EVALUATING THE ENGAGED INSTITUTION:
THE CONCEPTUALIZATIONS AND DISCOURSES OF ENGAGEMENT

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The undersigned, appointed by the Dean of the Graduate School,
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Evaluating the Engaged Institution:
The Conceptualizations and Discourses of Engagement

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As this study probably reveals, my personal philosophy of learning is strongly based in social constructivism. I believe learning to be a peculiar amalgam of experiences (positive, negative, un/intentional) and innate predispositions. Education, therefore, is no more (or less) than an enterprise in directing the alchemy of these processes.

The dissertation as a summary of a point in a formal education process is a result of many events and many interactions - some intentional - many more serendipitous. Higher education is a vast network of institutions, people, values and ideals. Our own personal connections and experiences include the direct contact with instructors and advisors, families and friends, antagonists and associates and the more tangential effects of previous scholars, administrators, voters and taxpayers, legislators, donors and funders and an assembly of others in the macrocosm of higher education.

Naming those that have had direct impact is difficult, naming the multitude of the "indirect" others is impossible. To try to do so, in my opinion, assumes a hubris of control – a causal order to education – a science to success rather than a craft. My life's experience (and perhaps this study) has shown me that in education (just as in life), things do not always yield to our measures or our beliefs of attribution, and that attempts to do so often obscure the miracles that we encounter every day.

Thus, to each and every person who in some way (directly or indirectly – and perhaps even reluctantly) supports education in its plethora of forms, and from which I, along with many others, have benefited immeasurably, I give my heartfelt thanks and a commitment to "pay forward" this gift to others.

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ABSTRACT

Over the past two decades there have been growing public dialogues around the concern that institutions of higher education and the faculty, staff and students within them, are disengaged – separated and unconcerned with issues beyond their immediate environments, both physical and social. A concomitant discourse has emerged in higher education and its associated institutions towards greater engagement: of students with their learning and community service; of faculty and staff with applied research and public scholarship; and of internal groups with external communities. At the broadest level, this concept culminates with the representation that the institution as a whole is engaged as an organizational citizen on a local, regional, national or global level.

Engaged higher education is being promoted by a variety of stakeholders each with differing philosophies and accompanying discourses as to the role of higher education as a whole and the expectations of institutions of higher education. As a relatively new term applied to the activities of higher education, engagement is an emerging conception that is presently being constructed and defined by actors within and outside of higher education. As these conceptions are expressed and given form, systems and measures of evaluating the accomplishment of engagement are being developed.

The activity and process of evaluation defines measures, refines concepts, directs resources and shapes policy. Evaluation systems and the evaluative measures themselves focus attention on select aspects of the broader issue. Thus, the discourses that are invoked to support the evaluation of engagement and the construction and selection of the measures are simultaneously revealing and setting the boundaries for problem and solution conceptualization.

For institutions of higher education to respond to measures of engagement, and/or for outside stakeholders to perceive higher education as engaged, an understanding of the meaning of engagement and the accompanying underlying values and beliefs within these discourse communities is necessary. Analyzing the discourses surrounding engaged higher education evaluation reveals assumptions of validly measurable engaged activity and perceptions of attainment. The analysis also reveals the more influential discourses in the role that higher education "should" be playing within the broader society and the implied successes or failings of higher education in meeting this role, at this point in time, from the perspectives of these engagement evaluation communities.

This study examined the discourse(s) within the engagement movement, and in particular two systems – The North Central Association-Higher Learning Commission (NCA:HLC) and The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT) – that address the evaluation of engagement at an institutional level. Using an interpretivist approach toward achieving a meaningful understanding of actor's frames of reference through the theories and methods of critical discourse analysis, particularly those of Norman Fairclough (1995) and James Paul Gee (1999), the focus was on how an examination of the engagement evaluation discourse communities revealed social and cultural perspectives and assumptions. With a concentration on the evaluative measures, Gee's (1999) tools of inquiry were assimilated with Bob Barnetson and Marc Cutright's (2000) typology of the normative assumptions embedded in performance indicators to develop engagement evaluation tools of inquiry. The findings of this study revealed the multi-faceted ways in which the concept of engagement is being constructed and evaluated by different stakeholders at this point in time.

CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION

Background Discourses

> Public and nonprofit private institutions in the United States have long been understood to have an institutional responsibility to serve the larger public good. Public institutions are legally extensions of the state, and their missions – and historically the lion’s share of their funding – come from state government. Nonprofit private institutions obtain their favored tax status by demonstrating that they are providing society a service that otherwise would have to be paid for by government.
>
> (Wellman, 2006, p. 111)

> After nearly five decades in academia, and five and a half years as a dean at a public university, I exit with a three-part piece of wisdom for those who work in higher education: do your job; don't try to do someone else's job, as you are unlikely to be qualified; and don't let anyone else do your job. In other words, don't confuse your academic obligations with the obligation to save the world; that's not your job as an academic; and don't surrender your academic obligations to the agenda of any non-academic constituency – parents, legislators, trustees or donors.
>
> (Fish, 2004, p. 23)

