Vol. 15 No. 4
2011

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

a publication of the Office of the Vice President for Public Service & Outreach
in collaboration with the Institute of Higher Education
The University of Georgia

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

Publisher

University of Georgia

Office of the Vice President for
Public Service and Outreach
Jennifer Frum
Interim Vice President

Institute of Higher Education
Libby V. Morris
Director, and
UGA Vice Provost

EDITOR
Trish Kalivoda

LIBRARY SUPPORT
Andy Carter

PUBLICATION ASSISTANTS
Win Blair
Julia Mills
Katie Fite
Drew Pearl

Associate Editors

Theodore R. Alter
The Pennsylvania State University

Hiram E. Fitzgerald
Michigan State University

Scott J. Peters
Cornell University

Elaine Ward
Dublin Institute of Technology

Editorial Board

Jorge Atiles
Oklahoma State University

Karen Bruns
The Ohio State University

Jeri Childers
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Sherwin L. Davidson
Portland State University

Amy Driscoll
Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

Henry J. Findlay
Tuskegee University

James Frabutt
University of Notre Dame

Eric Fretz
Regis University

Sherrill B. Gelmon
Portland State University

Philip Greasley
University of Kentucky

J. Matthew Hartley
University of Pennsylvania

Barbara Holland
Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis

Audrey J. Jaeger
North Carolina State University

Edna McBreen
University of Connecticut

George L. Mehaffy
American Association of State Colleges and Universities

Charles R. Nash
University of Alabama System

KerryAnn O'Meara
University of Maryland-College Park

Valerie Paton
Texas Tech University

Judith Ramaley
Winona State University

John Saltmarsh
University of Massachusetts Boston

Lorilee R. Sandmann
University of Georgia

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

Volume 15, Number 4, 2011

Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved.
ISSN 1534-6102

Table of Contents

Planning, implementing, and assessing a service-learning project can be a complex task because service-learning projects often involve multiple constituencies and aim to meet both the needs of service providers and community partners. In this article, Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) evaluation model is recommended as a framework to systematically guide the conception, design, implementation, and assessment of service-learning projects, and provide feedback and judgment of the project's effectiveness for continuous improvement. This article (1) explores the CIPP evaluation model's theoretical roots and applications, (2) delineates its four components, (3) analyzes each component's role in a service-learning project's success, and (4) discusses how the model effectively addresses Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice. This article illustrates the application and evaluation of the model in a teacher-education service-learning tutoring project.

Essays

While exploring the current challenges facing academic institutions and the needs of their scholars to make their work relevant in the lives of university constituents, the author advocates for a reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship by outlining an 8-step process that considers the importance of transformation, immediacy, and relevance in academic research in the field of human service.

The United States has lost ground internationally as a leader in educational attainment. Personal empowerment, national economic progress, and democratic ideals are enhanced through education, yet inequalities persist in the educational attainment of certain groups, such as low-income families or underrepresented minorities. Because the evolving economic landscape increasingly demands a diverse, highly trained, and well-educated labor force to fill the kinds of jobs required of the information age, the United States cannot afford to let large portions of its population languish educationally. Higher education outreach efforts to engage communities and promote the broad embrace of a college-going culture are seen as vital to achieving increased educational attainment.

Book Reviews

From the Editor's Desk . . .

News About the Journal

This year was a significant year for the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*. We moved from a print-based, subscription-fee platform to an online, open access platform. This could not have happened without the hard work of four University of Georgia (UGA) staff members: Drew Pearl (the graduate assistant for the *Journal*), Andy Carter (Librarian for the Digital Library of Georgia) at UGA's library, and Julia Mills and Katie Fite in the Office of the Vice President for Public Service and Outreach (the founding UGA administrative unit for the *Journal*).

In this first year online, the *Journal* experienced significant growth. Compared to the number of submissions at the same time in 2010, the *Journal* has received nearly 40% more submissions. The acceptance rate for 2011 is 18.9%.

With the move to a web-based platform, we are especially proud of making all past issues available on the *Journal*'s website. This required coordination and careful, tedious work by Julia Mills, and our undergraduate intern, Win Blair. The exciting result of the web-based platform, and the uploading of all articles since 1996 is that we can now measure the impact of the *Journal* by tracking the number of visits to the *Journal*'s website, and the number of manuscript downloads. At this writing, the *Journal* has had more than 15,000 unique "visitors" to the *Journal*'s website, and almost 88,000 PDF-formatted articles have been downloaded.

In other news, KerryAnn O'Meara completed her term as an associate editor. She will continue as an editorial board member. Our sincere thanks to KerryAnn for her leadership – especially during the transition between editors. KerryAnn is an outstanding scholar, and we are grateful for her continuing to share her wisdom and expertise with us as a board member.

We close the year on a high note, and look forward to 2012.

About this Issue

The three research articles in this issue focus on students. Audrey Jaeger, Lorilee Sandmann, and Jihyun Kim report on a qualitative inquiry about the advisor-advisee relationship for doctoral students doing university-community engagement related dissertation studies. Robert Bleicher and Manuel Correia explore a teaching strategy called "small moments" for encouraging reflection by undergraduate students participating in course-based service-learning activities. Guili Zhang and colleagues at East Carolina University propose a framework for guiding the design, implementation, and assessment of service-learning endeavors.

The two essays in this issue focus on the importance of university-community engagement for addressing society's difficult, complex problems. Malcolm Smith proposes an 8-step process to make academic research more relevant and accessible to communities. William Collins writes about the Center for Education Outreach at the University of Michigan. The Center represents a university-community partnership with educators, students, and parents. The goal of the partnership is to create a college-going culture among youth that are currently underrepresented in college enrollments, are low-income, and who will be first-generation college-goers when they matriculate.

Associate editor Ted Alter, slated four book reviews for this issue.

Michel M. Haigh, associate professor at The Pennsylvania State University, reviews Nancy Baron's book, *Escape from the Ivory Tower: A Guide to Making Your Science Matter (Island Press, 2010)*. Baron, the outreach director of COMPASS (Communications Partnership for Science and the Sea) offers suggestions to scientists for how to communicate their research findings beyond the academic environment (e.g., journalists, policymakers, the public).

Beth Walter Honadle, a professor of planning in the College of Design, Architecture, Art, and Planning at the University of Cincinnati, reviews Gregory S. Prince, Jr.'s book, *Teaching Them to Challenge Authority: Educating for Healthy Societies (Continuum International Publishing, 2008)*. In the book, Prince, retired president of Hampshire College (1989 to 2005) calls on professors to teach students how to advocate for their strongly held beliefs by modeling the behavior in the classroom.

John Louis Recchiuti, a professor of History at Mount Union College, reviews Cecelia Tichi's book, *Civic Passions: Seven Who Launched Progressive America (and What They Teach Us) (The North Carolina Press, 2009)*. Tichi, a professor of English at Vanderbilt University profiles and analyzes the lives of seven Progressive era reformers.

Ken Martin, a department chair in Extension at The Ohio State University, reviews Nancy Folbre's book, *Saving State U: Why We Must Fix Public Higher Education (The New Press, 2010).* Folbre, a professor of economics at the University of Massachusetts details the historical events and policy steps that have led to public higher education's current challenges.

I hope that you find these articles and book reviews interesting and useful. They reflect the careful thought, dedication, and scholarship of 18 authors from 10 institutions.

This fourth and final issue for Volume 15 (calendar year 2011) also represents wisdom and time of the *Journal*'s associate editors, editorial board members, and guest peer reviewers (note that a list of all guest reviewers in 2011 is printed in the back pages of this issue) as well as the dedication and hard work of staff in the University of Georgia's Office of the Vice President for Public Service and Outreach. I extend sincere appreciation for each individual who graciously gives of her/his time and expertise to collectively produce the *Journal*.

With warmest regards,
Trish Kalivoda
Editor

RESEARCH ARTICLES

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 5, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Advising Graduate Students Doing Community-Engaged Dissertation Research: The Advisor-Advisee Relationship

Audrey J. Jaeger, Lorilee R. Sandmann, and Jihyun Kim

Abstract

A critical dimension in the development of emerging community-engaged scholars is the advisor-advisee relationship during the student's doctoral degree program. A qualitative study of four doctoral students interested in doing community-engaged dissertation research, and their advisors, identified five characteristics of such relationships: (1) background and experience matter; (2) faculty advisors and advisees are co-learners; (3) the advisor-advisee relationship can approach a synergistic state; (4) faculty advisors often serve as interpreters and interveners; and (5) community-engaged dissertation studies often lack "structural" support. The findings suggest two practical steps for faculty advisors to take when mentoring doctoral students who are doing community-engaged dissertation studies: (1) be sensitive to, and learn from, the community experience of one's advisees, and (2) intentionally model mutuality and reciprocity.

Introduction

Faculty members are being called on to reframe their conventional understanding of teaching, research, and service in the academy to include the "scholarship of engagement"—to become "engaged scholars" who practice "community engagement" *(Boyer 1990, 1996)*. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching *(2008)* defines community engagement as "collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities . . . for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity." Engaged scholarship is often framed within Stokes's *(1997)* "Pasteur's Quadrant": that is, doing use-inspired research, in collaboration with community partners, that builds on basic research while improving practice.

Though the expansive nature of community-engaged work is evident on campuses across the country, many disciplines still do not endorse or conduct community-engaged scholarship. This lack of involvement in the face of increasing recognition of community-engaged scholarship in higher education provides a faculty development opportunity, especially in preparing future faculty members during their graduate education *(Applegate, 2002; Bloomfield, 2006; O'Meara & Jaeger, 2007)*. While students are coming to graduate programs with both interest and experience in community-engaged work, there are few opportunities intentionally included in graduate programs to develop the knowledge, skills, and orientation needed for such work *(O'Meara & Jaeger, 2007)*.

Historically, graduate education prepares students for their role as researchers *(Braxton, Luckey, & Helland, 2002; Golde & Dore, 2001)*. Doctoral students, most often trained at research universities, are encouraged to narrowly focus their research interests and to develop specialized skills *(O'Meara & Jaeger, 2007)*. Doctoral students typically graduate with a limited understanding of, or limited experience with, the diversity of roles faculty members play, particularly in the area of community engagement *(Austin, 2002)*.

The authors posit that faculty advisors of doctoral students often misunderstand or misrepresent community-engaged scholarship. As a result, they may suggest that their advisees postpone community-engaged work until their dissertations are complete or even until they have secured tenure. Such messages can dissuade graduate students from seriously considering community-engaged academic careers.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between doctoral students who are doing community-engaged dissertation studies and their faculty advisors. Specifically, the authors examined how an advisor's perception of engaged scholarship shapes and influences the scholarship and practice of an advisee. The study also explored factors (e.g., resources, coursework, and personal and career goals) that influence the scholarship and practice of doctoral students who are doing community-engaged disseration studies.

Literature Review

The authors looked to the literature on advisor-advisee relationships, mentoring, and university-community relationships to ground their study.

The Advisor-Advisee Relationship

Among the factors that influence graduate student academic development and learning experiences (e.g., collegiality and curriculum), research has consistently shown that advising is one of the most significant variables associated with academic success *(Anderson, Oju, & Falkner, 2001; Boyle & Boice, 1998; Golde, 1998; Haworth & Bair, 2000; Malaney, 1988; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005)*. Golde *(1998)* interviewed 58 doctoral dropouts (students who did not complete their degree programs), and found that one underlying factor of dropout behavior was difficult relationships with faculty advisors. Haworth and Bair *(2000)* identified five learning and teaching practices that contribute significantly to graduate student intellectual development. One of the five practices was individualized mentoring. Advisee mentoring was found to be a positive predictor of research productivity and self-efficacy for doctoral students *(Paglis, Green, & Bauer, 2006)*. Despite the significance of advising in graduate education, "graduate students do not receive focused, regular feedback or mentoring" *(Austin, 2002, p. 113)*. Advising and mentoring are critical to what Gardner *(2009)* calls "a journey toward independence" *(p. 70)*. Gardner adds that as students begin a new phase in their doctoral program,

"Advisee mentoring was found to be a positive predictor of research productivity and self-efficacy for doctoral students."

> They experience both the transition to this phase as well as a great deal of ambiguity regarding the expectations for this phase of their development. The ambiguity then feeds into the need for self-direction, to compensate for this ambiguity during the transition. Support, however, can mitigate some of the negative experiences within this experience. This is to say, faculty and administrative support may alleviate some of the ambiguity through clear expectations and guidelines *(p. 76)*.

In short, faculty advisors play an important role in advising students through doctoral work, yet limited research addresses the advisor-advisee relationship *(Paglis et al., 2006)*. More commonly discussed is the role of mentoring.

Mentoring

The value of mentoring continues to gain recognition, and is widely accepted in the literature as well as in practice *(Cohen, 1993)*. Crisp and Cruz *(2009)* note that mentoring has become a national priority, as demonstrated by hundreds of formalized programs and practices that include mentoring components. Though the mentoring literature is more extensive than research on advisor-advisee relationships, Crisp and Cruz in their review of mentoring literature suggest that research on mentoring is largely atheoretical, and that limited progress has been made in implementing a consistent definition of mentoring. More than 50 definitions of mentoring were identified in Crisp and Cruz's review. According to Jacobi *(1991)* and Crisp and Cruz *(2009)*, commonalities among some of these definitions include characteristics such as (1) a focus on growth and accomplishment of an individual; (2) provision of broad forms of support (e.g., professional and career development assistance, role modeling, and psychological support); (3) relationships that are both personal and reciprocal; and (4) relationships that may be informal or formal, long- or short-term, planned or spontaneous.

The authors of this study feel that having a "personal and reciprocal" relationship *(Crisp & Cruz, 2009; Jacobi, 1991)* is rarely operationalized in the advisor-advisee mentoring relationship. A mentoring relationship that is reciprocal implies that the relationship is complementary, matched, or perhaps equivalent. The authors contend that few characteristics of a typical faculty advisor-doctoral student advisee relationship are reciprocal. Rather, the authors perceive that a traditional relationship is more hierarchical—the faculty expert and the apprentice advisee. In Roberts's *(2000)* comprehensive exploration of two decades of research on mentoring, he discussed mentoring "as a formalized process whereby a more knowledgeable and experienced person actuates a supportive role of overseeing and encouraging reflection and learning within a less experienced and knowledgeable person, so as to facilitate that person's career and personal development" *(p. 162)*. This description does not support the idea of a complementary or equivalent relationship. Blackwell *(1989)*, another scholar who has studied mentoring, suggested an even more hierarchical description of mentoring as "a process by which persons of a superior rank, special achievements, and prestige instruct, counsel, guide, and facilitate the intellectual and/or career development of persons identified as protégé" *(p. 9)*. Again, this definition does not suggest a relationship based on reciprocity.

In Crisp and Cruz's *(2009)* review of literature between 1990 and 2007, they suggest four latent constructs that are present in a mentoring relationship but are difficult to measure: (1) psychological and emotional support (e.g., listening, providing moral support, identifying problems, providing encouragement); (2) support for setting goals and choosing a career path (e.g., review and exploration of interests, abilities, ideas, and beliefs; stimulation of critical thinking; reflection; the offering of suggestions; the challenging of perspectives); (3) academic subject knowledge support aimed at advancing the mentee's disciplinary knowledge (e.g., helping the mentee acquire necessary skills and knowledge; educating, evaluating, and challenging the mentee; establishing a teaching-learning process; intervening on behalf of the mentee; providing visibility; taking blame and shielding from negative publicity; supporting the mentee's dream); and (4) support as a role model (e.g., the mentee learns from the mentor's present and past actions; the mentee observes the mentor as a leader). Although the authors believe this conceptual definition is both comprehensive and helpful in understanding advisor-advisee relationships, they feel it lacks the critical component of reciprocity. In short, the literature presented above describes only part of the relationship that exists between advisors and advisees. To address the missing dimension of reciprocity, the authors turned to the literature that examines community engagement related to community partners.

University-Community Relationships

To understand university-community relationships, the authors drew on the work of Bringle, Clayton, and Price *(2009)*, who suggest that university-community relationships reflect a continuum, from awareness of the relationship on one end to shared and synergistic goals on the other. University-community relationships are based on equity, mutuality, and trust. University-community partners (community members, faculty members, staff, and students) work collaboratively to address issues and concerns as co-learners, co-educators, and co-generators of knowledge *(Gelmon, Holland, Seifer, Shinnamon, & Connors, 1998)*. When conceptualized in these "co" roles, not only are faculty members understood as in some way analogous to students (as learners), but they are performing work that involves, perhaps even requires, learning from and with those who have traditionally been cast as the recipients of faculty expertise *(Jameson, Clayton, & Jaeger, 2011)*. These "co" roles are counter-normative and require a perspective shift *(Clayton & Ash, 2004)* away from traditional faculty advisor-advisee relationships that often involve power dynamics and hierarchy.

Saltmarsh, Hartley, and Clayton *(2009)* suggest a democratic approach to partnerships that integrates the knowledge and expertise of faculty members, community members, and students, thus offering a voice for all partners in the identification of questions or problems as well as solutions *(Jameson et al., 2011)*.

> The norms of democratic culture are determined by the values of inclusiveness participation, task sharing, lay participation, reciprocity in public problem solving, and an equality of respect for the knowledge and experience that everyone contributes to education and community building *(Saltmarsh et al., 2009, p. 6)*.

The authors believe that supplementing the constructs of mentoring as defined by Crisp and Cruz *(2009)* with concepts related to university-community relationships offers the opportunity to more fully understand advisor-advisee relationships for graduate students doing university-community-engaged scholarship.

Method

An interpretive qualitative research design *(Maxwell, 2005)* was selected for this study to allow for deeper examination and understanding of the ways that faculty advisors and their doctoral advisees learn about, and practice, community-engaged scholarship. A multicase study *(Yin, 2001)* was used to compare patterns of engagement knowing, and activities (1) of the individuals, and (2) of the advisor-advisee pairs. Institutional Review Board approval was obtained prior to data collection.

Background on the Study Participants

Purposeful sampling *(Patton, 2002)* was used for this study. Four pairs of doctoral graduate students and their faculty advisors who were participants in the Houle Engaged Scholars Program, an 18-month program to train engaged scholars *(Sandmann & Jaeger, 2008)*, constituted the sample. Selection criteria for the Houle Engaged Scholars Program *(Miles & Huberman, 1994)* included (1) interest in community-based, community-collaborative scholarship, and (2) commitment by the graduate student to an engaged scholarship dissertation. Each advisor-advisee pair was from one of three large research-extensive universities that intentionally support scholarly university-community engagement endeavors. The four advisor-advisee pairs came from diverse disciplines—adult education, communications, public administration, and public health.

Data Collection

The authors conducted individual one-hour semistructured interviews with each of the four advisees and three of the faculty advisors. Six interviews were conducted in person; one was conducted by phone. The interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. In addition to the interviews, the four pairs gathered for a videotaped two-day workshop in January 2009. Notes of the workshop conversations were transcribed. A virtual meeting of the four pairs was held in August 2009 via Elluminate, an online learning platform used to create a virtual environment for synchronous interaction among the participants (see http://www.elluminate.com). The virtual meeting's conversation was recorded, and subsequently transcribed. Each of the four pairs met one-on-one with one of the authors for an hour twice during the 18-month period. Notes from these discussions provided additional data. Finally, four posters and one presentation, produced by the advisees for the 2009 National Outreach Scholarship Conference, were examined.

Data Analysis

The constant comparative method *(Merriam, 1998)* was used to identify themes in the narrative data. The data were analyzed in two stages: first as individual cases, and then as advisor-advisee pairings. The three authors independently read the materials that constituted the case for each of the eight study participants and developed individual profiles for each of them. Composite profiles and themes were also developed for the advisor-advisee pairings. Then the authors independently, and as a group, compared profiles within and across each of the data sets. Specifically, they searched the data for regularities, patterns, and general topics. Then the authors recorded words and phrases to represent these topics and patterns and assigned codes *(Strauss & Corbin, 1998)*. Finally, the authors discussed, compared, and combined their analyses *(Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002)*.

Limitations of the Study

There are two limitations to this study. First, only eight participants were involved: four faculty advisors, and four doctoral students who were doing community-engaged dissertation research. Each of the graduate student participants was predisposed to work in the community. Future studies should include a larger sample with a control group of doctoral students who are not predisposed to community-engagement scholarship, nor doing community-engaged dissertation studies.

Second, the authors were the researchers for this study. Two are faculty members who serve as faculty advisors themselves (though not for any of the four graduate students in this study); the third author is a graduate student. The authors conduct as well as study community-engaged scholarship. They were the facilitators of the Houle Engaged Scholars pilot program.

Profiles of the Participants

Profiles of the study participants are described below.

The Four Faculty Advisor Participants

All faculty members were tenured associate professors with a strong community-engagement orientation and deep commitment to mentoring graduate students, but varying levels of departmental support for their work. Overall, the advisors believed that a stronger mentor relationship is needed in advisor-advisee relationships since engagement tends to be more time-consuming than other academic work. Such scholarship may also yield different scholarly outputs, which may or may not be valued by some faculty members and disciplines.

"Overall, the advisors believed that a stronger mentor relationship is needed in advisor-advisee relationships since engagement tends to be more time-consuming than other academic work."

The advisors in this study revealed that they support students doing community-engaged dissertation studies because they feel it their responsibility to help students' success and/or because they consider it their responsibility as scholars. These feelings of responsibility are consistent with the constructs of mentoring discussed by Crisp and Cruz *(2009)*, including psychological and emotional support, support for setting goals and choosing a career path, and serving as a role model. The four advisors exemplified Crisp and Cruz's construct of academic subject knowledge support aimed at advancing students' knowledge relevant to their chosen field, which included intervening for mentees. For example, one faculty member stated:

> I help [her] navigate within the university structure the practices that either enable or constrain her from accomplishing her goals. And that is, in some cases, sort of running guard for students who are doing good constructive [community-engaged] work that will take a long time because you have to develop strong relationships. Practically that means . . . many times explaining to colleagues about this work and account for a graduate student's actions or what appears to be inaction in terms of the length of time it takes to do this [community-engaged] research.

Advisors identified challenges they felt students conducting community-engaged research are faced with, such as obtaining time and funding to do their studies as well as dealing with the dynamics of relationships within the research projects themselves. Advisors acknowledged that promotion and tenure could become a challenge for these potential future faculty members, but felt that this challenge should not deter the students from doing community-engaged dissertation studies. The advisors did not consider themselves experts in community-engaged scholarship. In fact, they highlighted their lack of knowledge of community-engagement literature or resources to support community-engaged work.

The Four Graduate Student Advisees

The four doctoral students were all in or near the candidacy stage in their degree programs. The two female and two male students were between 30 and 50 years of age. They all had a predoctoral study connection with a community, and they believed community-engaged work is essential to who they are as scholars. One student noted

> I believe that as an individual I am part of the community and when the community gains I gain. Additionally, community-engaged scholarship should be driven by altruism as opposed to other external motivations like recognition and rewards. It's the right thing to do.

The four advisees believed that one learns about community-engaged work by doing it and by collaborating with others. Obtaining support for the work, particularly financial support, was a challenge. Other challenges were differences in the goals and needs of the communities versus those of the universities.

The advisees also acknowledged the lack of university support or recognition for community-engaged work. Adequate time to do community-engaged scholarship was also a challenge. Advisees believed that community-engaged work requires communication skills, knowledge about communities (“honor local wisdom”), and a willingness to explore new areas by all participants in the process (faculty members, students, and community partners).

How did the students identify faculty advisors who are involved in or at least familiar with community-engaged scholarship? For the four participants in this study, it occurred variously. One student knew of the faculty member through mutual work in a nonprofit institute, continued to work with her, and eventually asked her to serve on his doctoral committee. Another student was connected in a process more typical to academe. She explained

> Regarding my advisor, I got lucky in part. In my pre-application interview with the director of graduate studies, she advised me to gear my personal statement toward the questions I wanted to explore. Those questions related to community-based organizations and the role of communication in dealing with entrenched social problems. The grad studies committee matched me with Dr. X as an interim advisor because of his background in social entrepreneurship and working directly with organizations on corporate social responsibility. I kept him as my permanent advisor because he was very supportive of my research ideas, and because he was always willing to help me find scholarly resources relevant to my work even when they were outside of his specific area. Sometimes he drew on his professional network outside of the university to connect me with others in the discipline doing related work, and made a point of introducing me to them at national conferences. I think that’s what most people expect of a mentor/advisor, but it’s not always what they get according to some of my colleagues at other places.

The profiles of the study participants served as the foundation for the data analysis, which led to the generation of themes. The themes were subsequently categorized as characteristics of the advisor-advisee relationship.

The Findings

Analysis of the data revealed five characteristics of faculty advisor-advisee relationships for doctoral students conducting community-engaged dissertation research:

1. Background and experience matter.
2. Faculty advisors and advisees are co-learners.
3. The advisor-advisee relationship can approach a synergistic state.
4. Faculty advisors often serve as interpreters and interveners.
5. Community-engaged dissertation studies often lack "structural" support.

The five characteristics are presented below with examples from the study's data.

Background and Experience Matter

First, since the four advisees in the study had significant work experience, their backgrounds made them predisposed to community-engaged scholarship. Their research approach was value driven, as illustrated by their statements such as "honoring local wisdom and positionality" or acting with a sense of "altruism and a giving back to community." They also had a penchant for working as part of a research team versus having a "secluded, silent experience." They saw less relevance in their general graduate coursework, and more in the theory and practice of doing formal research. One advisee stated, "I chose my field because it was a highly practical problem-solving discipline. A great deal of the research is not just curiosity, it's community-based; it's about working with local communities, applying what we know to real problems." Alternatively, another student developed her predisposition to community-engaged scholarship not from working directly in communities, but rather from working in a setting lacking that perspective. She put it this way.

> So my background is biology. I did a lot of laboratory work making drugs in the pharmacy. . . . I was looking for more interaction with people. I had seen research carried out where they (public health practitioners) weren't as involved in the process. The researchers identified the problem, come in and tell them how to

> handle it. So, yes, I came in on the end of wanting to be part of the process and involving them and empowering them to solve their own problems.

For students in this study, life experiences had an impact on the type of dissertation research undertaken.

Faculty Advisors and Advisees are Co-learners

The data revealed that as the advisees built on their own community-based experiences, they pushed their advisors into roles as co-learners about community-engaged scholarship. Advisees worked "with" their faculty advisors rather than "for" them in the pursuit of new knowledge. "With" rather than "for" implies that the student advisees, faculty advisors, and even community members functioned as co-educators, co-learners, and co-generators of knowledge. They shared responsibility, and communicated as equals *(Jameson et al., 2011)*. "Mutual mentoring" is how Stanulis and Russell *(2000)* described a similar phenomenon they observed in a partnership study of teacher-educators, school-based educators, and student teachers. In the university context, "mutual mentoring" requires faculty members to relinquish some control over the teaching and research relationships with their doctoral advisees, thus becoming process facilitators and learners themselves *(Clayton & Ash, 2004)*. A "mutual mentoring" relationship can share two characteristics of engaged scholarship—reciprocity and mutuality. The participants in this study demonstrated "mutual mentoring" relationships.

Co-learning.

The data in this investigation revealed shared responsibility for learning. Students brought to their doctoral research project knowledge of a community from working either in or with the community. The faculty advisors offered an understanding of the university and disciplinary content and research methods knowledge. Each advisor brought expertise to the table but also brought feelings of vulnerability and uncertainty. One faculty advisor's comments illuminate this observation.

> It's not really traditional advising for me. I haven't had that much experience in this [community-engaged] work or trying to convince other people to do it or value it. Students have been sort of coming to me with, I want to do this, so how do I help them?

"Prescriptive advising" *(Burton & Wellington, 1998; Crookston, 1972; O'Banion, 1994)* is a term used in undergraduate education suggesting that advisors provide detailed, specific information to advisees regarding their academic programs. Advising at the doctoral level can be prescriptive at times (e.g., the faculty advisor suggests to the student what courses to take). Faculty advisor-advisee relationships in this study were not focused on the faculty advisors' providing specific, prescribed information to their advisees. Rather, their relationships were more like journeys to build equitable relationships characterized by trust, sharing of expertise, and mutual support. Each individual in the relationship was an advocate for his or her particular perspective, but was also invested in learning more about what the other could offer. In this study, advisors shared course and program requirement information while the advisees served as information sources about community and community-engaged work for the advisors.

Negotiation is part of decision-making.

The doctoral students in this study were not seeking independence. Rather, they sought collaboration with community partners. One participant observed

> Well, for me, it really is about doing the work and doing the research in the community. And with the community. And somehow I really buy the notion of students working with others as part of the learning team. You've got both the research piece addressing a community issue, students learning with the community, and faculty interconnected.

As the reader considers the faculty advisor-advisee relationship through the lens of co-learning, issues about control of decision-making become relevant. How does control of decision-making influence reciprocity and mutuality in the faculty advisor-advisee relationship? In this study, the responsibility was complex, fluid, and equitable. For example, one advisee who had worked in a community-based organization for more than 20 years, wanted to conduct his dissertation in that organization. While this might have been perceived as a conflict of interest by many researchers, the advisor came to appreciate the student's unique status in bridging and interpreting the community perspective, and supported his research project.

The four faculty advisors working with doctoral advisees doing community-engagement research shared decision-making responsibility with their advisees, and communicated more as equals. In these community-engaged research projects, a third decision-making responsibility was present—decision-making was shared with the community partners. One student reported about his research, "On some level I don't make decisions." The procedural and strategic decisions were being made by the community organization's leaders. Another advisor-advisee pair had a similar experience.

