. We talked about environmental issues that our communities face as well as the significance of cultural practices. We all reflected on the directions we hoped to go in our lives following this program. In this remote and culturally significant location, a transformational dialogue emerged among us in a way that we never could have anticipated. As the fire faded to a few lingering embers, Teacon Simeonoff, the program leader from the community of Old Harbor, looked around the group and said: We all have a story and sometimes we share the same chapters.

Introduction

Calls for outreach and participatory elements to academic research have been increasing (Barker, 2004; Paton, 2006; Sandmann, 2008). In response to criticisms about the uneven power relations in academic research, members of the academy have developed an array of innovative outreach and participatory programs that allow communities and individuals to benefit from, and have meaningful interactions with, the researchers who study them (e.g., Macaulay, Commanda, Freeman, Gibson, McCabe, Robbins, & Twonig, 1999; Stewart, 2005). Outreach and engagement activities from the academy are important because they allow a break from the paradigm of researchers extracting information from study subjects (Conway, 2006; Roper & Hirth, 2005). These activities also provide the setting for new and different kinds of dialogue and

learning among researchers, activists, and the communities with whom they engage (Brown, Reed, Bates, Knaggs, Casey, & Barnes, 2006; Nagar & Farh, 2003).

Young people ages 16–21 are at an important life stage. They face critical questions about substance abuse and life choices, and are beginning to decide how they want to shape their lives and enter the world. Youth in this age group, particularly those who come from at-risk backgrounds, are often overlooked in academic outreach programs because they can be difficult to engage (Camino, 2005). In many cases, they are not receptive to traditional forms of academic outreach (e.g., lectures, group activities, and minutely planned training sessions) (Post & Little, 2005).

We use the in-the-field example of an indigenous youth intercultural exchange program that we organized in the summer of 2008 to describe how collaboration and a structure focused on multiple kinds of learning contributed to a meaningful and transformative engagement experience for a group of American Indian youth of this age group. The 2008 Subsistence, the Environment, and Community Well-Being Native Youth Exchange in Old Harbor, Alaska Project was formed to develop a dialogue among Native youth about critical issues facing American Indian communities as well as the globe. The program was organized through collaborations between academic (University of Minnesota), non-profit (Movimiento¹), and community-based (Taos Pueblo and Old Harbor) organizers. The project was based in the Alaska Native village of Old Harbor, an isolated fishing community on Kodiak Island. Six at-risk Native youth (ages 16–20) from Taos Pueblo, New Mexico, flew to the village of Old Harbor to meet Old Harbor youth for 10 days of conversation, work, camping, and experiential learning.

In this reflective essay, we describe the unique collaborations and program design that facilitated meaningful engagement with young adults from this age group. We then conduct an analysis of the discourse that took place during the 10-day program to describe the types of reactions, learning, and reflection among participants and coleaders. Next, we explore the long-term outcomes of the program by analyzing recorded notes, interviews, and conversations that transpired more than 6 months after the program ended. To use the words of coleader Teacon Simeonoff, we trace what happened when for 10 days academics, nonprofit leaders, community organizers, and young people shared the same “chapter.” We then examine how that experience was integrated into each of our unique “stories” when we returned to our distinct—yet connected—lives.

Theory

Since this was a collaborative project with several partners, the theory guiding the design and format of the outreach program came from a number of different places, including academic, non-profit, and community-based sources.

Academic

In the design of this program, we drew from recent conceptions of university engagement as a collaborative process that involves multidirectional forms of learning and teaching (*Brown et al., 2006; Conway, 2006; Roper & Hirth, 2006; Sandmann, 2008; Weerts, 2005*). These forms of engagement have arisen in response to Foucauldian frameworks that take seriously questions of knowledge and power (*Burchell, Gordon, & Miller, 1991*). Traditional expert-based approaches to service, in which university representatives teach academic information to the public, can reproduce power relationships that privilege Western knowledge, and can fail to take seriously the knowledge and viewpoints of the communities with which they seek to engage (*Weerts, 2005*). With these conceptions of engagement in mind, we worked to develop an outreach program that resulted from the collaborative organizing efforts of academic, nonprofit, and community partners. In addition, we designed the structure of the program such that participant voices would be taken seriously and could drive the outcomes of the program.

Since our program contained a strong environmental component, its structure was also influenced by recent ideas in environmental education and human ecology. Traditional forms of environmental education have come under criticism for advocating a Western, science-based understanding of the natural world that is not relatable or open to alternate understandings of the environment (*Cole, 2007*). Increasingly, research has demonstrated that understandings of the environment are culturally and historically contingent (*Castree & Braun, 2001*). Academics in the field of environmental studies have begun to focus on the significance of local or traditional/indigenous forms of environmental information and have begun to stress the important linkages between social and ecological systems (*Berkes, Colding, & Folke, 2000; Berkes & Folke, 2000*). With these concepts in mind, formulations of environmental education, from which we draw, have moved toward more place-based approaches that are inclusive of multiple forms of environmental expertise and that focus on the important social and cultural context of the participants (*Cole, 2007*).

Nonprofit

Within the nonprofit sector, organizational leaders have increasingly recognized the importance of streamlined collaboration with other nonprofits, community organizations, and businesses. Particularly in times of financial shortage, nonprofits must form mutually beneficial partnerships that avoid duplication and demonstrate to funders that their resources are being used innovatively and efficiently. While it is common for nonprofits to partner with each other, it is rarer for a collaboration to emerge between a nonprofit, a community-based organization, and an academic entity. The 2008 Subsistence, the Environment, and Community Well-Being Native Youth Exchange in Old Harbor, Alaska Project is thus an example of pioneering leadership and collaboration involving, and extending beyond, the nonprofit sector.

We draw from the participating nonprofit's theories about youth outreach. *Movimiento* was created with a simple yet relatively new concept in the nonprofit world—that the youth it serves are themselves the best at defining what would most enrich and benefit their lives. *Movimiento*'s programs, including this one, are therefore dictated by what youth say they most want: respect, good mentorship, a chance to explore the world, meaningful work, and a hopeful future.

Community-Based

Many of the ideas and much of the theory behind the design of this outreach program came from experiences of leaders from both participating communities: Old Harbor and Taos Pueblo. We define community-based theory as ideas related to program design that are derived from the direct experience of individuals living within the communities. Local leaders advocated that any outreach program involving these two indigenous communities must be culturally relevant. It should provide opportunity for cross-cultural engagement and education rather than relying on lectures and teaching from academic counterparts. In addition, community partners stressed the inclusion of subsistence activities (fishing, hunting, gathering, and carving) as a significant part of the program, as they felt these subsistence and cultural practices were linked with indigenous community well-being. Teacon Simeonoff, the Old Harbor-based organizer, offered potential activities and camping locations based on his experiences running the Old Harbor summer cultural camps. Through his years working with the cultural camps, he knew which activities were effective, and had

an understanding of the logistics and planning necessary to make the camp operational. Community-based organizers also provided the group with place-based teaching about the experiences of both communities.