Higher Education Serving the Larger Public Good

Much of the narrative from the history of higher education is infused with the ideals and rhetoric of service to the greater society. From the early private seminaries and colonial colleges that educated clergy and religious leaders, through public institutions that established national cohesion for a fledgling democracy, through the state colleges that furthered expertise in agriculture and the trades, through research institutions and professional schools, and most recent adaptations such as community colleges and for-profit institutions – the system of higher education is posited to have served society by developing contemporaneous knowledge and the education needed for the period (Crosson, 1983; Daynes, 2003; Johnson, 2007; Scott, 2006, Snyder, 1998). By demonstrating that they are responding to the perceived societal needs of the period, institutions of higher education express their legitimacy and justify the use of public resources which could be otherwise allocated to other social organizations (Crosson, 1983; Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975).

The expectation of how the larger public good is served and how this reciprocal agreement between higher education and society is satisfied, however, does fluctuate as societal needs and expectations change over time (Brubacher, 1985; Kezar, 2004). In addition, the very notions of pubic good and how it is best served by higher education is also subject to contemporary interpretation, and occasionally, historical revisionism (Daynes, 2003). In the immediate post World War II era, much of the focus on U.S. higher education expectations shifted to issues of service members' employment and later to issues of national security (Dubb, 2007; Johnson, 2007). During the sixties, higher education played an important, if contested and not always facilitatory, role in many social movements (Brubacher, 1985). More recently, national trends toward a global market orientation and competitiveness, have led to increased demands on the role higher education should play in local, regional and national economic development (Dubb, 2007; Kezar, 2004; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997).

Over the past two decades however, concurrent concerns have arisen that this contemporary preoccupation with economic gain (individual, corporate and governmental), both within higher education and the greater society, has weakened the traditional communitarian values needed to support civil society, and in some instances, been at the direct expense of civic and community development (Johnson, 2007; Kezar, 2004; Press & Washburn, 2000). The issue has garnered interest in both academic works (Ernest Boyer's *Scholarship Reconsidered*, Eugene Rice's *Making A Place for the*

American Scholar, Alexander Astin's *What Matters in College: Four Critical Years Revisited*), mass-market best sellers (Robert Putnam's *Bowling Alone*, Robert Bellah's *Habits of the Heart*, Amitai Etzioni's *The Spirit of Community*, William Bennett's *The Devaluing of America*) and in popular culture (Douglas Coupland's *Generation X* and films depicting generation X such as *Clerks*, *Reality Bites*, *Slacker,* and *Wayne's World*). Within this discourse, the U.S. citizenry is depicted as self-centered, consumer-oriented and disinterested in greater moral and civic concerns (Johnson, 2007; Hollander, 2007).

The Engagement Discourse in Higher Education

According to Carole Johnson (2007), this climate "led to the emergence – or re-emergence of a movement within higher education to both dispel this image and to increase students' engagement in civic life. This movement, broadly referred to as 'Civic Engagement', encompasses community services and political involvement" (p. 3). Over time the movement has evolved and now includes the engagement activities of students, faculty and staff, community partners and the practices of institutions of higher education themselves (Burkhardt & Merisotis, 2006; Dubb, 2007; Hollander, 2007).

Engagement as a term or "catch phrase" applied to the activities of academic institutions has its roots in the late 1980's and early 1990's. Ernest Boyer's work during this period included the highly influential book *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate* and articles and speeches about the New American College and the Scholarship of Engagement. In the early nineties, the Association for American Higher Education's President, Russell Edgerton, focused on "engaged institutions" at annual meetings and "engaged scholarship" in a series of AAHE Forums on Faculty Roles. As noted by Kelly Ward (2003) and Frank Fear, Cheryl Rosaen, Richard Bawden, and

Pennie Foster-Fishman (2006), the term engagement had broad appeal to the higher education community – serving as both an organizing concept and communicative term that encompassed a wide range of activities and roles. By the end of the decade, Robert Putnam's (2000) featured use of the term engagement in the national bestseller *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community* when describing the building of social capital, gave the concept a wide audience outside of academe.

As the higher education engagement field grew, so too did the organizations that facilitated and funded engagement practices, coordinated activities, and disseminated ideas (Fear, Rosaen, Bawden, & Foster-Fishman, 2006; Sandmann, Holland, & Burns, 2007). Campus Compact, a national coalition of more than 1,100 college and university presidents, was established in the mid-eighties with the goal of supporting students in volunteerism and community service and has evolved to foster all forms of civic engagement. Many major higher education associations including the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U), the American Council on Education (ACE), the Association for American Higher Education (AAHE), and the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC) have sponsored forums, committees and commissions on some aspect of engaged higher education and have published the resultant reports and recommendations.

Private funding for engagement initiatives, conferences and evaluative measures, has been provided by foundations including Carnegie, Johnson, Kettering, W.K. Kellogg and the Pew Charitable Trusts. Public funding has been provided by the Federal government through programs such as the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE), the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) and the

Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS). The higher education field now has several major journals focusing on engagement (*Journal of Metropolitan Universities, Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning,* and *Journal of Extension*) and many established higher education journals have produced special issues devoted to the topic (*Academe, Change, The Journal of Higher Education*, and *Liberal Education*).