> They're [the community partners] the experts in the process. We do posters or manuscripts; they eyeball them before we send them out. We actually have a few who are co-authors on two of our papers. One of those papers talks about community advisory board functions and roles.

Collaboration and shared decision-making best describe the advisor-advisee relationship in this investigation (see Figure 1). The faculty advisors brought to the relationship knowledge of the university, of the discipline, and of research methods. The doctoral advisees brought work experience in or with community sites, organizations, or members.

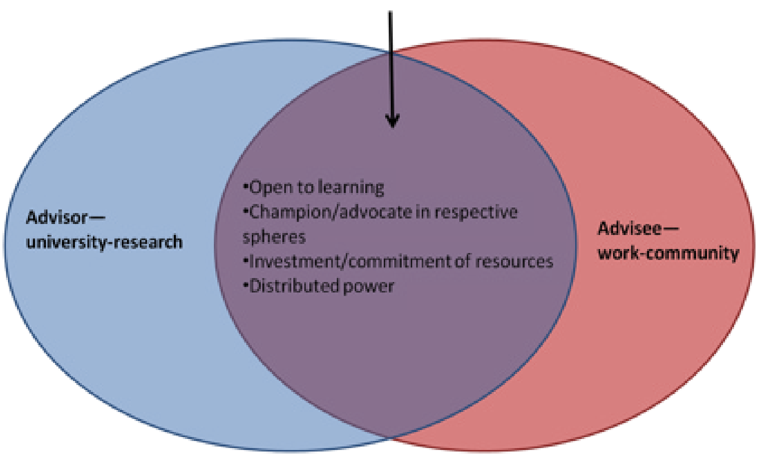

Figure 1. The Engaged Scholar Advisor-Advisee Relationship

The Advisor-Advisee Relationship Can Approach a Synergistic State

The third characteristic that emerged from the data addresses how the four advisees approached their engaged scholarly work, and how they learned from their faculty advisors. One student's comments illustrate.

> [In the research project] I saw . . . how much work was put into just shared decision making and power dynamics between academia and communities. I didn't know you could do that much. There were a lot of bullet points to make this relationship great. So, I think she [the advisor] provided a very good framework on that project for us to then carry out—clinical trial study. . . . I've watched her from the day I walked in the door until the present and she, to me, epitomizes how it should be done.

There appeared to be a synergy between the advisees and their faculty advisors. The faculty advisors and advisees shared similar perspectives about community-engaged scholarship. For example, one student, consonant with his advisor, was more interested in the community than the university perspective and, thus, in understanding the challenging role of developing good relationships with the community partner. Two students, like their advisors, were concerned about connecting their community-engaged research to their disciplines. The fourth student attempted to balance the needs of the community partner with being connected to her discipline. She sought to produce information that was presented to the community in a helpful, understandable fashion and to her discipline through peer-reviewed journal articles. If the advisees and faculty advisors had not shared similar perspectives at the beginning of their relationships, the students might not have undertaken

> *"[T]he faculty advisors' attitudes, beliefs, and values about the role of campus and community in community-engaged research may be incorporated in each student's approach to community-engaged work in a synergistic manner."*

community-engaged research projects. This finding suggests that the faculty advisors' attitudes, beliefs, and values about the role of campus and community in community-engaged research may be incorporated in each student's approach to community-engaged work in a synergistic manner.

Faculty Advisors Often Serve as Interpreters and Interveners

The fourth characteristic suggests that for doctoral advisees doing community-engaged dissertation studies, faculty advisors often serve as sponsors, advocates, mediators, and interpreters for their advisees to other departmental faculty members. For example, faculty advisors can explain the "fit" between the students' disciplinary homes and their community-engaged research projects. They can explain the nature of engaged scholarship, particularly the pacing of students working with communities. They can advocate for support for students' work in terms of funding and acceptance of community-engaged scholarship within the department, college, and university. The theoretical model of mentoring *(Crisp & Cruz, 2009)*, presented in the literature review, describes the mentor role of "intervener." This role appears to be heightened for the faculty advisor of a student doing a community-engaged dissertation study. The four advisees in this study noted the challenges they faced doing a community-engaged dissertation. One commented:

> I have had faculty tell me, I purposefully don't characterize my work this way [as community-engaged] because it's not valued in my discipline or my department, and it would be compromising to my potential for promotion and tenure and reward chances. Every faculty member I talk to, even people who are doing community-engaged research, said they would discourage junior faculty from doing that kind of work if they weren't already doing it.

For the participants in this study, a faculty advisor's responsibilities were even greater when simultaneously challenging the department about what is acceptable scholarship, and advocating for the student. For example, one of the advisors said, "Because [my advisee] is doing something that is not consistent with the discipline, it's being like the liaison, a mediator; I help him make sure that his committee is going to accept that what he's doing is rigorous and solid."

Community-Engaged Dissertation Studies Often Lack "Structural" Support

The fifth characteristic emerging from the data relates to "structural" support (e.g., funding, courses, and professional development) for community-engaged research. This shortage was acknowledged by each of the four advisor-advisee pairs. For example, the faculty advisors and the advisees described a lack of departmental, institutional, and external funding for community-engaged research. The four advisees reported that their coursework did not adequately prepare them for the challenges of undertaking community-engaged research. Both the faculty advisors and the advisees reported the absence of campus-supported development opportunities to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to do community-engaged scholarship.

Implications of the Findings

The findings from this study illuminate the nature of the faculty advisor-advisee relationship for doctoral students doing community-engaged dissertation studies. The advisees' perceptions of community-engaged research were highly influenced by the research methods and perspectives and philosophical beliefs of their faculty advisors. Thus, the authors suggest that more attention be given to supporting faculty advisor-advisee relationships for doctoral students interested in doing community-engaged dissertation research.

Attention to the advisor-advisee relationship raises practical implementation questions, such as: How do advisors learn about community-engaged scholarship? How much do they have to know about it to be supportive? Are more systematic "matching" systems desirable to link graduate students and advisors who are involved in community-engaged scholarship?

Future research should explore how the mentoring relationship incorporates co-learning, mutuality, and equity. Future research should also examine how the process of renegotiating the traditional advisor-advisee relationship occurs. Moreover, a better theoretical grounding is needed to frame the more fluid, co-learning advisor-advisee relationships for students doing community-engaged dissertation research.

Future research should also address such questions as, How does a community-engaged research dissertation affect a graduate student's "time to degree"? How does the socialization of community-engaged advisees occur? How might the students change over time as they develop their professional identities and seek faculty jobs? In addition, what are the effects on advisors? How might an advisor's research agenda change through co-learning and research with advisees?

Conclusion

The findings from this investigation lead to two practical suggestions for the reader: (1) help faculty advisors to be sensitive to and learn from the community experience of their advisees, and (2) encourage faculty advisors to intentionally model mutuality and reciprocity.

Acknowledgment

This research investigation was supported by a W. K. Kellogg Grant through the University of Georgia. Drs. Jaeger and Sandmann and Ms. Kim presented an earlier version of this manuscript at the annual meetings of the American Education Research Association in May 2010, and the Adult Education Research Conference in June 2010.

References

Anderson, M. S., Oju, E. C., & Falkner, T. M. R. (2001). Help from faculty: Findings from the Acadia Institute Graduate Education Study. *Science and Engineering Ethics, 7*, 487–503.

Applegate, J. L. (2002). *Engaged graduate education: Seeing with new eyes.* Washington, DC: American Association of Colleges and Universities.

Austin, A. E. (2002). Preparing the next generation of faculty: Graduate school as socialization to the academic career. *Journal of Higher Education, 73*(1), 94–122.

Blackwell, J. E. (1989). Mentoring: An action strategy for increasing minority faculty. *Academe, 75*(5), 8–14.

Bloomfield, V. (2006). Civic engagement and graduate education. *Communicator, 38*(3), 1–2, 6. Washington, DC: Council of Graduate Schools.

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

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

Boyle, P., & Boice, B. (1998). Best practices for enculturation: Collegiality, mentoring, and structure. In Melissa S. Anderson (Ed.), *The experience of being in graduate school: An exploration* (New Directions for Higher Education, No. 101, pp. 87–94). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Braxton, J. M., Luckey, W., & Helland, P. (2002). *Institutionalizing a broader view of scholarship through Boyer's four domains* (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, Vol. 29, No. 2). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bringle, R. G., Clayton, P. H., & Price, M. F. (2009). Partnerships in service learning and civic engagement. *Partnerships: A Journal of Service Learning and Civic Engagement, 1*(1), 1–20.

Burton, J. K., & Wellington, K. (1998). The O'Banion model of academic advising: An integrative approach. *NACADA Journal, 18*(2), 13–22.

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT). (2008). *Community engagement*. Stanford, CA: Author. Retrieved April 13, 2010, from http://www.carnegiefoundation.org/classifications/index.asp?key=1213

Clayton, P. H., & Ash, S. L. (2004). Shifts in perspective: Capitalizing on the counter-normative nature of service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*(1), 59–70.

Cohen, N. H. (1993). *Development and validation of the principles of adult mentoring for faculty mentors in higher education*. Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI No. AAT9316268)

Crisp, G., & Cruz, I. (2009). Mentoring college students: A critical review of the literature between 1990 and 2007. *Research in Higher Education, 50*, 525–545.

Crookston, B. (1972). A developmental view of academic advising as teaching. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 13*(1), 12–17.

Gardner, S. K. (2009). Contrasting the socialization experiences of doctoral students in high- and low-completing departments: A qualitative analysis of disciplinary contexts at one institution. *Journal of Higher Education, 81*(1), 61-81.

Gelmon, S. B., Holland, B. A., Seifer, S. D., Shinnamon, A., & Connors, K. (1998). Community-university partnerships for mutual learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 5*(1), 97–107.

Golde, C. M. (1998). Beginning graduate school: Explaining first-year doctoral attrition. In Melissa S. Anderson (Ed.), *The experience of being in graduate school: An exploration* (New Directions for Higher Education, 101, pp. 55–64). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Golde, C. M., & Dore, T. M. (2001). *At cross purposes: What the experiences of doctoral students reveal about doctoral education* (www.phd-survey.org). Philadelphia, PA: A report prepared for The Pew Charitable Trusts.

Haworth, J. G., & Bair, C. R. (2000). *Learning experiences that make a difference: Findings from a national study of doctoral education in the professions*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Sacramento, CA.

Jacobi, M. (1991). Mentoring and undergraduate academic success: A literature review. *Review of Educational Research, 61*(4), 505–532.

Jameson, J. K., Clayton, P. H., & Jaeger, A. J. (2011). Community engaged scholarship as mutually transformative partnerships. In L. M. Harter, J. Hamel-Lambert, & J. L. Millesen (Eds.), *Participatory partnerships for social action and research*, 259-278. Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt.

Malaney, G. D. (1988). Graduate education as an area of research in the field of higher education. In J. C. Smart (Ed.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research* (Vol. 4., pp. 397–454). New York, NY: Agathon Press.

Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (Eds.). (1994). *An expanded sourcebook: Qualitative data analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

O'Banion, T. (1994). An academic advising model. *NACADA Journal, 14*(2), 10–16.

O'Meara, K., & Jaeger, A. (2007). Preparing future faculty for community engagement: Barriers, facilitators, models, and recommendations. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 11*(4), 3–26.

Paglis, L. L., Green, S. G., & Bauer, T. N. (2006). Does adviser mentoring add value? A longitudinal study of mentoring and doctoral student outcomes. *Research in Higher Education, 47*(4), 451–476.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Roberts, A. (2000). Mentoring revisited: A phenomenological reading of the literature. *Mentoring and Tutoring, 8*(2), 145–170.

Saltmarsh, J., Hartley, M., & Clayton, P. H. (2009). *Democratic engagement white paper*. Boston, MA: New England Resource Center for Higher Education. Retrieved from http://futureofengagement.files.wordpress.com/2009/02/democratic-engagement-white-paper-2_13_09.pdf

Sandmann, L. R., & Jaeger, A. J. (2008). *Houle Engaged Scholars program: Developing engaged scholars at research universities*. Athens, GA: University of Georgia, Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, & Policy.

Schlosser, L. Z., & Gelso, C. J. (2005). The Advisory Working Alliance Inventory—Advisor version: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*, 650–654.

Stokes, D. E. (1997). *Pasteur's Quadrant: Basic science and technological innovation*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Stanulis, R. N., & Russell, D. (2000). "Jumping in": Trust and communication in mentoring student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 16*, 65–80.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2001). *Case study research: Designs and methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

About the Authors

Audrey J. Jaeger is an associate professor of higher education, and co-executive director of the National Initative for Leadership and Institutional Effectiveness at North Carolina State University. Jaeger's research focuses on current, future, and part-time faculty roles, rewards, and institutional variables that support and inhibit faculty involvement in community-engaged teaching and research. She earned her bachelor's degree from University of North Dakota, her master's degree from Western Illinois University, and her Ph.D. from New York University.

Lorilee R. Sandmann is a professor of adult education in the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy at the University of Georgia. Sandmann's research focuses on leadership and organizational change in higher education and on the institutionalization of community engagement. She earned a her bachelor's degree and master's degree from the University of Minnesota, and her Ph.D. from the University of Wisconsin.

Jihyun Kim is a doctoral student and graduate assistant in the adult education program in the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy at the University of Georgia. Kim's research interests include adult education for social change, social movement learning, alternative knowledge construction in social movements, university-community partnership, and community-engaged scholarship. She earned her bachelor's degree and master's degree from Seoul National University in South Korea.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 27, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Using a "Small Moments" Writing Strategy to Help Undergraduate Students Reflect on Their Service-Learning Experiences

Robert E. Bleicher and Manuel G. Correia

Abstract

This study examines a "small moments" writing strategy to nurture reflection in undergraduate college students participating in a course-based service-learning activity. Using grounded theory methodology to analyze reflection journal entries, the authors identified themes that indicate that, by writing "small moments" reflection journal entries, undergraduate students demonstrate awareness that can build insight, identify discrepancies, increase awareness of community, solve problems, and build confidence. Writing "small moments" reflections allowed the constructivist nature of student learning in a service-learning setting to become visible and evident to both the students and the instructors.

Introduction

This study focuses on teaching reflection, which is the heart of service-learning experiences *(Eyler, 2002; Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthiah, 2004; Nokes, Nickitas, Keida, & Neville, 2003)*. The authors share the concerns of a growing number of university educators for the need to nurture students' abilities to write reflections that are meaningful and educational *(Ash & Clayton, 2004; Chin, 2004; Correia & Bleicher, 2008; Eyler, 2000; Felten, Gilchrist, & Darby, 2006)*. The setting for this study is a service-learning course in which university students provide tutoring for elementary school children in the children's classroom.

In this article, the university students enrolled in the course are referred to as "students," and the elementary school children they work with as "children." The elementary classroom teachers that the university students work with are referred to as "teacher" or "Mr./Ms." The authors who conducted this study are on-site instructors who observe the classroom experiences, and read and respond to reflection journals that students write each week. The researchers are referred to as "authors" or "instructors," as appropriate to the context.

This study was grounded in the literature on small moments and reflection.

Theoretical Framework

Small Moments

Bruner *(1986, 1997)* argues that language is the most powerful tool for organizing experience. Using language, people convey experiences in the personal stories they tell, locating them in time and place. Stories provide a way to shape human emotions *(Egan & Judson, 2009)*, and personal stories of daily lives connect emotions to a story's characters, events, and content. Such connections, in turn, can change or shape insights into a particular situation. Through stories, humans make sense of the world and of experiences that make up their personal and professional lives *(Barton, 2007; Gee, 2007)*. Stories can both entertain and educate. They can provide an intriguing strategy for learning otherwise obscure concepts *(Hill & Baumgartner, 2009)*, or for expressing feelings and views of the world.

Calkins and Oxenhorn *(2005)* created "small moments," a writing strategy aimed at helping young children think about an experience, and then write a brief story about it. By focusing on a small moment, children are better able to harness their experiences into more manageable units. Research on young children learning to write personal narratives has pointed to the importance of classroom social interactions *(Dyson, 1993; Pantaleo, 2009)*. Several studies have demonstrated the positive effects of personal narrative writing on motivation and achievement in at-risk student populations *(e.g., Wellik & Kazemek, 2008)*. Further, children bring their home experiences to bear on their writing *(Dyson, 2003)*.

The authors believe that the benefits discussed above can also apply to adult writers, and that the "small moments" strategy can work well for undergraduate college students writing about service-learning experiences. Much like younger writers, who are sometimes overwhelmed by the prospect of choosing what to write, college students face similar challenges when asked to write about their field experiences. This study extends Calkins and Oxenhorn's *(2005)* strategy to help university students write reflections that allow them to better understand their service-learning experiences. By focusing on a small moment, students are able to write a story about an event, and then reflect on what they learned from their participation or observation. Henceforth, this article refers to "small moments" as a strategy for teaching reflection that integrates Calkins and Oxenhorn's idea of small moments *with* reflection.

It is perhaps easiest to understand "small moments" as used at the college level by providing an example.

Small Moment: One of the boys in class today, Jason, was extremely rambunctious and goofy, even more so than he usually is. I walked into the classroom probably 30 seconds after they got in there and there were instantly tears. I couldn't even get Jason to tell me what was wrong as he was holding his head while sobbing. I took him over to the door to talk to him to see what happened and he explained that he hit the book shelf, holding his head in agony and the tears pouring from his eyes even harder. I told him that he's so tough and brave and to shake it off and I started shaking my whole body trying to get him to laugh just a little or to even get a smile, but that just made him more upset. I told him I would take him to the nurse's office and get some ice for his head. "I don't need ice," he yelled at me, "I just need a band aid." So I walked him to the nurse's office and explained the situation and she agreed he needed some ice.

Reflection: What we have to remember as teachers is children fall and get bumps all the time. Sometimes it is worse than other times and all children react differently to an accident. However the biggest thing is that children have this imagination, like me when I was little and how an ice cream suddenly fixed my problem. We obviously know the ice cream did not fix anything but it got my mind off what happened and made me happy again. This reminds me that no matter how silly an idea might be, once a child has made up in his/her mind, you have to go along with it. As teachers, we must be as imaginative as our students if not more so. I tried to be silly with getting him to shake the pain away, but he did not like that idea. Obviously, patience and having a heart for a child who is crying is needed on almost a daily basis in the classroom.

The above example is indicative of an incident that occurred during a few minutes of a 3-hour service-learning experience. It showcases one interaction among many that the student observed and participated in that day. The small moment is intended to remind the student of the details of the experience, and to provide a context to help instructors understand the reflection and provide feedback to the student.

Writing a small moment alone, however, does not necessarily lead to writing a good reflection. Conversely, writing a good reflection does not assist the student or the instructor if the context, the small moment, is either missing or not vivid. The "small moments" example below illustrates a good small moment with a weak reflection.

> **Small Moment:** I have noticed recently the increase in name calling. The children are in kindergarten and you notice them using new words, words that they have no idea what they mean but have heard from their parents or older siblings. This week, one of the boys at my learning center called a girl a "brat." The girl told me about the name calling. Before I could address the boy, she said that she did not know what "brat" meant. Another girl at the table answered immediately by saying, "It means that she was ugly and did not have friends." Another boy said, "A brat is a doll, a really tall doll at the store."
>
> **Reflection:** What I found most interesting is how offended the girl was at the word, which she did not even understand. The little boy and this girl might not get along, I don't know. I kept it simple, because we were working at the table, and told the other girl that what she said brat meant wasn't true but the boy was correct when he said that there are dolls called Brats. I told all the children that we don't call others names and asked the boy to apologize. I decided very quickly not to give them a definition or any information to encourage them to use the word "brat" again. Besides they had already moved on to a discussion about Chihuahuas, or as one boy called them chiwallas. Kids are great!

The "small moment" example is well-written. The reflection, however, starts off well but is soon interrupted by more small moment details, and thus is not well-developed. The student reverts back to describing the small moment instead of writing a reflection about it. Similarly, a reflection lacking a well-written small moment makes it difficult for both the student and instructor to fully understand what was learned from the service-learning experience.

Writing "small moments" is an important step on the path to making reflections visible to the instructor. Reflection is a key component in helping students attain a course's learning objectives

(Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005). The goal is for students to take their inner world of ideas and beliefs, and make sense of new experiences they are having through service-learning *(Correia & Bleicher, 2008; Dyson, 1997; Eyler & Giles, 1999)*. This type of human activity is often referred to as reflection, and has been the subject of research *(e.g., Dewey, 1938; Polanyi, 1967; Schön, 1983; Sharp, 2003)*.

Reflection

Dewey *(1933)* defined reflective thought as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" *(p. 118)*. Reflection is a mental activity that builds a bridge between the human inner world of ideas, and the outside world of experience *(Hinchey, 2004)*. Service-learning experience becomes educational when reflection guides the student to develop a new understanding of the situation, which, in turn, leads to a change in state of mind and more informed action *(Bringle & Hatcher, 1999)*. The authors posit that the "small moments" strategy helps students move along this trajectory of development.

Learning to reflect on one's own practice is becoming more common in professional settings such as teacher education programs and medical schools *(e.g., Mueller & Skamp, 2003; Levine, Kern, & Wright, 2008)*. As pre-service teachers learn to reflect, they begin to see connections between the theoretical content of university courses, and their visions of future teaching in the classroom *(Gay & Kirkland, 2003)*. A review of research on teacher reflection led Yost, Sentner, and Forlenza-Bailey *(2000)* to conclude that reflection should be developed in undergraduate and graduate pre-service teacher education programs.

"Sharing reflections converts a private mental activity to a socially mediated one, which can support growth in content knowledge, skills, and dispositions."

Higher-order reflection is not a natural ability in most people *(Schön, 1991)*. The authors believe that it is necessary to move students from novice to more insightful levels of reflection. Students can develop reflection skills only if they are provided opportunities to practice reflection that include guided instruction and peer-sharing *(Romer, 2003)*. Sharing reflections converts a private mental activity to a socially mediated one *(Erlandson, 2005)*, which can support growth in content knowledge, skills, and dispositions *(Kroeger et al., 2004)*.

Felten et al. *(2006)* define effective reflection as "a process involving the interplay of emotion and cognition in which people intentionally connect service experiences with academic learning objectives" *(p. 42)*. To achieve this effective reflection, it may be helpful to scaffold students' awareness of their emotions *(Egan & Judson, 2009; Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005)*. Effective reflection, therefore, may help create what Dewey *(1934)* conceptualizes as a reflective state of mind that leads to learning.

Service-Learning Activities

Service activities can be learning opportunities, which can also further inform the students' service *(Carver, 1997)*. In other words, service-learning activities can become serving to learn, and learning to serve *(Levesque & Prosser, 1996)*. The service-learning activities can also increase motivation, reinforce learning of theoretical approaches to teaching and curriculum, and enhance understanding of "real-world" complexity *(Kolb, 1984; Markus, Howard, & King, 1993)*. In short, service-learning activities can bridge the gap between theory and practice *(Billig, 2000)*.

Context of the Study

This research is set in a service-learning course, EDUC 101—Introduction to Elementary Schooling, a three-unit Liberal Studies required course offered at California State University Channel Islands, which has proven to be successful in terms of meeting the expectations of both the university offering the course and a local school district. It is based on the school district's expressed need to have more instructional time provided for English learners and economically disadvantaged children in two elementary schools. Negotiations by the university and the school district resulted in an agreement that the university-community partnership should meet the needs of the elementary school children as well as help the university students attain the learning outcomes of a course *(Bleicher, Correia, & Buchanan, 2006)*. The course aimed at developing healthy student attitudes toward elementary schooling and social situations that occurred in the service-learning experience.

EDUC 101 involved an intertextual integration *(Varlotta, 2000)*, in which the service and the academic components of the course inform each other. Framed using Varlotta's scheme, the setting for this study is full and narrow, which means that for most of the semester all students in the class serve at the same agency (in this case, an elementary school). The service-learning course activities are examined through the lens of educational theories about teaching and learning in elementary school settings. According to Varlotta, the advantages of this type of service-learning experience are that students share a common, ongoing experience that lends itself to class discussion. The extended time they serve allows students to develop and maintain relationships with each other and the communities they serve.

The two elementary schools are in close proximity to the university. Students were placed with teachers to allow for rich opportunities to develop teaching competencies. The teachers have deep knowledge, both theoretical and practical. They can recognize behavior patterns in their students that lead to effective actions *(Berliner, 2004)*. Students build their own knowledge base and conceptual understanding by working with the teachers *(Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000)*. This learning becomes visible in their "small moments" written reflections.

The service-learning course in this study included (1) service activities to help meet important community needs, and (2) structured educational components to challenge students to think critically about, and learn from, their experiences *(Wade, 1997)*. The service-learning activity involved students working in classrooms in pairs one day a week for 3 hours over a 13-week period. After students completed their service in the classroom, they met with their course instructor (one of the authors) for an hour-long seminar at the school site. Each semester, approximately 20 students served at one elementary school and 20 students served at another school with each of the two authors serving as the instructor at the respective school.

Assessment Methods

The goal of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the "small moments" writing strategy in nurturing reflection in students. To achieve this, the authors used an exploratory interpretive research design *(Erickson, 2006)* in which they entered the study with a broad focus, and then narrowed their focus during the data collection and analysis stages.

The Researchers

The researchers, authors of this article, were the course instructors in EDUC 101. The authors assumed the roles of participant observers. They kept field notes while strategically positioned in the field in their natural roles as course instructors and on-site service-learning supervisors. This provided the access required for making firsthand field observations in the most unobtrusive manner. The authors obtained authorization from the university's Institutional Review Board to conduct the study. The authors' biases included a desire to see evidence of reflection in their students. The impact of this on the findings was minimized by prolonged engagement in the field and open discussions with one another about emerging themes in the analysis.

The Study Participants

Participants included 130 undergraduate Liberal Studies majors who enrolled in one of two sections of EDUC 101 over three consecutive academic semesters between the years 2009 and 2010. About 75% of the participants were freshmen and sophomores. Over 80% were female. This was their first service-learning course at college, and reflection activities were new for all but a few. This was a convenience sample that involved all the students enrolled in the courses.

Students signed consent forms to participate in this study, and all aspects of the research were explained. Participation was voluntary. All student names used in this article are pseudonyms to further protect participant identity.

Data Collection Sources

Following the weekly service-learning experience, students went online and wrote their "small moments" electronically on Blackboard (a commercial web-based course management system employed in many U.S. colleges and universities, http://www.blackboard.com/About-Bb/Company.aspx). Instructors were able to access these "small moments," and could also post comments and provide immediate feedback to the students.

Each student made a total of nine journal entries during the semester. For the first two weeks, students followed four prompts (i.e., today I observed, today I participated, today I learned, when I have my own classroom) to acclimatize them to the concept of reflection and writing journals. Initial instructor feedback for the first two reflections was intended to facilitate the nuts and bolts of writing reflections, including expected length and what constituted description versus reflection on observations and actions performed during service work. Instructors also introduced students to the concept of making connections to their own personal beliefs and previous coursework to build their reflections.

This teaching strategy built on previous research the instructors had conducted to help students understand reflection and how to write better reflections *(Correia & Bleicher, 2008)*. By the third reflection assignment, more than 95% of the 130 students understood the basic elements of making connections as well as the differences between description and reflection in journal entries. The data for this study included 780 "small moments" reflection journal entries of the 1,170 written for the nine reflection assignments students were asked to complete.

Data Analysis

The research question was, "What do the 'small moments' reflection journal entries reveal about learning outcomes for the students doing a service-learning activity in EDUC 101?" Using grounded theory *(Corbin & Strauss, 2007)* techniques, the authors analyzed journals for emergent themes about what students were learning. The authors were interested in how students were perceiving their own growth and learning in the service-learning activity. The focus of the study was entirely on the service-learning aspects of the course.

To prepare the "small moments" reflection journal entries for analysis, the authors gathered all journal entries into one document. They independently read through the journal entries and looked for patterns in the "small moments." The first pattern they noticed was that students were writing reflections about particular children involved in an activity with other children. Students noted various types of classroom interactions, such as child-to-child, child-to-teacher, and child-to-student (i.e., university student tutor). Using this as a lens, the authors re-read the journal entries and developed deeper themes within these interactions. These deeper themes tended to be related to conflict, curriculum, or cultural aspects of the children. Discussions between the two authors of prevalent themes were recorded as analytic memos *(Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995)*. Five overarching themes emerged from the data. These themes are discussed in greater detail in the next section.

Findings

The study found that students were able to effectively use "small moments" as a strategy for understanding and reflecting upon their service-learning experience. Five overarching themes emerged from the data.

1. Building insight
2. Identifying discrepancies
3. Increasing awareness of community
4. Solving problems
5. Nurturing confidence

The "small moments" examples provided in this section were selected as most illustrative of the identified themes *(Lesnick, 2006)*. The authors also connect their findings to those from other studies in hopes that the findings from this single study will advance collective evidence of the impact of service-learning upon student learning.

This study provides evidence that the participants wrote reflection journal entries that indicate self-awareness of their learning within the five themes. There is overlap in the themes; the authors found that any one reflection journal entry example could often indicate growth in more than one theme.

Building Insight

"Small moments" helped students build insights into how classrooms are complex learning environments that involve not only curriculum and instruction, but also children's backgrounds and sensitivities. Two students' journal entries illustrate this finding. Student 1, Calvin, reflects on his surprise on learning that so many children at this school came from a military background.