Program Elements

Implementation of the program required communication and coordination among the partners, communities, and youth participating in the exchange. Through this collaboration we developed a set of program goals and activities. This section provides background on some key elements of the 2008 Native Youth Exchange Project.

Participating Communities

Old Harbor, Alaska, is an Alutiiq community on Kodiak Island. The village is accessible only by boat or aircraft and has a population of 237. Old Harbor has traditionally been a fishing community, with residents involved in subsistence, commercial, and sport fishing activities. With a recent decline in commercial fishing participation, many young people in Old Harbor feel they have few options (Carothers, 2008). Youth from Old Harbor face issues related to substance abuse. In June 2008, two months prior to the exchange program, Old Harbor experienced the tragic death of a teenager in an alcohol-related accident. It was our hope that youth from Old Harbor could get involved in discussions and activities with the visiting group from Taos Pueblo as an outlet to reflect on some of the difficulties they face.

Taos Pueblo is an Indian reservation adjacent to the northern New Mexico community of Taos. Over 1,900 Taos Indians occupy Taos Pueblo lands, which extend for more than 99,000 acres. Taos Pueblo has a distinct religion and tribal government consisting of a governor and a War Chief (Taos Pueblo Tourism Office, 2008). Young people at Taos Pueblo experience many of the same challenges as youth from Old Harbor, including youth suicide, accidental death, alcoholism, and a sense that there is not anything to do. The Native youth exchange to Old Harbor became a means for Taos Pueblo youth to express and discuss their challenges and strengths.

Program Goals

The goal of the program was to provide a setting for youth from Taos Pueblo and Old Harbor to have a transformative experience. By this we mean an experience that they could take back with them,

empowering them to engage more actively in their daily lives, with new capacities for reflection and inspiration. In an interview, coleader Daniela Di Piero described the goals in this way: “Most of the young people on this trip have gone through incredibly difficult things in their lives; and they’ve really come a long way already; and I’m just hoping that having this little bit of time to have this kind of experience will help continue to lift them from the really heavy stuff” (*personal communication, August 10, 2008*). As a result of the program, we hoped that participants would think more deeply about their relationship to harmful substances and about the future directions of their lives. To achieve this, it was necessary to develop a setting for exchange, reflection, and revelation.

Program Activities

We ran the program through a concept of emergence. That is, we tried to provide a setting and the tools that would enable certain kinds of discussion and activities to emerge. This “emergence” approach attempted to eschew an expert-driven model of outreach in favor of one involving multidirectional teaching and learning. We provided the participants with the necessary tools to begin discussions and learning. We introduced Taos participants to youth from Old Harbor, and provided carving, beading, fishing, and hunting opportunities. We gave them access to academic researchers with knowledge about environmental issues in the region, and provided them with maps of the area to enable discussion about regional issues. Finally, we gathered as a group nightly to participate in games and discussion. These tools were made available and the group was encouraged to participate, but how the tools were used and what they meant was decided upon by those involved. This led to new kinds of activities and dialogues that we could not have anticipated.

The first 6 days of the program took place on a campsite on an island across the bay from the village of Old Harbor. The campsite was established by the Old Harbor Tribal Council and is the location of the village’s summer culture camp, which Teacon Simeonoff helps to run. To get to the camp, we needed to cross the bay in a small skiff. It provided a secure place that we knew was substance-free and where participants and organizers did not have access to television and other electronic devices that could have distracted from meaningful participation.

The activities at the camp included subsistence hunting and fishing, berry picking, cooking, sea kayaking, carving and beading,

nightly group conversations, and map-based discussions about the region. In total, 17 people from Old Harbor visited or stayed at the camp. In addition, two young men came to camp in their skiffs and took several participants on fishing excursions. For the final 2 days of the program, we relocated the group of Taos Pueblo youth to the village of Old Harbor. During their time in the village, they met and interacted with village elders, participated in village activities such as basketball and bingo, and developed a better sense of Old Harbor village life.

Ethnography of the Program

We analyzed field notes, interviews, and recorded conversations to explore the discourse utilized by organizers and participants over the course of the program. Research was conducted with IRB approval from University of Minnesota for a broader project that included both socio-cultural research in Old Harbor and the evaluation of this outreach program (*University of Minnesota IRB Study Number: 0605P85866*). Margaret Faraday, a burgeoning filmmaker, traveled with the group to film a documentary about the experience of the exchange. Many interviews were conducted in conjunction with the filming for this documentary. The film titled *Alaska Through Taos*, directed, written and produced by Margaret Faraday was released in April 2009.

We uploaded notes and transcribed materials from the program into the social science coding software Atlas.ti (2009). These materials were coded based on the categories of “reactions,” “learning,” and “reflection.” We then observed the different kinds of themes or patterns that emerged in each of those categories. We had more extensive interviews with the participants from Taos Pueblo, so our description will focus on those young people. We will, however, fill in with notes from observations of and conversations with Old Harbor young people when possible.

Reactions

Two kinds of reactions dominated the group’s discourse about their responses to traveling to Old Harbor: excitement over getting to travel to a new and exotic place; and responses to the similarities and differences between the community of Old Harbor and their own.

Some of the first reactions of the participants from Taos Pueblo related to the wonder of traveling to and being in a completely different place. Prior to the trip, few of them had done much

traveling outside New Mexico. To them, the trip to Old Harbor, which included three flights within the continental United States, one flight on a smaller plane to Kodiak Island, and a final flight on a 10-seat bush plane to the fishing village, was both exhausting and awe-inspiring. One participant said: “Well it took us forever to get out here but we’re finally out here and I gotta say it’s amazingly beautiful” (*personal communication, August 7, 2008*). Many commented on the beauty of the Kodiak Island setting as well as relished the new activities they attempted for the first time: kayaking, fishing for salmon, seeing puffins, and sewing seal skins. In this context, traveling to Alaska was “exciting and fun” (*personal communication, August 10, 2008*).

As soon as we arrived at the village, Taos Pueblo young people sought out a few young men from Old Harbor who were sitting at the village dock. Right away, they engaged in serious conversation, and began to learn about life in this distant community. In interviews during the trip, Taos Pueblo young people began to reflect on the similarities between Old Harbor and their reservation community back in New Mexico. One participant made a comment about the hospitality of Old Harbor:

It’s just welcoming when people from here treat you really good and tell you hello, welcome, come into my home. It’s just the way of Native people I guess. Meeting one Native to another. Feels good. It feels like, like you’re all part one, you’re all of one people. And that’s how it should be from now on to days to days (*personal communication, August 9, 2008*).

