

PROJECTS WITH PROMISE

An Exploratory Analysis of Student-Community Interactions in Urban Agriculture

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Abstract

Urban agriculture initiatives are on the rise, providing healthy food while teaching a land ethic to youth. In parallel, increasing numbers of university graduates are obtaining Extension work requiring the effective communication of science in a diverse, urban, low-income setting. This study evaluates a pilot service-learning program, the Community Food Security Scholars program, designed to teach students the complexities of urban food security issues while they acquire basic agriculture production skills. By analyzing student responses in pre- and post-service interviews, the authors evaluated students' interaction with the diverse and economically disadvantaged populations, with which many of the students had little previous experience. Results revealed that although students felt they gained valuable theoretical and experiential knowledge about food access, they also faced challenges interacting with community members, possibly affecting the project's learning outcomes. The evaluation resulted in a new course with enhanced opportunities for cultural competency training and outreach.

Introduction

Tremendous population growth in urban areas throughout the world has spurred discussion about how enough food will be grown to feed people in the future, especially those who are economically disadvantaged or otherwise marginalized. Urban agriculture, defined here as producing plants and animals for food and other uses within and around cities and towns (Veenhuizen, 2006), is becoming an increasingly popular strategy to improve food access within congested urban centers. City-based farms and gardens offer opportunities for urban populations to access locally grown, healthy, affordable food that is produced in an environmentally and economically responsible way. In recent years there has been a sharp increase in the number of urban organizations, communities of faith, and collaboratives that have established urban farms and gardens and associated programming. They use these operations to teach neighborhood residents, especially those who are economically disadvantaged, how to successfully produce and market their own food (Baldwin *et al.*, 2010; Treuhaft, Hamm, & Litjens, 2009). Examples include Just Food in Boston, Massachusetts;

Garden Resource Program Collaborative in Detroit, Michigan; and the Oakland Based Urban Gardens, Oakland, California. Such urban farming and gardening programs offer unprecedented hands-on opportunities for service-learning projects in which students can solidify their agricultural production knowledge while gaining professional skills in community outreach and cultural competency. Here the authors present the evaluation of a service-learning program that linked university students with a community partner dedicated to alleviating hunger and food insecurity in urban neighborhoods through the development of neighborhood gardens.

North Carolina State University

North Carolina State University, located in Raleigh, has 34,000 students and 2,000 faculty members. As one of the leading land-grant institutions in the nation, North Carolina State University has a strong commitment to outreach and Extension. In recent years many agricultural universities and traditionally non-agricultural small liberal arts colleges have seen a sharp increase in the number of students interested in urban and alternative agricultural production. However, many of these students have neither a history of direct food production nor community-based experience. To serve these students, agricultural universities and colleges have expanded the number of academic programs and courses in the fields of sustainable agriculture, organic farming, and agroecology (*Bhavsar, 2002; Grabau, 2008*). North Carolina State University is no exception, with the recent and popular addition of a new agroecology concentration to the already extensive list of traditional agricultural majors. Students enrolling in such programs are often interested in combining academic work with activities that involve putting their knowledge to work in practical applied projects. In an effort to improve learning and motivate students, agriculture educators at colleges and universities have devised creative means to engage students in hands-on learning. Lending support to this strategy is an extensive survey of sustainable agriculture faculty members, suggesting that the primary way students learn about agriculture is through experiences that link classroom to fieldwork (*Parr, Trexler, Khanna, & Battisti, 2007*), a suggestion that has been verified in practice (*Wiedenhoef et al., 2003*). Many of these students will go on to conduct outreach or Extension-related work that requires them to effectively communicate agricultural principles to the public in both rural and urban settings (*Schroeder et al., 2006*).

University graduates seeking employment in urban agriculture organizations may find themselves facing novel challenges when they need to communicate and interact with racially, economically, and culturally disparate populations. Community-based learning experiences may help students become aware of social and environmental issues confronting urban and often economically disadvantaged populations. At many universities, service-learning-based partnerships between students and community organizations have emerged with the dual goals of improving student learning through structured reflection on course content and civic empowerment and actively meeting the needs of the local community (Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005). At the same time, such projects have also been shown to increase awareness of issues of social justice and societal inequities (Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Eyer, 2002; Hughes, Welsh, Mayer, Bolay, & Southard, 2009). Service-learning is commonly used in environmental science courses to reinforce concepts, develop student values and skills, build student confidence, and address on-the-ground community problems (Leege & Cawthorn, 2008; Ward, 1999). The multidisciplinary nature of service-learning in addressing agricultural issues (Grossman, Patel, & Drinkwater, 2010; Jordan, Andow, & Mercer, 2005; Motavelli, Patton, & Miles, 2007) may provide a unique opportunity to place agriculture students in communities where they can learn critical professional skills, while at the same time helping to increase food security in low-income urban communities.

The State of North Carolina and the City of Raleigh

Across the United States, research has drawn a significant link between obesity, socioeconomic status, and food insecurity, with the burden of disease from obesity falling disproportionately on minorities and the poor (Drewnowski & Specter, 2004). North Carolina is no exception to these trends. Raleigh, the capital and the second-largest city in North Carolina, is one of the fastest growing cities in the United States, with a greater metropolitan area population of 1,749,525.

Community Need

Children and families in North Carolina's lowest income neighborhoods are now facing a public health crisis, as the incidence of obesity and chronic disease is rising at an alarming rate. Data from Wake County, where Raleigh is located, revealed a rate

of 23% overweight among low-income children, an increase of 15% from previous years, and a significantly higher rate than the 17.8% overweight among children across all incomes (*NC-NPASS, 2006*). Recent local mapping projects have shown that Wake County's low-income youth have limited experience with many aspects of health and the local food system, including outdoor education; gardening or farming; advocacy or job training opportunities; fresh, local produce; and nutrition and healthy cooking, as well as limited incentives to learn about these issues (*Andrew, 2010*).

The Inter-Faith Food Shuttle (IFFS), a community partner based in Raleigh, North Carolina, has been placing nutritious food in the hands of hungry people across central North Carolina for more than 20 years, primarily through rescue and redistribution of perishable foods. In 2008, the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle initiated a collaborative community gardening program to address environmental stewardship, comprehensive health, nutrition, physical activity, and food choices of up to 600 at-risk children in Raleigh. The Nutrition, Farm, and Community Gardens Program of the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle responds to an increasing demand for healthy foods in all neighborhoods by creating local sources of fresh fruits and vegetables for underserved communities. With a working farm and five urban community gardens, the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle currently has almost 10 acres in production. Inter-Faith Food Shuttle goals for the gardening program include providing fresh, local fruits and vegetables to community members in need; empowering community members to take control of their own food; building community; improving community health and nutrition; providing gardening education and skills; and creating opportunities for physical activity and youth development.

Community Food Security Scholars Program

In 2008, a service-learning program was initiated at North Carolina State University that democratically engaged students in current food security debates while explicitly linking academic activities to the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle gardening and nutrition programming in economically disadvantaged neighborhoods. Faculty members involved in the project outlined broad goals for student learning that included enhancement of disciplinary knowledge in soil science and agriculture, as well as professional skill development related to teaching, outreach, problem solving, and cultural competency. Since most agriculture students at the university had little previous experience working with diverse and economically disadvantaged groups, the authors were interested in

better understanding challenges involved in working with underserved populations and how these challenges may affect potential learning gains.

In spring 2010, the pilot initiative, named the Community Food Security Scholars program, was designed and implemented to enable students to learn about the complexities of urban food security issues while gaining basic skills in agricultural production. Over the course of one semester, participants were required to (1) contribute 45 hours of service in the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle community gardens in Raleigh under the supervision of the farm manager, (2) participate in five faculty-facilitated group discussions of scholarly work on community gardens and food security and orally reflect on course activities, (3) develop teaching modules to be used by Inter-Faith Food Shuttle staff for their agricultural education programming, and (4) submit written, online responses to three reflection questions.

Data Collection

Program participants were recruited through a competitive process in which students provided a written application, including short essay responses about their education and experiences. Faculty members then chose participants based on interest in program goals, prior volunteer experience, and quality of writing in the application. Priority was placed on individuals with demonstrated successes in previous volunteer activities who also possessed limited gardening experience. This combination of characteristics was sought in order to maximize learning gains from program involvement. Recruitment resulted in 13 participants from six diverse departments, notably agricultural and nutrition sciences. Each student received one course credit and recognition with a certificate at a public closing ceremony. Those completing all program requirements were also presented with a stipend of \$125.

Students' service activities included manual labor, community-building activities, and teaching. Examples of labor included garden bed preparation, planting, harvesting, and weeding. Community-building activities included recruiting residents to participate in gardening and education activities. Educational topics included local food options and distribution of garden produce, including ideas for use in meal preparation. Class discussions and facilitated reflections focused on urban food subsistence patterns, food access, food disparities, and social structures driving urban food insecurity.

Measuring the Impact of the Project

Student perceptions of how they interacted with community members were evaluated based on pre- and post-service interviews with a non-faculty third party. Eight of the 13 students participated in both the pre- and post-interviews. Interview questions concerned the degree to which students felt their project was successful, potential barriers to success, and the overall value of program components. Interviews were recorded, transcribed, and coded for content to reveal themes or patterns in student learning. North Carolina State University's Institutional Review Board approval was obtained for all data collected. The limitations of the results presented here include an inability to make generalizations associated with the small sample size (eight students), the short duration of project assessment (one semester), and lack of a control group. These results are being used primarily to improve overall program impact for future service-based initiatives.

Project Findings

The interviews elicited student perceptions of their interactions with community members, as well as student-reported successes of the community gardening service-learning project. The pre-interview data describes students' *expected* challenges and accomplishments prior to the service experience, while the post-interviews reflect students' *observed* experiences and attitudes. In both pre- and post-interviews, students emphasized the stated Inter-Faith Food Shuttle goals of community member empowerment, increased control of community member food supply, and increased agricultural training to community members. Prior to the service experience, four of the eight students stated that they were uncomfortable taking on a leadership role with economically, racially, and culturally diverse community members. All students were aware that they were entering the community as outsiders and felt that this might be one obstacle to success in the gardens, but none described in the pre-interviews any concrete examples of exactly how it might impact their work. Some student quotes suggesting their trepidation prior to their service experience include:

And I also feel a little bit of guilt, because here I am on the other side of the program taunting "oh community, community, community!" But I step back and say "what community do I belong to?" "How active am I?" "How much gardening do I do on my free time?"

I don't want to say we were breaking down barriers—but it's hard for a small white girl going into this community.

A lot of the older community members [may] look at me like who are you and why are you trying to change my lifestyle?

During the pre-service interviews, all students were enthusiastic about participating in the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle community garden initiative, and some went further to predict how their social identities, as expressed through experiences, race, economic class, or educational background, might actually increase their ability to interact with community members. The identification of social similarities and shared experiences between university students and community members was a reoccurring theme throughout pre-interviews. While all students identified themselves as socially different from the community members, some mentioned that past experience with diverse communities might help them relate. For example, one student remarked that

I live on [the road where one of the gardens is located],
I am as much of a community member as they are.

Between pre- and post-service interviews the gross number of students commenting on the barriers of working with diverse populations remained constant (four students in both pre- and post-interviews). However, students in post-service interviews provided specific examples that demonstrated the negative impact of their social identities on their community work. Students hypothesized that their social position and experiences may have impacted the degree to which community members attended trainings, worked alongside students in the garden, or came to harvest events for garden produce.

Especially since we are all generally light skinned, it is just daunting.

They don't really see our race in their neighborhood very often.

Here we are a group of white kids coming in and telling these predominantly black communities how to run a garden . . . it kills me that perhaps it may be true to a point.

They are like “take my kids, you can take my kids all day long. But for me to get out there and do that, you don’t know what I go through and stuff . . . so it’s hard” [paraphrasing an adult community member].

In addition to the challenges, students also described the ways in which the Community Food Security program components and activities positively affected them and community members, including increased knowledge of food security, gardening, and agriculture; increased food access; and other related topics. Figure 1 shows changes in the three most commonly mentioned categories of the pre- and post-service assessments. The first category, “student to community,” included perceptions of how student activities positively affected the community and helped to achieve project goals. The second category, “community to student,” captured how the community positively affected students socially and academically. The final category, “classroom to student,” outlined the ways in which classroom experiences positively affected the students.

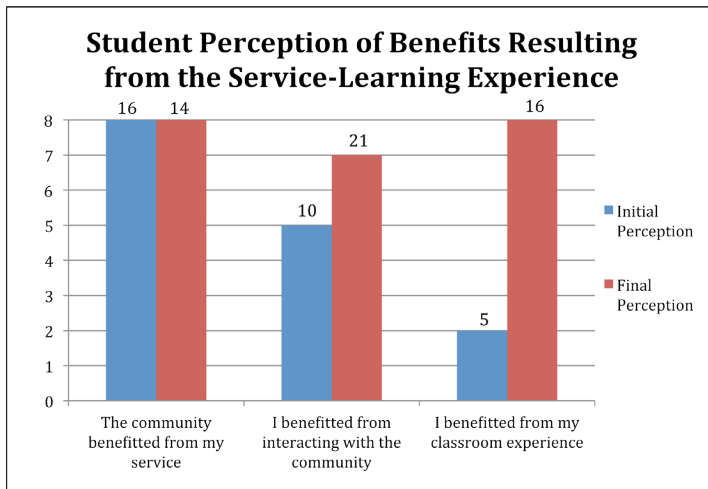


Figure 1. Student Perspective of Benefits Resulting from the Service-Learning Perspective.