> **Small Moment:** The teacher asked the kids to raise their hands if they had a mom or dad who was away in military service. I would say that about half of them raised their hands. One of the boys said that his dad had been away about two years.
>
> **Reflection:** It was shocking to me to see how many kids come from military backgrounds. It opened my eyes to the fact that you never know where your kids come from. Everyone has different family structures and sometimes not everyone is as fortunate as you.

In expressing that this "opened my eyes," Calvin indicates that his prior beliefs about children in classrooms might need re-examination. Implicit in this examination is an aspect of understanding classrooms in terms of the diversity of children's backgrounds. Understanding that students may come from a different background than the teacher is central to modern theories of multicultural education *(Nieto, 1999)*.

In stating that "not everyone is as fortunate as you," Calvin is expressing insight about his self-perceived privileged familial structure. He is building insight into understanding the implications of knowing that a child he is tutoring is from a background different from his. This reflection illustrates the importance of considering background differences between university students and the people (in this case, schoolchildren) they might interact with in the service-learning setting.

Student 2, Louise, reflects on children's sensitivities.

> **Small Moment:** Today, I worked with Erik who has a problem with the times tables of two. Erik knows the times tables in order but if you ask him the times tables in a disorderly form he won't be able to give you the answer. Erik and I started to practice the times tables of two. As time went by, Erik got nervous and he started stressing out. He continued having the same problem with the times tables and toward the end of the session, he started to cry. At this point, I decided to end the session to give Erik time to calm down.
>
> **Reflection:** From this experience I learned two very important things. First, we should not put too much pressure on students because it can make them nervous and stressed. I believe that the best solution to help a student that has problems with the times tables is to relate it to something that the student likes, and practice the material in sections. The second thing I learned today is that, as a teacher, you need to have lots of patience with the students that have difficulty learning any material as fast as other students. If as a teacher you don't have patience with these types of children you may build a negative perspective toward educating children.

Louise is describing an all too typical situation of working with a child who is struggling to learn and is getting emotional. She demonstrates insight in judging when Erik has had enough stress in the learning situation and takes appropriate action. Louise's insight is an example of Krashen's *(1982)* theory of affective filter.

Louise also demonstrated insight about effective teacher characteristics required to achieve student learning. This is important because it is building insight into creating a successful learning environment for the child. In order to achieve this, Louise takes into consideration the content, emotional state of the child, and teacher characteristics she feels are required to effectively teach this child.

While Calvin considered differences between his own background and the child's, Louise reflects on what it takes to be an effective teacher. Through their reflections, students often demonstrated insights that either validated their current beliefs or caused them to modify those beliefs based on their personal experiences. This is akin to the Piagetian concepts of assimilation and accommodation *(Powell & Kalina, 2009)*. The authors conjectured that "small moments" would connect to one another across the service-learning experience. The final result could be that students either confirm their current insights, or they go on to generate new insights based on their reflections and observations.

In Calvin and Louise's cases, they were gaining new insight by considering either children's backgrounds or sensitivities vis-à-vis their observations or interactions with the children. Such observations can lead to validating the student's current thinking. It is particularly important for service-learning instructors to help students become aware of and shape their insights. On the other hand, changing current thinking can be accelerated by observations that do not fit in with current expectations, often referred to as discrepancies. When expectations are different than expected in a situation, identifying discrepancies becomes more evident.

Identifying Discrepancies

Many "small moments" focused on students' identifying discrepancies between their observations of events in the service-learning setting and their own personal expectations or current thinking about a given educational concept. Identifying discrepancies afforded opportunities for reflection. Student 3, Cathy, observed "out of the ordinary" behavior.

> **Small Moment:** As I was giving instructions, I noticed Katie had taken the scissors and was cutting bits of her hair. All the kids had a big reaction to this, and I asked Katie to put it away. After the activity, I notified Ms. R. She spoke to Katie for a few minutes. She asked her why she cut it, and Katie had no response. Tears began to

well up in Katie's eyes as she realized what she did was wrong. Ms. R told her that if she couldn't use scissors properly, she would not be able to use them at all.

Reflection: I thought this incident was not an easy one for Ms. R to deal with. I really thought Ms. R handled the situation perfectly since what Katie had done was already over. She then learned the consequences of her action and I am almost positive this will not happen again! This moment caught my attention because it was something out of the ordinary, as I have always seen the students in Ms. R's class very well behaved. I felt bad that Katie did this, but I appreciated being able to watch how Ms. R handled it.

Cathy is starting to see the routine of daily activity in the service-learning experience. With this comes the expectation of how things should ordinarily operate. When something challenges expectations, such as Katie's haircutting incident, Cathy notes it as an "out of the ordinary" event. This catches her attention and leads her to focus, which supports reflection *(Bleicher, Correia, & Buchanan, 2006; Dewey, 1933)*. When students notice such events, they are able to form their own theories and draw their own conclusions about why things did not run smoothly. When experienced educators observe a smooth-running classroom, they know that a great deal of planning and energy went into it. To the casual observer a smooth-running classroom might look easy to accomplish. Cathy's noting a classroom event as out of the ordinary is akin to the notion of "breaking the culture." Breaking the culture is a well-researched classroom phenomenon in which a classroom routine has been broken and the disturbance is easily observed *(Dixon & Green, 2009)*. The literature on classroom research would recognize Cathy's insight as a window of opportunity—an opportunity of chaos *(Cazden, 2001)*. She saw it, recognized it, and capitalized on the opportunity for learning by reflecting on it.

While Cathy identified a discrepancy through something happening out of the ordinary routine of the classroom, Student 4, Sue, observed a discrepancy between what she observed in the classroom and what she expected based her own experience as an elementary school child.

Small Moment: Ms. T announced that she needed to talk to students. She was holding half of a crayon box

> in her hand. It had coloring all on the inside of it. She told the students that the crayons they had in their classroom were the only ones they had left and that they needed to be taken care of because if they got destroyed, they wouldn't be able to replace them. The children were all very quiet as she spoke. . . . She then told them to take care of the school supplies, and then she dismissed them for recess. At the start of the day, she had mentioned to me that there was a lack of pencils and they didn't have any more replacements because of the school's budget, so she informed me that I'd probably need to ask the students to use their own pencils from their desk.
>
> **Reflection:** I think Ms. T handled this issue very well. She was kind throughout her whole speech, but firm enough so that her point would get across to her students. She understood that the budget made it difficult to provide the much-needed school supplies for the class, so she needed her students to know that they should take better care of the supplies. I was surprised when she told me that the pencils they had in the supply boxes were the only ones they had left because of the budget. I had taken notice of the poor shape of the crayons and the boxes they came in a few weeks ago, but I had no idea those were the only supplies they had left. It was sad to see how many crayons were broken in half or missing their covers. When I was in elementary school, I don't ever remember having a lack of pencils or school supplies. I always had tons of pencils, and the school did as well. However, my elementary school teachers would also inform their students about taking good care of the school supplies. I remember they would always ask us to return the supplies after we were done using them.

Sue's observation catches her attention because she is surprised about the lack of supplies at this school. This is because she has expectations about what supplies *should be* in a classroom. Those expectations were based on her connecting to her own experiences as a child in elementary school. She recalls that there were always adequate supplies of basics like pencils and crayons. This is an example of making a personal connection in a reflection *(Correia & Bleicher, 2008)*.

Cathy and Sue demonstrated aptitude for identifying discrepancies. This allows students to make a clear comparison between their expectations and what actually happens in a specific situation. This dynamic leads to understanding a specific situation in a broader sense. Students advance in reflection by building insight and developing their ability to identify discrepancies. The next theme involves application of the first two themes to the broader community.

Increasing Awareness of Community

Understanding the importance of community is another theme that was prevalent in students' "small moments" reflection journal entries. In the following examples, students reflect on community from two different viewpoints. Student 5, Cindy, reflects on the importance of building community inside the classroom in the hope that this sense of community will extend beyond the classroom. She reflects on what the teacher does with the children in order to build community.

> **Small Moment:** One thing that stuck out in my mind today is how Ms. L always calls her class "friend" or "amigo." This is nothing new but given today's journal, I started thinking about this phrase deeper than just face value. First of all, the class was kind of hyper today. Off in the corner, one of the students, Joel, was imitating Ms. L. He was saying the word amigo both as a question and as a statement.
>
> **Reflection:** As I sit here and do my reflection, I am thinking of how Ms. L was modeling a desirable behavior (addressing the class as friend or amigo) and the class was picking up on it. She was calling her students friend (or amigo) so as not to create a further dividing line between herself and them. If this behavior is carried out onto the playground she will have a bunch of students whose first instinct is to call someone friend rather than something else. I don't even know if this is her reasoning for calling her class "friends" but I think the application of that gesture will be greater than she will ever know!

A simple classroom practice such as having children call one another "friend" provided an opportunity for reflection. Cindy wondered if this practice could be applied to other settings such as the playground during recess. In pondering this, she is led to make her assumptions and expectations visible in her reflection.

Cindy's reflection indicates her own beliefs about the benefits of building community in the classroom. Ultimately, she is implying that she believes children's addressing one another as "friend" would result in their playing better together with less conflict. This reflection demonstrates Cindy's ability to conceptualize her knowledge in ways that facilitate transfer to new settings. This is an example of what Tobias *(2010)* refers to as generative learning theory.

Student 6, Jose, reflects on how his knowledge of community beyond the classroom can impact the community inside the classroom.

> **Small Moment:** One of the students came in crying from the playground and kept announcing "I'm upset" over and over again. She later came up to me and (me knowing the student from outside the classroom) asked me if I remembered that her dad was coming back this past weekend. I told her I did remember and the tears immediately started flowing, she began telling me that her mom was hoping things would be better when he got back because they had been rocky, but that since her dad got back her parents have just been fighting and she said, "having an autistic brother doesn't help either." This immediately told me what was wrong. I made sure to tell Ms. M what she had told me just to keep an eye on how she acted today.

> **Reflection:** Today I learned that everyone can have a bad day and sometimes it may all be on the same day or it can fall on different days but just because you're having a good day, does not mean everyone else is. You have to be patient and understanding of what could potentially be going on in a child's life outside the classroom or at home. I also learned how important it is to make sure to keep your eyes open and pay attention to the different maturity levels and learning levels of children.

Jose is beginning to see that there is a complexity involved in the school community that goes beyond the immediately observable. He has an inside personal knowledge of the child's family situation, which has been developed outside the classroom. He demonstrates sensitivity to the variation in children's feelings. He discusses the importance of understanding that there might be outside-the-classroom influences impacting a child's feelings in the classroom. While this might seem obvious to educators familiar with elementary classrooms, it is a new understanding for this service-learning student who had little experience in elementary classroom settings.

Understanding community provides students with a better knowledge of the children with whom they are working. This can equip them with a more sensitive approach to solving problems in the classroom. The next theme illustrates how students solve problems within their classroom community.

Solving Problems

Understanding how to solve a problem clears the path for learning to occur and provides input for building insight *(Bransford et al., 2000)*. In the following examples, students reflect on problem solving in the classroom. Student 7, Beth, reflects on her observation of the classroom teacher solving a problem.

> **Small Moment:** Ms. T first called on Rod to come up to the whiteboard and solve a problem using the expanded style of addition. Let's say the problem was 45 + 43. Instead of solving in the expanded style, Rod began solving in the vertical column style, even after Ms. T reminded him to do the other. Instead of writing 40 + 40, Rod just wrote an '8' below where he had written the problem. I wasn't sure what Ms. T was going to do; I didn't know if she would help him and give him the answer or how she would tell him that he was wrong without embarrassing him. Rather than giving Rod the answer Ms. T made him responsible for finding the answer. She asked him to pick another student to help him solve the problem. Rod picked Johanna. After Johanna stood up at the whiteboard and studied the problem for a minute she was able to solve the problem in the expanded form. After seeing Johanna's answer, Rod began to try to explain why he had not gotten the problem correct; why he had just written one 8 rather than expanding the answer to 80 + 8.

> **Reflection:** Rather than telling him he had the wrong answer, or telling him to sit down and then select another student to complete the problem correctly, Ms. T made Rod a part of the solution. By letting him "pick a friend to help him find the solution," Ms. T still left the problem solving up to Rod, just in a different way. I think that Ms. T's solution to this problem with Rod helped to enforce the idea of the class as a community, rather than pitting the students against one another.

Beth's case highlights how service-learning students can learn about problem solving by observing an expert (the teacher) helping children solve problems. The teacher helped a child use multiple resources to sort out the problem he was trying to solve *(Bleicher & Buchanan, 2004)*. A resource could be the teacher or another child. In this case, it was another child. Vygotsky *(1978)* refers to this social interaction as the zone of proximal development, where individuals learn from more capable peers. In essence, the child is solving two problems. He resolved the problem of finding a resource (another child) and, together, they solved the math problem. What Beth is learning about problem solving is that the teacher recognizes the importance of not hand-feeding children. Instead, the teacher uses the classroom community as a resource. Beth learns that it is sometimes necessary to seek other resources to solve a problem. She also comes to understand the importance of community in the classroom and the implication of a strong classroom community as it relates to teaching and learning.

Beth's learning is parallel to the child's in that both required others to arrive at an answer. Beth's reflection exemplifies how she developed new understandings *(Bringle & Hatcher, 1999)*. Beth grew in her understanding that the class can be a community resource, not just a group of children who sometimes interact with one another *(Romer, 2003)*. This learning strengthened her understanding of community and facilitated her building of insight. Beth learned the importance of making children resourceful, and of exploring ways to take control of their own learning.

In contrast to Beth, Student 8, Gloria, reflects on how she solved a problem in a classroom on her own.

> **Small Moment:** Today in class we did an activity called "teddy bear toast," using toast and cookie cutters. Students were going crazy. They were all so anxious to eat the toast, "Can I eat it now?" was the question of

> the day. One little girl insisted on doing the cookie cutter herself without anyone's assistance. So what happens? The head is torn off. She was so upset, the tears welling up in her eyes. I had the idea of a "butter band aid." I gave her the plastic knife and she buttered the head and body. That really didn't work, but she felt better.
>
> **Reflection:** Crisis averted. I learned that with a little creativity any situation could be turned around for the better. I would like to think they are learning life lessons. In this case a little more sympathy was in order. With a little patience and creativity, many more catastrophes can be derailed.

Gloria's example illustrates the importance of patience, flexibility, and creativity in solving problems. Gloria was able to contextualize the learning, and put it into perspective. Gloria saw her role as one of guiding children into safe and pleasant learning experiences. This guidance often requires a teacher's ability to solve problems so that learning may occur. She realized that her job was to prepare students for life as well as for particular academic learning outcomes. Hence, in this example the goal was not so much creating the "perfect bear toast" as finding a creative strategy to mend a broken one.

Beth and Gloria are representative of how students learn to solve problems that they encounter in their service-learning experiences and how they reflect on different strategies. As they move along in their learning, they build more confidence in how to act more effectively with others in the service-learning setting. In a sense, they are progressing in much the same way as novice learners becoming more expert in their thinking and actions *(Berliner, 2004)*. When students begin to solve problems, understand community, identify discrepancies, and build insight, the natural consequence is to nurture confidence in working in the service-learning setting *(Bleicher, 2007)*.

"When students begin to solve problems, understand community, identify discrepancies, and build insight, the natural consequence is to nurture confidence in working in the service-learning setting ."

Nurturing Confidence

Confidence is a necessary ingredient for working with children in a service-learning experience *(Bandura, 2000)*. The following examples illustrate this finding. Student 9, Alex, reflects on her belief that she handled a difficult situation well.

> **Small Moment:** Today Zelda told me, "I have staples in my head." I laughed and said "What do you mean you have staples in your head?" I didn't take her literally. She told me that her little brother was mad at her. Her brother picked up a hammer that was laying on the table and hit her in the back of the head twice. The doctor had to stop the bleeding and put staples in her head. I felt really bad that I didn't take her literally at first. After Zelda explained all this to me, another little girl named Doris shouted out "Gee Zelda you don't have to tell everybody!" Doris was angry at Zelda, there was so much anger in her voice. I told Doris nicely that I really wanted to hear Zelda's story and I was really glad she told me.
>
> **Reflection:** I believe I handled a very negative situation in a very positive way. By telling Doris I wanted to hear Zelda's story, I made Zelda feel important because I wanted to know about her. At the same time I didn't scold Doris for being disrespectful and shouting out. I was very nice. I think I was very understanding and caring when I was listening to Zelda's story. I was quick to think and react to the situation before any feelings were hurt. I believe this situation is something that will occur a lot in the future. I learned how to solve this problem by redirecting it. I am pretty confident in what I did today.

This example illustrates how all four themes previously discussed help develop the fifth theme of nurturing confidence. Identifying discrepancies is illustrated by Alex's showing insight into the importance of not dismissing what children say, regardless of how unrealistic their statements may seem. Alex realizes that as a teacher she needs to weigh information to determine its authenticity.

Alex was learning to solve problems. This is clearly indicated when she wrote, "I learned how to solve this problem by redirecting it." This reflection connects back to Cindy's example of demonstrating the ability to transfer learning from one setting to another *(Wittrock, 2010)*. In Alex's example, this transfer goes further to building a better understanding of the classroom community. She realizes that building community is a crucial element in establishing effective learning environments. Alex is integrating her new understandings about building community with her personal theories about social interactions involved in learning *(Vygotsky, 1978)*.

Student 10, Carmen, reflects on a gratifying moment in the classroom, which did not involve a difficult situation but bolstered her confidence nonetheless.

> **Small Moment:** Ms. D gave me the opportunity to read *There was an old lady who swallowed a bat!* to the children. All the children quickly sat down on the rug and I sat down on the yellow chair. They didn't know I was going to read to them. I grabbed the book and told them a little about the book and began. They were all paying very close attention it seemed they were under a spell. They were all sitting down criss cross applesauce on the rug and looked at all the beautiful illustrations on each page. The book rhymed and it was funny. They enjoyed the book so much that when I said the end they looked at Ms. D and asked if I could please read another one. Luis asked me if all bats sucked blood and Ms. D explained to him that there is one type of bat that sucks blood, but only from animals. Luis was relieved he had seen too many vampire movies that he thought all bats were after his blood.
>
> **Reflection:** As I reflect on having the opportunity to read to Ms. D's first grade class I didn't feel that I was a stranger coming in and reading to them. I felt I was their teacher in some way. I felt comfortable reading to a group of 20 first graders. I really enjoyed reading to them because I had their undivided attention throughout both books. That is very impressive considering their attention span is extremely short!

In the role of instructor, one of the authors noted that Carmen was a little shy and began her service-learning experience working in the classroom in a quiet manner, helping students one-on-one for the most part. Given this beginning, she describes a significant milepost for her in terms of confidence building. The most telling part of her reflection is perhaps her patting herself on the back with her statement, "that is very impressive."

As students deepen their insights and apply them to practical situations, their confidence increases through their service-learning experience. In Alex's example, this is explicit when she stated, "I believed I handled a very negative situation in a very positive way," and "I am pretty confident in what I did today." Carmen expressed it as, "I felt that I was their teacher in some way. I felt comfortable reading." Confidence is a feeling based on deeply held self-efficacy beliefs *(Bandura, 2000; Bleicher, 2007)*. This is one of the most critical growth areas for students who participate in service-learning activities *(Wang & Jackson, 2005)*. Service-learning instructors also hope to see students develop a more general sense of self-efficacy as learners and as members of a democratic society *(Moely, Furco, & Reed, 2008)*.

Conclusion

This study examined a "small moments" writing strategy to nurture reflection in undergraduate college students participating in a service-learning course. Using grounded theory methodology to analyze reflection journal entries, the authors identified themes that indicate that, by writing "small moments" reflection journal entries, undergraduate students demonstrate awareness that they can build insight, identify discrepancies, increase awareness of community, solve problems, and build confidence.

"Small Moments" Strategy Enhances a Regular Reflection Journal Entry

When teaching reflection, it is important to provide a framework that allows students to make their reflections visible in writing for themselves and the instructor *(Correia & Bleicher, 2008)*. Another important function of reflection is to provide a mechanism to look back and describe one's learning *(Chin, 2004)*. "Small moments" illustrates one pathway by which reflection leads to new learning *(Dewey, 1933; Eyler & Giles, 1999)*. Written reflections provide a permanent record that students can revisit for further reflection. This reiterative process allows students to increase their metacognition and strengthen their ability to think about what they have learned *(Ash et al., 2005; Hatcher et al., 2004)*. From such metacognition, students increase in their ability to plan a task, notice patterns, generate reasonable explanations, and draw analogies to other problems. All of this adds up to developing a deeper foundation of factual and procedural knowledge in a specific service-learning experience setting. This is prerequisite to nurturing confidence in students that they can engage effectively with other people in the service-learning experience. Looking forward, students can be expected to learn to reorganize their knowledge in ways that facilitate retrieval and application to new situations *(Tobias, 2010)*.

"Small moments" focus students' attention and learning on a particular event so they have the potential mental space to engage in reflection. Reflection is a fleeting state of mind. Focus provides the time to allow our minds to dwell in a state of reflection *(Dewey, 1933)*. This study promotes the idea that engaging in reflection can allow for insight into how students modify their actions to engage more effectively in a service-learning setting. Students using "small moments" developed a deeper appreciation and understanding of their service-learning experience. This is analogous to the rapid development of writing ability that elementary teachers using Calkins & Oxenhorn's *(2005)* small moments strategy find in their young writers.

Students sometimes report that they do not have new observations or that they are doing the same things and routines after about the fifth week of a 15-week-semester course. They tend to focus on what is the same, not what is different. The "small moments" strategy gives students a tool to focus on what is different. There are many differences, of course, but sometimes only the elementary school classroom teacher or university instructors, as more experienced observers, can see this. The authors discuss this with students and refer to it as establishing a local context that is familiar so that the extraordinary is more visible *(McDermott & Hall, 2007; Siegel, 2008)*. The authors are teaching students to see the ordinary so they can more easily see the extraordinary. The extraordinary nurtures reflection, as students naturally want to know why something is different *(Dewey, 1933)*. Making "small moments" reflections nurtures this skill set.

Using "Small Moments" Enhances Student Development

In this research, the authors have found that a wealth of insight about students can be gleaned from reflection journals when reading them for more than content. Learning to write reflections (so instructors may respond) is an important and practical method in the process of learning to engage in reflection. The authors are certain that when students' ability to express their reflections improves, they are well along the path to making better sense of their service-learning experience, attaining course learning objectives, and becoming more confident. Nurturing the skill of writing reflections makes the internal mental process visible—visible to the student, other students, and the instructor. Making a reflection visible to others means that others can learn what you learned. It allows students to form their own interpretations and build their own insights. Students can also learn what others think about their reflection. This adds a socially mediated element to subsequent reflection writing that builds on this social experience of sharing writing *(Bleicher, Correia, & Buchanan, 2010; Dyson, 1997; Erlandson, 2005; Lave & Wenger, 1991)*. It is good for the student, for other students, and for instructors of reflection.

Findings from This Study Have Resulted in Course Modifications

The authors conclude that writing "small moments" reflections allowed the constructivist nature of student learning in a service-learning setting to become visible and evident to both the students and the instructors.

The "small moments" presented in this article guide us, as service-learning instructors, in teaching reflection. Dewey's *(1933)* notion of reflective thought as active and persistent leads to the conception of the ability to remember an experience as stimulus for the reflection process. "Small moments" inherently build upon one another to create a natural pathway to stimulate a metareflection *(Correia & Bleicher, 2008)*. Students are building a lexicon of reflection markers as they build their "small moments" repertoire. A reflection marker is a word or short phrase that introduces or "marks" the beginning of a reflective thought *(Correia & Bleicher, 2008)*.

Using "small moments," the instructors learned more about how students were developing in their ability to reflect. In addition, they gained insight as teacher educators into students' development toward a teaching career. In order to express their reflections within the "small moments" framework, students were required to provide a detailed context. In that context, instructors were able to glean their understandings in many areas of teacher development, such as home connections to school, learning, and teaching; and managing student behavior. These areas act as typical guideposts in the trajectory of effective teacher education and development. Understanding these guideposts is critical in developing along the teacher career path. The authors are confident that achieving discipline-specific learning outcomes is generalizable to service-learning in other disciplines as well. Service-learning instructors in other disciplines would also be able to gain analogous insights into their students' career trajectories.

The five themes that emerged in this study are important learning outcomes for all service-learning students. Although they were not explicitly stated as learning outcomes in previous courses, the instructors have now included them for future courses. Previously, the authors had focused on delineating student learning outcomes related to teacher preparation content areas. In many ways, they had underestimated the ability of students to learn about such content directly from the service-learning experience.

The instructors argue that "small moments" is an effective strategy for teaching students how to write their reflections. It allows for easy sharing in group seminar that generates rich discussion because it is based on the students' own insights and experiences in the service-learning setting. This teaching approach puts Dewey's concept of interest into action and works well to enliven student participation. The instructors found that they were able to build on this natural student interest to develop content areas in which they had previously found it difficult to engage students. Even if some content areas remain less developed, as in previous coursework, the authors feel that more pervasive learning outcomes such as building insight and nurturing confidence have transferability to the next learning experience provided in subsequent courses and life experiences.

Tacit Strategies for Service-Learning Course Instructors

The immediate utility of this study is in offering a methodology through which service-learning educators can nurture students to produce more reflections, especially in writing *(Schaak-Distad & Brownstein, 2004)*. It also has implications for extending our understanding of the role of reflection in student learning.

Based on this study, the five steps listed below are recommended to guide the teaching of reflection to service-learning students in most settings.

1. Provide a safe environment to allow students to practice writing their reflections at least twice (i.e., provide feedback but do not "grade" their first attempts).
2. Introduce "small moments" to students using a simple example illustrating a brief small moment narrative and then a reflection. Be sure to allow students the space to choose something that really captures their interest and attention.
3. For the first "small moments" attempt, provide individual written feedback about the mechanics as well as the substance of writing a *small moment*.
4. Ask permission, and then share anonymous exemplary "small moments" in class discussions. This offers an opportunity to explore content areas specific to the service-learning setting and student learning outcomes.
5. A note of caution to service-learning instructors wishing to use "small moments": attention needs to be given to developing students' abilities to write both good "small moments" and good reflections. Each component requires a different skill.

In summary, having undergraduate students write "small moments" can be an effective way to extend learning through reflection, especially in service-learning-based courses.

References

Ash, S. L., & Clayton, P. H. (2004). The articulated learning: An approach to reflection and assessment. *Innovative Higher Education, 29*, 137–154.

Ash, S. L., Clayton, P. H., & Atkinson, M. P. (2005). Integrating reflection and assessment to capture and improve student learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*, 49–60.

Bandura, A. (2000). Self-efficacy: Foundation of agency. In W. Perrig & A. Gorb (Eds.), *Control of human behavior, mental processes, and consciousness* (pp. 17–33). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Barton, D. (2007). *An introduction to the ecology of written language* (2nd ed.). Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Berliner, D. C. (2004). Describing the behavior and documenting the accomplishments of expert teachers. *Bulletin of Science, Technology and Society, 24*, 200–212.

Billig, S. H. (2000, May). Research on K-12 school-based service-learning: The evidence builds. *Phi Delta Kappan*, pp. 658–664.

Bleicher, R. E. (2007). Nurturing confidence in preservice elementary science teachers. *Journal of Science Teacher Education, 18*, 841–860.

Bleicher, R., & Buchanan, M. (2004, April). Preservice teachers learning to serve and serving to learn. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the AERA, San Diego, CA.

Bleicher, R. E., Correia, M. G., & Buchanan, M. (2006). *Service learning: Building commitment to becoming teachers*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED494939)

Bleicher, R. E., Correia, M. G., & Buchanan, M. (2010). A service learning model for preservice teacher preparation. In M. A. Cooksey & Kimberly T. Olivares (Eds.), *Quick hits for service-learning: Successful strategies from award-winning educators* (pp. 15–17). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Bransford, J., Brown, A., & Cocking, R. (2000). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

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

Bruner, J. (1986). *Actual minds, possible worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bruner, J. (1997). Celebrating divergence: Piaget and Vygotsky. *Human Development, 40*(2), 63–73.

Calkins, L., & Oxenhorn, A. (2005). *Small moments: Personal narrative writing*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Carver, R. (1997). Theoretical underpinnings of service learning. *Theory and Practice, 36*, 143–149.

Cazden, C. B. (2001). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning* (2nd ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Chin, N. P. (2004). Teaching critical reflection through narrative storytelling. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 10*, 57–63.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2007). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Correia, M. G., & Bleicher, R. E. (2008). Making connections to teach reflection. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 14*, 41–49.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. Boston, MA: Heath.

Dewey, J. (1934). *Art as experience*. New York, NY: Capricorn.

Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. New York, NY: Touchstone.

Dixon, C. N., & Green, J. (2009). How a community of inquiry shapes and is shaped by policies: The Santa Barbara classroom discourse group experience as a telling case. *Language Arts, 86*, 280–289.

Dyson, A. H. (1993). *Social worlds of children learning to write in an urban primary school*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Dyson, A. H. (1997). W*riting superheroes: Contemporary childhood, popular culture, and classroom literacy.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Dyson, A. H. (2003). "Welcome to the jam": Popular culture, school literacy, and the making of childhood. *Harvard Educational Review, 73*(3), 328–361.

Egan, K., & Judson, G. (2009). Values and imagination in teaching: With a special focus on social studies. *Educational Philosophy and Theory, 41*(2), 126–140.