While on the dock, the young people also talked about some of the more difficult problems that both communities face. They engaged in a conversation about the young man from Old Harbor who passed away in an alcohol-related incident. Taos Pueblo youth shared stories of losing friends and relatives under similar circumstances. One Taos Pueblo participant said, “We’re just kind of mingling with the people because they’re having the same kind of issues that we’re having back home with young people and substance abuse and a lot of the hardships that we’re going through” (*personal communication, August 7, 2008*). Teacon Simeonoff told the Taos Pueblo participants that these conversations were important for Old Harbor young people too. He told the Taos youths: “To hear that some of those older teens [from Old Harbor] want to come out here to visit you guys is um, like a

big step forward in the prevention program” (*personal communication, August 8, 2008*).

We believe that both of these initial reactions provided important foundations for the experience of the trip. The exoticness of the location offered a setting that forced participants out of their element, and into a space where they could break from normal patterns and begin to reflect. The exchange aspect gave participants from Taos a window to view issues they face from a new vantage point—to see from the outside how young people from another community experience and deal with very similar problems.

This exchange aspect was also important for young people from Old Harbor who participated in the program. Living in a remote fishing village accessible only by boat or small plane, they can easily feel alone in the problems they face. Being able to interact, share stories, and observe commonalities with an American Indian community from so far away, gave these young people a chance to feel less isolated in their experiences. Comments from both Taos Pueblo and Old Harbor youth suggest that the program elicited new feelings of Native solidarity, like they are all “part one.” These kinds of realizations and connections can be an important source of strength as participants move forward in their lives.

Learning

In our program analysis, we found that learning was multidirectional and took place in many different settings. We observed three distinct kinds of learning: participants learning from coleaders; participants from Taos Pueblo and Old Harbor learning from each other; and coleaders learning from participants.

Our program featured conventional teaching and learning in which coleaders led discussions and activities aimed at teaching young people about particular subjects, activities, or experiences. Teacon Simeonoff from Old Harbor was excited to teach young people about traditional activities. He said: “[This is] our first time having people from off island or even out of state. A great experience for me to get a chance to really teach somebody how to do some traditional hunting and fishing” (*personal communication, August 9, 2008*). He showed the Taos Pueblo young people and other coleaders hunting, fishing, carving, and music-making techniques. He also described the history of Kodiak Island and the Alutiiq villages.

Flowers Espinoza took the opportunity to teach young people from her own community of Taos Pueblo about “[her] own sobriety

and [her] challenges that [she's] had to face" (*personal communication, August 10, 2008*). Around the campfire and in small-group discussions, she talked with participants about difficulties and benefits of her decision to lead a sober lifestyle. Laurie Richmond, from academia, spent time discussing some of the political and ecological challenges that this region of Alaska faces. In small-group sessions over maps of Kodiak Island, she taught participants from Taos Pueblo about the impacts of climate change on the region, the effects of the Exxon Valdez oil spill, the status of fish stocks in the area, and how changes to the political structure of the regional fisheries have affected Alaska Native fishing communities.

Young people from Taos Pueblo and Old Harbor also had the chance to learn from one another. In small unstructured conversations, they taught each other how they have related to issues they face. They also taught each other about regional ecology. While on the Old Harbor dock, a young person from Old Harbor showed the Taos Pueblo young people a halibut that he had just caught. He then proceeded to dissect the fish and talk about its biology, opening the stomach to show the young people the types of food that halibut eat. Another young man from Old Harbor came over to the camp and took some of the Taos Pueblo participants fishing in his skiff. He taught them fishing techniques, and showed them places to catch different kinds of fish. At the end of the trip, two Taos Pueblo participants wondered to each other: "I bet if we lived here we'd have our own skiffs too."

Our analysis shows that learning also happened in another direction. Participants taught the coleaders a number of important concepts. When Teacon began sitting and carving with young people from Taos Pueblo, they shared techniques with one another. Some of the young men had already done extensive carving and they passed their ideas on to Teacon. In a unique hybrid of techniques, one Taos Pueblo young person combined Teacon's methods with his own carving ideas to carve himself a bone nose ring. The young men presented Teacon with a traditional Taos Pueblo flute. They taught him about songs and playing styles from their region. The Taos Pueblo participants also shared some of their ideas for dressing a deer when they worked with the coleaders to skin and carve a deer that was caught during a morning hunt.

In addition to passing along skills, the young people taught the trip leaders much about their lives and the unique challenges they face. The structure of the program provided spaces for leaders to actively listen to, and learn from, young people from Old Harbor and Taos Pueblo. For Laurie Richmond, learning about the needs

and challenges of people in Old Harbor from this important but often overlooked generation provided important additions to her research about the experiences of the fishing community. Teacon Simeonoff, who works for Old Harbor's prevention program, indicated that prior to this experience, he felt that the 16–21 age group was hard to connect with because it is “really hard to try to help somebody that is not willing to accept help” (*personal communication, August 8, 2008*). Participating in the program and spending time with these young people helped him contemplate better ways to reach out to young adults from Old Harbor. Daniela Di Piero learned about some of the difficulties of the youths' home lives and struggles with the drug court system. This will enable her to shift the design of her nonprofit organization to better react to the unique needs of the young people it serves.

Reflection

Meaningful reflection cannot be forced. In planning, we hoped to develop a structure to allow reflection by participants. When we sat around the campfire in the anecdote recounted at the beginning of this article, one of the coleaders suggested that everybody speak about a reaction to their experience on the trip. Instead of presenting one superficial reaction, as we went around the circle, the Taos Pueblo young people, unprompted, began to delve into some of the most difficult issues that they were facing in their lives. They talked in depth about struggles with drug and alcohol addiction, deaths of friends, the difficulties of living in two very different cultures, concerns for the future, and the meanings of this program. We observed several common themes in the type of reflection that took place among participants and coleaders both during this campfire discussion and throughout the program.

Many of the participants from Taos Pueblo expressed that prior to coming on this trip they were in a bad state—either partying too much or falling away from the directions they hoped to take their lives. One participant said:

I can relate to what she was talking about, that feeling of wasted time, just wasting away, you can feel it, it's an awful feeling. That's how I was feeling before I came out here. I just kind of said . . . you know, I'm not gonna do nothing. I'm just gonna be like everybody else. I'm just gonna be, just living the highlife. Whatever. You know, rez life (*personal communication, August 8, 2008*).

Another participant said: “I think I’m falling out of it lately, not doing much, but living every weekend. It’s kind of getting to be a real bad habit.” (*personal communication, August 8, 2008*). Two other participants expressed similar sentiments, that before the trip they had fallen into bad patterns from which they hoped to break.