Despite all this activity, now spanning almost two decades, the engagement movement still appears to be developing basic conceptual clarity and foundational understandings. Most conference materials and journal articles devote space and portions of finite word limits to definitions and/or explanations of engagement within the context of the conference theme or disciplinary study. Even within the smaller higher educational enclaves devoted to engagement and service – such as the more established service learning community – definitions, approaches and philosophies vary considerably (Billig, 2000; Stanton, 1990). Perhaps more importantly, among higher education's associated communities and the broader public, the concept of engagement is still not well understood: "colleges and universities appear to be repositioning themselves to become more 'engaged' with the communities and states where they are located. Yet no one can be sure what all of the talk of engagement adds up to – or if it adds up at all" (Mathews, 2004, p. 83).

The Engagement Evaluation Field

Historically, individual institutions of higher education have been given wide latitude in interpreting and defining their social role and the most appropriate response to prevailing societal needs (Scott, 2003). However, the past 20 years have seen growing public attention to all aspects of social institutions including higher education. Governing agencies and public groups are examining higher education practices and seeking greater influence over outcomes (Dubb, 2007).

In the specific area of evaluating the engagement movement, there have been numerous task forces assembled and conferences convened (the Johnson Foundation's Wingspread Group, Campus Compact's Advanced Institute on Classifications for Civic Engagement etc.), related surveys and instruments developed (IUPUI's *Engagement Performance Objectives, Indicators and Measures*; Hollander, Saltmarsh, and Zlotkowski's *Indicators of Engagement*; Holland's *Levels of Commitment to Engagement*) and more recently, the emergence of system-wide measures to evaluate engagement. There have been revisions of existing systems (Higher Learning Commission: North Central Accreditation – Criterion Five), adaptations of existing systems (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching's Elective Classification – Community Engagement Elective Classification), additional data gathering within systems (HERI surveys of faculty and students) and the development of completely new systems (National Survey of Student Engagement). The institutions' engagement scores on some of these systems have generated (or have been extensively self-promoted for) coverage in high-profile "ranking and rating" media markets (*U.S. News & World Report*, *The Chronicle of Higher Education*).

Rationale for the Study

> The notion that institutions can or should be assessed in how they perform their ‘civic’ role is relatively new in higher education. The terms are difficult to define or to make operational – there is little consensus about what they should mean let alone how they might be measured. As a result, the assessment of effectiveness in ‘civic’ education or institutional service has barely made it onto the radar screen of the higher education quality assessment and institutional research community.

(Shedd & Wellman, 2001, p. 2)

> Right now there are some words appearing in the lexicon on higher education that have not been around for a good while. They are ‘community,’ ‘service,’ ‘civic,’ public,’ and ‘engage.’ … These words will only lead to change if we take them seriously and if we hold ourselves and others accountable for what they mean.

(Mathews quoted in London, 1999, p. 2)

Examining Understandings of Engagement

The issue of the complexity and range of conceptions of engagement and the accompanying multiplicity of expectations has become a focus of several groups within the engagement movement. This issue is especially pertinent to the quality assessment and institutional research communities as noted by Shedd and Wellman (2001) above. For these and other higher education management and leadership groups the assessment of, and accountability for, activities in higher education is a core function and thus calls for engagement are being monitored and examined.

In 2004, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, the Johnson Foundation and Atlantic Philanthropic created *The Common Agenda* – a process that “guides collective action and learning among committed partners within and outside of higher education” in order to “strengthen the relationship between higher education and society” (p. 1). The Common Agenda was intended as “an inspiration of the moment, an attempt to capture the energy and commitments" of people who "had already been working toward similar goals in different ways" (Burkhardt & Merisotis, 2006, p. 4). Delegates to the forums included "different mixes of 50 to 60 academic, association, community-based and governance leaders…approximately 150 college and university presidents, provosts, deans, faculty, graduate students, and association representatives, along with a handful of foundation executives and legislators" (p. 3). The outcome of the meetings was 42 action items grouped into four issues – the first being: "building public understanding and support for higher education's civic mission and actions" (p. 2). To address this concern, their goals were to "develop a common language that resonates both inside and outside the academy" and to "promote effective and broader discourse" (National Forum, 2004, p. 4).

Two years later, in early 2006, a Johnson Foundation-funded Wingspread Conference convened the leaders of 28 national organizations and universities "whose efforts focus on enhancing and supporting partnerships between U.S. colleges and universities and communities through community engagement" (Sandmann & Weerts, 2006, p. 2). Despite the fact that these community-engagement ***leaders*** were being asked "how these organizations might, through their collective efforts, advance the higher education engagement movement around the country" (p. 2), "it was quickly noted that engagement occurs under a large tent featuring a wide range of activities, stakeholders, and even 'dialects' to describe these initiatives," (p. 5) and the words "civic engagement" had to be used as a "placeholder to represent the entire range of activities associated with higher education engagement" (Sandmann & Weerts, 2006, p.5).