Emerson, R., Fretz, R., & Shaw, L. (1995). *Writing Ethnographic Fieldnotes.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Erickson, F. (2006). Studying side by side: Collaborative action ethnography in educational research. In G. Spindler & L. Hammond (Eds.), *Innovations in educational ethnography: Theory, methods, and results* (pp. 235–258). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Erlandson, P. (2005). The body disciplined: Rewriting teaching competence and the doctrine of reflection. *Journal of Philosophy of Education, 39*(4), 661–670.

Eyler, J. (2000). What do we most need to know about the impact of service-learning on student learning? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 7*, 11–17.

Eyler, J. (2002). Reflecting on service: Helping nursing students get the most from service-learning. *Journal of Nursing Education, 41*(10), 453–456.

Eyler, J., & Giles, D. E. (1999). *Where is the learning in service-learning?* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Felten, P., Gilchrist, L. Z., & Darby, A. (2006). Emotion and learning: Feeling our way toward a new theory of reflection in service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 12,* 38–46.

Gay, G., & Kirkland, K. (2003). Developing cultural critical consciousness and self-reflection in pre-service teacher education. *Theory into Practice, 42*, 182–187.

Gee, J. P. (2007). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourse* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Hatcher, J. A., Bringle, R. G., & Muthiah, R. (2004). Designing effective reflection: What matters to service-learning? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*, 38–46.

Hill, C., & Baumgartner, L. (2009). Stories in science: The backbone of science learning. *Science Teacher, 76*(4), 60–64.

Hinchey, P. H. (2004). *Becoming a critical educator*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

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

Korthagen, F., & Vasalos, A. (2005). Levels in reflection: Core reflection as a means to enhance professional growth. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 11*(1), 47–71.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford, England: Pergamon.

Kroeger, S., Burton, C., Comarata, A., Combs, C., Hamm, C., & Hopkins, R. (2004). Student voice and critical reflection. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 36*, 50–57.

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

Lesnick, A. (2006). Forms of engagement: The ethical significance of literacy teaching. *Ethics and Education, 1*, 29–45.

Levesque, J., & Prosser, T. (1996). Service learning connections. *Journal of Teacher Education, 47*, 325–334.

Levine, R., Kern, D., & Wright, S. (2008). The impact of prompted narrative writing during internship on reflective practice: A qualitative study. *Advances in Health Sciences Education, 13*(5), 723–733.

Markus, G., Howard, J. P. F., & King, D. C. (1993). Integrating community service and classroom instruction enhances learning: Results from an experiment. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 15*, 414–419.

McDermott, R., & Hall, K. (2007). Scientifically debased research on learning, 1854–2006. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 38*(1), 9–15.

Moely, B. E., Furco, A., & Reed, J. (2008). Charity and social change: The impact of individual preferences on service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 15*, 37-48.

Mueller, A., & Skamp, K. (2003). Teacher candidate talk: Listen to the unsteady beat of learning to teach. *Journal of Teacher Education, 54*, 428–440.

Nieto, S. (1999). *The light in their eyes: Creating multicultural learning communities*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Nokes, K., Nickitas, D., Keida, R., & Neville, S. (2003). Using technology to enhance service-learning reflection. *Academic Exchange Quarterly, 7*(2), 86–90.

Pantaleo, S. (2009). An ecological perspective on the socially embedded nature of reading and writing. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 9*(1), 75–99.

Polanyi, M. (1967). *The tacit dimension*. New York, NY: Anchor.

Powell, K., & Kalina, C. (2009). Cognitive and social constructivism: Developing tools for an effective classroom. *Education, 130*(2), 241–250.

Romer, T. A. (2003). Learning process and professional content in the theory of Donald Schon. *Reflective Practice, 4*(1), 85–93.

Schaak-Distad, L., & Brownstein, C. (2004). *Talking teaching: Implementing reflective practice in groups*. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Education.

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Schön, D. A. (1991). *The reflective turn: Case studies in and on education practice*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Sharp, K. (2003). Teacher reflection: A perspective from the trenches. *Theory into Practice, 42*, 243–247.

Siegel, D. (2008). Making the familiar campus strange. *Liberal Education, 94*(2), 48–51.

Tobias, S. (2010). Generative learning theory, paradigm shifts, and constructivism in educational psychology: A tribute to Merl Wittrock. *Educational Psychologist, 45*(1), 51.

Varlotta, L. (2000). Service as text: Making the metaphor meaningful. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 12*(2), 76–84.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wade, R. C. (1997). *Community service learning: A guide to including service in the public school curriculum*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Wang, Y., & Jackson, G. (2005). Forms and dimensions of civic involvement. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*, 39-48.

Wellik, J., & Kazemek, F. (2008). How young people story their lives: "Why are we here, dude?" *Reclaiming Children and Youth: The Journal of Strength-based Interventions, 16*(4), 55–59.

Wittrock, M. (2010). Learning as a generative process. *Educational Psychologist, 45*(1), 40.

Yost, D. S., Sentner, S. M., & Forlenza-Bailey, A. (2000). An examination of the construct of critical reflection: Implications for teacher education programming in the 21st century. *Journal of Teacher Education, 51*(1), 39–49.

About the Authors

Robert E. Bleicher is a professor of science education at California State University Channel Islands. His research interests include self-efficacy, classroom communication, service-learning, and reflective practice. He earned his bachelor's degree in chemistry from the University of California Davis and his Ph.D. in educational psychology from the University of California, Santa Barbara.

Manuel G. Correia is an associate professor of education at California State University Channel Islands. His research interests include early literacy development, dual language instruction, service-learning, and reflective practice. He earned his bachelor's degree in English and master's degree in education from California State, Stanislaus, and his Ph.D. in language, literacy and culture from the University of California, Berkeley.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 57, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Using the Context, Input, Process, and Product Evaluation Model (CIPP) as a Comprehensive Framework to Guide the Planning, Implementation, and Assessment of Service-learning Programs

Guili Zhang, Nancy Zeller, Robin Griffith, Debbie Metcalf, Jennifer Williams, Christine Shea, and Katherine Misulis

Abstract

Planning, implementing, and assessing a service-learning project can be a complex task because service-learning projects often involve multiple constituencies and aim to meet both the needs of service providers and community partners. In this article, Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) evaluation model is recommended as a framework to systematically guide the conception, design, implementation, and assessment of service-learning projects, and provide feedback and judgment of the project's effectiveness for continuous improvement. This article (1) explores the CIPP evaluation model's theoretical roots and applications, (2) delineates its four components, (3) analyzes each component's role in a service-learning project's success, and (4) discusses how the model effectively addresses Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice. This article illustrates the application and evaluation of the model in a teacher-education service-learning tutoring project.

Introduction and Review of Literature

Service-learning in educational settings involves the integration of community service into the academic curriculum *(Koliba, Campbell, & Shapiro, 2006)*. Service providers achieve curricular goals while providing services that meet a community's needs *(Zhang, Griffith, et al., 2009; Zhang, Zeller, et al., 2008)*. A successful service-learning project thus requires that a faculty member identify the needs of service providers and community partners, design a project that can effectively address both needs, and implement the project in a manner that generates the desired outcome. Each of these steps is vital to the success of the service-learning project; each requires, therefore, careful monitoring to ensure its effective execution. Moreover, service-learning projects often involve multiple stakeholders. They can generate unanticipated outcomes as well as intended outcomes. Although assessments aiming at one or several impacts, and focusing on a single stage of a service-learning project, can be informative in answering specific questions on the value of service-learning, they cannot systematically guide the planning and implementation of service-learning projects. To date, no evaluation model appears to be widely adopted by faculty members to guide service-learning projects. The authors, therefore, posit in this article that Stufflebeam's *(2003)* Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) model can serve as a guiding framework for service-learning projects.

Approaches for Evaluating Projects

There appear to be some 26 approaches often employed to evaluate projects. These 26 may be grouped into five categories: pseudoevaluations, quasi-evaluation studies, improvement- and accountability-oriented evaluation, social agenda and advocacy, and eclectic evaluation. The first category, pseudoevaluations, includes five approaches that are often motivated by political objectives: public relations–inspired studies, politically controlled studies, pandering evaluations, evaluation by pretext, and empowerment under the guise of evaluation. The other 21 approaches are typically used legitimately to judge projects. The quasi-evaluations include 14 approaches that either focus on answering one or several questions or use a single methodological approach: objectives-based studies; accountability, particularly payment-by-results studies; success case method; objective testing programs; outcome evaluation as value-added assessment; performance testing; experimental studies; management information systems; benefit-cost analysis; clarification hearing; case study evaluations; criticism and connoisseurship; program theory–based evaluation; and mixed-methods studies. The improvement/accountability category is oriented toward determining the merit and worth of the project or entity being evaluated, and encompasses three approaches: decision- and accountability-oriented studies, consumer-oriented studies, and accreditation and certification. The social agenda/advocacy category dedicates evaluation efforts to pursuing social justice and includes three approaches: responsive evaluation or client-centered studies, constructivist evaluation, and deliberation democratic evaluation. Finally, the eclectic evaluation category includes the utilization-focused evaluation approach, and draws selectively from all available evaluation concepts and methods to serve the needs of a particular user group *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007)*.

When compared with professional standards for project evaluation, and after being rated by their utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy, the best approach that has surfaced is the Context, Input, Process, and Product evaluation model. The CIPP evaluation model belongs in the improvement/accountability category, and is one of the most widely applied evaluation models. Unlike more traditional evaluation approaches such as the Tylerian Evaluation Rationale *(Tyler, 1942)*, which is an objectives-based approach in the quasi-evaluation category mainly concerned with the final retroactive evaluation of whether a set of objectives has been met, the CIPP evaluation model is designed to systematically guide both evaluators and stakeholders in posing relevant questions and conducting assessments at the beginning of a project (context and input evaluation), while it is in progress (input and process evaluation), and at its end (product evaluation). A survey by American Society for Training and Development members found that the CIPP model was preferred over other evaluation models *(Galvin, 1983)*.

What the CIPP Evaluation Model Can Do

Specifically, the context evaluation component of the Context, Input, Process, and Product evaluation model can help identify service providers' learning needs and the community's needs. The input evaluation component can then help prescribe a responsive project that can best address the identified needs. Next, the process evaluation component monitors the project process and potential procedural barriers, and identifies needs for project adjustments. Finally, the product evaluation component measures, interprets, and judges project outcomes and interprets their merit, worth, significance, and probity.

Planning, Implementing, and Assessing Service-Learning Projects: A Multifaceted Task in Need of a Guiding Framework

The challenge of carrying out service-learning projects lies in the complexity resulting from multiple project objectives and multiple participating groups (e.g., faculty and community members, and students). The challenges are intensified by the lack of a reliable evaluation model that systematically guides the service-learning projects *(Zhang, Zeller, et al., 2008; Zhang, Griffith, et al., 2009)*.

The need for rigorous and authentic assessment of service-learning outcomes has been increasingly recognized, and the many challenges in assessing service-learning have been enumerated *(Butin, 2003; Gelmon, 2000a; Holland, 2001)*. Service-learning is a complex approach to teaching and learning; it needs and deserves approaches to assessment, evaluation, and reporting that are capable of capturing that complexity *(Eyler & Giles, 1999; Karayan & Gathercoal, 2005; Mabry, 1998; Moore, 1999; Pritchard, 2002; Steinke & Buresh, 2002; Troppe, 1995)*.

> *"Service-learning is a complex approach to teaching and learning; it needs and deserves approaches to assessment, evaluation, and reporting that are capable of capturing that complexity."*

A number of effective service-learning project assessments focusing on specific aspects of service-learning outcomes have been conducted *(Bringle & Kremer, 1993; Hamm, Dowell, & Houck, 1998)*. These assessments represent the performance testing approach in the quasi-evaluation category. For example, Furco *(2002)* developed the Self-Assessment Rubric for Institutionalizing Service-Learning in Higher Education, a tool that enables colleges and universities to measure the degree to which service-learning is part of the institution's culture. Marchel *(2004)* discussed evaluating reflection and sociocultural awareness, and Peterson *(2004)* discussed assessing performance in problem-based service-learning projects. The predominantly used data collection mechanisms include survey methodology *(Kezar, 2002)* and reflection *(Ash & Clayton, 2004)*. Portfolios have also been recommended *(Banta, 1999)*.

A few studies have examined the complexity of service-learning by focusing on the various groups of people involved, a method resembling the client-centered evaluation approach. A case study model of assessment was developed at Portland State University, to measure the impact of service-learning on four constituencies: students, faculty, community, and the institution *(Driscoll, Holland, Gelmon, & Kerrigan, 1996)*. Subsequent work by Driscoll, Gelmon, et al. *(1998)* has provided an assessment model for service-learning projects specifically in education that focuses on the four constituencies of service-learning. The model provides both quantitative and qualitative measures at three levels of assessment: diagnostic, formative, and summative. Additionally, Gelmon, Holland, et al. *(2001)* have offered useful principles, techniques, and tools for assessing service-learning and civic engagement.

Holland *(2001)* suggested a more comprehensive evaluation model for assessing service-learning based on a goal-variable-indicator-method design, which can be best characterized as an objectives-based evaluation approach. Its strength is its attention to the complex dynamics behind service-learning—the collaborative work of students and faculty members (within their institutional context) with their community partners. Holland's work serves as the first step toward providing an evaluation model for assessing service-learning. However, the lack of a sense of sequence and intertwined nature may limit its usefulness. Currently, it appears that no specific evaluation model has emerged as an easy-to-use, systematic guide to a service-learning project's planning and implementation *(e.g., Baker-Boosmara, Guevara, & Balfour, 2006; Bordelon, 2006; Borges & Hartung, 2007)*.

Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, and Product Evaluation Model: An Improvement Accountability Approach

Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, and Product evaluation model is "a comprehensive framework for conducting formative and summative evaluations of projects, personnel, products, organizations, and evaluation systems" *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 325)*. The model originated in the late 1960s to provide greater accountability for the U.S. inner-city school district reform project. It was to address the limitations of traditional evaluation approaches *(Stufflebeam, 1971)*. The CIPP evaluation model "is configured especially to enable and guide comprehensive, systematic examination of social and educational projects that occur in the dynamic, septic conditions of the real world . . ." *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 351)*. Over the years, the model has been refined *(Alkin, 2004)* and used by a wide range of disciplines *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007)*.

In education settings, the CIPP evaluation model has been used to evaluate numerous educational projects and entities *(Zhang, Griffith, et al., 2009; Zhang, Zeller, et al., 2008)*. For example, Felix *(1979)* adopted the model to evaluate and improve instruction in Cincinnati, Ohio, school systems. Nicholson *(1989)* recommended the CIPP evaluation model to evaluate reading instruction. Matthews and Hudson *(2001)* developed guidelines for the evaluation of parent training projects within the framework of the CIPP evaluation model. A faculty development project designed to support the teaching and evaluation of professionalism of medical students and residents was examined using the CIPP evaluation model *(Steinert, Cruess, Cruess, & Snell, 2005)*. The model was used to construct Taiwan's national educational indicator systems *(Chien, Lee, & Cheng, 2007)*. The model also served as the evaluation model for Osokoya and Adekunle *(2007)* to assess the trainability of enrollees in the Leventis Foundation (Nigeria) Agricultural Schools' projects. Moreover, Combs, Gibson, et al. *(2008)* derived a course assessment and enhancement model based on the CIPP evaluation model because of its flexibility in providing formative and summative results.

Over the years, exemplary applications of the model within education occurred in numerous evaluations by Bill Webster of the Dallas, Texas, Independent School District; Howard Merriman of the Columbus, Ohio, school district; Gary Wegenke and his evaluators of the Des Moines, Iowa, school district; Jerry Baker of the Saginaw, Michigan, school district; Jerry Walker of The Ohio State University National Center for Research on Vocational Education; Bob Randall of the Southwest Regional Educational Research Laboratory; Carl Candoli and his evaluators of the Lansing, Michigan, school district; Stufflebeam and colleagues of the Evaluation Centers (first at The Ohio State University and subsequently at Western Michigan University); and others. Many of the reports from these applications of CIPP were archived in ERIC centers, and some appeared in dissertations *(D. L. Stufflebeam, personal communication, April 16, 2010)*.

The CIPP evaluation model emphasizes "learning-by-doing" to identify corrections for problematic project features. It is thus uniquely suited for evaluating emergent projects in a dynamic social context *(Alkin, 2004)*. As Stufflebeam has pointed out, the most fundamental tenet of the model is "not to *prove*, but to *improve*" *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 331)*. The proactive application of the model can facilitate decision making and quality assurance, and its retrospective use allows the faculty member to continually reframe and "sum up the project's merit, worth, probity, and significance" *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 329)*.

The link between the unique features of the CIPP evaluation model and the need for a systematic comprehensive guiding framework for service-learning projects is strong. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield illustrate this link with this observation:

> The Context, Input, Process, and Product evaluation model has a strong orientation to service and the principles of a free society. It calls for evaluators and clients to identify and involve rightful beneficiaries, clarify their needs for service, obtain information of use in designing responsive projects and other services, assess and help guide effective implementation of service, and ultimately assess the services' merit, worth, significance,

> and probity. The thrust of CIPP evaluations is to provide sound information that will help service providers regularly assess and improve services and make effective and efficient use of resources, time, and technology in order to serve the well-being and targeted needs of rightful beneficiaries appropriately and equitably. *(2007, p. 330)*

In summary, the authors believe that the model can help guide service-learning project needs assessment and planning, monitor the process of implementation, and provide feedback and judgment of the project's effectiveness for continuous improvement.

Understanding the Model

The four components of the Context, Input, Process, and Product evaluation model are useful in guiding the stages of a service-learning project. This section delineates the four components of the model and demonstrates each component's role as applied to a project. The authors discuss how the model addresses the Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice *(National Youth Leadership Council, 2008)*. Finally, the authors describe the application of the model using a teacher-education service-learning tutoring program.

The Four Components

All four components of Stufflebeam's CIPP evaluation model play important and necessary roles in the planning, implementation, and assessment of a project. According to Stufflebeam *(2003)*, the objective of context evaluation is to assess the overall environmental readiness of the project, examine whether existing goals and priorities are attuned to needs, and assess whether proposed objectives are sufficiently responsive to assessed needs. The purpose of an input evaluation is to help prescribe a program by which to make needed changes. During input evaluation, experts, evaluators, and stakeholders identify or create potentially relevant approaches. Then they assess the potential approaches and help formulate a responsive plan. Process evaluation affords opportunities to assess periodically the extent to which the project is being carried out appropriately and effectively. Product evaluation identifies and assesses project outcomes, both intended and unintended.

Component I.

Context evaluation is often referred to as needs assessment. It asks, "What needs to be done?" and helps assess problems, assets, and opportunities within a defined community and environmental context *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007)*. According to the authors, the objective of context evaluation is to define the relevant context, identify the target population and assess its needs, identify opportunities for addressing the needs, diagnose problems underlying the needs, and judge whether project goals are sufficiently responsive to the assessed needs. The methods for the context evaluation include system analyses, surveys, document reviews, secondary data analyses, hearings, interviews, diagnostic tests, and the Delphi technique *(Dalkey & Helmer, 1963)*.

The context evaluation component addresses the goal identification stage of a service-learning project. An effective service-learning project starts with identifying the needs of service providers (students) and the needs of the community. Many pitfalls are associated with needs assessments. Most can be attributed to the failure of adequate identification and articulation, in advance, of crucial indicators (e.g., purpose, audience, resources, and dissemination strategies). Application of the context evaluation component of the CIPP evaluation model could potentially prevent these pitfalls.

Component II.

Input evaluation helps prescribe a project to address the identified needs. It asks, "How should it be done?" and identifies procedural designs and educational strategies that will most likely achieve the desired results. Consequently, its main orientation is to identify and assess current system capabilities, to search out and critically examine potentially relevant approaches, and to recommend alternative project strategies. The result of the input evaluation step is a project designed to meet the identified needs. The success of a service-learning project requires a good project plan that, if implemented

"The success of a service-learning project requires a good project plan that, if implemented correctly, will benefit both service providers (students) and service recipients (community members)."

correctly, will benefit both service providers (students) and service recipients (community members). Methods used to execute an input evaluation include inventorying and analyzing available human and material resources, proposed budgets and schedules, and recommended solution strategies and procedural designs. Key input evaluation criteria include a proposed plan's relevance, feasibility, superiority to other approaches, cost, and projected cost-effectiveness. Literature searches, visits to exemplary projects, employment of advocate teams, and pilot trials are all appropriate tools to identify and assess alternative project approaches. Once a project plan is developed, it can be evaluated (using techniques such as cost analyses, logic models, Program Evaluation and Review Techniques [PERT], and various scales) according to the criteria that were identified in the input evaluation step *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007)*.

Component III.

Process evaluation monitors the project implementation process. It asks, "Is it being done?" and provides an ongoing check on the project's implementation process. Important objectives of process evaluation include documenting the process and providing feedback regarding (a) the extent to which the planned activities are carried out and (b) whether adjustments or revisions of the plan are necessary. An additional purpose of process evaluation is to assess the extent to which participants accept and carry out their roles.

Process evaluation methods include monitoring the project's procedural barriers and unanticipated defects, identifying needed in-process project adjustments, obtaining additional information for corrective programmatic changes, documenting the project implementation process, and regularly interacting with and observing the activities of project participants *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007)*. Process evaluation techniques include on-site observation, participant interviews, rating scales, questionnaires, records analysis, photographic records, case studies of participants, focus groups, self-reflection sessions with staff members, and tracking of expenditures.

Process evaluation can be especially valuable for service-learning projects because (a) it provides information to make on-site adjustments to the projects, and (b) it fosters the development of relationships between the evaluators (in this case, the two task force members in research and evaluation methodology) and the clients/stakeholders that are based on a growing collaborative understanding and professional skill competencies, which can promote the project's long-term sustainability.

Component IV.

Product evaluation identifies and assesses project outcomes. It asks, "Did the project succeed?" and is similar to outcome evaluation. The purpose of a product evaluation is to measure, interpret, and judge a project's outcomes by assessing their merit, worth, significance, and probity. Its main purpose is to ascertain the extent to which the needs of all the participants were met.

Stufflebeam and Shinkfield *(2007)* suggest that a combination of techniques should be used to assess a comprehensive set of outcomes. Doing so helps cross-check the various findings. A wide range of techniques are applicable in product evaluations, and includes logs and diaries of outcomes, interviews of beneficiaries and other stakeholders, case studies, hearings, focus groups, document/records retrieval and analysis, analysis of photographic records, achievement tests, rating scales, trend analysis of longitudinal data, longitudinal or cross-sectional cohort comparisons, and comparison of project costs and outcomes.

Providing feedback is of high importance during all phases of the project, including its conclusion. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield *(2007)* suggest the employment of stakeholder review panels and regularly structured feedback workshops. They stress that the communication component of the evaluation process is absolutely essential to assure that evaluation findings are appropriately used. Success in this part of the evaluation requires the meaningful and appropriate involvement of at least a representative sample of stakeholders throughout the entire evaluation process.

Product evaluation used in service-learning projects can serve at least three important purposes. First, it provides summative information that can be used to judge the merits and impacts of the service-learning project. Second, it provides formative information that can be used to make adjustment and improvement to the project for future implementation. Third, it offers insights on the project's sustainability and transportability, that is, whether the project can be sustained long-term, and whether its methods can be transferred to different settings.

Table 1. Applying the Context, Input, Process, and Product Evaluation Model to the Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice

Standards for Quality Practice	Context, Input, Process, and Product Framework
Service-learning actively engages participants in meaningful and personally relevant service activites.	• Context evaluation: Identify participants' needs. • Input evaluation: Design project that is engaging and targets partcipants' needs.
Service-learning is intentionally used as an instructional strategy to meet learning goals and/or content standards.	• Context evaluation: Identify learning goals. • Input evaluation: Design project as an effective instructional strategy to meet learning goals.
Service-learning incorporates multiple challenging reflection activities that are ongoing and that prompt deep thinking and analysis about oneself and one's relationship to society.	• Input evaluation: Design project that includes multiple challenging reflection activities. • Process evaluation: Assess reflection activities through reflective journals, focus group interviews, and surveys on self-perceptions.
Service-learning promotes understanding of diversity and mutual respect among all participants.	• Input evaluation: Design project that will promote understanding of diversity and mutual respect among all participants. • Process evaluation: Formatively and summatively assess whether the project promoted understanding of diversity and mutual respect among all participants.
Service-learning provides youth with a strong voice in planning, implementing, and evaluating service-learning experiences with guidance from adults.	• Context, input, process, and product evaluation: Involve participants in planning, implementing, and evaluating service-learning project.
Service-learning partnerships are collaborative, mutually beneficial, and address community needs.	• Context evaluation: Identify participants' and community needs. • Input evaluation: Design project that is mutually beneficial and allows participants to work collaboratively to address community needs.
Service-learning engages participants in an ongoing process to assess the quality of implementation and progress toward meeting specified goals, and uses results for improvement and sustainability.	• Process and product evaluation: Engage participants in an ongoing process to assess the quality of implementation and progress toward meeting specified goals, and use results for improvement and sustainability.
Service-learning has sufficient duration and intensity to address community needs and meet specified outcomes.	• Context evaluation: Identify community needs, and specify intended outcomes. • Input evaluation: Design project with sufficient duration and intensity. • Process and product evaluation: Assess whether community needs and specified outcomes are met.

The Context, Input, Process, and Product Evaluation Model's Linkage to Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice

In 2008, the National Youth Leadership Council devised the K-12 Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice *(National Youth Leadership Council, 2008)*. The standards, which were vetted through a series of "reactor panels" convened nationwide by the National Youth Leadership Council and RMC Research

Corporation, serve as a yardstick for judging the quality of K-12 service-learning practices. Table 1 outlines how the CIPP evaluation model can serve as an organizing framework for systematic evaluation of service-learning projects to help meet the Standards for Quality Practice.

It is evident that the CIPP evaluation model has unique features that can help effectively address the K-12 Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice. These unique features include context evaluation, ongoing process evaluation, and the model's emphasis on engaging participants in the evaluation process. The CIPP evaluation model can help provide youth with a strong voice in planning, implementing, and evaluating service-learning experiences; engage participants in an ongoing process to assess the quality of implementation and progress toward meeting specified goals; and use evaluation results for improvement and sustainability.

Applying the Model to a Teacher-Education Service-Learning Tutoring Project

During spring semester 2008, a service-learning tutoring project was initiated to address the learning needs of pre-service teachers in the Elementary Education project at a public research university in the southeastern United States, as well as the needs of at-risk readers in the local school system. Twenty-six pre-service teachers taking a course in diagnostic/prescriptive teaching of reading completed a service-learning assignment by tutoring 26 Response-to-Intervention students (RTI at-risk readers) in kindergarten, first grade, and second grade. University Internal Review Board (IRB) human subjects approval was secured for this project. The CIPP evaluation model was used to guide the conception, design, implementation, and assessment of the tutoring project. The authors believe that its use led to the project's achieving the desired outcomes. The CIPP components were implemented as shown in Table 2 and in the narrative below.

Table 2. Using the Context, Input, Process, and Product Evaluation Model to Guide a Service-Learning Tutoring Project

Context, Input, Process, and Product Evaluation Model Components	Methods Used in the Service-Learning Tutoring Program
Component I: Context evaluation Identify the needs, and the assets and opportunities for addressing the needs.	• Assessed the setting for the intended service. • Interviewed school principal, teachers, and reading specialists. • Reviewed school records. • Identified at-risk readers and their needs. • Administered diagnostic tests given to at-risk readers. • Conducted initial quantitative assessment of at-risk readers. • Conducted pre-service teacher focus group interviews. • Conducted initial quantitative assessments of pre-service teachers.
Component II: Input evaluation Prescribe a project to meet the identified needs, and identify and assess project strategies and procedural designs.	• Reviewed relevant literature. • Interviewed school principal, teachers, and reading specialists. • Consulted university reading faculty members and other experts. • Viewed exemplary projects. • Consulted Learn and Serve America. • Formed advocate teams. • Service-learning task force members met biweekly. • Conducted pre-service teacher focus group interviews.
Component III: Process evaluation Monitor project's process and potential procedural barriers, and identify needs for project adjustments.	• Identified what activities should be monitored. • Received biweekly update from service-learning task force. • Observed service-learning activities. • Kept a log of the activities. • Interviewed at-risk readers. • Interviewed pre-service teachers. • Interviewed school principal, teachers, and reading specialists. • Reviewed pre-service teachers' self-reflections. • Reviewed students' work samples. • Conducted debriefing with pre-service teachers.
Component IV: Product evaluation Measure, interpret, and judge project outcomes, and interpret their merit, worth, signficance and probity.	• Conducted post-project quantiative assessments of pre-service teachers. • Conducted post-project focus group interview of pre-service teachers. • Conducted post-project quantitative assessment of at-risk readers. • Administered at-risk readers' survey. • Interviewed or surveyed other stakeholders, including faculty instructor, principal, teacher, reading specialist, and parents of at-risk readers.

Assessing Community Needs Using Context Evaluation

The community involved in the teacher-education service-learning project included the university initiating the project and the local school system. The university was assessed as to its needs for and capability of carrying out the service-learning project. The university's college of education offered both undergraduate and graduate projects of study in teacher preparation. All of its projects incorporated internship opportunities or capstone projects in collaboration with K-12 school professionals and other community partners. Service-learning became part of the culture at this university. The creation of a new position, the vice chancellor for service-learning, generated a surge of interest in service-learning projects and service-learning opportunities on and off campus. The university had a well-established infrastructure for service-learning research activities. University curricula included well-integrated projects that enable students to spend a semester or more in a connected series of courses linked to service-learning projects outside the university.