Much of the discussion among the participants and coleaders included references to the importance of culture as a source of strength. One participant from Taos Pueblo discussed how important it was for him to become involved in his own Native religion. He said, “I was initiated, started dancing and doing all the activities that we do. That kind of—that opened my eyes a lot, and I really appreciated being who I am. Being Indian” (*personal communication, August 8, 2008*). Flowers Espinoza, the coleader from the community of Taos Pueblo, shared her feelings about the incredible power and opportunity of the Taos Pueblo culture and religion:

“Much of the discussion among the participants and coleaders included references to the importance of culture as a source of strength.”

“What we have, like some of the wisdom . . . ancient wisdom, that’s I mean, people all over, like scholars, people that are trying to achieve Ph.D.s, that’s what they’re trying to achieve . . . I hope that like you see that” (*personal communication, August 8, 2008*). In this

quote she expressed her feelings that Taos Pueblo tribal members possess an inherent wisdom about the world that is so valuable that scholars and academics are attempting to conduct research to attain that same level of wisdom. Coleaders and participants also talked about the strength gained from involvement in material cultural practices, in “creating something that’s beautiful, making something with [your] hands” (*D. Di Piero, personal communication, August 10, 2008*).

Participants also reflected on how the specific experience of a travel-based exchange program provided them with an important “break” from their home lives as well as a time to take stock and get “back on track.” One young man said, “I don’t want to say this was like an escape, but in some ways it was. I was going through some pretty hard times, and I just needed to get away and get my head screwed on back straight and this was the perfect chance to do that” (*personal communication, August 9, 2008*). A Taos Pueblo participant said that the trip gave her an opportunity to “take a look inside of yourself and start to realize things that you never would realize if

you were in the same position like being home all the time. It kind of makes you a little bit unselfish, a little bit more 'cause it takes you out of your element and puts you into something so new and fresh, and it just helps you grow—helps me grow” (*personal communication, August 10, 2008*). One young man said that after the program he will “hopefully go home and not fall into the same trap,” (*personal communication, August 8, 2008*) expressing a desire to change his life as a result of this experience, but also recognizing how difficult his life patterns will be to break.

Another common theme among different kinds of participant reflection, was a feeling of the importance of a group—or “energy within a group”—and a newfound desire to help others. Near the end of the trip, participants referred to each other as “brothers and sisters.” One young woman commented that this group experience gave her connections with others and a chance “to have a voice,” both of which “makes things easier,” so she does not have to “get so low.” Many also expressed how, as a group interacting with young people from Old Harbor, they discovered an impetus to “reach out” to others. One Taos Pueblo young person expressed it in this way:

It’s huge coming out here and seeing that these young people here have the same problems that [we have] back home. This is where it starts, just little, you know like a group like this but, you know, you see that there is people out there that you know, they’re not the only ones going through it. We can come out and help them out by just talking to ‘em about it (*personal communication, August 10, 2008*).

Outcomes and Transformation

When you set goals as elusive as hoping to achieve a “transformative experience” for engagement program participants, it can be difficult to measure whether success was realized. Moreover, with participants that come from difficult home situations, it is important not to have unrealistic expectations about the potential impacts of an outreach program. We believe that follow-up conversations and involvement with program participants are important, in order both to achieve transformation among participants and leaders, and to understand its nature. Daniela Di Piero and Flowers Espinoza remained in Taos following the program, and had important follow-up conversations and interactions with participants. They continue to work with the young people

on a number of different activities. Laurie Richmond and Teacon Simeonoff remained in Old Harbor after the program, where they observed and conversed with Old Harbor youth about their experiences.

Most prominently, on April 9, 2009, seven months following the Alaska trip, we held a follow-up event in Taos, New Mexico. At the event, Taos Pueblo participants discussed their experiences and presented the documentary *Alaska Through Taos* to the Taos community. Over 100 Taos community members, including family and friends of the participants and Taos Pueblo leaders, attended the event. We used transcripts from the speeches that participants and coleaders made to the community along with notes from continued conversations with and observations of participants to describe the ways that participants and leaders were transformed by this engagement program. We believe that dialogue, statements, and behavior of the participants indicate that the experience of the program was transformative and had a lasting impact.

Several months after the program, one participant discussed the ways that she had incorporated the experience into her home life. She said that learning some of the environmental challenges Old Harbor faced, such as those from the Exxon Valdez oil spill, “opened my eyes to issues, to environmental issues.” She said that learning about the importance of these kinds of issues “made me see who I was going so far away from” and made her want to “finish school.” These kinds of comments suggest that the trip has led her to make meaningful changes in the path of her life. Participants also talked about how the experience brought them closer together, which gave them a new network of people to rely on when they returned home. Referring to the conversation highlighted at the beginning of the article, one participant said:

There was one time we were sitting around the campfire and just—I guess you could say it was like a therapy session in a way except you were talking with all your friends and not some strange lady. But just doing that, and expressing what you have inside—a letting go all of your troubles, and it really brought all of us closer together. You know we’re not just friends now, I’d consider all of these people, you know, brothers and sisters (*personal communication, April 9, 2009*).

Participants also discussed how the relationships, discussions, and reflections they experienced during the program helped them

to develop a new set of skills to deal with challenges they faced at home. One younger participant stated that there were “tools that we discovered there that we didn’t know we had,” which could also be used to help out friends and family who “didn’t make it on the trip.” This statement expresses two things. First, the trip led participants to develop new life-tools for dealing with complicated home issues. Second, the transformations and tools developed on the trip could be extended beyond the individuals who embarked on the trip. They were able to bring their experiences and learning home to pass on to family and friends.

Laurie Richmond, a coleader situated in Old Harbor, also described some of the changes that she observed in Old Harbor young people who participated in the program. She said, “I know a lot of these kids [from Old Harbor] had sort of retreated and after these guys [from Taos] left, kids that I had not seen go fishing and hunting were actively out, were helping the elders, were starting to reengage in their life.” She observed positive changes in the actions and attitudes of Old Harbor young people in response to interactions with the Taos visitors. In follow-up conversations, we learned that following the program, two young people from Taos and one person from Old Harbor had significantly reduced their use of, and reliance on, harmful substances.

Transformation was not limited to the young people. At the April 9th event, Laurie said, “I think a lot of time we might talk about these transformative experiences in terms of the young people. But I think that Flowers, Daniela, and I can all attest that this was an incredibly transformative experience for us” (*personal communication, April 9, 2009*). Leaders talked about developing a newfound understanding for young people, and the “grace” and “tenacity” with which they face an array of challenges. One leader said, “I didn’t expect that it would become like a friendship, the way that it really was” (*L. Richmond, personal communication, April 9, 2009*). All leaders discussed how they had not only become proud of the young people who came on the trip, but that their experiences gave them new insights into the experiences of young people around them as

“Leaders talked about developing a newfound understanding for young people, and the ‘grace’ and ‘tenacity’ with which they face an array of challenges.”

well as a network of young friends to draw from as they face new challenges in their lives.