Student responses to “In what ways did you benefit, or provide benefit for others, through your service-learning experience?”

Y-axis is number of students commenting on a given benefit; number above column signifies total number of student comments about the benefit recorded during pre- and post-service interviews.

Prior to the experience, students predicted their participation would strongly and positively impact the Inter-Faith Food

Shuttle community garden initiative. Interestingly, more students initially felt that the community gains would outweigh student benefits resulting from program participation, with all eight students initially predicting ways that the community would benefit from student service. Following the experience, all students still felt they had positively impacted the community; however, the total number of comments made regarding their positive impact on the community was slightly reduced from pre- to post-service interviews, indicating that students felt their contributions to the community may have been less than initially expected. Community benefits mentioned by students included basic service for the garden (weeding, planting, etc.), recruiting adult community members to participate in the garden, and teaching children about gardening.

I feel like we maybe stimulated some interest in the gardens and the food just by being around those kids and hanging out with them. One example: when we first started hanging out with them, none of the other kids really wanted to eat the vegetables, but last time I was there they were all munching on things. It was a good feeling. . . .

I hope that I left them with something, mainly I just tried to point out, “oh look at this bug; this is a good bug, this is a bad bug.” Try to put a connection there that this caterpillar is bad because it did this to the cabbage, and this worm is good because it did this to the soil.

I did as much as I could, not as much as I wanted though. Given what we had.

I think we planted a seed, we got the garden started and kept it going. We set an example and left an impression. So, yeah, I think we did that.

In pre-service interviews, five of the total eight students felt that they would benefit from the field experience, and only two students thought that they would benefit from participation in the classroom discussions and reflection. Following the experience, students commented that they gained more in terms of academic learning and professional skill development than they originally predicted, including learning resulting from activities in field and

classroom environments. This was indicated by increases in the number of students mentioning personal benefits resulting from their community work (five students in pre-interviews to seven in post-interviews) and their participation in the classroom portion of the program (two students in the pre-service interviews to all eight in post-service interviews). Benefits that students mentioned receiving from the garden were skills in communication, teaching, leadership, agricultural production, and confidence. From course readings and in-class discussions, students felt that they acquired a greater understanding of local food systems, diversity, and food security. Students stated they benefited from learning about food security, social issues, and gardening through their service-work. About knowledge gained in the classroom, students said:

I think I was heavily influenced by the readings we had, and not that the readings forced me to think that way, but I was exposed to other people's experiences and I could kind of put two things together.

I found the conversations that we had during our meetings difficult . . . they opened my eyes to other people's perceptions and it showed me that I was really naive to not see the differences.

I also liked the educational aspect of the CFS group, because it opened my eyes to many challenges in providing food security.

About knowledge gained through fieldwork about food security, students said:

I also learned that there are many more people out there that would like to see an end to food insecurity and it will take all of us to put it to an end.

I think with all experiences you come out thinking more critically about what purpose you are trying to serve going into any activity: what am I going to accomplish in this, and why?

I am highly motivated to end food insecurity through sustainable agriculture and through this garden I gained some of the skills and am even more knowledgeable about the community. That will make my presence in this field more effective.

About agricultural knowledge gained in the field, students said:

I think, for me personally, [I enjoyed] learning how to garden. It is so easy to talk about it and learn about it in a book, but until you do it. . .

My gardening skills and knowledge about agriculture increased greatly!

A lot of people don't have any idea that potatoes grow underground . . . So I think it is good for [North Carolina State University] students to see how long it takes a tomato plant to grow, and how to prepare a bed, and all the hands-on of gardening.

Well, I almost did this more for me, it was a selfish reason for getting into this program. I've never gardened or farmed before.

In summary, the Community Food Security Scholars program facilitated educational outcomes by constructing a composite learning experience, including classroom discussions, community interaction, and direct garden work. Each individual experience was valuable for students' social and academic growth, but inclusion in a multifaceted framework created opportunities for students to connect lived and observed experiences to the pertinent literature. The result was a more reflexive student leader with increased understanding of food insecurity and the complex strategies needed to make communities more food secure.

Implications for Developing Future Food System Leaders

Cultural Competency

The service-learning program appears to have been useful in helping students understand the challenges facing low-income communities using community gardens as a method to provide healthy and affordable food through environmentally and economically responsible means. Results also presented faculty members with basic information about student-community interactions that is being used to improve future community urban agriculture service-learning projects. As previously described, faculty-highlighted program goals included student development of professional skills related to teaching, outreach, problem solving, and cultural competency. Through informal visits with residents to discuss food production and observe community life, students were able to learn about dietary preferences, as well as the time constraints that may limit community members' ability to work in gardens. Students conveyed this understanding in group classroom discussions and in the final interviews. Students reported learning that garden bed preparation, weeding, harvesting, and other tasks required to produce food were time-consuming and that because many community members are balancing full-time jobs and child-rearing, residents may not have time to participate in these activities despite an interest in acquiring the resulting harvested produce. Such insightful student comments demonstrated increased understanding of challenges faced by the community with regard to food production. This supports others' findings that service-learning can reduce negative stereotypes and increase tolerance for diversity (Eyler & Giles, 1999) while assisting students in understanding the foundations of systemic social inequality (Kendall, 1990). Further, service-learning projects such as the Community Food Service Scholars program often put students in direct contact with culturally and economically diverse populations with whom most lack any direct experience. The personal interactions that occur in the course of a service-learning project can dispel deeply rooted negative attitudes toward disenfranchised individuals (Hughes et al., 2009). The project increased students' knowledge of food security issues and enabled them to experience these issues from the perspective of low-income, inner city residents and a nonprofit organization serving them. However, interviews with students suggested that deeper student learning may have been hindered by lack of preparation to work in economically and

culturally diverse neighborhoods, as well as suggesting a lack of teaching and outreach skills that may have delayed involvement by community members in the gardening activities. All students expressed a desire to improve relationships with community members in order to increase the success of the gardening program.

Of key importance to the study was the pairing of experiential learning in the field with theoretical readings and discussion addressing food security, urban food production, and community challenges. Students used the discussion time to compare their individual experiences in the gardens and used their experience as examples of points brought up in the required readings. Much of the learning resulted from student classroom discussions based on readings focusing on topics such as food deserts, poverty, and food access, allowing students to build links between what they were observing in the field and what they read for course requirements. This connection was supported by data showing the classroom setting to be more valuable for student learning than originally predicted by students (Figure 1).

Knowledge Connectivity

In their final interviews students emphasized the importance not only of community member technical knowledge and skills related to food production, but also of nutritional knowledge and cooking skills that would help individuals prepare healthy meals. The importance of nutritional knowledge and cooking skills is currently being supported by a parallel service-learning initiative in the North Carolina State University Department of Food, Bioprocessing, and Nutrition Sciences in which students teach cooking and nutrition classes in the community as part of a community nutrition course partnering with the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle.

The service experience combined with classroom discussions and reflections served to deepen the understanding about food security challenges facing those marginalized populations producing food in urban environments. The authors recommend the combination of hands-on service with discussion in order to provide opportunities for students to discuss, share, and reflect upon their learning.

Next Steps: Sustaining and Enhancing the Inter-Faith Food Shuttle Program

Based on the findings, pre-service student training has been developed to advance student cultural competency and community teaching skills and to increase student confidence, compassion, and understanding of the challenges facing residents in garden neighborhoods. A new course at North Carolina State University titled “Service-Learning in Urban Food Production Systems” has been designed, informed by results of this study. Diversity and Extension/outreach training are key components of the course. In this course students develop and deliver soil science lessons to individuals, primarily high-school- and middle-school-aged children, in Inter-Faith Food Shuttle gardening communities. Students teach in community gardens for 1 to 2 hours a week for 7 weeks. Lessons include a significant hands-on component in which North Carolina State University students work alongside community members from a variety of economic and cultural backgrounds. Prior to embarking on their community teaching assignments, students are required to participate in 8 hours of training; the course also requires a reflection session midway through the teaching experience.

The authors predict that diversity and community education training, when combined with the practice of educational outreach, may increase participation of both adult and child community members in garden work and educational activities, as well as help achieve faculty teaching and learning goals for North Carolina State University students. The authors have received Institutional Review Board approval for and commenced a new research project evaluating the success of such training in improving student interactions with the community members, improving student confidence, and developing professional skills such as oral communication, leadership, and problem solving. In addition to the pre- and post-service interviews described in this article, field observations and pre- and post-service surveys (with both the service-learning course and a control group course with no service component) have been added to investigate whether students practice the skills they learned in the training.

Conclusion

Regardless of their direct interest in agricultural production, many urban residents are intrigued by and working toward developing sustainable environments in which they can live, work, and play. As urban sustainability initiatives continue to

expand around the United States, there will be an increasing need for personnel skilled in the mechanics of urban agricultural production. Broadly speaking, urban agriculture can be interpreted to include “urban homesteading” trends such as beekeeping and backyard chicken rearing, activities that can easily be expanded to include environmental education initiatives. This expansion of initiatives also creates a critical need for individuals who understand how best to conduct outreach and educational activities with urban and often diverse populations.

Service-learning programs such as the model described here are valuable in that they offer students experience in urban outreach and education prior to finishing their academic programs. However, designing and implementing any type of service-learning program requires the responsibility of challenge and support. When faced with difficulties and failures, especially after careful planning, students may slide into community-blaming tendencies. Without support mechanisms, such as diversity training and open reflection, instructors risk amplifying harmful stereotypes and building barriers instead of leaders.

Through diversity training, students become more aware of the intricate complexities that contribute to community members’ behaviors. The values of collaboration and mutual trust are emphasized, producing students who are as aware of *how* knowledge is shared as they are of the typologies of shared knowledge. Communities are responsive to respectful and reflexive university students who overtly seek opportunities to learn as well as to teach. Collaboration, trust, and respect are foundational for the transformational rapport that guides projects toward success.

Service-learning successes also depend on classroom reflection. Again, foresight is necessary. As in the community, preemptively embedding classroom designs and processes with an ethos of collaboration and mutual trust builds the rapport necessary for students to share honest successes and struggles. Shared experiences offer opportunities to explore, reframe, and reconnect with primary aims: to increase community food security and to build vocational training. Moreover, as students connect their experiences to the literature, they find that for any behavior change initiative, complexity is the norm, not the exception.

The service-learning model the authors have described and continue to actively improve upon benefits students, academic programs, and the community. Students, as discussed, build social and academic capacities. Academic programs, if they adopt a similar

service-learning model, become more adaptable and responsive to student and community needs. Planning, acting, observing, and reflecting creates ever-improving processes and products, while also valuing collaboration. Finally, the community achieves formal and informal recognition in this process. The partition between server and served is blurred. Students and community members learn to co-create knowledge and skills.

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A Community-University Exchange Project Modeled After Europe's Science Shops

Elizabeth Tryon and J. Ashleigh Ross

Abstract

This article describes a pilot project of the Morgridge Center for Public Service at the University of Wisconsin–Madison for a new structure for community-based learning and research. It is based on the European-derived science shop model for democratizing campus-community partnerships using shared values of mutual respect and validation of community knowledge. The objective was to find methods that serve both community and institutional goals equally in a streamlined fashion. The Community University Exchange, the official name of the unique brand of science shop described, has just completed its first pilot year. This article analyzes how the stakeholders have found meaning in the process of building an infrastructure to help create more authentic, reciprocal, and mutually beneficial campus-community partnerships. This narrative is a map of the journey and the direction for future development.

Introduction

Over the last 5 years, University of Wisconsin–Madison outreach staff, faculty, and students have held regular meetings and focus groups with community organizers, business owners, farmers, and health providers to discover new ways to structure campus-community partnerships. They decided, based on that research, to pilot leveraging existing resources in the university and the community to streamline complex, multidisciplinary projects. In July 2010, stakeholders met to discuss potential opportunities for university-community-based research interests to align with community-identified priorities. The group explored the “science shop” concept as a possible structure to enhance community access to the university’s intellectual resources. This article describes the science shop model for matching community needs to university expertise as it developed in Madison, Wisconsin. The authors briefly describe the evolution of the science shop in Europe, and then describe the University of Wisconsin–Madison’s pilot of the model.

The Science Shop Model

A science shop model for community-based research and learning is used throughout Europe and other parts of the world,

including India, Asia, Africa, and South America. Several examples exist in the United States and Canada. An international network of practitioners that provides support and resources for this model is called Living Knowledge: The International Science Shop Network (<http://www.scienceshops.org>).

The Science Shop: Beginnings in Europe

Beginning in Europe in the late 1970s as a response to ordinary citizens' perception of being excluded from participating in and understanding scientific research, some university researchers worked to consciously democratize academic activities, by using a "request for proposal" format driven by the community's wishes and needs (Steinhaus, N., *personal communication*, September 2, 2007). This request for proposal structure became known as the "science shop," a name that stuck even though the work is not only about natural science, and rarely charges fees to the community (Priest, S., 2010). The science shop infrastructure can be used to integrate service-learning programs and projects with community-based research to address relevant community issues (Stoecker, Loving, Redding, & Bollig, 2010).