Although Lorilee Sandmann and David Weerts (2006) assert that "the immediate goal was to get beyond the language, and instead focus on the core engagement themes that are representative of all the associations" (p. 5), language use and underlying understandings do matter. In later sessions of the conference – directly reflecting their leadership roles – participants identified four key issues for the national agenda: assessment and documentation; policy, media, and funding; professional development; and scholarship and tenure. Addressing any of these issues requires some common group referents, for both communication and for the understanding of the conceptual foundations. Assessment, in particular, entails some system of measurement and therefore the establishment of evaluative references and boundaries.

Significance of Engagement Evaluation and Measures

Evaluation activities require resource allocations of time and materials, often at the expense of other activities (Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002). The process of evaluation itself focuses attention on specified aspects of an institution's activities, again, often at the cost of lessened attention to other activities. If the evaluation of engagement as it relates (and if it relates) to the role of institutions of higher education in meeting societal needs is ill-defined or only represents a limited perspective from a few select groups, and differing (potentially conflicting) expectations of institutions, faculty/staff, students and communities are being expressed, there are many possible repercussions for higher education. Since, as Judith Innes (1990) notes, evaluation measures and indicators crystallize "a particular conception of a policy problem," (p. 5) they also demarcate the possible solutions and the resources deployed to obtain the solution.

Specifically, by defining measures, the higher education evaluation systems are creating and shaping a discourse that establishes points of reference of an engaged institution and the basis for perception of success or failure in meeting these targets –

which may or may not represent the needs of, or provide meaningful benefit to, higher education or society as a whole. As these assessments of engagement are communicated, they influence (to varying degrees) the expectations of other groups (tuition paying students, taxpayers and legislators) and, thus, can influence broader societal expectations and policy. Since the understanding(s) of the role higher education is expected to play in meeting the larger public good shapes the relationship between higher education and society (Kezar, 2004), there is a need for a clearer understanding of engagement, how it is being conceptualized and operationalized in the evaluation process, and by which groups of stakeholders using what underlying value assumptions.

Framework for the Study

> A 'discourse', as a particular area of language use, may be identified by the institutions to which it relates and by the position from which it comes and which it marks out for the speaker.
>
> (Macdonell, 1986, pp. 2-3)

> For any material event to produce change, it must also operate and succeed symbolically. In other words, it must create 'significant and stable meanings' within the discursive systems.
>
> (Faber, 2003, p. 392)

The Discursive Construction of Engagement

The conceptual framework for this study falls within the interpretive approach of discourse analysis. Discourse analysis shares the constructivist ontology of social phenomena whereby "reality is socially constructed and that discourses (as collections of texts using the raw materials of language) have a central role in this process" (Heracleous, 2004, p. 176). According to John Creswell and Vicki Plano Clark (2006), within the framework of constructivism, participants create shared understandings of phenomena and "when participants provide their understandings, they speak from meanings shaped by social interaction with others and from their own personal histories" (p. 22). The discourse(s) that form the social interaction are both shaping understanding and in turn being shaped by the social context (Fairclough, 1995). Thus, the social interactions within a discourse community construct understanding within the limits of that community's values and practices:

> To become a member of a community of practice with normative ways of acting and being understood, a learner needs to come to the same understanding for words that elders and other social veterans have for them. The development of concepts thus involves growing into a culture's values and practices, with the culture in turn growing and changing as its practitioners contribute their understanding of its concepts…a person's use of a particular Discourse reflects not only knowledge of vocabulary but an understanding of the ideology behind that vocabulary. Furthermore, one's discourse is intertextual, enabling members of the same culture to instantiate similar referents when hearing the same terms and by and large share the same perspective on those referents. (Smagorinsky & Taxel, 2005, p. 66)

Framing this study, then, is the idea that within the community of practice of engagement evaluation there is a shared understanding of engagement that has been constructed (and continues to be constructed and refined) based upon the values and practices of that community and of the communities of practice that interconnect with the engagement evaluation field.

Critical Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is the study of language-in-use and is most broadly defined as the practices of examining oral and visual communication. Discourses are embodied and enacted in texts (oral and visual communications) which are produced, disseminated, and received within and across communities. In these actions and usage, discourses have distinct features that can be identified and analyzed. Critical discourse analysis is an analysis that also seeks to:

> …systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor for securing power and hegemony. In referring to opacity, I am suggesting that such linkages between discourse, ideology and power may well be unclear to those involved, and more generally that our social practice is bound up with causes and effects which may not be at all apparent. (Fairclough, 1995, pp. 132-133)

By examining discourse critically, the underlying value assumptions of engagement and their relationship to practices such as evaluation of engagement – which may not even be perceptible to the discourse communities using the term – can be made more transparent. By revealing these value assumptions within the discursive practices and examining any possible effects of evaluation, information can be gathered to better understand, support or critically challenge the use of these measures (Barnetson & Curtight, 2000).