Conclusions

Based on our experiences with this exchange, we have contemplated ways that we might improve upon and extend our program activities. We found that a loose programmatic structure was effective at giving participants the space to reflect and develop their own visions for the program. After talking to some of the young participants, however, we learned that they actually would have been open to more structured teaching and discussions about important issues in the region. They were not as averse to more lecture-based styles of engagement as we had anticipated. If we repeat the program, we will likely work to schedule more structured activities and lectures.

We also observed that the transformation benefits of the program extended much more to the young people who traveled from Taos Pueblo than to those from Old Harbor. By traveling to a new place, young people from Taos Pueblo were forced out of their element, and given a break from their home lives. Later, they had the opportunity to bring these experiences home, and share them with their community. Young people from Old Harbor did not have the same opportunity. We are therefore working on completing the circle of the exchange by arranging for several young people from Old Harbor to travel to Taos Pueblo to engage in a similar exchange experience.

We believe that this outreach case study can provide much insight to other academics and community leaders looking to work with young people in the age range 16–21. We believe the program contains specific elements that contributed to its success in engaging and transforming troubled teens.

Collaboration was essential to the success of this project. Academic, nonprofit, and community-based leaders all provided key contributions. It was important to work with nonprofit and community-based individuals who have developed a relationship and trust with the young people, and are involved with them on a continual basis. Trust was essential for real, open engagement from the participants. Continued involvement of community and nonprofit leaders was important to ensure that reflection and transformation was maintained after the program ended. The *follow-up* presentation where participants presented the documentary film about the exchange (*Alaska Through Taos*) and talked about the

program to family and friends was important for solidifying the positive effects of the exchange.

We believe that the *small scale* of the program was integral to its success. While there is often pressure from funders and foundations to reach out to increasing numbers of individuals, we stress the importance of small-scale engagement. Because only six young people from the community of Taos Pueblo participated in the program, we were able to develop a level of trust, support, and rapport that would not have been possible in a larger group. This contributed to the diverse and meaningful kinds of reflection and learning that made transformation possible.

Finally, we feel that *exchange* can be a very effective engagement strategy with young people from this age group. Daniela Di Piero has developed exchange programs and service-learning projects as significant components of her nonprofit's young adult transformation and rehabilitation activities. Comments from participants continually highlighted the significance of being in a different place to act as a break, to open their eyes to the world, and to reflect on their lives in a comparative way.

With all the constraints of an academic career, it might be difficult for individual researchers to imagine ways to meaningfully engage with the communities in which they work. It is especially difficult to develop strategies to connect with young adults from difficult home backgrounds. This Native Youth Exchange program shows that through collaboration with a small number of participants, this type of engagement is realistic and can have meaningful impacts on young people who face difficult challenges. Also, in these types of engagement activities, learning and transformation need not be limited to the young participants. It can also extend to the coleaders. In our case, it extended to everyone who took part in this unique shared "chapter." As one coleader put it: "This trip is just a thread that has tied us all together, and I think that no matter where we go, we'll always sort of know and have this connection with one another."

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Endnote

1. Movimiento is a youth-oriented nonprofit organization based in Taos, New Mexico. Movimiento's mission is to nourish a youth movement for learning and social change through local agriculture, social entrepreneurship, indigenous youth initiatives, and international solidarity work. Movimiento helps young people explore and connect with nature, meaningful work, indigenous ways, community, self-inquiry, and leadership. Movimiento empowers young people to imagine and implement creative responses to the challenges of our time, transmuting depression into purpose, conflict into fierceness, pain into compassion, and grief into wisdom.

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About the Authors

Laurie Richmond is a Ph.D. candidate from the University of Minnesota in the Department of Fisheries, Wildlife, and Conservation Biology. Her work explores the intersection of native and scientific interests in natural resource management. She works in the village of Old Harbor on an environmental history project exploring Alaska Native interests and experiences of change in the Pacific halibut fishery. Prior to conducting research in Old Harbor, she worked for the Taos Pueblo environmental office as the water quality specialist.

Daniela Di Piero is executive director and founder of Movimiento¹.

Flowers Espinoza is youth advocate at Casa de Corazon, a Taos-based, youth and family advocate organization that works to change the life trajectories of troubled youth. She is also an enrolled member of the Taos Pueblo Indian tribe. She is a strong cultural leader and advocate for young people in her community.

Teacon Simeonoff works for the Old Harbor Tribal Council Tribal Youth program, which is part of the Communities Prevention initiative. This program organizes culturally relevant activities and programs aimed at increasing cultural awareness and survivorship skills among young people in Old Harbor, Alaska.

Margaret Aurelia Faraday is a young filmmaker living in the San Francisco Bay Area. She became involved with Movimiento's Old Harbor/Taos Pueblo cultural exchange program through the Bioneers Conference in San Rafael, California. She was the director, writer, and producer of *Alaska through Taos*, a documentary about this exchange program. Clips from her films can be found at <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AlYJKuPyvWM&feature=channel>.

BOOK REVIEWS

*Theodore R. Alter, Associate Editor
The Pennsylvania State University*

Sirianni, C. (2009). *Investing in Democracy: Engaging Citizens in Collaborative Governance*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press.

Review by Lionel J. Beaulieu

By watching cable news networks, listening to radio talk shows, and reading national surveys of adult residents, one could easily conclude that Americans are becoming increasingly disillusioned about key decisions being made in the chambers of U.S. Congress or in state capitals across the nation. Certainly, the emergence of the Tea Party movement, with its anti-government rhetoric and fiscal conservatism platforms, has struck a favorable chord with a growing number of Americans. It could be argued that such a movement is a visible symbol of an increasing desire by citizens to be heard on decisions having direct bearing on their economic and social well-being. So, does the Tea Party movement signal a rebirth of civic activeness in the United States?

If a recent national survey is correct, the answer is an unqualified “no.” Released by the National Conference on Citizenship in 2009, the study finds that investments by individuals in the civic health of their communities is waning, a finding that is consistent with those reported by Putnam (2000, 2007), Barker and Brown (2009), and Skocpol (2002). The National Conference on Citizenship (2009) report concludes that Americans are suffering from “civic foreclosure”—a propensity to disinvest time and resources in community-minded organizations, or in activities that are intended to improve local conditions.

In light of the ongoing debate regarding the civic strength of communities, it is welcome news to find a recently published volume that seeks to create a culture of civic involvement in a variety of government-led and community-based venues. Written by Carmen Sirianni, *Investing in Democracy: Engaging Citizens in Collaborative Governance* embraces the central premise that “the vitality of our democracy ultimately depends on our willingness and ability to find productive ways of working together as citizens and stakeholders of our republic, despite our many differences” (p. x). In Sirianni’s view, the spark for promoting substantive and meaningful roles for citizens in problem-solving and policy activities is government—be it at the local, state, or federal level.