Science Shop Values, Structure, and Funding

Three values of the science shop concept make it a useful, sustainable model for community-based learning and research:

1. Projects on current issues arise from within community and grassroots organizations in consultation with their constituent groups, and must be of value to more than just a few individuals.
2. The projects are interdisciplinary by nature, bringing together faculty members and students to address issues through multiple lenses. The community is validated as a source of knowledge, not on a "need for service" basis alone. Community participation occurs throughout the project, including instrument design, data collection, analysis, and application of the findings (Stanton, 2007).
3. The findings, framed with social action as a goal, are given back to the community that initiated the project.

Although several science shops thrive in Canada, only a few exist in the United States (Strand, Cutforth, Stoecker, Marullo, & Donohue, 2003). The availability of more government subsidies

in Europe may explain the sustained use of science shops there. Science shop funding and organizational structure generally fall into one of three categories: (1) a science shop within a university; (2) a science shop as an independent contractor; or (3) a science shop as a hybrid collaborative (Mulder, H., 2006). Examples of each type are provided below.

As part of a university.

In existence in its current form since 1996, the Community University Research and Learning Center at Loyola University–Chicago is “one of the most vibrant collaborative research centers in the U.S.” (Loyola University, *n.d.*). More than 50 community partners and faculty members from over 30 disciplines are involved in collaborative community-based research using a project team model.

To coordinate the projects, Loyola graduate students apply through a competitive process to work at the center as graduate assistants. In addition, one to three pre-doctoral candidates and a number of undergraduate work-study students assist the center. Loyola’s science shop model uses the talents of these students to mobilize a large decentralized campus, given limited funding, and faculty and staff capacity. The use of graduate students as project leaders is a key component of their success at managing up to 25 projects at any one time. The center is now known for actionable results. Organizations seek them out without having to be solicited (P. Nyden, *personal communication*, March 20, 2008).

As an independent contractor.

The *Wissenschaftsladen Bonn* (WilaBonn or Bonn Science Shop) in Germany is organized as a nonprofit organization. Even with little external funding, the Bonn Science Shop is still able to employ a professional staff of 25 (Steinhaus, 2007). Each project that is accepted receives guidance from a council of delegates—that is, a management team consisting of a project manager, oversight committee, and project team. Delegates are elected from the general group of science shop members representing community organizations and the universities surrounding the Bonn area. The council of delegates guides the project to ensure that research and social projects are conducted according to the tenets of the science shop philosophy and values.

A “labor market” service (journals with employment vacancies and job tips), job and education fairs, and training sessions provide

70% of the income that funds the Bonn Science Shop (Steinhaus, 2007). The labor market journals compile nationwide print and website listings, as well as offering a unique section that evaluates current job market trends. This service, and sector-specific workshops in IT/Internet and multimedia learning, renewable energy, and even nutrition, yoga, and qigong (http://www.wilabonn.de/WILAinform_61englisch.pdf), have created a market niche that is substantially self-sustaining. The rest of the funding comes from sponsorships, and government grants and support.

As a hybrid collaborative.

A hybrid collective science shop is a blend of the university infrastructure and the independent contractor model. An example is the Trent Centre for Community-Based Education (Trent Centre) in Peterborough, Ontario, Canada. Although the Trent Centre is a separate entity, about 50% of its funding comes from Trent University. Their initial large multi-year private foundation grant has ended and the Trent Centre is now looking to diversify its funding structure (i.e., private donors, government and foundation grants). It has also recently received charitable status equivalent to U.S. 501(c)(3) classification (T. Barr, personal communication, July 18, 2011).

The Trent Centre for Community-Based Education is an “independent third-party broker” that contracts with Trent University and community agencies in the region to provide services for community-based education. Organizations submit project proposals, which are reviewed by a community advisory committee that has Trent University representation. Proposals selected for action are posted on the Trent Centre’s website (<http://www.trentcentre.ca/>) for students and instructors to consider. A community-based education project can be carried out as a thesis, a full or half credit independent study course, or as an assignment in a semester course. Some are service-learning projects, as opposed to the community-based research more common in Europe. The time commitment for projects varies from 50 to 200 hours (T. Barr, personal communication, July 18, 2011).

“There is a project agreement with the TCCBE, signed by the host [nonprofit]; the student; and the supervising faculty.” Results must be given to the nonprofit. Two full-time staff may broker 45 projects at one time, with two student interns handling administrative duties such as entering database information (T. Barr, personal communication, July 18, 2008). The staff hosts office hours one or two

afternoons a week for non-profit organizations (NGOs) at coffee-houses in different parts of town to gather new project ideas from community leaders so they do not always have to travel to the Trent Centre.

Best practice components of this hybrid science shop include the carefully designed project agreement to make expectations clear; the student-driven process, signifying student motivation to complete quality work of value to the community; and the use of off-campus office hours as a way to reach the community while still having ties to the university for infrastructure support.

In summary, in any of these three science shop approaches to community-based learning or research projects, science shop staff are matchmakers and coordinators of projects between academics and community partners. The science shop acts as a clearinghouse for community organizations desiring to access a university's knowledge resources. It streamlines the process of project management to benefit faculty, students, and partners. Long-term relationships and partnerships among faculty members from across disciplines also are nourished and sustained through a science shop approach.

The Community University Exchange Structure

The Community University Exchange uses the university-based science shop model, administered through the Morgridge Center for Public Service at the University of Wisconsin–Madison. The Morgridge Center is privately endowed and serves the entire campus with community-based learning opportunities, program facilitation, grant support, and faculty and staff development resources. The university-centered model was selected based on the positioning already enjoyed by the center, including its resources, wide range of established community partnerships, and connections to the University of Wisconsin School of Human Ecology and other academic programs that focus on community impact. Community representation is intentionally incorporated into the model to honor the longstanding connections between the planning staff and the community, and to validate multiple sources of wisdom.

The assistant director of community-based learning at the Morgridge Center, two graduate students, and an academic staff member with faculty-affiliate status oversee the program. The Community University Exchange's three main goals as they pertain to the science shop model are:

- to take on the burden of coordinating the projects while ensuring that community partners are driving the projects;
- to ensure that the research and service programs are inter- and/or trans-disciplinary; and
- to ensure that the project findings are turned over to the community for social change.

The Community University Exchange is the overall umbrella structure in which projects are coordinated. As part of the pilot project, a range of options was explored to encourage faculty, staff, and students to participate. These options included conducting focus groups and holding targeted meetings to gain an understanding of the ways campus could play a part in the Community University Exchange by collaborating with community partners that had expressed interest; ascertaining how these groups would benefit from participation in the Community University Exchange; and offering a course in interdisciplinary studies specifically designed to incorporate student community-based research. Combined, these options provided a multi-faceted approach to a science shop structure at the University of Wisconsin–Madison.

In 2010, a community organization in the South Park Street area of Madison was selected as a pilot community partner because of its longstanding ties to the university. The Community University Exchange served as the “broker” to coordinate partnerships and community-based learning/community-based research projects to meet three specific community-identified priorities that had been derived through the past year of organizational meetings in the affected area. The pilot focused projects on three broad topic areas: economic vitality; “re-imagining” South Park Street; and access to healthy foods and nutrition education.

Setting the Context: The South Park Street Area of Madison, Wisconsin

Madison, Wisconsin, has a population of about 220,000 (*U.S. Census, 2010*); the University of Wisconsin–Madison enrolls about 42,000 students (*University of Wisconsin–Madison, n.d.*) in a highly decentralized university system. The South Park Street district of Madison, defined loosely as a geographic corridor connecting the university with the freeway, faces economic and social challenges. Its demographic characteristics have manifested themselves in the citywide perception of this area (colloquially, “Hell’s Half Acre”;

Penn, n.d.) as challenged and undesirable, even though many South Madison residents, whom university partners have been working with over the last 10 years do not consider this the case. Table 1 illustrates the contrasts between South Madison and the city of Madison in its entirety (*U.S. Census, 2010*).

Table 1. Demographics, South Madison versus Madison

	South Madison	Madison
Median family income	\$24,975	\$41,941
Poverty rate	32.6%	15%
Less than high school education	32.6%	7.8%
People of color	68.5%	16%
Rentership as opposed to home ownership	78.2%	52.3%
Female-headed households	32.5%	21.6%

The Community University Exchange Science Shop Pilot Project

The Community University Exchange Science Shop Pilot Project began its official academic role in 2011. Several courses, as well as individual faculty members and students, became involved, with central coordination by Morgridge Center staff. The three community-identified priorities were addressed by a combination of methods.

- A consumer science class interviewed business owners along the corridor and made recommendations on attracting more students to their stores and restaurants.
- The Slow Food University of Wisconsin student organization began long-term work with the Farmers Market and the Boys and Girls Club on health and nutrition, starting a cooking class for teens with a cooperative family dinner, interning at the Farmers Market, taking middle-school youth from the club's after school program to the Farmers Market to sample various healthy foods, and passing out simple recipes with free produce.
- A geographic information systems certificate student mapped foreclosed properties in the county and gave the data to a local community development nonprofit with the goal of seeking neighborhood stabilization funds for property acquisition and redevelopment.

University of Wisconsin–Madison course supports community-university exchange science shop model.

The centerpiece was a 500-level course in the School of Human Ecology's Interdisciplinary Studies department, titled "Community University Exchange—South Madison." The course, which enrolled seven students, was designed to provide practical opportunities to apply course knowledge in a real-world setting specifically in the South Park Street project area. Students were introduced to the community through readings, discussions, and events. The course met weekly on campus and once a month at the host site, a community center on South Park Street. This allowed the students to gain a context for the class discussions and also enabled the community partners to attend.

During the first few weeks of class, instructors and community mentors discussed project possibilities based on the three community-identified priorities. After an assessment of the student skills and interests in this course, the Community University Exchange–South Madison students chose to research the question of stigma, or what the image of the area was perceived to be.

Assessing the Community University Exchange Pilot Program

An evaluation of the Community University Exchange pilot began immediately after the semester in May 2011. Specifically, the tenets of the science shop being evaluated for the Community University Exchange pilot are its strengths in three categories: achieving the community-identified priorities, which is connected to the first tenet of science shops—that issues arise from the community; success of student learning through interdisciplinary methods and diversity, and validation of community knowledge – which addresses the second science shop principle; and coordinating the volunteer, service-learning, and community-based research (CBR) programs in South Madison through the Morgridge Center for Public Service, which addresses the efficacy of the overall Science Shop structure. The third principle of science shops, that findings are given back to the community, was not addressed in the evaluation because the report was not complete at the time of this writing.

The initial evaluation used a logic model to determine primary research questions. All the Community University Exchange planners contributed to and reviewed the interview instrument.

The interview sample consisted of six students in the Community University Exchange class who were able to participate after the semester's end, one independent study public health student, three of the Community University Exchange core planners, and four of the community partners. In total 13 interviews were conducted. The interviews were then transcribed and are currently in the analysis phase. The coding method is based on the grounded theory method of open coding (*Strauss & Corbin, 1998*).

In addition to the interviews, participant observation of the community-based research process, student observation, and monthly reflections will also serve as data for the evaluation. A more comprehensive evaluation of the Community University Exchange is planned.

Initial Findings

The preliminary findings showed that several objectives of the pilot had been met and that progress was made toward some of the long-term goals and aspirations for using this infrastructure.

Achievement of community-identified priorities.

Several indicators of success in this area surfaced: ability to ask for help with research and obtain help in defining the questions; useful data from the research; and fresh ideas for solutions. The first benefit of the Community University Exchange process happened before the project's official start. Community interview respondents reported that the discussions prior to the project agreement helped define and clarify the issues to pursue. The core planners who had been involved with community partnerships in that area for many years commented that the Community University Exchange helped to articulate issues in an academic format and provided a structure for addressing them. When asked if campus-community partnerships were effective at addressing neighborhood questions, one of the community members said, "It is difficult to get funding to do anything, so if you can get some of that done with students, I think it is very attractive."

Regarding the media research on perceived stigma of the South Park Street area, community partners thought there was good information that could be pursued with the neighborhood. One community member saw the media project as providing the background information that could be used to back up their empirical observations in discussing media portrayals of their community with journalists. Community members and instructors

also discussed conducting a review of the relevant economic and community development literature to determine how other neighborhoods develop responses to negative stigma. The research could be used to guide economic development efforts by providing a background of case studies.

Discussing the recommendations of the consumer science class, community members expressed appreciation for students' fresh ideas to make the area more attractive, such as installing bike racks and wayfinding maps, and developing a stronger web presence. They also felt the class introduced new ways to get students to visit the South Park Street area.

Student learning and community knowledge validation.

The Community University Exchange pilot put a face on the South Park Street community for many of the students. Due to the years of work that some of the Community University Exchange planners had put into building long-term relationships, the students gained more intimate access to the community. Working closely with community partners was one of the most valuable experiences for the students. Early reflections from the students' first visit to the community celebration showed some recurring themes. It got them away from campus life, and reminded them that there is a "real world" off-campus. It helped them experience something different from everyday college life.