The needs within the university.

Following a review of curriculum vitae and discussions among faculty members, a service-learning faculty task force was created for this project; it consisted of one university administrator, eight expert content area faculty members, and two faculty members in research and evaluation methodology who served as evaluators of the project. The service-learning task force examined the university's mission, curriculum, professional teaching standards, class experiences, literature, and feedback from school systems, and then identified the need within the college to work toward improving teacher retention. It was further ascertained that pre-exposure to the school environment decreases teacher attrition. That is, if pre-service teachers have a better understanding of the teaching profession and the reality of working with diverse student populations through hands-on practice, they are more likely to acquire needed professional pedagogical skills and to stay in the teaching field once they enter it.

The needs within the local school system.

To identify community needs within the local school system, the task force communicated with and interviewed adjunct faculty members who were also teachers in the school system. Assistance to elementary-level at-risk readers topped the needs list. Following these meetings, the task force asked, "What kind of service-learning project will best meet both the needs of the elementary-level at-risk readers and the need of our pre-service teachers to gain firsthand experience with diverse student populations?" and "Which school has the greatest needs?" The task force looked for a school situation that provided the best fit between the pre-service teachers' needs and the needs of children. Once a potential site was identified, the researchers met with the principal and discussed their proposal. Students in the Response-to-Intervention process (RTI at-risk readers) were selected to be the service-learning recipients because they were working below grade level in reading and writing. They were considered at-risk readers and writers, but were not receiving special education services. This target population of at-risk readers needed, but had not been receiving, individual assistance in reading.

The service site was an elementary school that is very representative of a typical elementary school in the county; the school's racial and socioeconomic balance was the result of countywide district school equity policies. The principal was very receptive to the proposed service-learning project. The elementary teachers involved were positive about the potential benefits of the project for their students and were pleased to work with the pre-service teachers and the university faculty.

Assessment of pre-service teachers' readiness.

Initial assessments of the pre-service teachers were conducted in January, before the service-learning intervention, in five sessions of focus group interviews to explore their initial attitudes and dispositions about this project. The interviews revealed that the pre-service teachers were equipped with the knowledge and skills needed to provide the service. More importantly, they expressed curiosity and a strong desire to participate in this project. Quantitative instruments were also used prior to project implementation to assess the pre-service teachers' initial level regarding the following constructs: community service self-efficacy, motivations regarding volunteer activity, self-esteem, and confidence in making a clinically significant contribution to the community through service. These quantitative research instruments included the following:

- The Self-esteem Scale *(Rosenberg, 1965)*

- The Community Service Self-efficacy Scale *(Reeb, Katsuyama, Sammon, & Yoder, 1998)*
- The Volunteer Functions Inventory *(Clary, et al., 1998)*
- The Personal Social Values Scale *(Mabry, 1998)*

Assessment of at-risk readers' needs.

Similarly, additional context evaluation–related assessments were completed on the initial status of elementary school students' self-esteem, and their steps toward independence and academic achievement in reading and oral and written language skills. The pre-service teachers administered literacy assessments, including running records *(Clay, 1993)*, the Qualitative Reading Inventory-4 *(Leslie & Caldwell, 2006)*, the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey *(McKenna & Kear, 1990)*, and the Burke Reading Interview *(Burke, 1980)*. Based upon these assessments, the pre-service teachers designed and taught lessons that targeted the students' needs while building upon their strengths.

Formulating Plans Using Input Evaluation

Input evaluation was completed in order to prescribe a sound service-learning project. Meetings were conducted with university reading faculty members, reading specialists in the school, and potential collaborating classroom teachers to discuss what kind of service-learning projects would best meet the students' needs. Based on information gathered from the input evaluation process, a tutoring project that joined pre-service teachers in a reading methods course with a selected cohort of RTI at-risk readers was prescribed. Each week during the 15-week semester course, the pre-service teachers were assigned to spend 3 hours and 30 minutes on preparation for their tutoring experience and 1 hour and 30 minutes providing direct tutoring service to an identified RTI at-risk reader.

Next, an extensive literature review on best practices for working with at-risk readers was conducted as part of the initiated service-learning project. The task force members spoke with faculty members in the area of reading education in this university and other universities. They also discussed the plan with and sought feedback from reading specialists, in the targeted school. Finally, the task force watched videos of exemplary service-learning projects, visited leading service-learning websites, and discussed elements that would be important to include in this project.

As an important part of the input evaluation, expert input was sought to judge the feasibility of the service-learning tutoring project before its implementation, and adjustments were made to improve the project. Contributing experts included members of Learn and Serve America (the funding agency of the project), several nationally recognized experts in service-learning, the university's vice chancellor for service-learning, and the Department of Curriculum and Instruction chairperson. Based on the input received, the task force held face-to-face discussions as well as Delphi studies, a structured communication technique *(Dalkey & Helmer, 1963)*, to refine the plan. The improved plans were then shared with the principal and cooperating teachers for their input.

Monitoring Progress Using Process Evaluation

To assess the process, the task force members held biweekly meetings to give updates on the project's implementation. They also shared positive stories and discussed any potential problems that needed to be addressed. The task force members held regular discussions with the collaborating teachers, the principal, and the reading specialists.

The university faculty member who taught the reading course and her graduate assistant observed the service-learning activities regularly and kept a detailed log. Feedback regarding needed adjustment was gathered and acted upon. For example, the needs for guidance on administering an assessment and modifying instruction for English learners were identified and promptly addressed. Assessment guidance was provided by reviewing with the pre-service teachers step-by-step instructions on how to properly administer the assessment. Instruction for English learners was modified by providing slower paced instruction that was accompanied with explanation of unusual words. The faculty member also held weekly in-class debriefings with the pre-service teachers on the service-learning project. The pre-service teachers verbally reported on the activities, progress, and challenges in the service-learning project, and the instructor led class discussions to address issues that arose.

Pre-service teachers' self-reflection served as an important window into the operation of the project and its impact on them. Self-reflection has been recognized as an essential link between community experience and academic learning *(Ash & Clayton, 2004; Felten, Gilchrist, & Darby, 2006)*. Reflection can also serve as a mirror that makes pre-service teachers' inner changes visible to the faculty instructor and the project evaluators. Following each of the tutoring sessions, the pre-service teachers spent 15-20 minutes reflecting on what they had gained from the tutoring session, and what they had contributed to the students and the cooperating teacher.

To monitor the ongoing impacts of the tutoring sessions on the RTI at-risk readers, formal and informal academic assessments, structured observations, and curriculum-based measurements were employed during the project. Formal assessments are more "standardized" assessments: Tests are uniform in procedures for being administered, amount of time allowed for completion, and method of grading. Informal assessments are more flexible in their usage. They are designed by teachers specifically for their classrooms/students and/or for a certain lesson or topic. Informal assessments can also be things that are part of the daily classroom routine. Structured observation is an observation in which the observer completes a questionnaire or counts the number of times an activity occurs. The curriculum-based measure is a method of monitoring student educational progress through direct assessment of academic skills *(Marston, Mirkin, & Deno, 1984)*. When using curriculum-based measures, the instructor gives the student brief samples, or "probes," made up of academic material taken from the child's school curriculum. These curriculum-based measure probes are timed and may last from 1 to 5 minutes. The child's performance on a curriculum-based measure probe is scored for speed, or fluency, and for accuracy of performance. The results are then charted to offer the instructor a visual record of a targeted child's rate of academic progress. The cooperating teachers as well as the faculty instructor regularly observed the service-learning tutoring activities and provided oral and written feedback to the pre-service teachers.

Assessing Impact Using Product Evaluation

The product evaluation was centered on two overarching questions: (a) Did the service-learning experience meet the pre-service teachers' learning needs? (b) What impacts did the service-learning reading skills tutoring project have on the at-risk readers? The impact of the program on pre-service teachers was assessed using various data, including pre-service teachers' own reflections; direct quantitative assessments using survey research scales; focus group interviews of pre-service teachers; performance on the assignments for the reading methods course in which the pre-service teachers were enrolled; faculty observations of tutoring sessions; and input, such as interview responses and other verbal feedback received informally, from university faculty advisors, the elementary school principal, participating teachers, reading specialists, and RTI at-risk learners.

Assessing pre-service teachers' learning

Reflection.

The pre-service teachers' reflective journal entries, which were part of the process evaluation component of the Context, Input, Process, and Product mode, were collected and entered into QSR International's NVivo 8 qualitative data analysis software *(NVivo Qualitative Data Analysis Software, 2008)* and analyzed qualitatively by three experienced researchers. These three researchers included the two task force members in research methodology and another task force member whose area of expertise is reading education. The researchers are not involved in the project's implementation process. Following the work of MacQueen, McLellan, Kay, and Milstein *(1998)*; Fernald and Duclos *(2005)*; and Fonteyn Vettese, Lancaster, and Bauer-Wu *(2008)*, the three researchers adopted a codebook structure and the iterative process of discussing each code until agreement was reached. They then worked independently and collaboratively, gave each code a definition, set inclusion and exclusion criteria, and identified sample text references from the transcripts. Each reflective journal entry was independently coded by the three members of the team. Disagreements were resolved through discussion at our weekly meetings so that the codes were further refined *(Fonteyn, et al., 2008)*. The authors believed that this process enhanced inter-coder consistency. Wherever possible, team members attempted to use participants' own words "to guide the construction of codes and their definitions for in-depth analysis," a process referred to by MacQueen, et al. *(1998)* as emic or nonstructural coding *(p. 33)*. Findings from the reflection logs revealed an increase over the course of the semester in the pre-service teachers' understanding of the reading process and, more importantly, of their roles in helping students develop effective reading processes.

Focus group interviews.

Five sessions of focus group interviews were conducted before the service-learning intervention (as part of the context evaluation) and again after the service-learning intervention (as part of the product evaluation). These interviews with the pre-service teachers explored whether the service-learning tutoring experience had changed their level of confidence in "making a difference," any of their personal social values in regard to service-learning and community service, or their attitudes and dispositions toward working with students from diverse backgrounds. These interviews were video-recorded directly to DVD, transcribed, and analyzed using NVivo 8 *(NVivo Qualitative Data Analysis Software, 2008)*. The results revealed that the service-learning group had positive changes over the course of the semester in terms of their levels of confidence in "making a difference," their personal social values in regard to service-learning and community service, and their attitudes and dispositions toward working with students from diverse backgrounds.

Quantitative assessments of affective learning using standardized research scales.

Quantitative instruments were used before the service-learning project (as part of the context evaluation) and after the service-learning project (as part of the product evaluation) to assess changes in pre-service teachers regarding their community service self-efficacy, motivations for volunteer activity, self-esteem, and confidence in making a considerable contribution to a community through service. The following data collection instruments were used before and after the project: the Self-esteem Scale *(Rosenberg, 1965)*, the Community Service Self-efficacy Scale *(Reeb, et al., 1998)*, the Volunteer Functions Inventory *(Clary, et al., 1998)*, and the Personal Social Values Scale *(Mabry, 1998)*. The pre-service teachers' responses on these research scales were statistically analyzed, and positive changes were found after the service-learning experience regarding self-esteem, community service self-efficacy, motivation to volunteer, and personal social values as they relate to community service.

Other assessments of pre-service teachers' learning.

Using process and product evaluation, pre-service teachers' academic performances were monitored throughout the service-learning experience. The university faculty instructor regularly conducted observations of the tutoring sessions. Samples of pre-service teachers' coursework, faculty observation field notes, curriculum-based measures, and reflective journals were collected and assessed by the university faculty instructor to explore the pre-service teachers' understandings and mastery of the reading process and reading instruction. These pre-service teachers demonstrated more diligence and better quality in their academic work than the pre-service teachers in another section of the course the same instructor was teaching, who were not involved in service-learning. Community members who worked closely with them (e.g., the principal, cooperating teachers, and reading specialists) were interviewed regarding their perceptions of these pre-service teachers. Their responses included descriptions such as "responsible," "caring," "skilled," "patient," and "the children love them."

"These pre-service teachers demonstrated more diligence and better quality in their academic work than the pre-service teachers. . . who were not involved in service-learning."

Assessing Impact on At-Risk Readers

The effect of the service-learning project on the at-risk readers' self-esteem; steps toward independence; and academic achievement in reading, and oral and written language skills, was assessed through formal and informal academic assessment, structured observations, curriculum-based measures, and students' reflective journals. The assessment measures were employed during the project (during process evaluation) and at the end of the project (during product evaluation). Elementary students' perceptions of themselves as readers, oral communicators, and writers were assessed prior to their participation in the project (context evaluation) and after the conclusion of the project (product evaluation) by using the Elementary Reading Attitude Scale *(McKenna & Kear, 1990)*. A survey of the participating elementary school teachers regarding their assessment of the impact of the project on the at-risk readers was also administered. These results indicated that the at-risk readers benefited from the project through increases in reading ability, self-esteem, and self-perception of themselves as readers, as well as improved attitudes toward reading.

The CIPP evaluation model served as a guiding framework and systematically guided the conception, design, implementation, and assessment of this service-learning project in teacher-education. First, the Context Evaluation component identified the pre-service teachers' need to gain firsthand experience working with students from diverse backgrounds and the elementary school RTI at-risk readers' need for individualized assistance in reading. Next, Input Evaluation incorporated input from experts, practitioners, and various stakeholders, and prescribed an effective tutoring project. Then Process Evaluation helped monitor the project implementation process and provided ongoing feedback for needed adjustments. Finally, Product Evaluation assessed the service-learning project's impacts and provided feedback and judgment of the project's effectiveness.

Conclusion

University-based service-learning projects involve multiple stakeholders and aim to meet the needs of service providers and community partners. Their complex and dynamic nature calls for an evaluation model that can *operationalize* the process and provide step-by-step systematic guidance. Effectiveness is essential to the continued viability and growth of service-learning projects throughout the United States.

The issue of multiple goals and multiple constituencies is a major challenge in evaluating service-learning. Without a guiding evaluation model that is well-aligned with the unique features of a service-learning project, assessing the project may be challenging. Service-learning projects are too often subject to suboptimal assessments despite the collection of massive amounts of data, because researchers lack both the knowledge of key elements to assess, and access to a reliable evaluation model to organize the data and present the findings to various stakeholders in meaningful ways.

Without effective evaluation, service providers cannot make their projects and services better *(Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007)*. For example, service providers cannot be sure their goals are worthy unless they validate the goals' consistencies with sound values and a structured responsiveness to service recipients' assessed needs. Service providers cannot plan effectively and invest their time and resources wisely if they do not identify and assess options. It may be difficult to sustain university-community partnerships if the leaders of service-learning projects cannot show that they have responsibly carried out the project plan, produced beneficial results, and met the needs of the community partner.

Though not a new model, the CIPP evaluation model introduced in this article can be especially useful for guiding the planning, implementation, and assessment of service-learning projects.

The model employs multiple methods, has been tested in a wide range of contexts, has evolved and strengthened over time, and is supported by theoretical and pragmatic literature *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007)*. The model not only assesses the impact of a service-learning activity, but also helps to identify community needs by working *with* the community to identify needs and goals to be addressed and to formulate a project targeted to best meet those identified community needs, monitor project implementation, evaluate project outcomes, and provide recommendations for project improvement.

Without the guidance of the Context, Input, Process, and Product Evaluation Model, oversight or failure can easily occur in any part of the process, which could seriously hinder the service-learning project's operation and diminish its effectiveness. For example, without the model's regulation, the needs may not be as carefully identified, the match between the needs of participants may not be as meticulously ensured, problems in the implementation process may not be identified and corrected in a timely manner, and necessary multiple assessment methods may not be designed into the assessment. Each of these elements plays an important role in the service-learning project's success.

It is particularly important to note that because the Context, Input, Process, and Product evaluation model is a social systems approach to evaluation, all participants in a service-learning project help design the activities that they agree will meet the articulated needs of both the service providers (university members) and service recipients (community members). Shared decision making is essential, because "sustained, consequential involvement positions them to contribute information and valuable insights and inclines them to study, accept, value, and act on evaluation reports" *(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 330)*. This social systems approach fosters an understanding and connection among service providers, community partners, and other stakeholders and can effectively promote long-term sustainability of a service-learning project.

From conceptualizing a service-learning project to institutionalizing it in the curriculum requires informed planning, guided implementation, and evidence of impact. A snapshot type of assessment from a single lens using mono-method constructions is unlikely to provide the kind of comprehensive and multifaceted data needed by educational policymakers. Stufflebeam's CIPP evaluation model has the potential to guide faculty members using service-learning as a teaching tool to systematically gather assessment data at each stage of a service-learning project, so that they can make informed judgments to sustain or improve the project.

Acknowledgment

The authors wish to express their appreciation to Daniel L. Stufflebeam (Distinguished University Professor, retired from Western Michigan University) for his helpful comments and important theoretical insights provided during the development of this article.

References

Alkin, M. C. (2004). *Evaluation roots: Tracking theorists' views and influences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Arzoumanian, L. (1994). *Increasing community college child development associate (CDA) advisor skills in recording observations as a component of a competency-based assessment*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED367506).

Ash, S., & Clayton, P. (2004). The articulated learning: An approach to guided reflection and assessment. *Innovative Higher Education, 29*(2), 137–154.

Baker-Boosmara, M., Guevara, J., & Balfour, D. (2006). From service to solidarity: Evaluation and recommendations for international service-learning. *Journal of Public Affairs Education, 12*(4), 479–500.

Banta, W. T. (1999). What's new in assessment? *Assessment Update, 11*(5), 3–11.

Bordelon, T. (2006). A qualitative approach to developing an instrument for assessing MSW students' group work performance. *Social Work with Groups, 29*(4), 75–91.

Borges, N., & Hartung, P. (2007). Service-learning in medical education: Project description and evaluation. *International Journal of Teaching & Learning in Higher Education, 19*(1), 1–7.

Bringle, R., & Kremer, J. (1993). Evaluation of an intergenerational service-learning project for undergraduates. *Educational Gerontology, 19*(5), 407–416.

Burke, C. (1980). The reading interview. In B. P. Farr and D. J. Strickler (Eds.), *Reading comprehension: Resource guide* (pp. 82–108). Bloomington, IN: School of Education, Indiana University.

Butin, D. (2003). Of what use is it? Multiple conceptualizations of service-learning within education. *Teachers College Record, 105*(9), 1674–1692.

Chien, M., Lee, C., & Cheng, Y. (2007). The construction of Taiwan's educational indicator systems: Experiences and implications. *Educational Research for Policy & Practice, 6*(3), 249–259.

Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivation of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1516–1530.

Clay, M. M. (1993). *An observation survey of early literacy achievement*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Combs, K. L., Gibson, S. K., Hays, J. M., Saly, J., & Wendt, J. T. (2008). Enhancing curriculum and delivery: Linking assessment to learning objectives. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 33*(1), 87–102.

Dalkey, N. C., & Helmer, O. (1963). An experimental application of the Delphi method to the use of experts. *Management Science, 9*(3), 458–467.

Driscoll, A., Gelmon, S., Holland, B., Kerrigan, S., Spring, A., Grosvold, K., & Longley, M. (1998). *Assessing the impact of service-learning: A workbook of strategies and methods* (2nd ed.). Portland: Portland State University, Center for Academic Excellence.

Driscoll, A., Holland, B., Gelmon, S., & Kerrigan, S. (1996). An assessment model for service-learning: Comprehensive case studies of impact on faculty, students, community, and institution. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 3*, 66–71.

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

Felix, J. L. (1979). Research and evaluation to improve instruction: The Cincinnati strategy. *Educational Evaluation & Policy Analysis, 1*(2), 57–62.

Felten, P., Gilchrist, L. Z., & Darby, A. (2006). Emotion and learning: Feeling our way toward a new theory of reflection in service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 12*(2), 38–46.

Fernald, D., & Duclos, C. (2005). Enhance your team-based qualitative research. *Annals of Family Medicine, 3*(4), 360–364.

Fonteyn, M., Vettese, M., Lancaster, D., & Bauer-Wu, S. (2008). Developing a codebook to guide content analysis of expressive writing transcripts. *Applied Nursing Research, 21,* 165–168.

Furco, A. (2002). *Self-assessment rubric for the institutionalization of service-learning in higher education*. Berkeley, CA: University of California.

Galvin, J. C. (1983). What can trainers learn from educators about evaluating management training? *Training and Development Journal, 37*(8), 52–57.

Gelmon, S. B. (2000a). Challenges in assessing service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, Special Issue, 84–90.

Gelmon, S. B. (2000b). How do we know that our work makes a difference? Assessment strategies for service-learning and civic engagement. *Metropolitan Universities: An International Forum, 11*(2), 28–39.

Gelmon, S., Holland, B., Driscoll, A., Spring, A., & Kerrigan, S. (2001). *Assessing service-learning and civic engagement: Principles and techniques.* Providence, RI: Campus Compact.

Hamm, D., Dowell, D., & Houck, J. (1998). Service learning as a strategy to prepare teacher candidates for contemporary diverse classrooms. *Education, 119*(2), 196.

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

Karayan, S., & Gathercoal, P. (2005). Assessing service-learning in teacher education. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 32*(3), 79–92.

Kezar, A. (2002). Assessing community service-learning. *About Campus, 7*(2), 14–20.

Koliba, C. J., Campbell, E. K., & Shapiro, C. (2006). The practice of service-learning in local school–community contexts. *Educational Policy, 20*(5), 683–717.

Kraft, R., & Krug, J. (1994). *Building community: Service-learning in the academic disciplines*. Denver, CO: Colorado Campus Compact.

Leslie, L., & Caldwell, J. (2006). *Qualitative reading inventory – 4*. Boston, MA: Pearson.

Mabry, J. B. (1998). Pedagogical variations in service-learning and student outcomes: How time, contact, and reflection matter. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 5*, 32–47.

MacQueen, K., McLellan, E., Kay, K., & Milstein, B. (1998). Codebook development for team-based qualitative analysis. *Cultural Anthropology 10*(2), 31–36.

Marchel, C. (2004). Evaluating reflection and sociocultural awareness in service-learning classes. *Teaching of Psychology, 31*(2), 120–123.

Marston, D., Mirkin, P., & Deno, S. (1984). Curriculum-based measurement: An alternative to traditional screening, referral, and identification. *The Journal of Special Education, 18*, 109–117.

Matthews, J. M., & Hudson, A. M. (2001). Guidelines for evaluating parent training projects. *Family Relations, 50*(1), 77–86.

McKenna, M. C., & Kear, D. J. (1990). Measuring attitude toward reading: A new tool for teachers. *The Reading Teacher, 43*(8), 626–639.

Moore, D. T. (1999). Behind the wizard's curtain: A challenge to the true believer. *National Society for Experiential Education Quarterly, 25*(1), 23–27.

National Youth Leadership Council. (2008). K-12 service-learning standards for quality practice. Saint Paul, MN. Retrieved April 30, 2010, from http://www.nylc.org/pages-resourcecenter-downloads-K_12_Service_Learning_Standards_for_Quality_Practice?emoid=14:803

Nicholson, T. (1989). Using the CIPP model to evaluate reading instruction. *Journal of Reading, 32*(4), 312–318.

NVivo Qualitative Data Analysis Software (Version 8). (2008). n.p.: QSR International Pty Ltd.

Osokoya, M., & Adekunle, A. (2007). Evaluating the trainability of enrollees of the Leventis Foundation (Nigeria) Agricultural Schools' Programs. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning, 47*(1), 111–135.

Peterson, T. (2004). Assessing performance in problem-based service-learning projects. *New Directions for Teaching & Learning, 100*, 55–63.

Pritchard, I. (2002). Community service and service-learning in America: The state of the art. In A. Furco & S. H. Billig (Eds.), *Service-learning: The essence of the pedagogy* (pp. 3–19). Stamford, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Reeb, R. N., Katsuyama, R. M., Sammon, J. A., & Yoder, D. S. (1998). The Community Service Self-efficacy Scale: Evidence of reliability construct validity, and pragmatic utility. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 5*, 48–57.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Shaffer, J. P. (1980). Control of directional errors with stagewise multiple test procedures. *Annals of Statistics, 8*, 1342–1347.

Steinert, Y., Cruess, S., Cruess, R., & Snell, L. (2005). Faculty development for teaching and evaluating professionalism: From project design to curriculum change. *Medical Education, 39*(2), 127–136.

Steinke, P., & Buresh, S. (2002). Cognitive outcomes of service-learning: Reviewing the past and glimpsing the future. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 8*(2), 5–14.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (1971). The use of experimental design in educational evaluation. *Journal of Educational Measurement, 8*(4), 267–274.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (2003). The CIPP model for evaluation. In D. L. Stufflebeam & T. Kellaghan (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational evaluation* (Chapter 2). Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Stufflebeam, D. L., & Shinkfield, A. J. (2007). *Evaluation theory, models, & applications*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Troppe, M. (Ed.). (1995). Foreword. In M. Troppe (Ed.), *Connecting cognition and action: Evaluation of student performance in service-learning courses*. Providence, RI: Campus Compact.

Tyler, R. W. (1942). General statement on evaluation. *Journal of Educational Research, 35*, 492–501.

Zhang, G., Griffith, R., Metcalf, D., Zeller, N., Misulis, K., Shea, D., & Williams, J. (2009, April). *Assessing service and learning of a service-learning program in teacher education using mixed-methods research*. Paper presented at the American Education Research Association Annual Conference, San Diego, CA.

Zhang, G., Zeller, N., Shea, C., Griffith, R., Metcalf, D., Misulis, K., Williams, J., & Knight, S. (2008, October). *A 360° assessment of the multidimensional effects of a service-learning program in teacher education using mixed-methods research*. Paper presented at the 8th International Research Conference on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, New Orleans, LA.

About the Authors

Guili Zhang is an assistant professor of research and evaluation methodology in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at East Carolina University. She earned her bachelor's degree in British and American Language and Literature from Shandong University, her master's degree in English Education from Georgia Southern University, and her Ph.D. in research and evaluation methodology from the University of Florida.

Nancy Zeller is a professor of research methodology in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at East Carolina University. She earned her bachelor's degree in speech and theater, her master's degree in English language and literature, and her Ph.D. in educational inquiry methodology, all from Indiana University–Bloomington.

Robin Griffith is an assistant professor of reading, English/language arts in the College of Education at Texas Christian University. She earned her bachelor's degree in human development and family studies with a concentration in early childhood education, her master's degree in language and literacy education, and her Ph.D. in curriculum and instruction, all from Texas Tech University.

Debbie Metcalf is a National Board Certified teacher and Teacher-in-Residence in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at East Carolina University. She earned her bachelor's degree in education and social sciences and her master's degree in special education, both from San Diego State University.

Jennifer Williams is an assistant professor of special education in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at East Carolina University. She earned her Ph.D. in special education from North Carolina State University.

Christine M. Shea is a professor in the Social Foundations of Education program, Department of Curriculum and Instruction at East Carolina University, Greenville, North Carolina. She earned her bachelor's degree in history and English literature from Nazareth College of Rochester, New York, her master's degree in elementary education from State University of New York at Geneseo, her M.Ed. in comparative education from the University of Illinois–Champaign at Urbana-Champaign, and her Ph.D. in educational policy studies from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Katherine Misulis is an associate professor and assistant chairperson in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at East Carolina University. She earned her bachelor's degree in English and her master's degree in education from State University of New York at Potsdam, her C.A.S. in educational administration from State University of New York at Brockport, and her Ph.D. in reading education from Syracuse University.

Reflective Essay

Hiram E. Fitzgerald, Associate Editor
Michigan State University

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 87, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

A Reactive, Radical Approach to Engaged Scholarship

Malcolm Smith

Abstract

While exploring the current challenges facing academic institutions and the needs of their scholars to make their work relevant in the lives of university constituents, the author advocates for a reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship by outlining an 8-step process that considers the importance of transformation, immediacy, and relevance in academic research in the field of human service.

Introduction

The growing gap between academic research and actual practice in the field of human service, particularly in service to children and families, is well-known by practitioners and well-substantiated by academics *(Osterling & Austin, 2008; Glasgow, Lichtenstein, & Marcus, 2003; Martin & Martin, 1989)*. This gap puts human service faculty members and students at odds with the growing needs of the human service field in two ways: academics often teach and use methods that have academic relevance but not practical relevance, and practitioners often devalue academic knowledge relative to experiential knowledge. There is wariness toward academic solutions that are grounded in theory and literature rather than in the immediacy of practice. This more theoretical approach often makes academic institutions and human service departments irrelevant in the eyes of practitioners, who see academic researchers as largely trying to use their programs as testing grounds for theories and assumptions that are often not grounded in real world experience.

The growing gap between human service practitioners and academics appears to be fueled by changes on both fronts. For example:

- *Many public and private funding streams are requiring that their recipients use "evidence-based" programming*. In reality, human service programs that meet this intense criterion (usually associated with double-blind and medical-model-type studies) are (1) few and far between and hard to find, (2) often not flexible enough to be used with rapidly changing social and familial conditions, (3) restricted in practicality and efficacy since "evidence" is often out-of-date or addressing antiquated issues by the time it is sufficient to meet the "evidence-based" criterion, and (4) often expensive to procure and administer *(Burton & Chapman, 2004)*. Thus, many practitioner programs have come to distrust "evidence-based" programs.