Certainly, the belief that government should be the key catalyst for promoting an active citizenry could be easily dismissed by those who are disenchanted with the current performance of government leaders. Sirianni, however, offers a compelling argument regarding the necessity of government operating as the centerpiece of efforts

to spur a civic renewal in our nation. As he states in Chapter 1, despite the good intentions of community-minded associations and philanthropic organizations, these entities lack the staying power, the long-term commitment, and the level of resources needed to create a milieu in which civic democracy emerges as the cultural fabric of local and extralocal initiatives. It is strategic investments by government, he argues, that offer the best hope of revitalizing the civic infrastructure, and of advancing the capacity of a diverse and broad-based corps of citizens to solve the tough, complex, public problems facing our communities and nation.

In Chapter 2 Sirianni articulates the eight core principles of collaborative governance, elements that “empower, enlighten, and engage citizens in the process of self-government.” Using observations from his own empirical research and that of several others, Sirianni makes clear that a vibrant civic democracy does not require the presence of all eight elements. Rather, it depends on employing the right mix of principles that best fit the context and the unique policy problems being addressed.

Sirianni advances eight elements as the nucleus of collaborative governance and policy design.

1. *Coproduce public goods*: Policies should be the product of ordinary citizens working in tandem with public servants and other professionals on the development of such policies.
2. *Mobilize community assets*: The talent, skills, and resources of people and groups needed to solve problems are present in the community already, but are too often overlooked, unrecognized, or unappreciated; taking the time to identify and mobilize these underutilized assets is crucial.
3. *Share professional expertise*: Individuals serving in public administrative or other professional roles should empower citizens to be key actors in problem solving and should embrace the knowledge that citizens bring to the table.
4. *Enable public deliberation*: Involvement of a wide array of people in a careful and reasoned examination of tough issues should be promoted via the use of deliberative or study circles approaches; elected officials and public administrators can benefit from the unique

insights and perspectives generated by the public as a product of these activities.

5. *Promote sustainable partnerships:* Establish ties with individuals, organizations, and other stakeholders to build trusting relationships and establish important partnerships; work together to promote better policy activities and outcomes.
6. *Build fields and governance networks strategically:* Government should seek to broaden the sets of players who can work in a complementary fashion to solve complex public problems.
7. *Transform institutional cultures:* The mindset of institutions and organizations should be modified to ensure that citizens are embraced as full partners and coproducers of strategies for solving problems.
8. *Ensure reciprocal accountability:* The full spectrum of actors—stakeholders, elected officials, public administrators, and ordinary citizens—should promote collaboration and mutual accountability for actions designed to tackle key issues.

The most impressive aspect of Sirianni's treatment of these eight principles is the way he draws from a wide array of theoretical and empirical studies to shape them. Among the research literature he taps is the social capital framework proposed by Putnam (especially the focus on the bridging components of social capital), the asset-based community development concepts advanced by Kretzmann and McKnight (1993) as well as the public deliberative process advocated by the Kettering Foundation (<http://www.kettering.org>), and Everyday Democracy (<http://www.everyday-democracy.org>).

The next three chapters in *Investing in Democracy* detail case studies, with Chapter 3 giving focus to neighborhood empowerment in Seattle, Washington; Chapter 4 to youth civic engagement in Hampton, Virginia; and Chapter 5 to efforts by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency to carry out its role as a civic enabler. These chapters document the unique manner in which the eight core principles detailed in Chapter 2 have played out in these three settings. Chapter 3 offers a fascinating portrayal of Seattle's efforts to invest in civic work in more than a dozen neighborhoods. Sirianni paints a detailed picture of the major advances by the city to give voice to a broad array of people and localities,

and the setbacks that occur when a new wave of local government leaders, with less passion for collaborative governance, takes office. He discusses the creation of the Department of Neighborhoods, the establishment of district councils, the launching of a neighborhood matching fund, the establishment of community gardens, the role of neighborhoods in developing the city's comprehensive plan, the funneling of resources to neighborhoods to help implement aspects of that plan, and efforts by city government to strengthen the decision-making capacity of neighborhood residents. As Sirianni notes, "Seattle's neighborhood system of district councils, matching funds, community gardens, and neighborhood planning embodies the core principles of civic policy design" (p. 106).

Equally impressive are the efforts undertaken by Hampton, Virginia, to develop a milieu where youth are seen as legitimate actors in community improvement activities (showcased in Chapter 4). For nearly two decades, Hampton has had the goal of empowering local youth. Sirianni does a superb job of depicting the range of activities undertaken by the community in its quest to create a vibrant "youth civic engagement system." He describes the impressive array of actions that young people have spearheaded as members of the Hampton Youth Commission, as partners with the local planning department, and as members of the superintendent's and principals' youth advisory committees. Critical to the success of these efforts has been the belief held by local government officials, school leaders, civic groups, and nonprofit organizations that youth are their "partners, co-producers, and stakeholders."

The final case study (Chapter 5) examines efforts by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to transform itself from a "command and control" entity to a "community-based environmental protection" agency. In this chapter, Sirianni showcases the efforts by the EPA to spur citizens and local communities to play central roles in the development of watershed conservation and management plans, and in guiding the Superfund and environmental justice programs. Sirianni comments that the "EPA has invested strategically to ensure that citizens and civic groups have an ample toolbox appropriate to the task at hand, not just the regulatory hammers . . . but also the civic levers and linchpins, the clamps and the couplings; not just the hardware but also the software to enhance civic and professional intelligence for collaborative work" (p. 165). As the author makes clear, such a transformation is not simply a matter of encouraging local people and groups to have a voice on important environmental issues; it is also necessary to give

them the understanding and skills needed to engage in collaborative governance with the EPA.

Sirianni outlines the ups and downs associated with the EPA's efforts to serve as a civic enabler. This is both the strength and weakness of this chapter. Given the complexity of the EPA's programs and activities, as well as the number of administrative players, staff members, and working groups, the reader can easily lose sight of the central points that Sirianni seeks to convey. Thus Sirianni's penchant for detail obfuscates his key message about the diversity of the EPA's civic work.

Sirianni's final chapter affirms his belief that government can serve as the principal enabler of effective civic problem solving and engagement. He proposes three federal government initiatives that are needed to revitalize our democracy: (1) establish a White House Office of Collaborative Governance, an office that promotes the development and effective implementation of a civic mission within all federal agencies; (2) implement, via executive order of the president of the United States, the requirement that all federal departments and agencies develop a civic mission and take steps to implement such a mission; and (3) expand investment in the Corporation of National and Community Service so that it can work in tandem with federal departments and agencies to implement their civic missions, goals, and strategies. As he asserts, the crisis of democracy cannot be stemmed or reversed without government as a critical partner.