At this time, engagement appears to be a multi-faceted view of the relationship between higher education and society, with stakeholders possessing different concepts, definitions and expectations. Thus, this study examines the discourses within which the concept of engagement is being socially constructed, and the underlying value assumptions, through the processes of communication and the language use (discursive activities) of members of the different groups (discourse communities) within the engagement evaluation field. As a concrete accumulation and distillation of expectations – Judith Innes' (1990) "crystallization" – the study has a particular focus on the systems developed for evaluating engagement and the assumptions revealed through the selection of methods and measures.

Design of the Study

> Language is not "just words." It enables us to establish our selves, and ourselves, as individuals and as members of groups; it tells us how we are connected to one another, who has power and who doesn't."
>
> (Lakoff, 2000, p. 41)

> …expressing meanings is what languages are all about. Everything in a language – words, grammatical constructions, intonation patterns – conspires to realize this goal in the fullest, richest, subtlest way.
>
> (Goddard, 1998, p. 1)

Purpose of the Study

The process of evaluation requires the development of measures and the production and dissemination of a wide variety of supporting materials including, guides, examples and best practices, and feedback. These materials are created with the intent of communicating expectations and providing assistance to those being evaluated. It is these discursive texts (the oral and visual communication materials), that also reveal both explicit and implicit understandings of engagement for these communities. Through the methods of critical discourse analysis, this study seeks to determine the conceptualizations of engagement and the underlying assumptions evident in the engagement field, and in particular, in the systems that have been developed to evaluate engaged higher education.

Problem Statement

In the higher education discourse there appears to be multiple uses and understandings of the meaning of “engagement,” and a subsequent lack of precision in the articulation and communication of engagement expectations among higher education institutions, leadership groups, foundations, governments and the broader public. Claims to evaluate engagement and/or attain engagement rest upon a particular conception of engagement. Without understanding the conception(s) of engagement being used, the outcomes of these evaluations can be misinterpreted and therefore ineffectual or even detrimental in meeting intended goals.

Research Questions

Based upon the theoretical perspective that discourse both reflects and shapes meaning based upon the values and beliefs of a discourse community, and that evaluation draws upon those shared understandings, the questions addressed in this study were:

1. How is engagement constructed in the engagement discourse communities – what shared understanding(s) can be implied?
2. From the system of evaluation (processes, review and stated goals) – what assumptions are made about evaluating higher education engagement?
3. Within the evaluation measures themselves – what assumptions are made about the engagement concept being evaluated?

4. If different discourses of engagement occur, can they be tied to other discourses on the roles and purposes of higher education?

Definitions for Key Concepts

> If names not be correct, language is not in accordance with the truth of things. If language be not in accordance with the truth of things, affairs cannot be carried on to success.
>
> Confucius

> Language does not represent the world, but makes sense of it, for the world is not already divided up into neat categories that language names. But if language makes sense of the world, it makes that sense from a particular point of view. Any system of representation is inextricably linked to the social system in which it operates, and this linkage is active, not reflective.
>
> (Fiske, 1989, p. 52)

Discourse

This study uses the conceptualization of discourse and the methods of discourse analysis formulated by James Paul Gee (1999). In Gee's work, the construct of a Discourse (capitalized) covers a range of concepts from other scholars including Foucault's (1966) discourses, Lave and Wenger's (1991) communities of practice, and Geertz' (1973) cultures. He describes a Discourse as "embedded in a medley of social institutions….that exists in the abstract as a coordinated pattern of words, deeds, values, beliefs, symbols, tools, objects, times, and places and in the here and now" (p. 18-19). The discourses on engagement as they exist in the "here and now" are thus examined as understandings of words with underlying coordinating values and beliefs linking to a "medley of social institutions."

Engagement

There are many uses of the term engagement both in the general literature and in the engagement movement as a whole. Most refer to some form of connective interaction between two or more actors/entities, such as student engagement with learning or engaged scholarship (scholarship that involves active collaboration between researchers and the community). While noting and examining all the uses of engagement, the study analysis focuses on the term engagement as applied in describing the relationship between institutions *as a whole* and their external communities. This definition is realized in one of the seminal works: *Returning to Our Roots: The Engaged Institution Report of the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities* (1999) – “by engagement, we refer to institutions that have redesigned their teaching, research, and extension and service functions to become even more sympathetically and productively involved with their communities, however community may be defined” (Kellogg Commission, 1999, p. 13). For the Kellogg Commission “‘engagement’ always referred the university in its totality in its relationships with the society around it” (McDowell, 2003, ¶ 1).

Evaluation

Although the field of evaluation has specific terms with (often) subtle meaning distinctions for different processes and measures, for this study the more inclusive definition put forth by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation and advocated by Daniel Stufflebeam and Anthony Shinkfield (2007) is used – “evaluation is the systematic assessment of the worth or merit of an object” (p. 9). Taken at the broadest level of interpretation, evaluation is used in the context of this study to indicate a process of defining and measuring a given concept and judging that measurement against a reference.

Evaluation Measures

Following the comprehensive definition of evaluation above, this study aligns with the broad usage of evaluative measures with the work of UNESCO authors Carolyn Campbell and Christina Rozsnyai (2002). They note in their synthesis of global literature of higher education that criteria, benchmarks, standards are often used synonymously in a process leading to judgments and/or recommendations regarding quality and/or performance. Thus for this study, phrases used in the process of making an evaluative judgment are collectively identified under the term evaluation measures.