A major theme in the student interviews was the importance of having diverse voices at the table. The Community University Exchange class consisted of students from varied ethnic backgrounds. More important, however, the students commented on the varying life experiences of the team members (e.g., two were adult students from the South Park Street area themselves). Students learned to appreciate and incorporate the various forms of knowledge that were represented by their community mentors in designing the collaborative research project. Positive feedback from community members made the research more relevant, in real time. The students felt that they were more successful because the community valued what they had done. One recommendation the students posed was the creation of a two-semester commitment of linked coursework or independent study for some of the future project work so that students would have time to get oriented to the community and develop relationships before beginning the main research project.

Coordination of community-university engagement by the University of Wisconsin–Madison Morgridge Center for Public Service.

The Morgridge Center staff laid groundwork for more interdisciplinary campus-community partnerships by playing a convening role, and brought new campus partners to the long-standing University of Wisconsin–Madison–South Park Street collaboration. The science shop model's focus on inter- and trans-disciplinary research methods was valuable in both the academic sense and in relation to life experiences and backgrounds. Students, instructors, and guest speakers involved in the pilot came from a wide range of backgrounds and disciplines. The contributors and speakers represented a variety of departments, including Nonprofit Leadership, Consumer Science, Human Development and Family Studies, Urban and Regional Planning, Journalism, Environmental Studies, Law, and Education Policy and Leadership.

The Community University Exchange structure provided efficiency and avoidance of duplication in the project. Partners in the area have long expressed a concern that residents not be treated like “lab rats” (*Tryon, 2008*). There have been numerous surveys and assessments in the South Park Street area, but little action has resulted. Community leaders and academic staff cautioned that the Community University Exchange be mindful not to increase research fatigue among residents. Community University Exchange leaders addressed this concern by moving forward from the findings of previous research (instead of repeating recent work), and sharing data with all disciplines involved. Thus, by coordinating projects to meet multiple course objectives, the research impact on residents was minimized and the scope of the findings was amplified.

Students and faculty shared information and ideas from all of the classes and independent study courses at the end-of-semester community presentation. This led to a more holistic view of campus-community partnerships and demonstrated how classes could complement each other to provide a “one-stop-shop” for community partners to learn about several partnership projects at once. It also highlighted the input of the community mentors, who acted in the role of consultants on the media project and whose opinions were sought on all aspects of the pilot. One community mentor spoke of his frustration that many valuable voices in the community were not usually represented or invited to speak at the university. He applauded the Community University Exchange's invitations to community guest speakers and stated, “This is what I really seek out.”

The infrastructure provided a mechanism to continue the University of Wisconsin–Madison–South Park Street partnership, and the main benefit to the community was the continued university presence and program support. A community mentor who had been involved with other campus-community partnerships in South Madison said, “These programs provide resources that the community does not have . . . when we get these studies done we are able to use them to promote and fund community development programs.” Another community mentor said that if students and the University of Wisconsin–Madison were not doing this work, no one would. One of the core planners of the pilot project who is involved in numerous academic-community partnerships in South Madison said that the Community University Exchange “was a way to organize the kind of benefit we were trying to bring [to the partnership].” Two students, residents of South Madison themselves, observed that the more the community members felt that they were respected, the more they respected the academic partners and the concept of the value of higher education.

The Future of the Community University Exchange Pilot Project

Two goals for the Community University Exchange Science Shop pilot are (1) to ensure capacity-building to transition university involvement and resources over to community partner leadership so as to build community capacity for sustaining the work done so far, and (2) to secure continued funding for expansion to new projects. The goals are interdependent: The community needs funds and expertise; the university seeks fieldwork in real-time situations. The functions of the Community University Exchange Science Shop pilot that will be useful to sustain and improve working relationships in strategic community partnerships include

- building a reputation of university responsiveness to issues;
- listening and demonstration of respect for community knowledge; and
- project management that coordinates the efforts of different disciplines and community partners.

The initial evaluation findings have been well received by university directors and department chairs. To help the Community University Exchange infrastructure grow, Morgridge Center

staff have hired two doctoral students as Community University Exchange “fellows.” One will work at the Boys and Girls Club in the South Park Street area, and the other will coordinate campus-community projects resulting from a grant received by a transdisciplinary project team with the department of Public Health.

Recommendations from the evaluation will be incorporated into future Community University Exchange infrastructure to increase program efficiency. The class will be offered again. Students will be given a choice of three well-developed projects. All of the main partners in the Community University Exchange pilot program will continue to be involved. The long-term goal for the Community University Exchange is to seek more extensive funding to expand project capacity and eventually develop a request for proposal process.

Conclusion

The authors are learning about the complex nature of this work. Four lessons learned regarding the science shop model of university-community partnerships are presented in this section.

Lesson 1: Extensive Planning Is Required

The interdisciplinary and interconnected science shop model increases the amount of planning time needed to lay the foundation for community-based research projects. The Community University Exchange core planning team spent more than an academic semester planning for the pilot project and still found that more time could have been spent in the project development stage. Planning continued throughout the pilot semester. The first value of the science shop model, that research projects arise from the community, means that building a trusting relationship with partners includes multiple listening sessions, negotiation of feasible research questions and project design, and re-validating of the community’s perspective to be sure the undertaking does not veer off-track due to student or faculty “over-steering.”

Lesson 2: Plan for All Levels and Interests of Students

A second tenet of the science shop model, that teams be interdisciplinary in nature, means that planning is required to recruit and train students and faculty from a range of backgrounds and disciplines. Also important and effective is the inclusion of

professionals and students at different levels on a team. A model in which faculty mentors and academic staff guide graduate students, with undergraduates performing tasks like data collection, is effective. Phil Nyden has said, “We couldn’t do this without the graduate students!” (*personal communications, 2008–2010*). Although including undergraduates on research teams is uncommon, with a seasoned graduate student researcher providing oversight, the science shop model can increase capacity and reach.

Lesson 3: Be Creative About Student Credit and Course Requirements

In the Community University Exchange pilot program, some students wanted to participate in the South Madison class but had time conflicts. The Community University Exchange planning team made a decision to be flexible with students who had expertise and interest to bring to the project, and allow them to outline their time commitment and level of involvement by using variable credit or independent study.

Lesson 4: Balance Student Interest With Community Need

Program leaders must take responsibility for balancing student interests with community needs. In the Community University Exchange pilot program, many graduate and undergraduate students expressed interest in community gardening. Gardening was also a topic of interest in the community. However, other issues (e.g., unemployment, home foreclosure, and the impact of the area’s negative image) were higher priorities. Thus, the way that students were recruited and the projects they focused on were re-evaluated to prevent an overabundance of garden-focused student projects and a dearth of student projects that addressed the community’s priorities.

In summary, with continued enthusiasm from students, commitment from faculty and staff, and robust community partners, the University of Wisconsin–Madison’s Community University Exchange program has the potential to be an effective, sustainable science shop model. The lessons learned from the University of Wisconsin–Madison’s science shop pilot program (investing significant time and effort in planning a university-community project, including students at various education levels, being flexible with student credit and course requirements, and mediating student interest and community needs) may help readers enhance their own university-community partnerships.

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Leadership Development in Service-Learning: An Exploratory Investigation

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Abstract

The purpose of this investigation was to understand how six students, an alumna, and a faculty member at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro perceived their space to emerge as leaders in service-learning endeavors, and to gain insight into how universities create that space. The results indicated that providing support, resources, and space for students to integrate their studies, values, and civic commitment in a systematic and logical fashion helped them to feel better prepared for leadership roles in communities as well as in their future professions.

Introduction

This exploratory investigation focused on the nature of student leadership development in service-learning activities. The purpose of the study was to document the perceptions of student leadership at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (a mid-sized, research intensive university) with an eye toward improving student-learning outcomes and service-learning program administration. The name and mission statement of the university's Office of Leadership and Service-Learning attest to the intentional integration of academic service-learning experiences with leadership development:

The Office of Leadership and Service-Learning (OLSL) at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro serves as a catalyst for the development of experiential curricular and co-curricular leadership and service-learning initiatives. Through civic engagement, community partner collaboration, and personal reflection, we prepare students for a life of active citizenship. OLSL assists students in developing a personal philosophy of leadership while gaining valuable and diverse experiences, empowering them to effect positive change and serve as citizen-leaders in a global community. (*University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 2007a*)

Leadership positions in student organizations and university governance committees, both co-curricular initiatives, are traditionally seen as providing formative experiences for individuals interested in developing their leadership skills. The present investigation was designed to explore whether participation in thoughtfully organized service-learning experiences might also provide fertile ground for leadership formation, and if so, in what ways.

Leadership and service-learning programs and policies are also designed to provide students with multiple pathways to become engaged leaders. The University of North Carolina at Greensboro cultivates leadership courses across campus and offers the Leadership Challenge Program, a co-curricular program for students interested in learning more about personal leadership development. Courses that enhance the eight competencies of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro Leadership Framework (self-awareness/self-management, relationship/group development, task management, creative visioning and problem-solving, effective communication, valuing diversity, community engagement, and ethical decision making) and that students in the Leadership Challenge Program are encouraged but not required to take are noted on lists for students and advisors (*University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 2007b*). Similarly, all service-learning courses are designated with an “SVL” attribute in the schedule of classes, and must meet criteria for best practices, including linking course content with meaningful service and reflection (*University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 2007c*).

Rationale for Student Leadership Development

Two trends speak to the urgency of higher education’s need to foster leadership more effectively. The first trend is found in the realm of career preparation. Results from Association of American Colleges and Universities’ National Leadership Council for Liberal Education and America’s Promise (LEAP) surveys indicate that of 305 employers interviewed, 63% believe college graduates lacked the skills needed for a global economy and for promotion (*Kuh, 2008*). Moreover, as baby boomers retire, communities are faced with marked gaps in nonprofit leadership (*Tierney, 2006*), a trend mirrored in the corporate world as well (*Druker, 1998; Lombardo & Euchinger, 2000 as cited in Yarborough, 2011*).

A second trend that speaks to the need for student leadership development stems from an awareness that today’s citizenry

needs skills to confront the challenges of a rapidly changing, knowledge-based, global economy and environment. Complex societal issues require interdisciplinary approaches to address them. *UNC Tomorrow*, a commissioned report in 2007 by the University of North Carolina System, focused on a mandate for public institutions to become proactive in response to quality of life and economic needs of the state and region (*UNC Tomorrow Commission, 2007*). To address the trend, a growing number of civic and academic leaders are calling on universities to nurture future leaders (*Yarborough, 2011*). In *Leadership Reconsidered*, Astin and Astin (2000) posit that “an important ‘leadership development’ challenge for higher education is to *empower* students, by helping them develop those special talents and attitudes that will enable them to become effective social change agents” (p. 2).

Literature Review: Student Leadership Development

Prior research suggests that involvement in leadership opportunities during the college years has positive impacts on students: It enhances conflict resolution and commitment to civic responsibility, inspires a greater sense of efficacy in shaping the world around them, and enables active learning through collaboration and improved social adjustment (*Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Tomlinson-Clarke & Clarke, 1994*). Creating space for students to develop leadership skills within service-learning courses not only helps students implement university-community projects, but also provides substantive opportunities for the students to shape the nature of the service-learning project (*Chesler, Kellman-Fritz, & Knife-Gould, 2003*). Thus, service-learning projects are uniquely positioned to foster leadership skills because they encourage students to become co-producers of knowledge.

It is interesting to note that although service-learning has gained widespread acceptance in higher education as a faculty-led initiative, the movement began with grassroots organizing by students and community activists in the 1960s (*Zlotkowski, Longo, & Williams, 2006*). Considering this history, the editors and contributing authors for *Students as Colleagues* (*Zlotkowski et al., 2006*) argue that service-learning must find new ways to inspire student leadership in the future if the movement is to continue to grow. “Just as the service movement once needed resources that students alone could not contribute, so the movement has now reached a point where it needs the resources that students alone can supply” (*Zlotkowski et al., 2006, p. 3*).

A growing number of studies point to the efficacy of promoting leadership development through service-learning projects. The convergence of data from both student leadership development studies (*Astin, 1993; Astin & Astin, 2000; Astin & Cress, 1998; Dugan, 2006a, 2006b; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kirlin, 2003; Komives, Owen, Longersbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005; Komives, Longeream, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2003*) and service-learning research (*Astin & Astin, 2000; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, Giles, & Braxton, 1997; Kuh, 2008; Moely, McFarland, Miron, Mercer, & Ilustre, 2002; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005*) not only supports the claim that leadership skills can be taught, but also that leadership programs positively affect a wide range of personal and social learning outcomes, including personal efficacy and interpersonal communication skills.

Even the most current and widely acclaimed evidence-based research on student leadership development, however, draws almost exclusively on co-curricular experiences such as residence life, Greek life, student government, and student organizations (*Kouzes & Posner, 2008*). The authors believe that intentional leadership development within course-based service-learning projects remains underutilized by faculty members.