Although Sirianni is sincere in his belief that the three macro-level strategies he outlines in Chapter 6 can reverse the unhealthy state of America's civic activeness, I wonder if such strategies can have much impact on the civic vitality of our nation. In my humble opinion, the seeds of civic capacity are more likely to bear fruit when they are planted, cultivated, and nourished at the local level—in the urban, suburban, and rural communities that dot the landscape of our nation. Sirianni's final chapter gives limited attention to the front lines of civic engagement: efforts by local governments and communities to promote collaborative governance. It is an unfortunate shortcoming of an otherwise excellent volume.

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JHEOE Associate Editor for Book Reviews, Ted Alter (who is Professor of Agricultural, Regional, and Environmental Economics at Penn State), and Editor, Trish Kalivoda (who is Senior Associate Vice President for Public Service and Outreach at the University of Georgia) thank Brookings Institution Press, for providing complimentary copies of the book for this review.

Mitchell, K. (Ed.). (2008). *Practising Public Scholarship: Experiences and Possibilities Beyond the Academy*. West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Review by Frank Fear

P*ractising Public Scholarship* is a volume of autobiographical vignettes—of 20 scholars describing and interpreting their engagement journeys. The chapters are written as intensely personalized narratives, presented candidly and emotionally, with a compelling sense of purpose.

Most contributors did not begin careers as engaged scholars, editor Mitchell tells readers: “They were pulled into [this work] . . . rather than seeking it out” (p. 3). As engagement immigrants, these scholars have important things to say, especially in terms of what they have learned about themselves and their work. There is “intellectual schizophrenia” (p. 3), as Mitchell calls it, in many stories, expressions of confusion and uncertainty—of being pulled in different directions, confronting critics, and responding to self-proclaimed feelings of professional inadequacy. Some contributors battle an identity crisis: What am I doing? Why? Where is this work going? Am I foolish for doing it? One after another, the authors attempt to answer a basic question: Who am I?

Some readers might find perplexing the disquieting nature of the authors’ narratives. “Engagement isn’t always this way,” some might conclude: “This is neither the engagement I do nor the feelings I have about the work. What’s up here?”

The genesis of these stories is related to the writers’ identities: by personal declaration these are “public intellectuals”—mostly humanists with a scattering of social scientists and communications scholars—whose work is dedicated to matters of social justice. The challenge each resolves through this work is finding a satisfying and workable way to continue one’s career as “a credible scholar” and, at the same time, to make palpable contributions to “the cause.”

These public intellectuals are scholar-*activists*, not scholar-*practitioners* like most engaged scholars. The difference between activist and practitioner is a matter of politics. Mitchell expresses it this way: “My sense is that what creates a public scholar is related to a profound urge to participate and intervene in the political practices of the world—to fight injustice or correct misinformation or provide a needed service—in short, to try to make the world a better place, corny as that may sound. But is this desire compatible with the academic project?”

Painfully, many contributors find that it is not. Not a single story ends, however, with that conclusion. One after another, contributors tell us that they ended up rejecting the academic default option of pursuing social justice only in private life, thereby keeping one's scholarly work "clean." Alternatively—often at great professional risk and frequently without a clear plan at the outset—they became viable scholars *and* balanced, whole persons. The hyphen (in scholar-activist) comes to have real meaning: scholarship and activism are juxtaposed in mutually enriching ways without either overwhelming (or detracting from) the other.

This realignment effort is especially important for public intellectuals who seek to express their work outside traditional means, an approach that contributor Michael Burawoy calls "organic" (p. 25). In traditional public intellectualism there is scholarship *about* something: scholars study a phenomenon (say, the life circumstances of young people in an inner-city public housing facility), and then share what they learn with academic peers through typical outlets, such as conference presentations, book chapters, and journal articles. Although a considerable amount of public scholarship is done that way (important and good work, at that), it is not engagement. In organic work, on the other hand, a scholar gets involved *in* something through firsthand experience, and the work undertaken is done *with* nonacademic partners. Because of this approach, learning is not only shared with academic peers, it is also used to inform an activist agenda. In working this way, Burawoy says that the organic public intellectual "steps out of the protected environment of the academy and reaches into the pockets of civil society . . . into an unmediated dialogue with neighborhood associations, with communities of faith, with labor movements, with prisoners . . . [in ways that are] likely to be local, thick, active" (p. 25).

When public intellectuals become engaged scholars, that outcome offers more than the opportunity to achieve the goal of the project. At the heart of the enterprise is *hope*. Contributor David Domke explains: "When scholars highlight opportunities for social change, we offer hope. When scholars help people to negotiate systems in ways that more fully honor their humanity, we offer hope. When scholars provide tools that allow people to take greater control over personal and cultural choices, we offer hope. And when scholars drop our detachment and adopt an ethic of engagement, we offer hope" (p. 42). Contributor Katherine O'Donnell adds depth to the portrait of public scholarship: it is about "learning to work cooperatively to construct just, collective responses to the

structural problems we all face—using the tools of our trade to facilitate this work” (p. 67).

Ultimately, the chapters of Mitchell’s book are about blending profession and personhood. “It’s just pure decency,” contributor Walden Bello concludes: “I think one should do something worthwhile with one’s life” (p. 91).

There are many ways to do that, of course. The majesty of this volume is that we are introduced to 20 colleagues who show us how.

About the Reviewer

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JHEOE Associate Editor for Book Reviews, Ted Alter (who is Professor of Agricultural, Regional, and Environmental Economics at Penn State), and Editor, Trish Kalivoda (who is Senior Associate Vice President for Public Service and Outreach at the University of Georgia) thank Wiley-Blackwell, for providing complimentary copies of the book for this review.

Mohrman, K., Shi, J., Feinblatt, S.E., & Chow, K.W. (Eds.). (2009). *Public Universities and Regional Development*. Chengdu, Sichuan: Sichuan University Press.

Review by Joe Sumners

The topic of public university engagement in regional development is both important and timely. In *Scholarship Reconsidered* (1991), Ernest Boyer wrote, “At no time in our history has the need been greater for connecting the work of the academy to the social and environmental challenges beyond the campus” (p. xii). In March 2000, a Kellogg Commission report stated, “The obstinate problems of today and tomorrow in our nation and world . . . must be addressed by our universities if society is to have any chance at all of solving them” (p. 20). Governments around the world increasingly are looking to universities as engines of economic growth and social development.

Public Universities and Regional Development provides an important contribution to our understanding of such university engagement in communities, both in the United States and around the world. The volume represents an ambitious undertaking by its editors, Kathryn Mohrman, Jian Shi, Sharon E. Feinblatt, and King W. Chow. It highlights case studies focusing on 15 universities in seven different countries—Australia, China, Mexico, Portugal, Sweden, Great Britain, and the United States. A total of 44 authors contributed to the book.

In her introduction to the edited volume, Sharon E. Feinblatt describes “regional development” as a much higher level of university engagement than “outreach” or “university-community partnerships.” She depicts regional development as “a long-term commitment to a public agenda benefiting the greater region in direct collaboration with other regional stakeholders” (p. 4).