- *There is a growing inaccessibility of academic peer-reviewed journals*. Academic journal subscriptions have become increasingly expensive, causing many libraries, especially university libraries, to discontinue subscriptions. Few human service agencies can afford subscriptions to all publications in the field. In addition, there has been a continued fragmentation of academic disciplines into smaller fields, which creates more places for "evidence" to hide. It can take months or even years to complete the peer-review process due to the time constraints of the largely volunteer peer reviewers. With rapidly changing familial structures, world and local economies, and demographic landscapes, old news is often not as relevant *(Morris, 2009; Weiner, 2001)*.
- *The promotion and tenure process at many universities does not reward engaged scholarship*. Many research universities still do not value engaged research *(Van de Ven, 2007)*, nor recognize it adequately during the promotion and tenure process.
- *Although faculty members access human service programs to provide students with "real world" internships and to test research questions, those experiences are seldom allowed to influence the university itself*. In order to become more relevant to the field and to students, academic programs could gain immediacy and relevance if conduits were created through which students' experiences and practitioners' knowledge could flow back to researchers.

Although newer models of engagement have emerged, most of them, like Van de Ven's *(2007)* work on the subject, try to use existing, promotion-based archetypes to describe the process. This approach often puts the researcher, rather than the practitioner or clients, in charge of asking the questions. For example, the first tier of Van de Ven's diamond model of engaged scholarship calls for a researcher to "Situate, ground, diagnose, and infer the research problem" *(p. 10)*.

This terminology suggests that it is the researcher, not the community, agency, practitioner, or client, who has the ability to fix a system. Thus, the decision making goes to a researcher who "diagnoses" the problem, stepping out of the engagement role by bringing to the situation an academic bias. Many human service practitioners have become suspect of academics that try to make fluid real world problems fit into neat academic paradigms.

Program solutions designed to attack the increasingly complex array of stressors that families, children, and individuals are facing in contemporary society have become multisystemic, multisymptomatic, and constant in their changing nature. One could read academic literature and on-the-market "fix-it" books and still lack an adequate background to coach anyone on how to remedy these problems. *(For an overview of these current problems, look to the ongoing "Kids Count" data reports: Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2011)*.

Only through immersion in the field; through the experience of engagement with agencies, programs, and their clients; and through careful observation and listening can one truly build the collaborative skills necessary for effective engagement. What human service agencies desperately need are partnerships.

In reality, a truly engaged scholar should be a collaborator whose curiosity and skill allow him or her to observe the problem from multiple individual and systemic dimensions, and whose experience in so doing is merely a tool he or she brings to the collaboration that is used to assist the other collaborators in owning the problem or condition, and in designing and testing a solution to it. If the intended goals are to both immerse students in the best of field learning and experience and to boost the relevance of the academic institution in the eyes of constituencies, faculty members must make changes in their relationships to the institutions, programs, consumers, and communities with whom they engage. Otherwise, they risk the fate of irrelevance.

Toward a Reactive and Radical Approach to Engaged Scholarship

The need for universities to dramatically alter how scholars discover and disseminate knowledge has been well-documented. As Lerner and Simon *(1998)* put it, "universities must change from their currently perceived (and in several respects, actual) status as enclaves for ethereal elitism" *(p. 4)*. This realization has led many universities to reinvigorate a quest for relevance in their communities and states, and even globally *(Stanton, 2008).*

The difference between "ethereal elitism" in current practice and the world envisioned by proponents of "engaged scholarship" like Van De Ven *(2007)* seems to be taking the same researcher-driven design (i.e., researcher driven questions, researcher driven hypotheses and goals, researcher driven answers, and researcher driven conclusions) and replicating this design in the field environment. The obvious barrier to this researcher-based collaboration is that human service agencies have become resistive to approaches in which a researcher steps out from the halls of academia and professes to understand the needs of the community without first experiencing immersion in the field.

For many practitioners and community members, this approach is misguided and demeaning. The days of the academic institution dictating to human service practitioners what they need or should be doing are gone. Communities expect collaboration in which the researcher becomes a true collaborator who can both coach and listen; who engages in the problem from all perspectives; who assists the collaborative team in understanding the context in which the problem occurs and the strengths of the community, agency, or client to overcome it; and who then helps the collaborators adjust their potential and resources to address the problem.

"Communities expect collaboration in which the researcher becomes a true collaborator. . . ."

At this point, the researcher uses his or her academic persona to help measure the change made by the collaborator. The last stage in what the author considers radical, enmeshed research is that the researcher and student collaborators can then share this change with the university, thus continually updating all facets of academic knowledge, research, practice, and teaching.

About the Approach

A reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship is based on a belief in the fundamentals of outreach scholarship. The approach works toward transformation of the community, transformation of the researcher and students, and, through the process, a transformation in the nature of the academic institution and how it is viewed by constituents. The approach differs from Lerner and Simon's *(1998)*, Stanton's *(2008)*, and Van de Ven's *(2007)* in (1) the extent of immersion by the researcher, (2) the expectations of community and academic change, and (3) the nature of the relationship between the researcher and the collaborators. Rather, this approach to engagement is *reactive*. The chrono-system (or the influences of the social era or happenings, trends and events of the immediate time in which the engagement takes place; *(Bronfenbrenner, 1994*) is crucial to the process of engagement. Real-life issues require immediate analysis, intervention, effect measurement, and change. For example, if a bullying epidemic is being perceived as causing child suicides, the situation cannot wait for a longitudinal analysis and a five-year study.

This approach to engagement is also *radical*. Building on the frameworks of action research *(Greenwood and Levin, 1998)* and later the concept of feminist action research *(Reid, 2004)*, radical outreach calls for researcher immersion and "enmeshment" in a problem to gain a clearer understanding, followed by radical transformation in the community members, in the researchers and students, and eventually in the institutional learning community.

The major difference between a reactive and radical approach and other forms of engaged scholarship is the extent to which it immerses the researcher in a community's problems. The faculty member becomes enmeshed with the community and collaborators. The term *enmeshment* arose from the works of family systems pioneer Minuchin *(1974)*, who used it to mean "diffused boundaries." In the academic setting, enmeshment, or the breaking down of "silos" between the researcher, the community, the human service provider, and the clients, allows understanding of a problem from all sides. Enmeshment in solving a problem is the purest form of collaboration, in which all those sitting at the table work toward the same goal as equals. A reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship places the emphasis for scholarship on finding a lasting transformation of a community's ability to solve a problem.

Eight Steps in a Reactive and Radical Approach to Engaged Scholarship

1. Reactive matching and real collaboration. The most important and most delicate part of any engaged scholarship endeavor is the creation of collaboration. The onus is on the faculty member to begin the collaborative process. This cannot be accomplished from within the institution. It is a combination of following one's personal passions and curiosities, finding those in the community who are actively involved in those areas, and then inviting practitioners to the academy. The research team becomes a regular observer in the community.

Reactive matching requires discussions and active listening. It is the matching of passions among all participants including practitioners, policy makers, and advocates. It is both personal and professional in nature. Successful collaborators recognize several necessary aspects of collaboration, including

- **interactive leadership.** No one entity, be it a funding entity, community, or university, owns “the right” to direct a collaborative partnership. Leadership rests in the member who has the tools, instruments, or need at each critical juncture in a project.
- **the importance of relationships.** A common passion unites collaborators, and that passion to serve is the basis for relationships necessary to attack the problem. Trust is the key ingredient for success of any collaboration, and that trust is based on a principle of mutual respect for each partner’s strengths and needs.
- **conflict and stress are expected.** Any collaborative relationship based on passion will eventually create conflict and stress. These are actually healthy signs of collaboration, and as the collaborators commit to work through them, trust and mutuality are fostered.
- **universities, researchers, or funders cannot force collaboration.** Collaboration is a natural process that grows from mutual respect, trust, and the need of each member to pool limited resources to improve the lives of others.

An example of a reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship occurred in 2009, when a group of mothers in New Hampshire formed a coalition to call for reform in the school policies and state laws regarding bullying. This was a dire need of a group of parents. When they contacted the university to see if there were researchers who might join their effort, a family life and family policy specialist with the University of New Hampshire’s Cooperative Extension service responded.

The specialist assessed the problem, compared New Hampshire law with other state and national laws, policies, and existing research. He then assisted in drafting a new law and provided evidence to the legislature in support of the proposed legislation. Although not produced by a traditional peer-reviewed process, the resulting legislation, which was enacted by New Hampshire's 420-member legislature in 2010, had a positive outcome. The law clearly defined bullying and required schools to deal more effectively with bullying incidents.

2. Experiential observation and listening. Once collaboration has been envisioned, the task of the faculty member is to become silent. Before asking questions, the most important thing an engaged scholar can do is observe the problem to ascertain the context of the interacting systems causing the need.

The purpose of this observation is to ensure that the faculty member is a good fit as a collaborator.

State child support policies are often fraught with contentious battling factions. In New Hampshire, the process of reviewing and updating the state guidelines used by state agencies and courts to decide who should support the children of divorce stalled, caught between contentious political attacks between fathers' rights groups and women's advocacy groups. Consequently, there had been no substantial updating to the state's policies since 1982, even though the nature of divorce and shared parenting, formulas for calculating costs of raising children, and the social issues revolving around child support had all changed drastically. What was called for was radical engagement and reactive scholarship.

When the University of New Hampshire Cooperative Extension received a $110,000 state contract to provide a mandated review of New Hampshire's child support formula, a team devised several ways to solicit input from key constituents. They surveyed judges and attorneys; provided six community forums across the state and took individual testimony at each; and went to legislative groups, special interest groups, and citizens and provided various means for each to give input into the process.

In other words, the team became a skilled listener, a partner in the process of expression and advocacy for both sides. The scientific rigor, the perception of fairness and impartiality that quantitative and qualitative methodology brought to the table was cathartic for all sides in the debate. The process was unstuck by the fact that advocates, lawyers, judges, and those who had been caught in the bureaucracy created by the child support system felt rigorously heard. The result was six pieces of legislation that dramatically altered the methodology for child support in New Hampshire and more fairly supported children of divorce.

3. Radical immersion and enmeshment. After observing the need, condition, or problem, the faculty member must become immersed and enmeshed with those who encounter it. The faculty member will also examine all sides of the issue from academic journals to popular press, from newspaper and internet accounts to firsthand perceptions.

It is imperative that, when appropriate, students be brought into this immersion so that their observations, reflections, and conduits of learning influence the researcher's perception of the problem and vice versa. Enmeshment means that the researcher sits as an equal member and learner in meetings, hearings, client sessions, scholarly discussions, and internet and social media discussions with all of the collaborators. In addition, it is the responsibility of the faculty member to ensure that all collaborators have access to university resources: data, libraries and journals, technology, and students.

The guiding purpose of enmeshment is to break down the barriers between "client," "practitioner," "student," and "scholar." The process of enmeshment fuses the trust of all collaborators and focuses their respective perspectives and talents on transformation of the social condition.

For example, in a recent study conducted examining work and family "fit" or "balance" of parents in New Hampshire, working parents were interviewed during focus groups hosted at family resource centers and through phone surveys. The voices of these parents, many struggling with issues like transportation, childcare, housing, and family stress, culminated in a series of state regulations, business regulations, and publications aimed at businesses.

4. Collaborative needs analysis and logical methods. The faculty member in a collaborative partnership should not be the dictator of needs assessment formats, logic models, or products of engaged scholarship. Information is useful to the practitioner and community when the community members determine it is useful. A faculty member can *facilitate* the development of a logic model, and *suggest* methods, but should not solely determine the goals, objectives, and desired outcomes.

A reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship is dependent on a mutual trust between the community members and the faculty member. The faculty member trusts the community members to identify the problem and produce the means to transform it, and the community members trust the faculty member to be truthful and open in bringing together key collaborators, identifying strengths and roadblocks, and creating research questions.

In addition, the faculty member should never rely exclusively on quantitative or qualitative methods. Human service faculty members, in particular, recognize that case studies, focus groups, ethnographies, careful observations, and program evaluations are valid data collection mechanisms. Moreover, validation of the findings should be provided by the community members.

In recent years, New Hampshire county jails have been trying to radically change their approach to inmates. With dwindling county resources to support a costly county-based criminal justice system, officials and taxpayers are demanding that these institutions become more than just holding pens. A great deal of literature has focused on reducing risk or "Criminogenic" factors of inmates by using prevention education and treatment.

University of New Hampshire Cooperative Extension had been an active partner in this process, but needed more than assumptions on which to base a preventative education process with inmates. Working carefully with jail officials and teams of inmates, Extension faculty members and Family Studies students designed a survey of inmates, given at intake to the jail, that would help identify what the inmates saw as their family-life needs.

The verbal survey was an option, yet when intake staff explained that the survey would help them and other inmates get education that could help them with family, parenting, and relationship issues, 95% of inmates in one county jail and 72% in the other volunteered to take the survey over a period of 6 months. They identified that they needed help with money management and participating in the "above ground" economy, that they needed help with parenting and child rearing skills, and that they wanted to know how to form better, stronger, and more positive relationships in their lives.

Extension listened, designed, and implemented programs in each area, and then went back to the inmates to gauge their interests. Participation had grown, and recidivism had dwindled. The collaboration worked.

5. Continuous assessment. During an engaged scholarship project, there should be a continuous feedback loop among the collaborators. The questions "Is this working?" and "How should we readjust our goals and objectives based on what we have learned, and what has changed?" should be constantly asked by participants.

For example, success in human service engaged research is really the measurement of personal transformation. It is based on the notion that individuals, systems, and policies are intimately linked in either promoting or suppressing that transformation. Therefore, change is a growth process that is sensitive to the interactions between individuals and their ecology. The faculty member is concerned not only about changes made by the individual, but about how the treatment, intervention, program, or policy affects the relevant systems. The faculty member facilitates collaborative monitoring of both the individual participants and the systems in which the individuals interact. Ultimately, the faculty member must also measure the change that this research has made in his or her institution.

When designing a new collaborative family resource center and student laboratory for the study of parent education in Manchester, New Hampshire, Cooperative Extension devised a unique method for both assessing needs of the community and for gathering constant feedback on the collaborative's ability to meet those needs.

With the YWCA of New Hampshire, the key collaborator, a series of Friday ice cream socials were initiated for community leaders, parents, and community stakeholders. These were scheduled for Friday afternoons at the YWCA's easily accessed downtown location, and personal invitations were sent to key representatives of stakeholder groups, inviting them to bring friends.

During the informal conversations, team members would circulate among guests with a series of key questions relative to the needs, program strengths, and perceptions of service of the collaboration. The responses were written down by team members, coded, and analyzed for key and recurrent themes, feedback, and response.

Participants quickly caught onto the idea and would make sure to bring key constituents of the programming to share their perceptions, criticisms, and concerns of the programming. This method of constant feedback has become an integral part of the ongoing assessment of the program and has increased participation of parents who have been led by satisfied stakeholders to the resource center.

6. Communal transformation. The ultimate question for a faculty member doing reactive and radical engaged scholarship is, "What changed?" What transformations occurred in the lives of all the individuals involved in the endeavor?

Measuring communal transformation is not easy. Many different assessments need to be conducted, including assessments of the perceptions of all those directly involved, of media outlets, and of policy makers as well as those who promote homeostasis in the ecology of the project.

Transformation can often be minute, but hopeful. For example, a reactive and radical outreach and engagement initiative may not eliminate homelessness in a community, but it may create a pathway through which families can find employment, and thus begin a process of transformation. It may not eliminate bullying in a school, but it may start a path that will one day result in elimination of the problem. In short, in order for engaged scholarship to be radical, it must promote transformation in the community. It is up to the members of the partnership to measure the value, importance, and depth of the transformation.

For example, since 2007, senior undergraduate and graduate students in a University of New Hampshire Family Policy class have been required to attend and participate in the state's Summit on Children's Issues. The students are required to research the issues that are affecting families and children in New Hampshire, and to apply that knowledge by assisting the Children's Alliance, an advocacy group of children and family agencies, in devising an annual list of legislative priorities. Over the past 3 years, more than eight new laws or policy changes have been enacted as a direct result of class projects. In exit interviews and teaching evaluations, the students reported that their participation was transformative in their academic careers, and members of the Children's Alliance reported that the student input and testimony was valuable to the legislative process.

7. Radical dissemination. Two fundamental beliefs of the faculty member, both rooted in feminist action research *(Reid, 2004)*, are (1) that all research is biased, and (2) that all research is political in nature. With those beliefs in mind, a faculty member promotes transformation by drawing attention to it.

Faculty members understand that community members who invest in public institutions want to see the fruit of their investments, not have them buried in obscure academic journals. Therefore, the faculty member welcomes media involvement, public discourse, debate, and input, and promotes the work or the collaborative. All participants in the engagement endeavor should benefit from this information dissemination. The faculty member should also advocate for the diverse forms that engaged scholarship products take. For example, blogs, newspaper articles, and radio or television talk shows are venues where practitioners, funders, and other non-academics increasingly gather their news.

The issue of work and family "fit" or balance has been an increasing concern of the University of New Hampshire. As part of the ongoing investigation, the researcher and others have been involved in a legislative policy committee concerned about the intersection of family life and work life. As a result, a considerable opportunity has been presented over the past four years to advocate for change in how companies regard the non-work lives of their employees.

In 2008, the researcher began to write a monthly column in the *New Hampshire Business Review*, a popular trade journal about work and family life research. In addition, the University of New Hampshire Cooperative Extension began to host a series of annual conferences for business professionals and legislators on work and family life. Cooperative Extension also became the host agency for the Sloan Award for excellence in work and family life work, which is a prestigious national award given to businesses for their accomplishments in work-life balance.

Suddenly, the researcher and his colleagues became featured speakers at business luncheons, chamber of commerce meetings, and other business-type venues as well as at non-profit family-serving agency meetings. As a result, in part, of this increased visability, the research team was asked to examine work and family stress factors experienced by working parents in New Hampshire. The results may be used to inform future legislation. The opportunities provided by relationships with these new stakeholders for the university and for the students were obvious. Suddenly, yogurt companies and engineering firms were seeing a whole new relevance for the university's work. Chief executive officers began asking if they could speak to a class on family policy.

8. Personal growth and transformation. The radical passion that drives a faculty member to investigate and facilitate community collaboration is a deep desire to better understand the world, and a deep commitment to making personal transformation through discovery. The faculty member must also ask: "What's in this for me?" "Will it further my passion?" "Will it feed my desire for altruism?" "Will it give me a legacy?" "Will it alleviate my academic homeostasis?" In a reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship, faculty members should measure their personal transformation and growth.

The researcher was a part of all of the previous examples mentioned in this article over the past four years. The result has been that instead of coming to a new university and being isolated in the cold confines of the ivory tower, the researcher developed friends, collaborators, and trusted confidants in the worlds of business, in politics, in the researcher's chosen field of human service, and across the campus.

Radical outreach and reactive engagement has allowed the researcher to help prisoners stay out of jail; be a founder of a parent resource center and student laboratory; to co-write legislation that has made children safer and more secure; to be a columnist and a frequent media guest; and, most importantly, to see how research can make a difference in people's lives. However, best of all, this approach has led to great stories, wonderful collaborators, and real world research to share with my students, to engage them with, and to arouse their passion to radical outreach and reactive engagement.

Conclusion

A reactive and radical approach to engaged scholarship changes the community, academic institution, researcher, and students. It breaks down the barriers that exist between research and action. It builds trust, loyalty, and lasting relationships between stakeholders and the university. It transforms the researcher into a meaningful social changer.

Reactive engagement and radical outreach offer a clear path for engaged faculty members to become more relevant to the communities with which they are partnering. It allows institutions to become more visible and useful to their constituencies. Finally, it offers research projects that teach university students – through immersion – ethics, values, and collaborative and critical thinking skills.

References

Annie E. Casey Foundation. (2011). *Kids Count Data Center*. Retrieved February 22, 2011, from http://datacenter.kidscount.org/

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development. In T. Husen & T. N. Postlethwaite (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of education* (2nd ed., Vol. 3, pp. 1643–1647). Oxford, England: Pergamon Press.

Burton, M., & Chapman, M. (2004). Problems of evidence based practice in community service. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 56*(8), 56–70.

Glasgow, R., Lichtenstein, E., & Marcus, A. C. (2003). Why don't we see more translation of health promotion research to practice? Rethinking the efficacy-to-effectiveness transition. *American Journal of Public Health, 93*(8), 1261–1268.

Greenwood, D. J., & Levin, M. (1998). *Introduction to action research: Social research for social change.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Lerner, R. M., & Simon, L. K. (1998). The new American outreach university: Challenges and options. In R. M. Lerner & L. K. Simon (Eds.), *University-community collaborations for the twenty-first century: Outreach scholarship for youth and families.* New York, NY: Garland, 4-39.

Martin, D., & Martin, M. (1989). Bridging the gap between research and practice. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 67*(8), 491.

Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and family therapy*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Morris, S. (2009). The tiger in the corner: Will journals matter to tomorrow's scholars? In B. Cope, P. Angus, & O. Brookes (Eds.), *The future of the academic journal*. Cambridge, England: Woodhead Publishing, 371-400.

Osterling, K., & Austin, M. (2008). The dissemination and utilization of research for promoting evidence-based practice. *Journal of Evidence-Based Social Work, 5*(1/2), 295–319.

Reid, C. J. (2004). Advancing women's social justice agendas: A feminist action research framework. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 3*(3), 1–31.

Stanton, T. K. (2008). New times demand new scholarship: Research universities and civic engagement—opportunities and challenges. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice 3*(1), 19–42.

Van de Ven, A. (2007). *Engaged scholarship: A guide for organizational and social research*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Weiner, G. (2001). The academic journal: Has it a future? *Education Policy Analysis Archives 9*(9), 1–19.

About the Author

Malcolm Smith is the Family Life and Family Policy Specialist at the University of New Hampshire Cooperative Extension. He is also an Associate Extension Professor in the Department of Family Studies who is active in research about bullying and peer victimization in children; work and family life issues; reduction of criminogenic factors among inmate populations; and the science of outreach and engagement. He earned his bachelor's degree in Education and Communication Arts from Washburn University, his master's degree in Education from Minnesota State University, and his Ph.D. in Family Studies and Human Services from Kansas State University.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 101, (2011)

Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Authentic Engagement for Promoting a College-Going Culture

William Collins

Abstract

The United States has lost ground internationally as a leader in educational attainment. Personal empowerment, national economic progress, and democratic ideals are enhanced through education, yet inequalities persist in the educational attainment of certain groups, such as low-income families or underrepresented minorities. Because the evolving economic landscape increasingly demands a diverse, highly trained, and well-educated labor force to fill the kinds of jobs required of the information age, the United States cannot afford to let large portions of its population languish educationally. Higher education outreach efforts to engage communities and promote the broad embrace of a college-going culture are seen as vital to achieving increased educational attainment.

Introduction

An important role of education is to prepare young people for the future, including preparation for productive work and for involved citizenship. The United States was the first major country to offer free public education for all *(Church & Sedlak, 1976)*, and doing so served its purposes well, providing a workforce well-suited to meet the labor needs of the industrial revolution and of manufacturing in the 19th and 20th centuries. But as the country's economy continues to evolve, the kinds of skills and abilities needed for productive work and citizenship evolve as well. The United States has gone from an essentially agrarian economy, requiring little formal education, through an industrial/manufacturing economy that required some formal education, to an increasingly service-providing and information-based economy, requiring specialized knowledge and facility with automated systems, symbolic language, and interpretive skills, which are developed in postsecondary education. Moreover, throughout this economic evolution, the country has become an increasingly diverse society as evidenced by expanding ethnic, racial, and religious groups comprising the population of the United States. Today, education remains the primary source for upward mobility and acculturation, yet significant inequalities are evident, particularly as concerns access to college where higher order skills are developed. One approach for addressing both future labor force needs and persistent inequalities of college access is for higher education to engage with communities to promote college interest and preparation. This essay describes the context for such engagement as well as the development of an educational outreach center at the University of Michigan that promotes the creation of a college-going culture in schools and communities.

College Participation: In the United States

Attainment of a college degree is generally recognized as beneficial to its holder, including such advantages as higher income, greater job security, and better health *(Baum, Ma, & Payea, 2010; United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010)*. However, at the end of the first decade of the 21st century, the United States confronts a decline in the educational attainment of its population. This is so with respect to high school completion rates, and particularly so at the postsecondary level, where the percentage of the U.S. population holding a postsecondary credential or degree has remained essentially unchanged for more than 40 years *(Lumina Foundation Strategic Plan, 2009)*. In contrast, other countries have experienced a different trend. For example, college enrollment in China grew at an annual rate of nearly 20% between 1995 and 2003 *(Jones, 2002)*. More generally, according to the *2010 Education at a Glance* report of the Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD), the U.S. now ranks 16th in the percentage of 25-34-year-olds holding a postsecondary degree among the 30 industrialized countries composing the OECD *(OECD, 2010)*.

> *"[T]he gap in college participation rates between low-income and all college-going students in the United States has widened, increasing by 50% between 1998 and 2008."*

These are troubling trends. The United States was the first country to establish public schooling for all and among the first to extend the option of postsecondary education to anyone seeking it *(Longanecker, 2008)*. However, this egalitarian orientation has suffered in recent years as the gap in college participation rates between low-income and all college-going students in the U.S. has widened, increasing by 50% between 1998 and 2008; low-income students now attend college at a much lower rate (18.2% lower) than the college attendance rate for all students *(Mortenson, 2010)*. Moreover, according to the U.S. Congress Advisory Committee on Student Financial Aid *(ACSFA, 2010)*, among students deemed "most qualified" for college, based on a measure of academic preparation, low-income students enroll in college at a rate of only 55%, compared to 86% for high-income students.

Similarly, high school persistence and graduation rates in the United States have actually trended downward for more than 40 years, having peaked in 1967 at about 77% *(Barton, 2005)*; today about 74% of entering high school freshmen graduate from high school 4 years later *(Greene, 2002; Stillwell, 2010)*. The U.S. national high school completion rate appears higher in some documentation because the Census Bureau includes those who earn a General Education Diploma (GED) among its count of high school graduates. Thus, regular high school graduation is augmented by students who earn the GED, bringing the overall high school completion rate in the United States to about 89%. In reality, the increasing number of students earning a GED masks a decline in diplomas awarded for completing high school in 4 years *(Barton, 2005; Swanson & Chaplin, 2003; Sum, 2003)*. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), each year about 3.5% of high school students drop out; this means that more than 3 million students have dropped out of high school, representing more than 8% of the 37 million 16-24-year-olds in the United States *(NCES, 2010)*. Ominously, the drop-out rate for students in low-income families is 10 times that of students in high-income families *(Chapman, et al, 2010)*.

About a quarter of the students in the United States who start high school do not graduate with a standard diploma. The situation is worse for students in low-income families, creating an additional burden on economic progress as the potential of low-income students to contribute to economic activity is limited *(Darling-Hammond, 2010)*. In fact, as noted by the OECD *(2009)*:

> A well-educated and well-trained population is essential for the social and economic well-being of countries. Education plays a key role in providing individuals with the knowledge, skills and competencies needed to participate effectively in society and in the economy. It also contributes to the expansion of scientific and cultural knowledge. *(p. 28)*

Stagnation in educational attainment, lagging postsecondary attendance in comparison to that in other countries, and inequitable college participation rates do not augur well for the United States labor force of the future. Indeed, a report from the Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce *(Carnavale, Smith, & Strolh, 2010)* shows that fully 60% of jobs in the United States will require postsecondary education by 2018. Thus, there is a clear imperative to improve educational attainment rates, not just for the personal empowerment that education provides, but also for the common good through the contributions a well-trained labor force makes to economic progress and democratic ideals. Such sobering data has led to calls from the College Board *(2008)*, the Lumina Foundation *(2010)*, and even the President of the U.S. to increase college attainment in the Unites States from the current 38% to 55-60% by the year 2025.

Researchers have identified several targets of opportunity for addressing barriers to educational attainment. Tierney, et al. *(2009)* recommend building peer and adult support for college-going aspirations, assisting students in completing critical steps for college entry, and helping students to become aware of their level of preparation for college. Similarly, members of the Institute for Higher Education Policy (IHEP) suggests providing information to students and parents on college costs, available financial aid resources (e.g., Pell Grants), and early efforts to encourage college-going aspirations *(IHEP, 2010)*. Others recommend providing information on steps involved in college enrollment, such as course selection in high school, the college application process, and financial aid awareness, including the importance of the Free Application for Federal Student Aid *(FAFSA; Hahn & Price, 2008)*. The Lumina Foundation emphasizes "significant changes in the nation's post-secondary system," foremost being a need to recognize that it is necessary to increase the rate at which students enroll in and complete college by developing programs and services that expand and strengthen college access and completion *(Lumina Foundation for Education, 2010)*. Similarly, the Education Commission of the States (ECS) has emphasized the development of outreach programs, especially to pre-eighth graders *(Education Commission of the States, 2001)*.

These recommendations amount to a call for greater outreach and engagement with students, parents, schools, and communities to inform them about college opportunities and resources, to encourage sound academic preparation for college, and to improve knowledge about the college application and college-going process. An important element in fulfilling these targets of opportunity is the involvement of colleges and universities as authentic partners with those who support, prepare, and encourage students to seek college access (e.g., teachers, counselors, or community organizations) rather than for the higher education community to serve merely as the passive recipients of the students who happen to show up at the college doorstep. Too often those who actually enroll in college are from an elite segment of society: those who are from high-income families, who reside in affluent communities, and whose parents are themselves college graduates. As the Lumina Foundation *(2010)* has emphasized, addressing the nation's decline in educational attainment will require not only increasing completion rates, but also improving college participation from a broader range of students, including students of color, low-income students, and first-generation students. Indeed, students from low-income families represent only about 8.7% of bachelor's degrees among the 18-24-year-old cohort, compared to 54.2% for students from high-income families *(Mortensen, 2009)*.