One reason for this, Des Marais, Yang, and Farzanehkia (2000) suggest, is the traditional views of leadership held by some faculty members. Drawing on Burns' (1978) distinction between transactional and transformational leadership models, the authors suggest that too many faculty members subscribe to traditional "transactional" leadership models, which emphasize leader-centric views of leadership (e.g., leadership is vested in a position or a single leader), rather than more complex leadership models (*Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Kouzes & Posner, 2003*) that favor collaborative, values-centered transformational approaches.

[M]ost often, students are assigned to do a particular task rather than being allowed to determine each and every step of a service-learning experience, from community assessment, to evaluation, to celebration. Simply assigning students tasks in teacher-designed service-learning projects denies them the opportunity for decision making and action planning. It limits their understanding of the interconnectedness of tasks and gives them no sense of the complexity of project management and leadership. (*Des Marais et al., 2000, p. 679*)

Writing as student authors and leaders, Des Marais et al. (2000) argue persuasively that students are capable of engaging in transformational service-learning projects where decision-making and responsibilities are shared among all participants. *Students as Colleagues* (Zlotkowski et al., 2006) recognizes this potential by describing ways to identify, recruit, and train student leaders in service-learning projects. With 24 chapters edited or authored by student-faculty teams, *Students as Colleagues* describes best practices for service-learning leadership development. Reading these works, the authors of the present investigation were convinced that students could play an instrumental role in the national service-learning movement if, and when, their professors provided them with the resources and space to emerge as leaders.

The investigation presented in this article was also informed by leadership identity development theory (Komives et al. 2005; Komives et al. 2006), which was used to frame the study's findings, and Dugan and Komives' (2007) Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, which was used to support the discussion and implications of findings. In 2006, the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership surveyed over 50,000 college students from 52 campuses nationwide about their experiences as students and leaders. The findings led Dugan and Komives to offer 10 recommendations to enrich campus leadership programs. The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership recommendations are explored in relation to the present investigation's findings in the Discussion section. Although service-learning is not explicitly mentioned as a component of programs considered in the survey, the authors of the present investigation believe service-learning provides an effective framework for the majority of practices that Dugan and Komives recommend.

Assessing Leadership Development in Service-Learning Projects at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro

The authors share an interest in service-learning research focused on enhancing student learning and development. At the time of the study, the lead author was a full-time English faculty member who also served as a service-learning faculty fellow for the university; the other author serves as University of North Carolina at Greensboro director of the Office of Leadership and Service-Learning, the office that has worked to institutionalize service-learning as well as provide faculty development for engaged teaching, learning, and research. Wurr now directs the service-learning program at the University of Idaho. The purpose of this

investigation was (1) to understand how students at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro perceive their space to emerge as leaders in service-learning activities and (2) to gain insight into how universities create that space. Grounded theory was selected as the method for the investigation. The goal was to generate a schema of a phenomenon “grounded” in the experience and perceptions of the participants (*Brown, Stevens, Troiano, & Schneider, 2002; Creswell, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1998*).

The Sample

Institutional Review Board (IRB) human subjects approval was secured for the study. The sample was determined using “intensity sampling” that included “information-rich cases that manifest the phenomenon intensely, but not extremely” (*Patton, 2002, p. 243*) representing three groups: (1) current (2006) student leaders in fall semester service-learning projects, (2) former student leaders in a service-learning project, and (3) faculty members who taught and supported service-learning classes. As an exploratory investigation, the research design did not include control groups. The objective was to learn as much as possible from good examples of leaders on campus.

In 2005, faculty members teaching service-learning courses were asked to submit names of students exhibiting leadership skills in their service-learning classes. Selection of six student participants was based on the demonstrated leadership abilities and interests of the students as identified by their professors. The faculty members teaching service-learning also provided names of recent graduates from their classes who had exhibited leadership. Only one student responded to an interview request. One faculty member also participated. She was a faculty fellow for the Office of Leadership and Service-Learning. The office’s service-learning faculty fellow program, which promotes faculty leadership and advocacy for service-learning, is a 1-year program offered to experienced service-learning faculty members who work with the office to advance institutional change to increase understanding of and reward for service-learning and community service endeavors.

Profile of the participants.

Of the six student participants, two were African American men (one graduate and one undergraduate), two were undergraduate African American women, and two were Caucasian women (one graduate and one undergraduate). The alumna representative

was a Caucasian woman, as was the faculty member. The sample profile reflected the diversity of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro student population, though African American students represented a greater proportion of participants (50%) than they do in the overall student population at University of North Carolina, at Greensboro. At the time of the study, the total University of North Carolina at Greensboro student population was 15,920, including 12,689 undergraduates and 3,231 graduate students. Of the undergraduate population, 68% were female and 20% African-American. Seventy-eight percent of undergraduate African-Americans were female. Fourteen percent of the graduate student population was African-American and 81% of those were female.

Data Collection

The eight participants engaged in semi-structured interviews lasting about an hour each. The interview questions were open-ended and focused on the personal and institutional qualities that enhanced or hindered the participants' growth as leaders. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

Data analysis.

The data were analyzed using constant comparative analysis (Patton, 2002; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to identify themes and sub-themes. As shown in Table 1, items were coded independently by the authors and then organized into generative themes, recurring threads of thought that document a pervasive sentiment expressed by the majority of participants in a study (Freire, 1970, p. 97; Marshall & Rossman, 1999, pp. 152–153; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 131; Patton, 2002, pp. 475–477).

Table 1. Coding Strength and Inter-Rater Reliability (IRR)

Category	Same	Different or Missed	IRR
Leadership Identity Formation	42	7	83%
Provided Space	36	12	66%
Part of Something Larger	34	4	88%

The Findings

Three themes emerged from 112 data items: (1) “leadership identity formation,” in which the participants described how they came to think and act like leaders; (2) “provided space”—the

institutional structures, pedagogical practices, and curricular or co-curricular activities that provided participants with the space needed to realize their full potential as leaders; and (3) “part of something larger,” which focused on the participants’ social identity, including personal and civic agency development. In the sections that follow, each category is described further.

The authors will report the findings of the data related to the theme “leadership identity formation” using the leadership identity development model described by Komives et al. (2005). The six-stage process of leadership identity development they describe was a useful framework to structure reporting the findings of the data. This model identifies six sequential stages of leadership development.

Stage 1. Awareness: Recognizing that leadership is happening around you

Stage 2. Exploration/engagement: Intentional involvements in groups and meaningful experiences; taking on responsibilities

Stage 3. Leader identified: Trying on new roles and responsibilities; managing others

Stage 4. Leadership differentiated: Awareness that leadership can be non-positional—that leadership is a group process

Stage 5. Generativity: Accepting the responsibility for the development of others and for sustaining organizations

Stage 6. Integration/synthesis: Continued self-development and lifelong learning; striving for congruence and internal confidence (Komives et al., 2005, pp. 606–607)

Each stage of leadership identity development ends with a transition signaling leaving one stage and beginning the next. In this way, the stages describe an individual developmental process heavily influenced by group interactions.

Leadership Identity Formation

About a third of the comments coded by the authors fell into the “leadership identity formation” category. Of these, none was coded as Stage 1 or 2 of the leadership identity development model; 10 were coded as Stage 3, 16 as Stage 4, 14 as Stage 5, and two as Stage 6. Representative statements classified by corresponding stage include

- Stage 3 (leader identified): “I was in student government all through high school, and I have always been . . . a natural leader.”
- Stage 4 (leadership differentiated): “I really wasn’t aware that leadership wasn’t just about one person. I think that is the main thing I got out of the [service-learning] class.”
- Stage 5 (generativity): “Being a leader is just knowing that being the person you are makes a difference, just being aware of your actions.”
- Stage 6 (integration/synthesis): “I think some people have a one-or-two sentence definition of leadership, and they just kind of put the pen down and everything fits in that box. But it’s so much more than two sentences: It’s life! I think that’s one of the things I’ve learned—your whole life can be leading people and serving them; it’s not just a departmental opportunity or [something you do] one Saturday morning.”

Provided Space

The data that were categorized as “provided space” referenced curricular and co-curricular structures or classroom initiatives which reflect the democratic spaces described by Zlotkowski, Longo, and Williams (2006) whereby students “develop, use, and own their voices on a host of public issues” (p. 7). In the case of our study, the students’ recognition of these democratic spaces supports the process of leadership development. These included comments on course and assignment requirements, and the development of personal networks and relationships that built student interpersonal efficacy and self-confidence working in and leading groups. Thus, the concept of providing space is roughly equivalent to that of liberty and the antithesis of micromanagement. Comments indicated whether the initial motivation for students to adopt leadership roles was curricular or co-curricular, and whether the participants were “chosen” to be leaders (i.e., positional leadership) or leadership emerged from within (“emergent”). Representative comments for each category are below.

- Curricular, chosen: “Our main project for the class is each graduate student was assigned a group of undergraduate students to lead in a service-learning project.”

- Curricular, emergent: “I think that is why everyone needs service-learning because you learn that leadership is not just about one person. . . . It’s about everyone. You know everyone makes things happen.”
- Co-Curricular, chosen: “The staff don’t necessarily want to make you feel as if you’re the student and they’re the older adult. . . . They are constantly engaging you in what they’re doing. . . . They’re not lecturing; they’re engaging you in dialogue. I think that really shows a respect they have for you as an adult and as a fellow participant in leadership and service-learning.”
- Co-Curricular, emergent: “I think that’s why people keep coming back to leadership and service-learning and why students love participating in it because it’s something where you make it your own and when you walk away from it, it’s different for you than for the other person, but you’re grateful for having done it yourself.”

Part of Something Larger

The respondents in this investigation reflected on their motivations for becoming involved in service-learning and leadership activities. Although the eight were inspired by the thought of making a small contribution to the larger good of the community, some expressed these sentiments in relation to societal issues such as racism, literacy, or poverty, while others focused on personal motivations such as changes in beliefs, social agency, and career choices. For example, one student reported that “the service-learning experience gave a whole broader view of what I could do because I was always business oriented and assumed I would go back into the corporate world. I have no desire to go back to the corporate world. I would much rather deal in non-profits or as an advocate.” Another student commented,

I was in the Air Force for a while and I volunteered as a youth center at my base. There I saw a lot of under-served kids, their parents were away a lot, and the kids were affected. So I became like a male mentor to the kids. I saw that I could have a huge effect on these kids. Like some of the ones that would never go to college, went. So I got out of the Air Force and started wanting to work with kids full time.

For another student, the motivation to become involved in service-learning and leadership activities was personally motivated by a commitment to social change; service-learning provided this student with a clearer sense of purpose in life, as shown in the following quote:

Since 1968 the poverty level has been the same as it is today, nothing has changed, and that's what I'm going to do. The FBI has a secret blacklist that they put activists on and I'm going to be on that list 'cause I'm going to say something that's going to upset somebody in very many ways. First thing I'm stopping is gang violence, after that it is poverty, and after that I'm going for something else. I've always been a very passionate person, but I can say this class has definitely helped me focus in some ways where I have a lot clearer example of what I should be, I guess you could say.

In several instances students noted shifting into advocacy roles, prompting the authors to consider advocacy as a separate category. Ultimately, however, it was decided that advocacy connected to “part of something larger,” and was a subset of leadership development as a process (Althaus, 1997).

Leadership as a Process: A Conceptual Framework

As illustrated in Figure 1, a conceptual framework of leadership as a process indicates a relationship among the three themes.

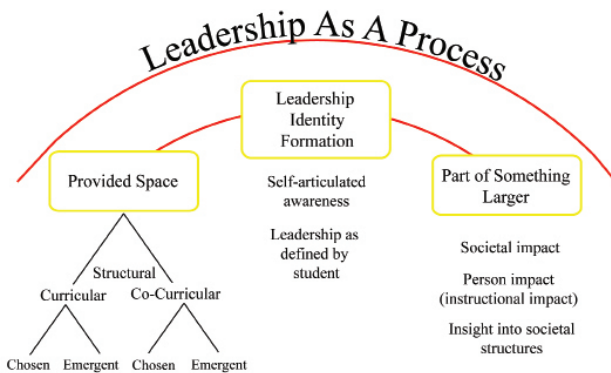


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework: Leadership as Process

The overarching theme that emerged from the data was a view of leadership as a process. This meta-narrative explains the relationships between the other themes and subthemes in the data. Leadership as identity formation is a central theme in this meta-narrative and closely parallels the six stages of leadership identity development described by Komives et al. (2005).

Discussion

Table 2 lists the three themes that emerged from the data, recommendations for improving student leadership development (Dugan & Komives, 2007), and the potential outcomes.