CHAPTER 2:
LITERATURE REVIEW

U.S. Higher Education and Society

> Every major modern society – whatever its political, economic, or religious stripe – needs a social agency whose function it is to transmit recondite expertise, criticize the state of existing knowledge, and explore new frontiers of learning.
>
> (Brubacher, 1985, p. 13)

> In the absence of noble public goals, admired leaders, or compelling issues, many observers have charted an alarming erosion of civic spirit and a corresponding decline in the quality of public life. An increasingly distressed literature has alerted the country to the damage done by cheapened standards of behavior, rude political speech, "road rage," and offensive jokes. Experts worry that an overworked, disengaged, acquisitive, and self-absorbed population has allowed its moral connections, social engagements, and political participation to atrophy….Driven by an uneasy sense of decline and animated by a deep suspicion of the state, a growing body of contemporary work hopes that civil society can revitalize public life.
>
> (Ehrenberg, 1999, p. ix-x)

Higher Education and the Public Good

In their work, *Higher Education for the Public Good: Emerging Voices from a National Movement*, editors and authors Adrianna J. Kezar, Tony C. Chambers, and John C. Burkhardt declare "the idea that higher education exists to serve the public good has been at the heart of the enterprise since its inception in the United States almost four hundred years ago" (2005, p. xiii). They assert that the functions that higher education performs to serve the public good creates a reciprocal arrangement whereby in return for "such commitments as developing research to improve society, training leaders for public service, educating citizens to serve the democracy, increasing economic development, and critiquing public policy…society provides tangible resources, political support, raw materials and a guiding influence" (Kezar, Chambers, & Burkhardt, 2005, p. xiii).

There are differing discourses regarding the role of higher education in society. Each discourse community brings perspectives of benefit based on their prior experiences and their underlying values and beliefs about the function and purpose of higher education. These values and beliefs emanate “from the cultural and historical context in which a particular system of higher education developed, as well as from the thinking of scholars of the enterprise” (Fuhrmann, 2002, p. 461). Although varying in prominence at any one time, these discourses exist side-by-side and foster such debates as whether higher education is a public or private good, whether higher education ***is*** a public good or is ***for*** the public good, what elements constitute higher education as a public good (and therefore worthy of public support), and whether higher education is meeting its obligation to serve the public good (Hüfner, 2003; Kezar, Chambers, & Burkhardt, 2005). Societal perceptions are further complicated by the fact that higher education has at its foundation a tripartite function: teaching, research, and service and each of the three functions can have be seen as having differing public and private benefit components depending upon the prevailing agendas of governments and the publics that support institutions (Hüfner, 2003).

Seeking an understanding of perceptions and expectations of the social and economic, public and private benefits of higher education, is important. In *Reaping the Benefits: Defining the Public and Private Value of Going to College*, the Institute for Higher Education Policy (1998) described the importance of their categorization work in this area: “providing policymakers and the public with a clear framework for understanding how investment in higher education benefits individuals and society can significantly enhance the public dialogue” (p. 13). However, noting the differing roles and functions of higher education, the authors acknowledge the complexity and enormity of their task and state that “any attempt to catalogue the public and private benefits of higher education is likely to be imperfect and incomplete” (p. 13). The IHEP framework is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The Array of Higher Education’s Benefits to Society

	Public	**Private**
Economic	Increased Tax Revenues Greater Productivity Increased Consumption Increased Workforce Flexibility Decreased Reliance on Government Financial Support	Higher Salaries and Benefits Employment Higher Savings Levels Improved Working Conditions Personal / Professional Mobility
Social	Reduced Crime Rates Increased Charitable Giving/Community Service Increased Quality of Civic Life Social Cohesion/ Appreciation of Diversity Improved Ability to Adapt to and Use Technology	Improved Health / Life Expectancy Improved Quality of Life for Offspring Better Consumer Decision Making Increased Personal Status More Hobbies, Leisure Activities

(IHEP, 1998, p. 20)

Perceptions of higher education as a public good and the accompanying roles and expectations of higher education are diverse – a multitude of expectations can exist at any one time reflecting underlying values and beliefs, and are dependent upon the activities and the outcomes being assessed. Attempting to understand and address this range of perceptions and expectations of higher educations’ role in society is difficult – but necessary. As Brubacher notes “since the university is the institution whose first priority is to fulfill these functions, it is of utmost importance to examine the philosophical bases on which its pretensions rest” (Brubacher, 1985, p. 13).