Feinblatt identifies four overarching themes in university-community regional development: economic development, social development, environmental development, and communication and technology development. Many of the succeeding chapters provide case studies that highlight each of these categories. *Economic development* chapters examine university-community engagement related to downtown revitalization, neighborhood enhancement, and regional poverty reduction, with case studies from Arizona State University, The Ohio State University, and Sichuan University (China). *Social development* chapters look at university-community collaborations related to youth, elderly and family services, and student engagement in economically distressed

communities, with case studies from the University at Albany (State University of New York) and Cornell University. Chapters focusing on *environmental development* include cases from the University of Guadalajara (Mexico) and Louisiana State University. *Communication and technology development* case studies focus on engagement efforts at Texas Tech University and Lulea University of Technology (Sweden). Other chapters take a more comprehensive look at regional development in particular settings, including Portugal (Center for Higher Education Policy Studies), Australia (Monash University), Great Britain (the University of Newcastle), China (Chongqing University and Nanjing University), and the United States (University of Utah).

In their description and analysis of the 15 case studies, the editors and contributors identify several key factors common to successful university engagement in regional development, including (a) university commitment, leadership, and passion; and (b) university and community partners who share power in a reciprocal, mutually beneficial relationship. The authors also emphasize the importance of developmental context.

The factor that most contributes to success of university engagement in regional development is the presence of institutional leadership and commitment to engagement. However, while there recently has been increasing interest in “university engagement,” the term is ill-defined and overused. The many public universities that claim to be “engaged” institutions vary greatly in how aggressively they actually respond to the needs of communities and citizens. In a 2007 study looking at European policies toward regional development, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) described university engagement efforts as “sporadic rather than systematic” (p. 12). One unique contribution of *Public Universities and Regional Development* is its detailed depiction of these varying levels of university commitment to community engagement, based on an adaptation of Barbara Holland’s levels of commitment to service matrix (Kenny, Simon, Kiley-Brabeck, & Lerner, 2002). Despite the heightened rhetoric about university engagement, the authors conclude that rhetoric exceeds reality and that engagement is not sufficiently appreciated, documented, evaluated, or rewarded—as compared with teaching and research.

Unlike many of their counterparts, the universities showcased in this volume do not view community engagement as “a peripheral ‘do-good’ activity, but [as] a significant contributor to the university’s core missions of teaching and research” (Mohrman, p. iv). University leadership sends a clear, consistent message that

addressing regional needs is an important component of the university's core public mission. Engagement is thus incentivized, rewarded, and adequately and consistently funded.

A second key determinant of success in regional development is the existence of a dynamic relationship in which university and community partners share power in a reciprocal, mutually beneficial way. Much of what universities claim as "engagement" is more properly defined as "community outreach": the university connects with the local or regional community in a one-way transaction from the university to the community, rather than a two-way process with shared development and decision making. Community stakeholders will be much more inclined to follow through on strategies and solutions they help to create and in which they have a vested interest. Importantly, in each of the case studies presented, some funding support came from outside the university.

The authors also demonstrate that the regional context of development has important implications for success. Lessons learned in one country are not necessarily transferable, since universities in different regions face different opportunities and constraints. American experiences and models, for example, are particular to the United States and are not readily applicable even in such European countries as Great Britain and Portugal.

In the United States and Australia, decision-making power lies with states, provinces, and individual universities. Leaders at American public universities, for example, have autonomy to formulate their own mission and vision. In China and Portugal, on the other hand, universities operate under centrally determined missions and policies and can make decisions about regional development only at the operational level.

The primary weakness of the volume is its organization, or rather, its lack of organization. Despite the discussion in the introductory chapter about the book's four overarching themes of development (*economic, social, environmental, and communications and technology*), the editors failed to utilize these themes to organize the book's placement of the case studies. In fact, the sequence of chapters appears random. The six case studies with a more comprehensive perspective were also interspersed throughout the volume with no discernible attempt to group them by principal lesson learned or other common theme. As a result, the chapters seem disjointed, and the volume lacks a progressive flow.

Despite this shortcoming, *Public Universities and Regional Development* does a good job of highlighting a variety of models

for successful university-community engagement from diverse international settings. In *Returning to Our Roots: The Engaged Institution*, the Kellogg Commission (1999) noted, “we can organize our institutions to serve both local and national needs in a more coherent and effective way. We can and must do better.” The case studies highlighted in this volume point the way, and present both an inspiring vision and an important challenge to those of us who work in the field.

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About the Reviewer

Joe A. Sumners is director of the Economic and Community Development Institute at Auburn University. He has over 20 years of experience in university outreach and engagement and is an active consultant, writer, and public speaker. He also serves as technical advisor to the Alabama Rural Action Commission and is a founding member of the Board of Directors for the Alabama Communities of Excellence program. He is currently involved with the Kettering Foundation in research on university-based civic engagement, especially related to economic development.

JHEOE Associate Editor for Book Reviews, Ted Alter (who is Professor of Agricultural, Regional, and Environmental Economics at Penn State), and Editor, Trish Kalivoda (who is Senior Associate Vice President for Public Service and Outreach at the University of Georgia) thank Sichuan University Press, for providing complimentary copies of the book for this review.

Mission

The mission of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement (JHEOE)* is to serve as the premier peer-reviewed, interdisciplinary journal to advance theory and practice related to all forms of outreach and engagement between higher education institutions and communities.

This includes highlighting innovative endeavors; critically examining emerging issues, trends, challenges, and opportunities; and reporting on studies of impact in the areas of public service, outreach, engagement, extension, engaged research, community-based research, community-based participatory research, action research, public scholarship, service-learning, and community service.

To address these needs, the *JHEOE* invites manuscripts in four categories of exploration related to outreach, community-higher education engagement, engaged research, public scholarship, and service-learning.

- **Research Articles** on studies of the impact university-community endeavors have on participating community, faculty, students, or staff members;
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Criteria for Review and Selection

Manuscript submissions are evaluated on the criteria outlined below.

- The appropriateness or fit for the mission of the *JHEOE*;
- The significance in contributing new knowledge (advancing a field of study; or providing best practices or lessons-learned);
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- The readability and flow of the information and ideas presented; and
- Additional criteria are based on the manuscript types: as a research article; as a practice story from the field; as a reflective essay; or as a book review.

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- Not be more than 10,000 words;
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- Include a brief abstract (not to exceed 150 words);
- Be typed, double-spaced throughout, and include block quotes (when necessary) and appropriate references;
- Be formatted using American Psychological Association (APA) style, 6th edition;
- Have photos and graphics submitted as .jpg, .tif, or .eps files, not placed into the Word document. Tables may be placed in Word documents. Precise data for charts must be provided;
- Be formatted and saved in Microsoft Word 2003 or higher; and
- Be read by someone that is not familiar with the topic prior to submission.

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