Table 2. The Study's Three Themes, Recommendations for Enhancing Leadership Development, and Potential Outcomes

Present Study's Findings (Leadership as a Process)	Dugan & Komives' (2007) Recommendations for Effective Leadership Development	Potential Outcomes
Leadership Identity Formation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage students in conversations that matter (sociocultural issues) • Encourage depth of involvement vs. breadth in group experiences • Foster mentoring relationships with faculty and staff 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service-learning can provide students with structured opportunities to explore diversity • Civic engagement offices can serve as the administrative hub for students to explore leadership in increasingly complex contexts • Service-learning and community-based research can engage students and faculty in meaningful relations and knowledge production
Provided Space	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diffuse leadership programs across the institution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service-learning can cross disciplines and content • Leadership development can be embedded in service-learning
Part of Something Larger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhance campus involvement in clubs • Encourage participation in leadership programs • Align students' self-perception of leadership confidence and competence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service-learning can provide alternate pathways to campus and community engagement • Critical reflection on community engagement can heighten understanding of self and society • Service-learning and community-based research projects can promote both skills and perceptions of efficacy

Leadership Identity Formation

Stages 3 and 4 in Komives et al.'s (2006) leadership identity development model are "leader identified" and "leadership differentiated," respectively, and are most significant to the present investigation's conceptual framework of leadership as a process because they represent a paradigm shift from a transactional to a transformational concept of leadership (Burns, 1978; HERI, 1996). Komives et al. describe Stage 3 "leader identified" thinking as "leadership seen largely as positional roles held by self or others. Leaders do leadership" (2006, p. 405).

In Stage 4, "leadership differentiated," there is a "new belief that leadership can come from anywhere in the group" (Komives et al., 2006, p. 405). Although it is estimated that only 50–66% of the adult population ever advances to Stage 4 consciousness, the shift is most likely to occur around the age of 20 ("Kegan's Orders," 1999). The authors conclude from the data analysis that Stage 4 can be facilitated by participation in service-learning leadership experiences. In later stages of leadership development, students begin to accept more responsibility for engaging and supporting others (Stage 5) and internalize their identity as leaders (Stage 6).

It is important to note, however, that while the leadership identity development stages are linear, they are also recursive in that Stage 4 must precede Stage 5 but does not exclude occasional steps back to Stage 2 as students try out new ideas and roles (Komives et al., 2006, p. 404). Data from the present investigation present numerous examples of the same student expressing ideas consistent with adjacent leadership identity development levels. For example, the student in the following quote shifts from "we" to "I," a change in voice and perspective that is consistent with the shift from "leadership differentiated," with its focus on interdependency and the collective responsibilities of the group, to "generativity" and thinking about personal commitments to developing others and sustaining groups: "We were scared, you know; I really wanted to kind of motivate them and inspire them to push through that and to really be a voice for change even in the face [of] such an obstacle."

Provided Space

The key element of "space," whether curricular or co-curricular, is providing enough space for students to take ownership of a project, assignment, or their responsibilities to themselves and others. Des Marais et al. (2000) observe that "Simply assigning

students tasks in teacher-designed service-learning projects denies them the opportunity for decision making and action planning” (p. 679).

Although the authors experienced some challenges coding comments in the “provided space” category – differing most often on coding comments as either Leadership Development (a student-learning outcome) or Provided Space (a structural and programmatic outcome) – the results indicate that the curricular versus co-curricular distinction is less important than the space students have for shaping their own learning experiences. Space, whether curricular or co-curricular, encourages leadership development: Students will develop their leadership skills in programs designed to help them do this, and conversely, may not develop their leadership skills as much as they might when opportunities to do so are absent on campus. The authors conclude that both co-curricular student leadership development initiatives and curricular service-learning programs are viable, effective, and mutually supporting ways to enhance student leadership skills. The potential contribution of service-learning in developing leadership capacity in students deserves further exploration.

Part of Something Larger

In this study, being part of something larger often motivated the participants to service and leadership. The data in this study are consistent with Komives et al.’s (2005) findings, in which they noted that students’ “passions were explicitly connected to the beliefs and values they identified as important in their lives. . . . Service was seen as a form of leadership activism, a way of making a difference and working towards change” (p. 607).

In the present study, however, there were limits to the students’ awareness of their own power as change agents. Because theories of service-learning and leadership development often describe each as a transformational pedagogy, the authors expected to see evidence of students as institutional change agents. The investigation’s interview protocol directly asked, “On a scale of 1 – 10, with 1 = not at all and 10 = very much, to what extent do/did you feel able to shape the broader institution (University of North Carolina, at Greensboro)?” This question was most often met with blank looks and calls for clarification such as, “Shape the institution. What do you mean?” Students interpreted “support” differently (cf: Interview Protocol, question #3 in Appendix A). Some noted material or administrative support that was or was not provided to them while

others considered emotional support primarily. Regardless of how support was interpreted, it was not uncommon for participants to rate “support” highly on a 10-point scale, but follow with comments suggesting a lower level of support, as in the following example: “I would say again about maybe like a 7, maybe an 8. When I first had the idea to do a performance . . . I tried to contact a woman here, a teacher here [for whom the student] had written the play, here in her class, and I never heard back from either of them.” Overall, however, students rated their ability to impact the institution lower than any other aspect on the survey.

Students come to college with the expectation that they will learn and change; they also hope to make a positive impact on society. But they do not expect to change the institution. Thus the authors found evidence of personal and societal transformations, but not (as hoped) of students transforming the university.

The distinction between “chosen” and “emergent” leaders indicates that the students did not see themselves as leaders because “chosen” leaders are selected by others, and “emergent” leaders are only beginning to realize they can be a leader; their leadership potential isn’t fully developed yet. The literature suggests that such students respond well to invitations and suggestions from peers and mentors to take on leadership roles on campus and in the community. For example, Komives et al. (2005) studied the influences of parents, teachers, coaches, or religious leaders and concluded that they were key to fostering leadership development in adolescents. The authors of the present investigation saw many instances in the data of students responding positively to suggestions from faculty, staff, and peers to become more involved in a given project, program, or club. These suggestions could be called “social influences.”

In sum then, the present study found service-learning and leadership development to be complementary, with the greatest potential contribution to student leadership development occurring between Stage 3 and 4 of Komives et al.’s (2005) Leadership Identity Development Theory. Space was also found to be an essential ingredient in student leadership development; as the popular message in *Field of Dreams* states, “build it and they will come” (Frankish, Levin, & Robinson, 1989). Finally, the present study found students were motivated to service and leadership by the desire to be “part of something larger,” but the resulting personal and social transformations they experienced did not, as service-learning theory suggests, extend to seeing themselves as institutional change agents.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations in the study make generalizing findings to other settings and populations difficult. First, the investigation was conducted with only eight participants who were not randomly selected, but rather were identified as leaders by others. Their views on leadership development are likely different from those of the general population of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Added to this, students of color represented a greater proportion of participants than they do in the overall student population at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. What effect these differences might have on the results obtained is not known, so researchers and practitioners must decide for themselves the extent to which they think the findings might resonate on their campuses.

How the University of North Carolina Greensboro Is Using the Results of the Investigation

The findings of this investigation have had an impact on the design and administration of service-learning and leadership development activities at University of North Carolina at Greensboro. They have also informed actions to bridge the gap between academic affairs and student affairs, such as new engagement initiatives, enhancement of existing civic engagement, and the strengthening of interdisciplinary initiatives supporting community-based research. Examples of how the findings have had an impact on programming are provided in the sections below.

Enhancing Service-Learning Leadership Across Campus

One way the Office of Leadership and Service-Learning has strengthened service-learning leadership initiatives that bridge academic affairs and student affairs is by revising its student reflection leader program. This program provides faculty members with undergraduate and graduate students who have prior experience in service-learning to serve as site coordinators and discussion leaders. Although the program was launched in 2007, it is similar in many respects to the more mature “peer facilitator” program at the University of Michigan that Chesler et al. (2003) describe. Essentially, student reflection leaders in the University of North Carolina at Greensboro program work closely with their faculty members to design and facilitate reflection activities that help students connect and learn from experiences in the classroom

and community. By helping students make connections to the course material, these reflection leaders are actively crafting the course content, which Zlotkowski et al. (2006) suggest as a next step in service-learning-based student leadership development.

Initially, some faculty misunderstood the purpose of the reflection leader program, seeing the student-reflection leaders more as clerks to record and supervise volunteer hours. To help faculty better understand and appreciate their roles as mentors, Office of Leadership and Service-Learning staff are continually working to improve descriptions and support structures for the program. Regular communication between faculty and student reflection leaders is encouraged: Teams are required to jointly draft goals and responsibilities for each partner in the project before the semester begins, and then they complete mid- and end-of-term assessments of their work together. The Office of Leadership and Service-Learning has also revised and expanded the training materials and workshops it provides student reflection leaders.

The saliency of students developing meaningful relationships with faculty and peers on campus appears consistently in studies on student retention. For example, Dugan and Komives' (2007) Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership found "Faculty mentoring was one of the top three predictors across all Social Change Model values" (p. 15). At the University of North Carolina at Greensboro mentoring relationships are intentionally built into leadership and service-learning programs (e.g., the service-learning reflection leader initiative and the provision of seed money for community-based research grants).

Community-Based Research

The Office of Leadership and Service-Learning has strengthened interdisciplinary initiatives supporting community-based research in which faculty members mentor students conducting research with and for community partners. Although graduate students are included in the research teams, the high impact practice of undergraduate research linked with meaningful civic engagement is a deliberate attempt to engage students through their disciplines as change agents. Students who have learned to succeed as engaged scholars contribute high quality research that forms the bedrock of higher education while also experiencing the challenges and satisfactions of emerging as public intellectuals (Zlotkowski et al., 2006). In 2008, the Office of Leadership and Service-Learning began offering about ten \$1,000 grants annually to research teams consisting of

at least one faculty member, student, and community partner. The Office of Undergraduate Research and the Graduate School offer matching grants to the students on the teams. Community partners must participate in all stages of the research process to ensure that the research addresses real needs in the community. Input and proposals are sought for projects from faculty and community member collaborations formally and informally through regular meetings and communication. With support from faculty members, students analyze the causes of social problems and offer solutions and strategies for change. Since the authors believe in seeing students as colleagues and as co-producers of knowledge, a central goal of the community-based-research grants is to provide students with opportunities to acquire knowledge and skills for active civic engagement. Grant proposals must clearly specify research foci and methods as well as plans for sharing insights gained from the project among stakeholders and the communities they serve.

Provided Space

Similarly, findings from the present investigation suggest students will avail themselves of opportunities to develop their leadership skills on campus, so the Office of Leadership and Service-Learning strives to provide them with multiple pathways—curricular and co-curricular—to leadership development. As noted earlier, the Leadership Challenge Program is a curricular and co-curricular self-directed leadership development program designed to guide students in their personal and professional development for lifelong leadership. Using eight competencies of leadership as a basis, students engage in approved curricular and co-curricular activities that prepare them to serve as citizen-leaders in a global community.

Co-curricular and Curricular Activities

The data in the present investigation supporting the benefits of providing students space to develop leadership skills did not show any difference in effectiveness between curricular and co-curricular efforts. These results reinforce Vogelgesang and Astin's (2000) findings that participation in service-learning or generic community service has similar impacts on all measures of leadership ability and activity (*p.* 31). Future research might explore intentional integration of curricular and co-curricular leadership development, such as learning communities, a university-wide

thematic focus, or common readings with connected experiential activities.

As noted previously, student demographics in the present investigation are similar to those of University of North Carolina, at Greensboro as a whole. Students at the university come from largely working and middle-class backgrounds and communities. Since the average University of North Carolina at Greensboro freshman probably would not rate cultural capital very highly on a list of his or her personal attributes, the authors also take to heart Kuh's (2008) findings that community-based learning offers effective learning outcomes for all populations, but especially for those students who might never have thought of themselves as leaders. With greater numbers of diverse students in our schools today, a business-as-usual approach to leadership development will not be sufficient to equip students with the 21st century skills needed to take leadership positions within our communities.

Student affairs and academic affairs need to work together more to provide students with multiple avenues across campus to develop their leadership abilities. Although the faculty member who participated in the present investigation was identified by students as exceptionally effective in nurturing and supporting emergent student leaders, she was not aware of this side of her work prior to the investigation. "I have to admit, prior to understanding a little bit of the research direction . . . I don't think I focused on leadership and I [now] see it as an area that I need to think about and focus on." While it would be unwise to jump to conclusions based on information provided by a single informant, the authors' own experiences as both faculty and student affairs professionals lead us to concur with Astin and Astin's (2000) observation that "One seldom hears mention of . . . 'leadership' or 'leadership skills' in faculty discussions of curricular reform, even though goals such as 'producing future leaders' are often found in the catalogues and mission statements of colleges and universities" (p. 3). Discussions of leadership are now included in faculty workshops and meetings on service-learning at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Faculty and staff who may never have previously considered student leadership development part of their job description now have more opportunities to view their pedagogical practices as an essential element in preparing the community leaders of tomorrow today.

Systemic support for leadership beyond the official service-learning course designation at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro includes ongoing efforts by the Office of Leadership

and Service-Learning to work with department heads and faculty across campus to identify courses that have significant content corresponding to one or more of the eight competencies recognized within the University of North Carolina at Greensboro Leadership Framework.

Part of Something Larger

The Office of Leadership and Service-Learning offers students the unique opportunity to learn the skills that make for positive change in our society. By working together, academic affairs and student affairs can bring “integration and coherence to a traditionally fragmented, compartmentalized, and often random approach to achieving important undergraduate education outcomes” (Schroeder, 1996, p. 2).