Philosophies of Higher Education

In a seminal work of higher education literature, *On the Philosophy of Higher Education*, John S. Brubacher (1982) writes, “our country has been slow in formulating a consciously considered philosophy of higher education” (p. 4). He notes that any attempts have undergone frequent revisions as transformations in society (particularly during the civil rights movement) increased concerns “not only about the direction of public affairs but also about the role of higher education in them” (1982, p. 7). Two decades of scholarship later, Ronald Barnett (2004) writes “…there is no sub-discipline of the philosophy of education that we can seriously suggest amounts to a ‘philosophy of higher education’; and secondly, it is by no means clear in the twenty-first century as to what a philosophy of higher education could look like” (p. 62). He ascribes much of the difficulty to the fact that ‘higher education’ is synonymous with institutions of higher education – which are very different in structure and organization and serve very different roles and purposes.

Recognizing a quarter of a century ago, the diversity in roles, purposes and expectations that are still seen today, Brubacher continues:

> Today we have a plethora of philosophies of higher education. Confronted with conflicting practices, each author has stated the particular philosophy that he thinks coherently gathers together the variables of higher education into a consistent policy. What we lack is a treatment of the philosophy of higher education as a whole – a treatment that takes into account all these individual philosophies, as well as the numerous essays on limited aspects of the field. This volume attempts to construct such a wider frame of reference and to treat the

> diversity of philosophies much as a musician composes variations on a theme, some even dissonant. (1982, p. 8)

By choosing to treat the "plethora of philosophies" as variations on a theme, Brubacher framed the purpose of his work as having:

> …no intent to propose a common philosophy for all academic institutions. Much less do I think that there is a single, immutable Platonic 'idea' of the university to be held in trust for all time by corporate guardians of its purity. Today's university and college are to serve changing and diverse interests of a changing and diverse people. The central philosophical problem here is not so much a common set of answers but a common set of issues. (p. 10)

By examining public perception and expectations as "issue themes," Brubacher is able to approach the concept of higher education as a public good from a contextual viewpoint, allowing for changing discourses as public needs change.

Brubacher was concerned with determining the philosophical bases for understanding the role and purpose of higher education because this served as the foundation from which the legitimizing rationale for higher education is articulated. For Brubacher, the core function of higher education is expertise, and from this core function he identified two principal ways that higher education has historically established its credentials, or legitimacy in society, through epistemological rationales and through political rationales. He writes that:

> Both these philosophies of higher education, the epistemological and the political, have been regnant at one time or another on American campuses. In our early national period, the legitimation of higher education was largely political. We

> carried over from colonial times, as these times had from their European origins, the notion of looking to colleges and universities as the suppliers of needed churchmen, schoolmasters, lawyers, and doctors…. With the founding of Johns Hopkins University, emphasizing research, as in the German university, the epistemological justification of higher education came to predominate…. Indeed, so centered on pure research was it that it gave the appearance of isolation from current affairs outside its walls. It is small wonder that many…referred to the university as an 'ivory tower'…. Toward the end of the nineteenth century the political and epistemological philosophies were operating side-by-side on American campuses. Although both were securely established, they seemed to operate separately – either on different campuses or on different parts of the same campus (Brubacher, 1982, pp. 14-15).

The idea that these two articulations exist side by side is echoed in Castle (1971) who observes that the public wants both pure scholarship and the provision of service to every group. In his view, these traditions lead to tensions that can be constructive or destructive and thus must be managed through the policies and procedures of higher educational institutions. He cautions however, "the worst kind of folly is to fail to recognize that the two functions are potentially competitive" (pp. 551-552).

Legitimizing Discourses of Higher Education

> Higher education in this country has always been expected to serve the public good. Sometimes, the emphasis is on preparing educated citizens or practitioners in especially critical fields. At other times, the discussion is about how public service can deepen and enrich learning and prepare students to lead purposeful, responsible and creative lives. Sometimes the focus is upon institutions themselves as major intellectual and cultural assets and how those resources can be tapped to build healthy communities.
>
> (Ramaley, 2007, p. 5)

> Discussions of service in the literature do not involve theorizing in any 'pure' sense. Rather, they involve an ongoing debate centered in rival positions concerning the role of service in higher education – positions so disparate that on one end of the spectrum are those that see service as the raison d'être of higher education and on the other are those that would reject it all together as inappropriate or even inimical to the enterprise. In part this disparity results from the confusion over definition. But it is more than a definitional problem. The differences over service also result from differing views about higher education as a whole – its purposes, priorities, and relationships to the social, political, and economic order.
>
> (Crosson, 1983, p. 9)

Epistemological Discourses

Discourses that approach the role and purpose of education from an epistemological basis focus on the issue of knowledge in society. Exemplified in scholarly works such as Thorstein Veblen's *The Higher Learning In America: A Memorandum On the Conduct of Universities By Business Men* (1918) and Robert Maynard Hutchins' *The Higher Learning In America* (1936), these discourses promote the pursuit of knowledge as the legitimizing function of higher education whereby knowledge is seen "as an end in itself" (Brubacher, 1982, p. 13). For Veblen the sole purpose of the university was scholarly inquiry:

> The modern university is, by tradition, more closely identified with the quest of knowledge than any other. It stands in a unique and peculiarly intimate relation to this intellectual enterprise. At least such is the current apprehension of the university's work. The university is the only accepted institution of the modern culture on which the quest of knowledge unquestionably devolves; and the visible drift of circumstances as well as of public sentiment runs also to making this the only unquestioned duty incumbent on the university. (1918, p. 15)