> *"[A]ddressing the nation's decline in educational attainment will require not only increasing completion rates, but also improving college participation from a broader range of students. . . ."*

Recognizing these needs and issues, colleges can advance the educational attainment agenda by implementing programs of outreach to promote college-going and academic excellence among target students, especially low-income, first-generation, and underrepresented students, for whom the evidence indicates are less likely to pursue higher education.

This essay details efforts by one university to reach out to students, parents, and communities with programs designed to employ recommended strategies to promote college-going. At the University of Michigan, a university-wide initiative was implemented to reach out to students and communities across the state for the purpose of promoting a college-going culture.

The Context for Educational Outreach in Michigan

In many ways, the state of Michigan exemplifies the declining fortunes that accompany relatively low college completion rates. Michigan has a long history as a manufacturing state, which had offered high-paying jobs that did not require postsecondary training. Today, Michigan has one of the nation's highest unemployment rates, hovering at about 13% during the 2007-2009 recession, while the nationwide unemployment rate has been about 9%. Michigan also ranks about 33rd of the 50 states in terms of the current population of adults who hold at least a college degree *(U.S. Census Bureau, 2010)*. Moreover, according to the Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce, more than 60% of Michigan's jobs over the next decade will require postsecondary education *(Carnavale, Smith, & Strolh, 2010)*. Among Michigan's current workforce population (those between 24 and 64 years of age), only about 35% hold at least an associate's degree. Even among those 18-24 years old, college participation is not keeping pace with projected need. For 2008, the college participation rate for all 19-year-olds in Michigan was 42.3%; for low-income students it was 35% *(Mortenson, 2010)*. For African Americans, college participation was 23%; for Hispanics and Native Americans, it was 21% and 22%, respectively *(Lumina Foundation for Education, 2010)*.

The matter is made even more urgent by voter-initiated legislation prohibiting affirmative action in college admissions. In Michigan, a voter referendum prohibiting affirmative action in public university admissions or public employment was passed in 2006. Despite the 2003 landmark Supreme Court decision allowing race or gender as one of many factors that may be considered to achieve the compelling state interest of a diverse student body, the passage of such acts prohibits doing so in practice as a matter of state law. The predictable effect is to reduce college enrollment by underrepresented youth at flagship state universities, as has been seen in states where similar laws have been enacted, such as California, Washington state, and now Michigan. Although underrepresented populations constitute more than a third of the college-age population in the United States, they represent only about 26% of all undergraduates *(National Academy of Sciences, 2010)*. Consequently, ratcheting up college participation rates requires reaching out to diverse communities to inform, encourage, and engage. At the University of Michigan, compliance with the anti-affirmative action legislation likewise resulted in a decline in underrepresented student enrollment, but much less than was the case in California or Washington state. Among the reasons for the University of Michigan's relative continued progress in achieving a diverse student body was not only the addition of more admissions officers to conduct holistic reviews of applications, but also more efforts to reach out to students across the state, including the establishment of an outreach center to advance the idea of increasing college participation rates through both a centralized university office, and the coordination of numerous independently operated existing university programs.

Authentic Engagement with Communities

Zuiches *(2010)* has identified five themes that undergird authentic engagement and provide a framework for understanding the outreach efforts developed at the University of Michigan. According to Zuiches, authentic engagement

- reflects collaborative, reciprocal, and scholarly work, and builds the capacities of all partners;
- requires active involvement in communities as well as shared mission and vision;
- values and engages diversity of people, expertise, and culture;
- uses authentic processes for learning, teaching, integrating, and investigating in and with communities; and
- is built upon institutional philosophies and core values embedded in democracy, collaborative leadership, and mutual respect *(p. ii)*.

Such principles for engagement with communities, as outlined by Zuiches, form a compelling rationale for the steps taken by the University of Michigan to establish an educational outreach center, and are representative of the kinds of efforts that were employed in reaching out to schools and community organizations.

The University of Michigan: Steps Taken to Establish a Center for Educational Outreach

The University of Michigan is a publicly-chartered, state-assisted institution with its main campus located in Ann Arbor. The Ann Arbor campus enrolls about 41,000 students, and includes professional schools in dentistry, law, medicine, and pharmacy. Two branch campuses conduct research and provide undergraduate education. The University of Michigan-Dearborn has about 8,725 students in four schools and colleges. The University of Michigan-Flint has four schools and 6,500 students. The university's instructional staff numbers about 5,000, with a non-instructional staff of 26,000, for a total employment of 31,000. The university awards about 11,500 degrees each year.

The university is committed to a diverse and vital university community as an essential part of the culture and fabric of its campus. It is a leader in the defense of diversity in higher education and in its research programs on the value of diversity in education. The University of Michigan's leadership in the fight for the right to create a diverse campus community is reflected in its pursuit of the matter all the way to the United States Supreme Court. The landmark 2003 Supreme Court decision endorsing diversity in higher education as a compelling state interest served as the model for the nation with respect to enrolling a diverse student body. Despite the university's victory at the Supreme Court, or perhaps because of it, a state constitutional amendment was proposed and passed (Proposal 2) in 2006, which prohibited affirmative action in college admissions and, as a result, reduced student body diversity at the University of Michigan. In response, the university established a Center for Educational Outreach in 2007 for the purpose of promoting academic excellence and the development of a college-going culture in communities across the state. The author of this article is the founding director of that center.

A first step in developing the Center for Educational Outreach (the Center) was to identify existing outreach and partnership efforts on the campus. Fortunately, prior work by the University of Michigan's School of Education had identified a list of more than 200 educational outreach programs offered on the campus. Using that base, the Center's staff canvassed other programs and ultimately identified over 300 outreach efforts offered by university departments and offices. In addition, more than 70 educational outreach efforts conducted by student organizations were identified. Both sets of programs were compiled into a searchable database and made available via the Center's website (http://ceo.umich.edu/) so that students, parents, teachers, and others could easily locate information about the variety of programs available. This step also allowed communities to be engaged with information about the kinds of programs and resources the university could offer, while providing a basis for community stakeholders to help identify services or programming areas they felt still needed to be addressed. A university outreach council was established to provide regular opportunities for outreach staff members to share information, network, and collaborate.

A second step in the development of the Center was engaged scholarship with a wide range of stakeholders, both within and outside the university, in order to identify problems, priorities, and potential solutions. On the campus, this took the form of a series of interviews with deans and program directors to review existing efforts as well as to explore opportunities for collaboration or for launching new initiatives. A similar effort took place with constituencies outside the university, and involved a series of consultations with school officials (e.g., principals or superintendents), community agency directors, as well as University of Michigan alumni who resided in communities where Center activities would be offered. In doing so, the authors gained an understanding of the kinds of programs or services that would be most useful to schools or agencies that had an interest in promoting a college-going culture in communities.

In turn, as the Center's staff was put together, a concerted effort was made to select those who could contribute to the development of programs that addressed the problems and priorities which had emerged from consultations with target communities. The newly hired staff members were charged with developing programs that would respond to the expressed interests of those communities. The result has been the development of a series of innovative and engaging programs and services that reach out to young people and to their teachers/supporters, and that emphasize a shared commitment to academic excellence, to the goal of college attendance, and to cultivating knowledge about the college-going process.

Through active involvement with communities, the Center's staff learned that educators, students, and parents were interested in programs and partnerships that would

- help raise awareness among students about academic readiness for college;
- help students understand that their college aspirations were realistic and that resources (i.e., financial aid) were available to help finance college attendance;
- provide students with opportunities to visit college campuses and learn firsthand what the experience is like;
- inform students about the college admissions process, including the roles of grades, standardized tests, and personal essays in college admissions;
- provide direct classroom management assistance to teachers;
- help parents understand the role they play in encouraging academic excellence (particularly parents of first-generation students);

- provide educational enrichment activities for students beyond the classroom; and
- provide opportunities for interaction with "near peer" college students (i.e., role models who demonstrate "I can do it, so can you!").

Queries of community members and school personnel confirmed that developing and offering such programs would represent precisely the kinds of targets of opportunity identified by researchers for expanding college access *(Swail, 2000; Tierney, Corwin, & Colyar, 2005)*. At the same time, the Center's staff sought to establish programs that were consistent with their own institutional goals, and thus emphasized the creation of programs that had a focus on service, leadership, diversity, and knowledge creation/sharing.

Among the problems and priorities that emerged from engagement with schools and communities, only one seemed to be outside the Center's purview, and that was the desire for university personnel to provide direct assistance in the classroom. Such a role was considered not only impractical (due to such constraints as competing commitments, distance, or distinct academic calendars), but also inconsistent with certain tenets of academic freedom or teacher union contracts. Moreover, such classroom-based involvement is already provided by existing teacher education programs. However, the Center's staff members were confident that they could develop a set of programs that would address the other concerns and interests that had been expressed. Some programs were developed and offered expressly by the Outreach Center, while others were offered in partnership with other university programs and with schools or community organizations.

Engaged scholarship with stakeholders as well as a review of best practices and institutional goals led Outreach Center staff to develop outreach programs that fell into four broad categories: (a) information and exposure, (b) talent development, (c) educational enrichment, and (d) leadership development.

The process of engaging with stakeholders can take different forms, including the kinds of consultations with stakeholders mentioned above, and deserves some comment. Thus, two examples of the engagement processes used are described in more detail here. Although these two examples do not exhaust the variety of ways the Center has employed engaged scholarship, they are nonetheless representative of the process, which actually entails multiple forms of interaction, mutual consultation and feedback, and coordinated program development.

Table 1. Center for Education Outreach Program Types, Descriptions, and Examples

Program Type	Description
Information and exposure	Programs that provide information and expose the K-12 population to the experiences and possibilities provided by a higher education
Talent development	Programs that focus on developing interests and abilities among students for specific fields or disciplines
Educational enrichment	Programs that supplement existing educational pursuits
Leadership development	Programs that assist students in developing and honing leadership skills

In the first example, the Center was approached by school representatives seeking assistance in addressing a persistent achievement gap for certain groups of students in the district. The school district assembled statistics on the extent of the problem, and together the Center's staff and school representatives explored intervention strategies. A general intervention model was crafted, and discussions concerning it were held with the district superintendent, school principals, and counseling staff. This was followed by drafting a partnership agreement detailing the roles to be played by the school district and by the Center in implementing the intervention program. Once commitments were secured and a program developed, meetings were held with parents and with students, describing what was planned and seeking their commitment to participate. The result was a cohort-based intervention strategy that involved a leadership course offered in the school, as well as after-school tutoring and mentoring by university students, educational enrichment field trips to campus, and a summer camp experience. Preliminary results indicated that participating students are performing well in school (mean grade point average of 3.2 in freshman year of high school), that their college aspirations are strong, and that students, parents, and school staff members are pleased with progress to date.

The second example involves a different approach, and is rooted in the university's partnership with a national organization to provide college advising staff for work assignment in under-resourced schools. In this example, the process began with the Center reaching out to school superintendents describing the program and services that could be offered and inviting the school district to consider participation. If the school district responded with interest in partnering, the Center's staff members met with the superintendent and any designated school staff members to describe in detail the project and the commitments required. If both parties agreed to proceed, then a memorandum of understanding was drafted and adopted. School representatives were invited to campus to meet candidates for assignment to their particular school and to provide their input on the suitability of candidates for such assignment. For this program the university, with philanthropic support, provides salary and supervision for the assigned staff, while the school district provides office space and support. Preliminary results from this project are very promising. Students in the school report having a more positive attitude toward college-going, gaining more information about their college options, and dramatically increasing the number of college applications submitted. Similarly, reports from district superintendents, principals, and school counselors independently confirm that the program is having its intended effect in terms of a broadly changed attitude in the schools concerning the prospect of attending college. Such preliminary results are encouraging, but more formal evaluations will be forthcoming as programs mature and sufficient data is collected across the different programs and for multiple years.

Outreach Initiative

The national imperative to improve college-going and completion rates has spurred a wide range of initiatives and argues forcefully for increased involvement by colleges and universities to address the issue. Doing so is widely recognized to require outreach to students, educators, and communities to encourage the development or expansion of a college-going culture among communities other than the higher income families that already send a high percentage of their children to college. The initiative at the University of Michigan represents one response to the challenge and has resulted in the creation of new programs as well as collaborative efforts with existing programs that currently reach

> *"The national imperative to improve college-going and completion rates has spurred a wide range of initiatives and argues forcefully for increased involvement by colleges and universities to address the issue."*

thousands of students. Specific examples are represented by Table 2, which lists some of the programs offered either directly by the outreach center or in partnerships with schools, as well as student-initiated efforts supported by the Center.

Table 2. Representative Educational Outreach Programs Developed Through Engaged Scholarship

Program Name	Partner Organization	Purpose	Number of Students Served	Engaged Stakeholders
College Corps	2 regional high schools	Build student awareness of college options and the level of preparation needed for admission	97	Principal, counselors, parents
Michigan College Advising Corps	8 high schools across the state	Place full-time college advisors in underserved high schools to promote college access and success	9,444	District superintendent, principals, counselors
Rising Scholars	3 local high schools	Address the achievement gap by providing academic enrichment and talent development programs for underserved students	97	District superintendent and staff, principals, counselors, parents, and students
Future U	4 underserved middle schools	Develop interests and abilities in academic fields among middle school students through workshops and field trips	125	Parents, principals
Camp KinoMaage	12 Native American tribes	Develop interests and abilities in STEM fields among Native American middle school students through a residential field experience in biology	20	Tribal education directors, university faculty, community organization directors
Real On College	Schools, community organizations, churches	Strengthen personal leadership skills, community involvement, and thoughtful consideration of college aspirations	5,107	Parents, ministers, community organization directors, school personnel
Students for Educational Equality	University students	Promote academic achievement through afterschool activities, including near-peer mentoring, tutoring, and standardized test preparation workshops	183	Principals, parents, counselors, college students

Engaged Scholarship: Challenges

Engaged scholarship does not just happen, even when well-meaning university faculty members and researchers present themselves offering resources; rather, engagement interactions need to be well-planned and carried out with due consideration given to the needs and sensibilities of the communities to be served. Outreach Center staff have learned from their experience that certain realities must be kept in mind and that outreach efforts and partnerships with schools need to reflect these realities. For instance:

- School calendars and university calendars often do not match; thus, university students serving as mentors or tutors, for example, may not be available at times when schools may wish most to have them present. Therefore, the duration and nature of commitment to be provided by university personnel should be spelled out in advance.
- Similarly, even when university personnel (students, faculty, or staff) are available to offer programs or services, the timeliness of the activity is important. Will the program be offered in school, after school, or on weekends? A simple matter like when or where a program is offered can dramatically affect participation.
- Teachers and counselors have their own sets of duties and responsibilities to carry out, so even well-intentioned university-sponsored intervention or outreach programs can be seen as intrusive, burdensome, or even threatening. Thus, an engaged scholarship approach involving consultation with school staff members and seeking their input and advice prior to any program implementation should be an important element.
- School districts are run by superintendents, but schools are run by principals. Thus, leadership and culture in the individual school must be an important consideration for outreach and engagement. An emphasis on postsecondary education (i.e., college attendance) as inherent to the school's culture should be a persistent and routine matter for school leaders.
- Parental support can be critical to the success of intervention or engagement programs aimed at students. Thus, the importance of communicating with parents to enlist their support and encouragement cannot be overemphasized.

Conclusion

This essay has described the context and development of a university-based educational outreach and engagement center, and represents progress made in the 3 years since the program's inception as well as its continued commitment to authentic engagement with constituent communities. Although much work remains to be done, and challenges continue to evolve, Outreach Center staff are quite encouraged by the sense of engagement that has been demonstrated by their partners, both those within the university and those outside it. The Center has created more than a dozen ongoing outreach programs, and has now placed full-time advisors in 15 high schools with plans to expand to 24 advisors; it has hosted thousands of middle and high school students in programs and on campus visits, as well as hosted statewide conferences on promoting college access; and it has formed partnerships with several middle and high schools. In addition, the Center has worked with teachers and principals to bring educational enrichment activities to students and has conducted numerous workshops on college participation and access.

Although it is too early in its development to provide a formal evaluation, initial reports on program impact are quite promising. For example, survey questionnaires administered to participants in Center programs yield overwhelmingly positive reactions, with more than 80% of respondents indicating their satisfaction with information and activities that were provided. In unsolicited reports, both spoken and written, school principals and counselors not only indicated that they were pleased and appreciative of the Center's efforts in their schools, but also shared their conclusion that the programs were having positive impacts in terms of student interest and motivations. Moreover, students themselves have expressed their gratitude for the opportunities provided by their participation in the Center activities, as well as their impression that their attitudes about school and about college have undergone positive changes. In addition to such impressionistic responses, the authors have hard evidence of impact, such as dramatic increases in the number of applications submitted for

> *"[T]he authors have hard evidence of impact, such as dramatic increases in the number of applications submitted for college admission. . . and the number of scholarships awarded to program participants in partner schools."*

college admission, the number of FAFSA forms completed, and the number of scholarships awarded to program participants in partner schools. Formal evaluations are in the design stage and will be conducted as the Center matures, but early evidence is quite encouraging.

All of the Center's efforts have as their goal an emphasis on the creation of a college-going culture in communities, particularly but not exclusively those communities with significant numbers of underrepresented, low-income, and first-generation college students. By encouraging academic excellence while in school and representing college attendance as a realistic and attainable aspiration, the authors expect authentic outreach and engagement to have a long-term impact on college enrollment, success, and graduation for diverse students.

References

Advisory Committee on Student Financial Aid. (2010). *The rising price of inequality*. Washington, DC: Author.

Barton, P. E. (2005). *Unfinished business: More measured approaches in standards-based reform* (Policy Information Report). Princeton, NJ: Policy Information Center, Educational Testing Service. Available from http://www.ets.org/research/pic

Baum, S., Ma, J., & Payea, K. (2010). *Education pays 2010: The benefits of higher education for individuals and society*. New York, NY: The College Board.

Carnavale, A., Smith, N., & Strolh, J. (2010). *Help wanted: Projections of jobs and education requirements through 2018*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Center for Education and the Workforce. Retrieved November 9, 2010, from http://www9.georgetown.edu/grad/gppi/hpi/cew/pdfs/FullReport.pdf

Chapman, C., Laird, J., Ifill, N., and KewalRamani, A. (2011). *Trends in High School Dropout and Completion Rates in the United States: 1972–2009* (NCES 2012-006). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved October 13, 2011, from http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch

Church, R. L. and Sedlak, M. W. (1976). Education in the United States: An Interpretive History. New York: The Free Press, p. vii.

College Board. (2008). *Coming to our senses: Education and the American future*. New York, NY: Author.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). *The flat world and education: How America's commitment to equity will determine our future*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Education Commission of the States. (2001). S*tarting early, starting now: A policymaker's guide to early care and education and school success*. Denver, CO: Author.

Greene, J. P. (2002). *High school graduation rates in the United States*. New York: The Manhattan Institute.

Hahn, R. D., & Price, D. (2008). *Promise lost: College-qualified students who don't enroll in college*. Washington, DC: Institute for Higher Education Policy.

Institute for Higher Education Policy. (2010). *Cost perceptions and college-going for low-income students* (IHEP Research to Practice Brief). Washington, DC: Author.

Jones, R. T. (2002). *Facing new challenges* (National Cross Talk, Summer 2002). Washington, DC: National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education. Retrieved December 15, 2010, from http://www.highereducation.org/crosstalk/ct0302/voices0702-facing_new_challenges.shtml

Longanecker, D. A. (2008). [Foreword]. In Western Interstate Commission of Higher Education, *Knocking on the college door: Projections of high school graduates by state and race/ethnicity 1992–2022* (p. ix), Boulder, CO: Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education.

Lumina Foundation for Education. (2010). *A stronger nation through higher education: How and why Americans must achieve a "big goal" for college attainment*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.

Lumina Foundation's Strategic Plan: Goal 2025 [Brochure]. (2009). Indianapolis, IN: Lumina Foundation for Education, Inc.

Mortenson, T. G. (2009, November). Inherited . . . family income and educational attainment 1970–2008. *Postsecondary Education Opportunity, No. 209*, 1–16.

Mortenson, T. G. (2010, September). College participation rates by state for all 19 year old and for low income students 1994–2008. *Postsecondary Education Opportunity, No. 219*, 1–10.

National Academy of Sciences. (2010). *Expanding underrepresented minority participation: America's science and technology talent at the crossroads*. Washington, DC: Author. Available from http://www.nap.edu/catalog/12984.html

National Center for Education Statistics. (2010). *Drop-out and completion rates in the United States—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved December 15, 2010, from http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2009/dropout07/findings3.asp

Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development. (2009). *Education at a glance—2009*. Paris, France: Author.

Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development. (2010). *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2010*. Paris, France. Author. Retrieved November 5, 2010, from http://www.sourceoecd.org/education/97892645055988.

Stillwell, R. (2010). *Public school graduates and dropouts from the common core of data: School year 2007–08* (NCES 2010-341). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved December 1, 2010, from http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2010341

Sum, A., et al. (2003). *The hidden crisis in the high school dropout problems of young adults in the U.S.: Recent trends in overall school dropout rates and gender differences in dropout behavior*. Prepared for the Business Roundtable, Center for Labor Market Studies, Northeastern University, Boston, MA, February 2003.

Swail, W.S. (2000). Preparing America's disadvantaged for college: Programs that increase college opportunity. In Alberto F. Cabrera & Steven M. La Nasa (Eds.), *Understanding the college choice of disadvantaged students* (pp.85-101). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Swanson, C. B., & Chaplin, D. (2003, February 23). *Counting high school graduates when graduates count*. Washington, DC: Education Policy Center, Urban Institute.

Tierney, W. G., Bailey, T., Constantine, J., Finkelstein, N., & Hurd, N. F. (2009). *Helping students navigate the path to college: What high schools can do; A practice guide* (NCEE #2009-4066). Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.

Tierney, W. G., Corwin, Z. B., & Colyar, J. E. (2005). *Preparing for college: Nine elements of effective outreach*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2010). *Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population, 1940–present.* Retrieved November 9, 2010, from http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat1.pdf

U.S. Census Bureau. (2010). *Educational attainment by state: 1990–2007*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved December 15, 2010, from http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/2010/tables/10s0228

Zuiches, J. (2010). [Welcome to the 2010 National Outreach Scholarship Conference!]. In *National Outreach Scholarship Conference Program* (p. ii). Raleigh, NC: The 2010 National Outreach Scholarship Conference.

About the Author

William Collins is Executive Director of the Center for Educational Outreach at the University of Michigan. Prior to 2008, Collins served as director of the University of Michigan's Comprehensive Studies Program. He earned his bachelor's degree, master's degree, and Ph.D. in Psychology from the University of Michigan.

Book Reviews

Theodore R. Alter, Associate Editor
The Pennsylvania State University

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 121, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Baron, N. (2010). *Escape from the Ivory Tower: A Guide to Making Your Science Matter*. Washington, DC: Island Press.

Review by Michel M. Haigh

Escape from the Ivory Tower: A Guide to Making Your Science Matter explores how scientists can promote their research. This hands-on book, however, can also help students, faculty members, and Extension specialists become more comfortable working with the media. Nancy Baron, the lead communications trainer for the Communication Partnership for Science and the Sea (COMPASS) and the Leopold Leadership Program, has written a "how to" guide so scientists can understand how to promote their research and make it matter. It is often challenging to work with the media; this book can prepare individuals to do so. Baron answers the question, "How do you reach beyond your research circles to communicate what you are observing to the wider world—why it matters, the potential risks, the possible solutions?" *(p. 5)*.

The book and its online resources can help readers improve their media relations skills. It provides step-by-step instructions. It is easy to read and well-organized. The book's case studies of scientists, journalists, and policy experts apply the content to "real world" situations.

Baron organizes the book in four parts. The first section is an introduction explaining why it is important for scientists to disseminate their research findings. Different cultures (e.g., media culture and policy culture) that a scientist should be aware of are discussed in the second section. The third section is the "how-to toolkit." The fourth section discusses how scientists can be agents of change once their research findings have been disseminated. An overview of each chapter follows.

Part I

Chapter 1, the introduction, outlines the purpose of the book. Baron discusses why science is important. She challenges the reader to have an open mind when working with the media. Explaining the importance of research in a direct way will keep the public interested.

In Chapter 2 Baron discusses why researchers would *want* to communicate their findings. One reason is to inform the public and policymakers. Another reason is to "enhance your stature and reputation among your peers and with your students" *(p. 14)*.

Still another reason is to fulfill a requirement. For example, the National Science Foundation and the National Institutes of Health ask for an outreach and public communications plan when researchers apply for grants. The chapter does a good job of arguing the case for disseminating research findings beyond the "ivory tower."

Part II

Journalistic and scientific cultures are discussed in Part II, Chapters 3–7. Chapter 3 gives practical advice on how to work with journalists. Whereas scientists are trained to (1) provide the background, (2) present methods, and (3) report the results. Journalists want the bottom line first, so research findings and their importance need to be communicated briefly, with minimal use of jargon and acronyms. In other words, keep it simple. Neither journalists nor their audiences have time to read through pages of information to find "why is this important."

In Chapter 4, Baron discusses what makes a good science story. A good science story should be novel, show the passion of the researcher, and discuss the mystery of the research process. Baron also explores the importance of audience. Scientists need to be aware of how various media target different audiences. Researchers must tailor their message to the audience.

Chapter 5 is an insightful chapter examining why and how media has changed over time. Baron discusses the traditional business model of the media; new forms of media, including blogs and social networking; and strategies for better understanding how and where to disseminate research findings.

In Chapters 6 and 7, Baron compares scientists who ask, "How does the world work?" to policymakers who ask, "What should we do?" She reflects on the misperceptions scientists have of policymakers, and those that policymakers have of scientists.

Overall, the chapters in Part II take the mystery out of communicating with journalists and policymakers. Though this book is intended for scientists, anyone who needs to promote their organization, research, or policy agenda would benefit from the information provided.

Part III

Part III, Chapters 8–13, is a "how-to" toolkit, which is a handy guide on how to communicate. Chapter 8 discusses delivering a clear, concise message. The "so what" is the most important thing to remember. Journalists and the public need to know why the "so what" is important to them. The "so what" can also change based on the audience.

In Chapter 8, Baron also introduces a helpful tool called the message box. The message box tool can help researchers explain to nonscientists what they do; prepare for interviews; prepare a 30-second elevator speech about a project; polish an abstract or cover letter; write an op-ed (opposite the editorial page) or news release; and prepare a story for a website. In short, the chapter is extremely helpful for those with little or no experience in media relations.

Chapter 9 helps readers prepare for interviews. Baron gives pre-interview, during-the-interview, and post-interview tips. She also provides a list of do's and don'ts. Examples of the "do's" include being accessible and responsive, knowing how to sum up a message in a sentence, interacting with interviewers, choosing words carefully, and being ready to answer everything. The "don'ts" include not saying "no comment" and not sweating the "small stuff."

The importance of interviewing is revisited in Chapter 10 when Baron illuminates distinctions between broadcast media and print media. She suggests proactive approaches scientists can use to get their story "out there." Instead of waiting to be contacted, scientists can send out news releases, write op-eds or letters-to-the-editor, blog, or pitch stories to journalists. The chapter gives "do's" and "don'ts" for writing for different media types. There are also resources available online for readers to hone their skills (found at www.escapefromtheivorytower.com/resources). Chapters 12 and 13 provide step-by-step instructions on how to promote research and work with policymakers. Overall, the tools and information provided in Part III would be helpful to any reader, not just scientists.

Part IV

The final chapters, 14 and 15 (Part IV), provide readers with an understanding of how important it is to be an agent of change. Baron believes scientists should remember the four Ps: *prepare* to disseminate a message that is articulate, to the point, and easy to understand; *practice* presenting key points; deliver the right message to the right audience to achieve *persuasion*; and deliver messages with *passion*.

The strengths of this book include the writing style, the use of case studies, the use of "real world" examples, and the supplemental online resources. Baron takes the mystery out of media relations. She has written a “must have” reference book that is accessible to a variety of audiences.

About the Reviewer

Michel M. Haigh is an associate professor in the College of Communications at The Pennsylvania State University. Her previous work experience includes working for an Extension communications service unit as a writer and editor. Haigh’s research is in the areas of media effects and strategic communication. She earned her bachelor’s degrees from South Dakota State University, her master’s degree from Texas Tech University, and her Ph.D. from the University of Oklahoma.

Acknowledgement

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

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 125, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Prince, G. S., Jr. (2008). *Teach Them to Challenge Authority: Educating for Healthy Societies*. New York, NY: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Review by Beth Walter Honadle

This book's provocative title is reminiscent of Abbie Hoffman's *Steal This Book* or Saul Alinsky's *Rules for Radicals*. Those books, written a generation ago as manuals for rebellion, advocated a confrontational approach to change. *Teach Them to Challenge Authority* is anything but a radical, anti-establishment screed. In purpose and tone, this book is rather an impassioned argument for an activist, engaged academy. The author, Gregory S. Prince, Jr., describes the book as equal parts memoir and argument. As memoir, it draws on his education and experiences in private institutions—from being a student at St. Albans School in Washington, DC, through college at Yale and Dartmouth, and from his decade and a half as president of Hampshire College.