Conclusion

Entities like the Office of Leadership and Service-Learning can serve as administrative hubs for students to explore a personal philosophy of leadership, engage with other leaders on campus and in the community, and develop the skills necessary to effect lasting social change. The goal is to create multiple avenues for student leadership that provide differential and increasingly complex opportunities not only to learn about leadership but to practice leadership competencies within a supportive and challenging framework.

Whether a student is serving with a community partner to fulfill learning objectives for a course or choosing to volunteer at a local after-school program, the skills for lifelong leadership are honed. Students should have the opportunity to choose from a variety of programs that enable them to experience leadership through meaningful civic engagement. Students should be able to engage in issues that matter to them, and in which their work has real outcomes for themselves and the community. A lifelong ethic of civic engagement is most likely to develop when students have the opportunity to practice the necessary skills and see the results of their efforts. Practicing the skills of effective citizenship builds students' comprehension of their own efficacy. As students choose to engage in leadership and service on campus and in the local community, they develop the skills, knowledge, and commitment needed to accomplish public purposes. The present investigation suggests the saliency of providing support, resources, and space for students to integrate their studies, values, and civic commitment in a systematic and logical fashion to prepare for leadership roles in their professions and communities.

Endnote

1. Raters differed most often in coding comments as either leadership development (a student-learning outcome) or provided space (a structural and programmatic outcome). The authors view these categories as two sides of the same coin and further posit that students will develop their leadership skills in programs designed to help them do this, and, conversely, may not develop their leadership skills as much as they might when opportunities to do so are absent on campus.

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Appendix A

Leadership in Service-Learning

Interview Questions

“You have been chosen for this interview because of your leadership in service-learning at our institution as an undergraduate (or if interviewing context resources, “your work with undergraduates in leadership and service-learning”). We are interested in learning from your experiences as a student leader in service-learning, through a fairly open-ended conversation that will be guided by a few questions. In particular, we want to learn about the specific kinds of services, support mechanisms, barriers, etc. that you encountered (provided) in that capacity. Also, we are interested in your perception of the roles you undertake/undertook as a leader and the extent to which you feel/felt empowered to shape and define your relationships with your institution in general and with other students, faculty, staff, administrators, and members of the broader community. We hope to be able to share the insights of students about student leadership in service-learning with people who are planning programs, so we want to explore your process in some detail.”

1. Please describe your experience with student leadership in service-learning.
2. How and why did you become involved as a student leader in service-learning? (If not discussed above.)
For context resources: How and why did you become involved with student leadership in service-learning?
3. On a scale of 1 – 10, with 1 = not at all and 10 = very much, to what extent do/did you feel:
 - a. supported in your capacity as a student leader in service-learning? Talk to me about what that number represents to you.
FOLLOW UP: What specific resources/mechanisms/people/relationships/etc. provided the most important support? How might you have been provided with better support? For context resources: What resources/mechanisms etc. did you provide student leaders?
 - b. challenged by your involvement as a student leader in service-learning? Talk to me about what that number represents to you.

FOLLOW UP: In what specific ways do you believe serving as a student in service-learning push you beyond what otherwise might have been your experience as an undergraduate?

For context resources: What differences, if any, did you observe in student leaders of service-learning and those who do not accept leadership positions in service-learning classes?

- c. like a true colleague of faculty/staff/administrators at our institution? Talk to me about what that number represents to you.

FOLLOW UP: With what particular individuals do/did you most feel like a true colleague? In what specific ways are/were your relationships with these individuals different from your relationships with other people with who you felt less like a colleague?

For context resources: In general, what factors do you believe most influence whether a student feels like a true colleague of faculty/staff/administrators?

- d. able to shape your own experience as a student leader in service-learning? Talk to me about what that number represents to you.

FOLLOW UP: In what specific ways are/were your leadership functions defined in advance and what specific ways are/were you able to define them? Can you give some concrete examples of ways in which you are/were able to define what “student leadership in service-learning” means? For context resources: Can you give some concrete examples of ways that students defined for themselves “student leadership in service-learning?”

- e. able to shape the broader institution (UNCG)? Talk to me about what that number represents to you.

FOLLOW UP: In what specific ways did

your actions help to change the institution?
Can you give some concrete examples of
ways in which UNCG is different because of
your service as a student leader in service-
learning?

For context resources: In what specific ways
do you believe actions of student leaders in
service learning shape undergraduate educa-
tion at UNCG?

4. What institutional barriers, if any, did you encounter in your capacity as a student leader (administrator) in service-learning?
5. What changes do you believe need to take place at the institutional level to prevent or minimize the effects of these barriers to better support student leadership in service-learning?
6. What did you take with you from your experience with student leadership in service-learning? What did you leave behind?
7. How has your experience with student leadership in service-learning influenced your identity as a _____ (reference whatever has been emphasized in the conversation)? As a citizen?

BOOK REVIEWS

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

Longo, N.V., & Gibson, C. M. (Eds.). (2011). *From Command to Community: A New Approach to Leadership Education in Colleges and Universities*. Medford, MA: Tufts University Press.

Review by Mark A. Brennan

The call for leadership, civic engagement, and an active citizenry among university-level students has been echoed through our colleges and universities for decades. This need has only increased in our modern, globally interconnected world. In this setting, it is essential that students receive a comprehensive leadership training experience embedded within their degree programs. Today's students are increasingly expected to exhibit leadership skills and quickly assume a variety of leadership roles during, and after, their academic preparation. We cannot, however, simply provide our students with a loosely defined set of leadership tools and hope that these are sufficient to prepare them for the challenges they will face. Instead, we must train our future generations of leaders to recognize and develop the skills needed to adapt in a rapidly changing environment. The world they encounter will be faster paced, and riskier. It is, therefore, essential that they be leaders who are proactive, flexible, adaptive, innovative, and empowered with applicable real-world experience.

This focus on leadership is particularly appropriate, as recent generations have shown fluctuating interest in volunteering, activism, community service, and civic engagement activities. As a result, many colleges and universities have placed increasing emphasis on programs that provide organizational and community leadership skills. These range in structure from standard curriculum-based courses, to courses that call for significant applied civic engagement activities, with the latter being far less common.

In response to such conditions, Nicholas Longo and Cynthia Gibson present *From Command to Community: A New Approach to Leadership Education in Colleges and Universities*. The book calls on academic institutions to think differently about leadership education, and to create opportunities for students to gain significant leadership skills through experience in their organizations and communities. This applied learning is seen as an essential complement to their classroom experiences. In many ways, this book suggests a paradigm shift. The authors challenge traditional models of leadership development.

A wide range of contributors provide a series of essays about leadership education through civic engagement and active participation. From the perspective of the contributing authors, students become leaders through doing work in communities, and by taking ownership of activities, rather than through traditional methods of classroom instruction and curriculum-based skill building. The essay authors argue for a leadership approach in higher education that focuses on collaborative learning, applied problem solving, and results-orientation programs in community settings.

This call for applied learning and community-based practice may not come as a surprise to some readers, but it may to others. Applied learning pedagogy and curriculum-based practice are still rare in university practice, and in leadership curriculums. Internships and other activities designed to expose students to “real-world” leadership experiences are limited, and typically do little to significantly advance leadership skill building. This book fills an important gap in that much of the leadership development literature has historically lacked a focus on the “community” aspect of leadership. “Community” has, however, been central in community development, civic engagement, and activism literature, as well as practice. The inclusion of “community” in mainstream leadership development programming presents extraordinary possibilities for students. The contributing authors do an admirable job of setting the stage for realizing this possibility.

The book is divided into four sections: “Defining the New Leadership”; “Leadership and Civic Engagement in Context, Then and Now”; “Practices”; and “Moving Forward.” The structure and context of each section is unique and provides solid support to the ideas of the authors. “Section 1: Defining Leadership” succinctly defines the environment of previous and current leadership development training in college and university settings. The section nicely lays out the possibilities for new leadership development trainings, while challenging teachers to adapt and adopt new methods for engaging students. Alma Blount’s chapter, “Courage for the Tough Questions: Leadership and Adaptive Learning,” is particularly interesting in presenting a challenge to educators to be more adaptive in their leadership education.

“Section 2: Leadership and Civic Engagement in Context, Then and Now” provides further detail and exploration of past leadership development training, while merging this existing knowledge base with more applied community-based experiential development. The chapters “Public and Community-Based Leadership Education” (*Kathleen Knight Abowitz, Stephanie Raill Jayanandhan, and Sarah Woiteshek*) and “No One Leads Alone: Making Leadership a

Common Experience” (*Kathy Postel Kretman*) are noteworthy. Both analyze and discuss the community basis and connections that shape effective leaders. Overall, this section suggests a balance of theory, curriculum, and applied learning in applied community programs.

“Section 3: Practices” focuses on the application of the authors’ main ideas of leadership development through civic participation. Case studies illustrate leadership approaches, which emphasize the building of relationships and public action. The case studies focus on the application of civic engagement as a learning tool in a variety of academic settings, ranging from well-established university programs to emerging community college initiatives. Included are democratic, civic, and community-based leadership examples in which different leadership skills are developed. The following chapters highlight the application and impact of such programs: “Civic Leadership and Public Achievement at the University of Denver’s Center for Community Engagement and Service Learning” (*Sarah McCauley, Nicole Nicotera, Eric Fretz, Sarah Nickels, Charla Agnoletti, Hannah Goedert, Emelye Neff, Taylor Rowe, and Russell Takeall*) and “Community Colleges Returning Home: Community Institutions for Community Leadership” (*Decker Ngongang*).

“Section 4: Moving Forward” presents a call to action for university students and teachers. The call to action is for faculty and students to take active leadership roles in the classroom, community, and beyond. Two chapters stand out in Section 4: “The Role of Higher Education in Public Leadership” (*Paul C. Light*) and “Organizing 101: Lessons I Wish I’d Learned on Campus” (*Stephen Smith*). Both provide strong suggestions for educators as they shape innovative leadership development programs.

Although thought-provoking and well-written, *From Command to Community* leaves room in several areas for improvement or additional information that would greatly enhance its content and application. A central premise of the book is that leadership is best learned, and has the greatest impact, through application in the community. That said, little of the literature on “community” is mentioned or woven into models for application. Including the diverse community development and sociological literature, together with the theoretical bases of interactional field theory, social capital, and other leading community leadership perspectives, would further support the framework the authors propose. This additional literature would also provide a conceptual structure on which to base future leadership programs, and research on college student leadership development. Further, it could illuminate

the types of leadership programs and experiential learning best suited for different learning environments and diverse community settings. It would also strengthen the reader's understanding of "community," and the process by which "community" emerges.

This book is well-suited for academics, researchers, educational policy experts, practitioners, and others interested in better framing the context in which student leadership develops as part of the college and university learning experience. Teachers, activists, and community development professionals will also find it helpful when developing and implementing civic engagement activities that link university curriculum to applied community-based activities. In addition, the book would work well as a primary or secondary text in university graduate and undergraduate leadership courses, to help students understand how applied civic engagement activities can facilitate student leadership development, and how they can shape broader organizational and community development activities. In summary, *Command to Community: A New Approach to Leadership Education in Colleges and Universities* returns the focus of leadership development to the life experiences of students, and highlights how student life experiences, combined with academic training and support, provide a foundation for them as emerging leaders.

About the Reviewer

Mark A. Brennan is associate professor of leadership and community development at The Pennsylvania State University. Brennan's teaching, research, writing, and program development concentrate on the role of civic engagement in the youth, community, and rural development processes. Brennan earned his bachelor's degree in sociology from Salisbury University, and his master's degree and Ph.D. in rural sociology from the Pennsylvania State University.

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The *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement's* associate editor for book reviews, Ted Alter (professor of Agricultural, Regional, and Environmental Economics at The Pennsylvania State University), and editor, Trish Kalivoda (senior associate vice president for public service and outreach at the University of Georgia) thank Tufts University Press and University Press of New England for providing complimentary copies of the book for this review.

Wepner, S.B., & Hopkins, D. (Eds.). (2011). *Collaborative Leadership in Action: Partnering for Success in Schools*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Review by Kai A. Schafft

Collaborative Leadership in Action: Partnering for Success in Schools, edited by Shelley B. Wepner and Dee Hopkins, takes on the important issue of collaboration and collaborative leadership as a means of providing for the successful education of students and the effective organization and strategic management of pre-K-12 educational institutions. Although much of the volume focuses on collaborative partnerships between pre-K-12 schools and colleges and universities, significant attention is also devoted to school-community partnerships of various types, with numerous examples and mini-case studies, coupled with extensive discussion regarding the traits and skills necessary for effective collaborative leadership.

Educators, particularly those in pre-K-12 educational settings, are faced with difficult dilemmas regarding leadership, inter-institutional collaboration, and partnership. On the one hand, schools as social institutions central to the communities they serve, play not only important educational roles, but also vital symbolic, cultural, civic, and economic roles. Because of this, the well-being of schools and the communities in which they are located typically are closely linked. Healthy communities tend to produce healthy schools, and well-functioning schools represent important community assets. Therefore, local schools and the educational leaders serving within them would seem to be placed in especially advantageous positions to utilize the school-community connection in the efforts to improve education while simultaneously strengthening community. Similarly, university faculty interested in community development and public education may be well-positioned to leverage the resources and capacity of higher education institutions to address a multitude of school and community issues.

A number of factors, however, increasingly militate against collaborative leadership at the pre-K-12 level in times of shrinking public education funding and a strong emphasis on high-stakes testing that has effectually narrowed the scope of what many educators and administrators understand as being within the acceptable purview of their leadership. That is, if priorities increasingly need to be shifted toward standardized testing outcomes in

the context of rapidly diminishing fiscal and institutional resources, collaborative leadership and community development may appear increasingly less relevant to the essential role of schooling. Similarly, many higher education faculty members, especially those not associated with professional development and teacher-training programs, are likely to see more institutional disincentives than rewards for collaborative activity with local schools. Even in land-grant universities and other higher education institutions with articulated outreach missions, these collaborative efforts are often unlikely to be viewed by faculty members as consistent with high-priority academic activity: entrepreneurial efforts to secure competitive external funding and to produce scholarship that can be published in flagship disciplinary journals.

There is no question that these are real constraints that hinder collaborative leadership, and the building of partnering relationships between pre-K-12 institutions and higher education institutions as well as other entities such as business, human services, and the nonprofit sector. This is why books such as *Collaborative Leadership* are valuable, especially at a time when “go it your own” approaches are increasingly untenable as a means of strategic school and community development. Potential collaborators, across educational institutions of various types, can benefit not only from clear examples of successful education partnerships, but also from careful discussions of why these institutional collaborations may make sense.

Wepner and Hopkins organize their book into three main sections, each divided into individual chapters. The first section, consisting of two chapters, provides an overview of both the value of establishing partnerships and the approaches to, and ways of, understanding different types of partnerships. These chapters strike a balance between providing practical information for practitioners and grounding information in theory and research-based knowledge. The second section contains three chapters focused on the logistics of creating and sustaining partnerships, and how those partnerships may be assessed through formative evaluation procedures. The chapters pay attention to the different types of partnerships and the relationship to data and assessment.

The last section, again consisting of three chapters (two authored by Wepner) explores, in greater depth, the nature of collaborative leadership itself. Some of the discussion in this last section dwells too much on often somewhat abstracted and idealized characteristics of effective collaborative leaders and collaborative leadership “best practices.” I would have

appreciated seeing more attention paid to how those broader traits and skills might be applied to particular partnership contexts given that “collaborative leaders are as varied as the partnerships they serve” (p. 181). What are the implications, for example, for collaborations, partnerships, and collaborative leadership approaches in economically disadvantaged urban settings versus remote rural settings? In view of the emphasis on pre-K-12 and higher education partnerships, the lack of attention to partnerships within rural contexts in particular seems a missed opportunity, given the relative lack of access many rural schools and communities have to higher education institutions as well as the ambivalent attitude of many rural areas toward higher education when it represents a perceived source of rural “brain drain,” and the ultimate outmigration of a community’s “best and brightest.”

That said, these chapters contain a wealth of practical information, strategies, and guidance related to the logistics of establishing and cultivating contacts and relationships across institutional boundaries, and how to effectively communicate the logic and benefits of collaboration to various institutional actors. The book overall also benefits from the inclusion of multiple examples grounded in the various specificities of local context, offering hints as to how collaborative leaders may in fact vary their leadership strategies, approaches, and goals depending on the needs, resources, opportunities, and constraints confronting them.

I recommend this volume as an important resource for educators, collaborative leaders, and a range of institutional and community stakeholders interested in the benefits of a variety of collaborative partnerships for school and community improvement and tangible strategies for enacting and sustaining effective partnerships. Although pitched primarily toward practitioners, it also is well-grounded in theory and empirical research, a balance sure to be appreciated by collaborative leaders and would-be collaborative leaders from multiple institutional and educational settings.

About the Reviewer

Kai A. Schafft is an associate professor at The Pennsylvania State University in the Department of Education Policy Studies, where he directs the Center on Rural Education and Communities. He is a rural sociologist by training, and much of his work examines issues affecting the intersection of school and community well-being, particularly within rural contexts. Schafft earned his bachelor’s degree from The Evergreen State College, a master’s degree from the University of Maine, and a master’s degree and a Ph.D. from Cornell University.

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Saltmarsh, J., & Zlotkowski, E. (2011). *Higher Education and Democracy: Essays on Service-Learning and Civic Engagement*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Review by Patty Wharton-Michael

The missions and curricula of colleges and universities in the United States have been debated since their founding. Missions have ranged from the training of ministers, to developing educated citizens, to preparing a workforce for agriculture and the mechanical arts. The University of Virginia, founded by Thomas Jefferson, encouraged both practical and liberal ideals as forces that worked jointly to educate a citizenry for participation in a democracy (Geiger, 2000). Jefferson believed the success of a democratic society was inextricably linked to education. Alexander Meiklejohn, a philosopher and educator, also recognized the necessity for knowledgeable citizens within a self-democracy. He noted that

[T]he voters, therefore, must be made as wise as possible. The welfare of the community requires that those who decide issues shall understand them. They must know what they are voting about. . . . As the self-governing community seeks, by the method of voting, to gain wisdom in action, it can find it only in the minds of its individual citizens. If they fail, it fails. (Meiklejohn, 1948, p. 26)

Educators and administrators have continued to acknowledge the connection between education and democratic capacity, and have called upon higher education institutions to recognize and fulfill their civic responsibility (Cohen & Eberly, 2005; Ehrlich, 2000; Mathews, 2006). Although such arguments intuitively make sense, colleges and universities have struggled to provide institutional support for scholarship that considers civic engagement a necessary component of the educational process.

Higher Education and Democracy: Essays on Service-Learning and Civic Engagement reiterates the need for institutions to serve the common good by building democratic capacity. The book contains 22 essays written primarily by two authors, John Saltmarsh and Edward Zlotkowski, who have each encouraged universities to embrace their civic missions. Specifically, the book is a collection of collaborative works by the authors with several associates, focused

on the United States civic engagement and service-learning movements between 1996 and 2006. It is organized in eight sections: (1) the need for civic engagement in contemporary higher education; (2) the historical roots of civic engagement; (3) service-learning as a pedagogy; (4) service-learning and the first-year experience; (5) service-learning in the disciplines; (6) the engaged department; (7) the engaged campus; and (8) future trends in civic engagement (p. 7).

The first section begins with an essay by Zlotkowski providing the essential arguments regarding the need for civic engagement in higher education through his perceptions of academics' responses to the events of September 11, 2001. Zlotkowski expresses disappointment in the common decisions among academics to share personal feelings of 9/11 yet omit any discussion that might frame the event and its causes within professional and academic communities. He states, "the academic response to that September morning simply demonstrated how far we had come in distancing academic priorities from public concerns" (p. 14).

Zlotkowski argues that the academy must focus not only on discipline and professional knowledge, but also on "socially responsive knowledge," which acknowledges the need to serve the public good. He encourages academics to avoid the positivist epistemology that suggests they, as faculty members, can be objective experts separated from the public they serve. Rather, he proposes the adoption of an epistemology aligned with Ernest Boyer's (1990) notion of the scholarship of engagement that encourages members of the academy to interact, serve, and situate learning within a larger public context. Zlotkowski concludes the book's first chapter by identifying obstacles facing many civic engagement initiatives, and outlines the need (1) to recognize non-research-intensive institutions; (2) to overcome the fragmentation of the academy (which militates against natural structures to bridge interdisciplinary engaged scholarship); (3) to develop new forms of support (specifically, "centralized efforts" such as administrative offices); and (4) to include community members in discussions around the "table of higher education" (p. 25).

Section 1 concludes with an essay by Saltmarsh on the civic promise of service-learning. Saltmarsh defines "civic learning" as the socially responsive aspect of discipline knowledge, which must be academic based yet recognize the civic dimension of education. He notes a major shortcoming of service-learning pedagogy is its tendency to focus on learning skills and performing community service. Saltmarsh argues that civic learning outcomes (i.e., civic

knowledge, civic skills, and civic values) must be present in the curriculum and measured to ensure that civic learning has taken place. He argues that traditional strategies can be adopted for measuring course-based (e.g., papers, examinations, presentations) and field-based (e.g., reflective portfolio) experiences.

Section 2 provides a historical context for the evolution of service-learning in the U.S. classroom. The authors focus on theorists (i.e., John Dewey, Jane Addams, Dorothy Day) who ushered in the 20th century with a concentration on communities and democratic implications. A great deal of focus is placed on Dewey's foundational arguments for the indissoluble relationship between democracy and education. Saltmarsh argues that Dewey's work supports service-learning through its emphasis on linking education to experience; democratic community; social service; reflective inquiry; and education for social transformation.

After providing a context for the emergence of service-learning in Section 2, the authors explain in Section 3 how the concept of service-learning serves as a form of pedagogy. Chapter 6 provides a conceptualization of service-learning using a matrix consisting of "a horizontal axis spanning academic expertise and a concern for the common good, and a vertical axis that links the traditional domain of the student—that is, classroom activities" (p. 100). The matrix addresses the needs of each stakeholder (e.g., faculty members, students, higher education institutions, and community members) in the service-learning process. Nestled within Chapter 6 are threats to the survival of service-learning. Zlotkowski addresses these threats by calling on universities to be "engaged" by encouraging their faculty to "buy-in" to the legitimacy of service-learning as scholarship; to acknowledge service-learning's legitimacy through recognition within the faculty reward systems; and to adopt other strategies to promote civic engagement.

Section 4 examines the correlation between first-year course goals that introduce students to specific disciplines and the goals of service-learning. Zlotkowski charges faculty members who teach introductory courses to include civic learning as an outcome that will promote interest in civic knowledge and values, and make relevant connections for students to the curriculum, while fulfilling the university's civic purpose. Sections 5–7 illustrate through case studies the institutional change that must occur for civic engagement in higher education institutions to move from a few faculty members being interested in scholarship for the public good to entire departments, disciplines, and universities embracing the scholarship of engagement. The authors also examine assessment

practices for service-learning and associated limitations (e.g., identifying measurable and appropriate outcomes, skills, and informational sources).

One of the most philosophically compelling essays is presented in Section 8. Saltmarsh provides a suggestion for overcoming one of the main obstacles to adoption of service-learning and civic engagement. As the legitimacy and rigor of such practices have historically been questioned, Saltmarsh argues that a democratic or “engaged” epistemology must be accepted—in contrast to standard positivism—to guide academics in understanding their ways of knowing. He posits that this shift will change “institutional structures, policies, and cultures” (p. 352). He suggests that a grasp of epistemology will help us understand academic culture by “interrogating deep epistemological questions about how knowledge is generated in the academy, [and asking] what is legitimate knowledge, and what are the political implications of the dominant epistemology of the research culture of higher education” (p. 355). Section 8 concludes with Saltmarsh and Zlotkowski’s perceptions of where the civic engagement movement must proceed in order to flourish.

The complete work serves as a useful tool for academics, administrators, and staff members to understand the historical roots of the service-learning movement. The authors’ experiences presented in this collection elucidate the persistent obstacles confronting those who seek to fulfill higher education’s civic mission through the scholarship of engagement. The work provides tangible suggestions for overcoming those obstacles through a plethora of examples; however, its strongest contribution is its argument for the development of a new engaged epistemology that parallels Ernest Boyer’s (1996) scholarship of engagement. This engaged epistemology could substantially aid in the adoption of higher education practices that could bring about engaged, enlightened faculty scholarship performed alongside students and community members to serve the public good. Donna Killian Duffy describes the authors’ book in the introduction of Section 3, “Service-Learning Pedagogy,” as an essential guidebook. She states,

We now have a guidebook built on the collective wisdom of diverse professors over the past twenty years and can employ the [scholarship of teaching and learning] approach to help us sketch maps for the journey ahead. With guidebook and map in hand we are better equipped to learn more from the new terrain we will travel.

With students and community partners as traveling companions we can reach a destination that supports engaged communities focused on the common good. (p. 78)

The book serves as a valuable resource for those faculty, staff, and administrators interested in developing an academic environment that promotes civic engagement using service-learning as the bridge “between institutional rhetoric and institutional action, between professed values and actual practice” (p. 118).

One shortcoming of the text, as acknowledged by the authors, is the imperfect definition of complex terms like *civic engagement*. Although the work is straightforward in its intention to describe the *service-learning* movement within the United States, it also acknowledges the limitations of the term service-learning, which can refer to service, philanthropy, or community service in ways that are not tied to a curriculum. Although characteristics and indicators of civic engagement are discussed throughout the work, the collection of essays would benefit from a chapter dedicated to a more thorough explication of civic engagement and public scholarship. In the introduction to Chapter 20, the authors acknowledge the importance of a focus that goes beyond service-learning. Discussing the climate at Campus Compact, Saltmarsh notes,

We were focusing attention not on improving service-learning as pedagogical practice per se but on reforming American higher education because the model of an epistemology of technical rationality, teaching through lecture, research that serves the ends of promoting faculty and purpose defined by private gains in the economic marketplace was . . . devaluing the civic mission of higher education. (pp. 318–319)

A detailed explication would allow greater recognition of and alignment with current practices employed by many faculty members, departments, disciplines, colleges, and universities that may use different terminology to describe engaged practices (e.g., public scholarship, civic practices, and public engagement).

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About the Reviewer

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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.

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