The book is organized in three sections. Part I boldly presents two contrasting views of education. On the one hand are what Prince calls "the neutralists," those who argue that university professors should not advocate positions in the classroom. According to Prince, if "Neutral University" had a mission statement it would read, "[T]he true purpose of education is to create a context where all issues are debated openly and where all ideas can be expressed. Believing that authority and power tend to suppress openness, Neutral University has as a core principle that the university and its administrative officers will remain neutral on all critical debates and issues in order to create the greatest possible openness" *(p. 119)*. The neutralist camp includes Robert Bork (conservative jurist and scholar), Stephen Balch (National Association of Scholars), and David Horowitz (Students for Academic Freedom).

On the other hand are what Prince calls "the activists," representing a markedly different vision of the role of a liberal education. Prince makes the case for faculty expressing opinions on topics that are not related to their disciplines, such as a professor of physics criticizing President George W. Bush's Iraq policies. According to Prince, the neutralists equate advocacy with indoctrination and the suppression of independent thinking. Prince's counterargument is that "on the contrary, . . . advocacy [is] an appropriate, even central feature of a liberal education" *(p. 28)*.

Part I (called "Two Views of Education") also provides a recent history of thought through the lens of a college administrator. Early in the book, Prince goes into considerable detail about the philosophy and writing of Robert Bork, one of the leading intellectuals on the conservative side of the "culture wars," or conflict between conservative and liberal values. Prince states, "Bork's thesis is straightforward. American civilization is in decline because modern liberalism and its powerful ally, American education, have continually led the younger generation astray" *(p. 12)*. Part I goes on to recount testimony at legislative hearings in Pennsylvania on academic freedom. Prince does a good job of summarizing the opposition's brief in favor of neutrality—and then proceeds to attack it point by point.

Part II (called "Mirrors for America") profiles five institutions from different parts of the world that represent the activist model. Prince offers these examples of educational institutions that have adapted an American form of education with the hope of transforming their societies. They include the University of Natal (South Africa), the European Humanities University (Lithuania), the Asian University for Women (Bangladesh), Singapore Management University, and the American University in Bulgaria. He uses each institutional case to make a different point about the virtues of an engaged university (e.g., modeling the behavior we expect from students, teaching critical thinking, and challenging authority). Some of the examples are so new that Prince can merely speculate about their success. The Asian University for Women was "slated to open in 2008," the year Prince published the book. Nevertheless, Prince develops this case of a university with a mission "to provide a liberal education to any qualified woman" *(p. 105)*. In the confident language characteristic of *Teach Them to Challenge Authority*, Prince writes, "It is hard to imagine another mission that could challenge more conventions or so many authorities or that could accomplish so much in trying to build healthy communities" *(p. 105)*.

In Part III (called "The Engaged University") Prince uses the first two chapters to raise questions about "What is enough?" With the first two-thirds of the book devoted to building a case for how the engaged university is supposed to better society, it was refreshing to read Prince's thoughtful assessment of whether an engaged university is sufficiently engaged. Prince concedes that this is a difficult and subjective question, but does not allow this difficulty to deter him from addressing the topic head-on.[1] Prince calls these the "'are-you-doing-enough' questions" *(p. 168)* and appropriately equivocates. From the point of view of resources and opportunities, he thought his institution, Hampshire College, was doing enough. However, when he examined its activities in terms of needs and what ought to be done, his answer to "Are you doing enough?" was "No."

The final chapter of the book is a call for institutions to listen to students. This recommendation follows from earlier chapters in which Prince drew on his personal practices and experiences as an administrator. He frequently talked about his routine breakfasts with students at Hampshire. He related a time when he objected to a meeting of institution presidents about why students do not vote that did not include students' voices, so he convened a meeting of students (two from each institution at the original conference) at Hampshire to develop and present their views. One of the most amusing (and instructive) stories Prince told was about how he worked with the minuscule Republican club at Hampshire College to deal with their posters' being ripped down by students who did not agree with their opinions. Prince expressed great satisfaction at the group's success in advancing views that were contrary to his own. In another extended vignette, Prince showed leadership and courage in chastising his own students for piggybacking on a patriotic rally after September 11, 2001, to espouse anti-imperialist views, and burn an American flag. He devoted three pages of the book to quoting an open letter he had written on the occasion to explain his position that their tactics were wrongheaded.

All in all, this is a well-written, interesting book that leaves the reader with a clear understanding of the author's point of view. Prince has much to offer those who want to move their institutions toward more engagement, even if he sometimes is heavily prescriptive. It is clear that Prince has spent decades thinking about the subject. The book is an attempt to pull his experiences, arguments, and principles together into a coherent volume. Prince has developed boilerplate text that can be used for discussions, and for drafting mission statements. He is a firm believer that mission statements matter, even if they are only ideals and not always realized fully. Examples of Prince's template guidelines include his four principles about the purpose of education; his "Principles of Discourse" (e.g., tenets dealing with truth, responsibility, listening, criticism, civility); and his "Bill of Rights for the Engaged University" (complete with several "whereas" clauses, lists of student rights and responsibilities, and a list of responsibilities for universities).

I once read a good rule for writing book reviews that said the reviewer should judge a book based on the author's intentions, not based on the book the reviewer wished the author had written. This book certainly fulfills the author's stated purpose. Readers, however, may find Prince's style somewhat pretentious and sanctimonious. A substantive weakness of the book is that the author never really explains what he means by "a healthy society," a concept that Prince seems to take as self-evident. And some readers may be distracted by the many references to "tertiary education" (rather than the more common "higher education") and other arcane terms. Still, taken as a whole, the book comes across as fair-minded and sincere.

Teach Them to Challenge Authority offers a cogent, thoughtful treatise on the value of engaged education in terms of critical thinking skills and other benefits. The book provides a strong argument against what the author sees as paternalistic "neutral education" that does not trust students to draw their own conclusions and avoid being indoctrinated. In short, this book should be read and discussed by students, faculty, and administrators who are seeking more than buzzwords about engagement and want to dig deeper into the rationale for an engaged, activist academy populated by different types of institutions. Prince is not suggesting that all institutions be the same; on the contrary, his vision is for a diversity of institutions representing different perspectives, and he allows for some neutralist institutions.

Endnote

1. The approach of examining *what* institutions do, *how well* they do it, and *how much* they do conforms to the book review author's own work on capacity-building *(Honadle, 1981)*, which explains some of its methodological appeal to this reviewer.

Reference

Honadle, B. W. (1981). A capacity-building framework: A search for concept and purpose. *Public Administration Review, 41*(5), 575–580.

About the Reviewer

Beth Walter Honadle is a professor of planning in the College of Design, Architecture, Art, and Planning at the University of Cincinnati. Her research interests include community and economic development, regionalism, public policy, intergovernmental relations, public finance, workforce development, and capacity building. She earned her bachelor's degree in political science from the University of Wisconsin–Madison, and her master's degree in economics and public administration, and her Ph.D. in public administration from Syracuse University.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 129, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Tichi, C. (2009). *Civic Passions: Seven Who Launched Progressive America (and What They Teach Us)*. Chapel Hill, NC: The University of North Carolina Press.

Review by John Louis Recchiuti

We Americans express our civic passions—our passions for improving society—in a variety of ways. We act—locally, regionally, nationally, and globally—through government agencies, religious organizations, economic initiatives, and in other ways to make the world a better place. And since we hold competing views about what constitutes a good life and a good society, we are at odds not only about what good citizens ought strive to achieve, but also about the means by which they ought strive to achieve it. Politics in our free and open society is a contentious affair; we battle both in the marketplace of ideas and in the arena of practical politics about the ends and means of our civic engagement.

In the Preface to *Civic Passions*, Cecilia Tichi notes that following the Civil War "momentous change in material conditions" *(p. xii)* gave rise to a "new consumer culture" *(p. xii)* as the American economy took off on a century and more of breathtaking technological innovation, including "mass electrification, indoor plumbing, appliances, automobiles, supermarkets, highways, commercial aviation, credit cards, television, computers, e-mail, the worldwide web," and more *(pp. xii–xiii)*.

Indeed, "momentous change in material conditions," in the context of what historian Eric Foner and others have called the second industrial revolution, did occur. For it was in the late 19th and early 20th centuries that the United States became the world's richest country, a position it continues to hold today. Economic historians are generally agreed that competitive market capitalism was the engine that drove that dynamic material growth. Bernard Mandeville's *Fable of the Bees; or, Private Vices, Public Benefits (1714)* and Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations (1776)* contributed to the earlier radical idea that people's selfish passions, in particular the powerful motive of self-love, could, in a competitive marketplace, yield expansive economic growth. And it works. Measured in 2005 dollars, real per capita GDP in the United States in 1800 was about $1,400; in 1900 about $5,500; in 2010 about $42,000. Since 1880, life expectancy has almost doubled, and medical advances have combined with ongoing revolutions in transportation, communication, and information to improve the lives of millions. In consequence of this economic growth the United States has long been celebrated as the land of opportunity. Millions, drawn by rising standards of living, have immigrated to our shores and borders; the twenty-five million who did so between 1870 and 1920 constitute one of the largest mass migrations in human history. Entrepreneurship and a hard-driving work ethic in the context of free markets have been important expressions of civic passion—as measured by the material improvements that have issued to society from them—though it is not clear that Tichi would agree. She refers to "the economic myth" in her Postscript, and I would have enjoyed hearing more about this.

Yet, amid this plenty, millions of Americans lived and continue to live in poverty. The distribution of wealth is highly skewed; the Gini coefficient has been on the rise over the last forty years. And, as Tichi writes, "the term *public*" has "become pejorative, whether . . . applied to schools, hospitals, or recreational facilities" *(p. 277)*. "Public funds for public purposes—taxes—were no longer seen as civic membership dues but as theft" *(p. 276)*. And "a gap in life expectancy widened" as "'disparities in life expectancy for richer and poorer Americans'" grew, even as all groups lived longer *(p. 278)*.

"[L]egatees of corporate wealth," Tichi notes, have sometimes expressed their civic passions by becoming "primary sources of funding for various humanitarian causes" *(p. 277)*. Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller in the early 20th century, and Bill Gates and Warren Buffett early in the 21st century did not squander their fortunes in riotous living, but instead took up the responsibility of philanthropy. "Carnegie donated libraries all over America and John D. Rockefeller supported medical research" *(p. 278)*, impressive acts of philanthropic civic passion. Today, in the largest act of philanthropic civic engagement in world history, the wealthy "donate impressive sums to medical science, to HIV/AIDS treatment, to literacy and many other causes" *(p. 278)*. To illustrate this point, in 2010, the year after the publication of Civic Passions, led by Gates and Buffett, some 57 billionaires pledged to donate half their fortunes to philanthropy during their lifetimes. Tichi reminds us, however, that "[t]he sums involved, while impressive, are small fractions of the monies needed for important public purposes" *(p. 278)*.

In Tichi's text readers of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* will find food for thought, and, possibly, inspiration. At the center of *Civic Passions* are biographical sketches of four women and three men born in the 1850s and 1860s. Each, at a time when less than 3% of Americans attended college, was a member of the college-trained intelligentsia, and each was a leading figure in his or her chosen profession.

- Alice Hamilton, educated at University of Michigan and Johns Hopkins University, became a professor of medicine at Harvard University, and was a leading expert in the field of occupational health.
- John R. Commons, a graduate of Oberlin College and Johns Hopkins University, was a professor of economics at the University of Wisconsin.
- Julia Lathrop, a Vassar College graduate who trained as a lawyer in her father's firm, became founding director of the U.S. Children's Bureau.
- Florence Kelley was educated at Cornell University, University of Zurich, and in Northwestern University's school of law, and she subsequently headed the National Consumers' League.
- Louis D. Brandeis was an associate justice on the U.S. Supreme Court, and was a graduate from Harvard Law School.
- Walter Rauschenbusch, a student and then professor of theology at the Rochester Theological Seminary, became a leading figure in the social gospel movement.
- Ida B. Wells-Barnett, born in slavery, attended what is today Rust College and later Fisk University. She became a journalist and anti-lynching civil rights activist.

Indeed, the seven came of age at a time when industrial capitalism was new, raw, and brutal, the wrenching barbarities of American slavery only a recent memory, and the modern civil rights and women's movements were in their generative infancies. Each of the seven contributed importantly to Progressive Era America. And, as with many college-trained Americans in their day, each had ideas, and engaged in political actions in aid of the weak and downtrodden.

The defining characteristic of political progressivism is its commitment to an active national state. Though, to be sure, along with the active national state progressive government in the United States also encompasses active state-level government initiatives. Progressive activism of the state is undertaken through administrative agencies of government (often called bureaus, agencies, administrations, or commissions). These government agencies are a principal means by which federal and state-level governments regulate the economy and society. Elements of the modern progressive administrative state first emerged during the Civil War and during Reconstruction with the founding of administrative agencies such as the U.S. Sanitary Commission (created 1861), and the Freedmen's Bureau (1865–69). With the taking off of the second industrial revolution following the Civil War (and influenced by Bismark's Germany), administrative agencies of government in the United States increasingly focused on the regulation of the emerging industrial economy. The key distinguishing feature of Progressive Era progressivism is its call for an expansion in the number and size of such administrative agencies administered by "social science" expertise.

The seven individuals Tichi profiles were indeed sympathetic to this core element of progressivism—and some were leading figures in the effort—though they sometimes sharply differed on the ends they sought to achieve. Florence Kelley championed a new Illinois Factory Inspections Law in 1893, and Governor Altgeld appointed her chief of the administrative agency the law created. Throughout her life Kelley worked tirelessly to grow the regulatory and administrative power of the state. Her goal: to transform capitalism into socialism. In contrast, Louis Brandeis sought to use the administrative agency of government to help capitalism flourish. He believed that administrative government—in the guise of such agencies as the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Federal Reserve—would strengthen and improve capitalism by making competitive markets fairer, more transparent and more efficient, for example, by regulating the role played by investment bankers on industrial corporate boards. He is famous also for his 1908 Brandeis Brief—a brief largely written by Josephine Goldmark and others at Florence Kelley's National Consumers' League—which shaped U.S. case law favorable to placing state regulatory controls on business.

Julia Lathrop contributed to the growth of administrative agencies of government by taking up leadership in the United States Children's Bureau. Appointed in 1912 to head the new agency by President Taft, Lathrop was the first woman to head a federal administrative bureau. Economics professor John R. Commons was a central figure in developing the cooperative effort between academics and state legislators in what came to be called the Wisconsin Plan, and was a founder of the American Association for Labor Legislation. And, as Tichi notes, Alice Hamilton, the first woman on Harvard's faculty, "'laid the groundwork for a historic expansion of the administrative state,'" *(p. 55)* in the field of occupational health, and died only months before the creation of the Occupational Safety and Health Administration in 1970. Ida B. Wells-Barnett, as a journalist and public speaker, risked her life to report on and speak out against the brutalities of racism and lynching. In her U.S. and European travels, Wells-Barnett urged citizens and their governments to intervene to stop the barbarism.

In the Postscript Tichi notes that a powerful legacy of Progressive Era progressivism is the range of government administrative "agencies at the state and federal levels" *(p. 275)* that serve "as centers of professional expertise" and regulatory reform *(p. 276)*. "The longer trajectory" of this effort that began at the turn of the 20th century, as she writes, finds "Progressive ideas put in place along a timeline that includes child labor and workplace safety legislation, civil rights laws, clean air and water legislation, and automobile safety legislation" *(p. 276)*.

Today, at a time when progressivism is under attack—debate about the role of government regulatory administrative agencies headed and staffed by university-trained social scientists heating up, and organized labor's influence in decline—Civic Passions is timely.

References

Mandeville, B. (1714). *The fable of the bees; or, private vices, public benefits, public values*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Smith, A. (1776). *An inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations*. London: W. Strahan & T. Cadell.

About the Reviewer

John Louis Recchiuti is the author of *Civic Engagement: Social Science and Progressive-Era Reform in New York City (University of Pennsylvania Press, 2007)*. He has taught at Columbia University and the University of Michigan, and is the John E. and Helen Saffell Endowed Chair in Humanities, and professor of History at the University of Mount Union.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 15, Number 4, p. 135, (2011)
Copyright © 2011 by the University of Georgia. All rights reserved. ISSN 1534-6104

Folbre, N. (2010). *Saving State U: Why We Must Fix Public Higher Education*. New York, NY: The New Press.

Review by Ken Martin

Nancy Folbre is professor of economics at the University of Massachusetts. In her book *Saving State U*, she provides an insightful overview of the history of support and funding for public higher education, with special attention to the period following the creation of the land-grant university system in 1862 through the Morrill Act. She also details the many political and economic factors that have influenced higher education funding and support since then. Folbre notes the role that public higher education has played in addressing and solving societal problems. Still, she is concerned with what she describes as an inefficient and unfair system that partially subsidizes higher education in the United States. Folbre presents a rationale for fixing or saving public higher education and offers ideas for financially supporting it.

Folbre argues that a commitment to low-cost public education helps to maintain a social contract that is especially important for equal opportunity. However, national trends, brought about by recent changes in the political environment, have resulted in an extended period of reduced support for public higher education accompanied by a deterioration in the quality of undergraduate programs. The reduced support is a result of inefficient public spending and tax cuts. These factors have combined to negatively impact the funds available for public higher education.

Folbre equates taxpayer funding of higher education and other social programs (e.g., Social Security and Medicare) to intergenerational transfers that contribute to the public good. From her perspective, public higher education contributes to the vision of the commons where community resources are owned and shared in common by public and private interests. In the early years of public higher education, following passage of the Morrill Act and halfway into the 20th century, state universities enrolled students who would not have been able to afford college by keeping tuition and fees low, in contrast to the higher costs of private institutions. Public funding and support was strong, and was further bolstered by the GI Bill for veterans. Passed into law in 1944, the legislation provided GIs with tuition reimbursements and stipends while attending college.

In the 1980s, public opinion turned against public funding for deficit spending and social programs, including public higher education. By 2005, state and local expenditures for public colleges and universities, when adjusted for inflation, were at the lowest levels in 25 years. According to Folbre, factors leading to this turn in public opinion were tax cuts for the wealthy, more taxpayer dollars going to prisons, and the financing directed toward supporting two wars. Folbre suggests that this led to greater economic and cultural segregation, which was manifested in private schools and gated communities. In addition, the emergence of anti-tax groups, changes in the global economy, and corporate mobility all contributed to reduced tax revenues at all levels of government. As a consequence, the United States no longer provides the majority of the world's highest educated labor force. The U.S.'s share of the world's doctorates produced has declined from 50% to less than 20%.

Today, public higher education faces new challenges and competition from for-profit universities and on-line education options. In response, pubic universities are increasingly relying on research grants and contracts, out-of-state students' tuition payments, and salary savings from employing more adjunct and part-time instructors than tenure-track faculty.

The reader will note that throughout the book, Folbre references the public good aspects of higher education. A college degree, for instance, equates to economic security in terms of employment and income. With the rising costs of higher education and increasingly stringent admissions standards, a college degree is becoming unattainable for many middle- and lower-income Americans, a restriction that will lead to a widening gap in socioeconomic inequality over time. Folbre makes the key point that public higher education produces more than diplomas. Higher education develops capabilities that students can deploy as citizens, friends, parents, and partners. She notes that taxpayers pay for K-12 education and partially subsidize higher education in return for contributions to the public good. However, Folbre does not connect these contributions to more recent efforts of universities to contribute to the public good through outreach and engagement.

Folbre presents a readable account of the history of the development of public higher education in the United States and the factors influencing the funding and support for public universities over the last 150 years. What is missing, for those interested in the future support and financial solvency of public higher education, are ideas on how university-community engagement helps solve problems facing communities and society. A discussion thread linking the importance of outreach and engagement to the opportunities provided by public higher education would have provided the reader with insights on arguing the case for accessible and affordable public higher education. Many colleges and universities support university-community engagement for the service-learning opportunities it can offer students. The increasing popularity of higher education outreach and engagement may change the perception of public higher education from public revenue burden to worthwhile public investment supporting the concept of the "common good."

About the Reviewer

Ken Martin is chair of the Department of Extension and associate director of programs at The Ohio State University. He earned his bachelor's degree from Eastern Mennonite College, and both his master's degree and Ph.D. from The Pennsylvania State University. Martin's research and publications have focused on various rural development topics, including health care, economic development, policy, local government finance, and leadership.

Acknowledgement

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

Mission

The mission of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* 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 *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* invites manuscripts in 6 categories of exploration related to outreach, community-higher education engagement, engaged research, public scholarship, and service-learning.

- **Research Articles** present quantitative or qualitative studies that demonstrate the long-term impact of a university-community engagement project on the community, students, faculty and staff, or the institution.
- **Reflective Essays** are thought provoking examinations of current issues related to university-community engagement that are anchored in the literature.
- **Projects with Promise** are descriptions of early-stage university-community engagement projects with early indications of impact; plan for long-term evaluation; plan for how the project will be sustained; and best practices for the reader to emulate.
- **Practice Stories from the Field** are narrative inquiry studies that illuminate issues related to university-community engagement.
- **Dissertation Overviews** are dissertation summaries of methods used to examine topics related to university-community engagement.
- **Book Reviews** are reviews of books related to university-community engagement that go beyond mere

description of the contents to analyze and glean implications for theory and practice.

Criteria for Review and Selection

Manuscript submissions are evaluated on the criteria outlined below.

- the appropriateness or fit for the mission of the *Journal*;
- the significance in contributing new knowledge (advancing a field of study; or providing best practices or lessons-learned);
- the rigor and appropriateness of the scholarship; and
- the readability and flow of the information and ideas presented.

Additional criteria are based on the manuscript types: as a research article; as a reflective essay; as a project with promise article; as a practice story from the field; as a dissertation abract; or as a book review.

Guidelines for Contributors

Manuscripts should

- represent original and unpublished work of the authors, and must not be under consideration by other publications;
- indicate that Institutional Review Board (IRB) human subjects approval was secured if applicable (or explain why it was not required);
- not be more than 10,000 words;
- have a separate cover page that includes the names, institutional affiliations, addresses, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses of all authors, and mask all of this information throughout the manuscript to ensure anonymity in the reviewing process;
- 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, however, may be placed in Word documents;
- be formatted and saved in Microsoft Word 2003, or higher; and
- be read by someone that is not familiar with the topic of the manuscript (for content clarity) as well as copy edited (for grammatical correctness) prior to submission.

The *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* is a member of the Open Journal System (no subscription fee). For more information, or to submit a manuscript, visit: *http://www.jheoe.uga.edu*.

Trish Kalivoda
Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement Editor, and Senior Associate Vice President
Office of the Vice President for Public Service and Outreach
The University of Georgia
Treanor House
1234 S. Lumpkin Street
Athens, Georgia 30602-3692
Phone: 706-542-3946 | Fax: 706-542-6278 | jheoe@uga.edu

Guest Reviewers

We extend our sincere thanks to our guest peer-reviewers for Volume 15 (2011).

Shakeer Abdullah
Auburn University

Ted Abernathy
Southern Growth Policies Board

Jack Azzaretto
University of West Florida
Emerald Coast

William Ball
Stetson University

Burt Bargerstock
Michigan State University

Jessica Barnes
Michigan State University

Cynthia Barnes-Boyd
University of Illinois at Chicago

Mary Beth Bass Chew
University of Georgia

David Batey
University of Alabama
at Birmingham

Mary Beckman
University of Notre Dame

David Berle
University of Georgia

Ruth Bettandorff
University of Georgia-
Gwinnett Campus

Donna Bliss
University of Georgia

John Boughey
University of Zululand,
South Africa

Saundra Boyd
Houston Community College

Harry Boyte
University of Minnesota

Robert Bringle
Indiana University-Purdue
University Indianapolis

Kate Brinko
Appalachian State University

Melanie Brown
Washington State University

Robert Brown
Michigan State University

Diane Calleson
University of North Carolina
at Chapel Hill

Dennis Campion
University of Illinois

Karen Casey
Michigan State University

T.W. Cauthen, III
University of Georgia

Janet Conner
The Pennsylvania State
University

Royrickers Cook
Auburn University

Deanna Cooke
Advancement Project -
California Office

Diane Cooper
University of Georgia

Marilyn Corbin
The Pennsylvania State
University

Karin Cotterman
University of San Francisco

Christine Cress
Portland State University

Joe Crim
University of Georgia

Eric Crumley
Auburn University

Nick Cutforth
University of Denver

George Danns
Gainesville State College

Jill Denner
Education, Training, Research
(ETR) Associates

Lizanne DeStefano
University of Illinois at
Urbana-Champaign

Guest Reviewers, Volume 15

Continued

Diane Doberneck
Michigan State University

Joni Doherty
Franklin Pierce University

Lina Dostilio
Duquesne University

Timothy Eatman
Syracuse University

Gerald Eisman
San Francisco State University

Joseph Erickson
Augsburg College

Janet Eyler
Vanderbilt University

Joseph Favazza
Stonehill College

Pennie Foster-Fishman
Michigan State University

Joan Francioni
Winona State University

Debra Friedman
Arizona State University

Gabe Garcia
Stanford University

Christine George
Loyola University Chicago

Alison Gilchrist
Community Development Consultant

Dwight Giles
Unviersity of Massachusetts-Boston

Katherine Graham
Carleton University

Mary Grant
University of Wisconsin - Extension

David Grebel
Texas Christian University

Gail Gunst Heffner
Calvin College

Joyce Gutstein
University of California

Daniel Hall
University of Louisville

Nik Hawkins
University of Wisconsin - Madison

Josef Hellebrandt
Santa Clara University

Jan Hillard
Northern Kentucky University

Jeffrey Howard
University of Michigan

Emily Janke
University of North Carolina - Greensboro

Mary Jinks
University of Tennessee

Kevin Kecskes
Portland State University

Richard Kiely
Cornell University

David Knauft
University of Georgia

Christopher Koliba
University of Vermont

Stacey Kolomer
University of Georgia

Ellen Kraly
Colgate University

Peggy Kreshel
University of Georgia

Nancy Kropf
Georgia State University

Aaron Kuntz
University of Alabama

Lisa Lattuca
The Pennsylvania State University

Kristi Lekies
The Ohio State University

Chaidwick Leneis
Canadian Institutes of Health Research

Tiffani Lennon
The Women's College of the University of Denver

Gary Lichtenstein
Quality Evaluation Designs

Nick Longo
Providence College

Daniel Lopez-Cevallos
Western Oregon University

Donna Malvey
University of Central Florida

Eileen Martin
Queen's University Belfast

Heather Martinez
Texas Tech University

David Maurrasse
Marga Incorporated

Mary Ellen McClanahan
Georgia Department of Economic Development

Miles McNall
Michigan State University

Terry Mitchell
Wilfrid Laurier University

Chris Moder
University of Georgia

Barbara Moely
Tulane University

Robert Montjoy
University of New Orleans

Tami Moore
Oklahoma State University

Barbara Moskal
Colorado School of Mines

Brian Murphy
De Anza College

Emily Myers
Auburn University

Joyce Nduna
Cape Peninsula University of Technology, South Africa

Mortimer Neufville
Univerity of Maryland Eastern Shore

Elizabeth Niehaus
University of Maryland

Jana Noel
California State University

Kathleen Nokes
The City University of New York

James Ostrow
Lasell College

Michael Ouart
University of Missouri - Extension

Adam Peck
Stephen F. Austin State University

Naomi Penney
University of Notre Dame

Marcine Pickron-Davis
Widener University

Jennifer Pigza
Saint Mary's College of California

Christopher Plein
West Virginia University

Janet Poley
American Distance Education Consortium

Mary Prentice
New Mexico State University

Scott Reed
Oregon State University

Vicki Reitenauer
Portland State University

Laurie Richlin
Charles Drew University of Medicine and Science

Stephen Rozman
Tugaloo College

Dale Safrit
North Carolina State University

Guest Reviewers, Volume 15

Continued

Phil Saken
The Ohio State University

Priscilla Salant
University of Idaho

Rachel Schiffman
University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee

Nicole Schonemann
Indiana University

Robert Shumer
University of Minnesota

Louise Simmons
University of Connecticut

Tim Stanton
Stanford University

Jason Stephens
University of Connecticut

Trae Stewart
University of Central Florida

Randy Stoecker
University of Wisconsin - Madison

Kerry Strand
Hood College

Suhyun Suh
Auburn University

Giovanna Summerfield
Auburn University

Joe Sumners
Auburn University

Joseph Swaba
Maricopa Community Colleges

Nii Tackie
Tuskegee University

Susan Thering
University of Wisconsin - Madison

Joyce Thomas-Vinson
Auburn University

Kathy Thompson
University of Georgia

Joan Thomson
The Pennsylvania State University

Lisa Townson
University of New Hampshire

Jude Valdez
University of Texas San Antonio

Lucia Varona
Santa Clara University

Candiss Vibbert
Purdue University

Francisco Villarruel
Michigan State University

Rae Walker
La Trobe University, Australia

Betsy Ward
Utah Campus Compact

Susan Waters
Auburn University

David Weerts
University of Minnesota

Craig Weidemann
The Pennsylvania State University

Michelle Wilder
Kilgore College

David Williams
University of Connecticut

Julie Williams
University of New Hampshire

Carrie Williams Howe
University of Vermont

Karen Yoder
Indiana University-
Purdue University Indianapolis

Tina Zappile
Auburn University

Edward Zlotkowski
Bentley University

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement
Office of the Vice President for
Public Service & Outreach
Treanor House
1234 S. Lumpkin Street
The University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602-3692

1785
The University of Georgia