To Veblen, the university's quest of knowledge was separate from any duty to provide an education that would prepare students for civil life beyond scholarship or learning:

> The lower schools (including the professional schools) are, in the ideal scheme, designed to fit the incoming generation for civil life; they are therefore occupied with instilling such knowledge and habits as will make their pupils fit citizens of the world in whatever position in the fabric of workday life they may fall. The university on the other hand is specialized to fit men for a life of science and scholarship; and it is accordingly concerned, with such discipline only as will give efficiency in the pursuit of knowledge and fit its students for the increase and diffusion of learning. It follows that while the lower schools necessarily take over the surveillance of their pupils' everyday life, and exercise a large measure of authority and responsible interference in that behalf, the university assumes (or should assume) no responsibility for its students' fortunes in the moral, religious, pecuniary, domestic, or hygienic respect. (1918, p. 20-21)

Robert Maynard Hutchins' work is in much the same tone – his concerns were the loss of a focus on scholarship, which he attributed to the influence of external money (particularly philanthropic foundations), the development of non-academic aspects of the university (especially athletics) and the expansion of university activities into other areas beyond research. He writes:

> But how can we hope to improve the state of the nation? Only through education…. We can do so only if some institutions can be strong enough and clear enough to stand firm and show our people what the higher learning is. As education it is the singleminded pursuit of the intellectual virtues. As scholarship it is the single-minded devotion to the advancement of knowledge. Only if the colleges and universities can devote themselves to these objects can we look hopefully to the future of the higher learning in America. (Hutchins, 1936, p. 32)

From the start of the 20th Century, however, the growing influence of pragmatism in American society and education as a whole was slowly reframing the discourses on the purpose of higher learning from that of merely acquiring knowledge to the application of acquired knowledge in practical solutions to the problems of life. By having a practical application, knowledge also developed a currency in the broader society and was thus seen as having “pure political power and as negotiable as gold” (Brubacher, 1982, p.21). In the broader society, the research results of the universities were being used “in ‘service to the nation,’ both in industrial and agricultural production and the subsequent social problems to which they gave rise” (Brubacher, 1982, p. 6).

The knowledge application role of higher education continues to evolve in this vein. Michael Gibbons (1998), Secretary General of the Association of Commonwealth Universities, claims that for higher education to be relevant in the 21st Century, there must a shift in ourselves and our students to skills that connect the many sources of knowledge and to apply that knowledge to better society through economic development, lifelong learning and the evolution of civic culture. By tying the knowledge function of higher education to public purposes, we begin to see the growing ascendancy of a second legitimizing discourse for higher education based upon Brubacher's political philosophical rationale.

Political Discourses

The second discourse of higher education frames the role of and purpose of higher education within the larger political environment and the needs of society become central. In this discourse, the role of higher education serving the public good is constructed according the perceptions of what is a public good and how best higher education can provide that good. As noted by Jane Mansbridge (1998), the "public good" is itself a contested concept – from the Platonic view that "what was good for the polity was by nature also good for the individual" to more recent conceptions "Adam Smith made the reverse argument – that what was good for the individual in a narrow sense was also good…for the polity" (p. 3). For Mansbridge the contrast between public and private goods is important but "does not need a precise and uncontested definition…even when some, for example, define the public good as a sum of individual goods and others define it more organically, as deriving from the function of the collective" (1998, p. 9). Much of the current criticism of higher education revolves around the dominance of a discourse that defines individual goods as the social benefit provided by higher education, and many of the current calls for change in higher education, are an attempt to counterbalance this dominance (Kezar, 2005).

When applying a collective public good philosophy to the knowledge role of the university "expertise is nourished not merely as a matter of idle curiosity but because of its far-reaching significance for the body politic. Just to understand, let alone solve, the intricate problems of our complex society would be next to impossible without the resources of college and university" (Brubacher, 1982, p. 14). This discourse is not new:

> Discussion of the benefits of higher education has its roots in the earliest days of American higher education. The formative discussions of higher education's benefits were largely concerned with its public, democratic role. Among the most influential proponents of this position was Thomas Jefferson, whose writings about education broadly, and the University of Virginia in particular, shaped public attitudes and commitments to public education in the nation's first few decades. (IHEP, 1998, p. 7)

For Brubacher this political discourse, fostering a collective good, has "eclipsed" the epistemological discourse:

> No longer can there be any doubt that the needs of the community must provide the ultimate criteria for the formation of academic requirements such as curriculum and degrees. Knowledge today is wanted, even demanded, by more people and institutions than ever before. To survive and be significant, the organization and function of the university must be responsive to the university around it. It must be as dynamic and plastic as the social order itself. The university as producer, wholesaler, and retailer of knowledge cannot escape service. (1982, p. 17)

Although (as noted above) most functions of higher education, including teaching and research, can be seen as aspects of serving the public good , it is often higher education's social or public service mission that provides the most direct link to, and concrete manifestations of, understanding(s) of collective benefits to society.

Articulating Higher Education's Social Mission

> Generally, the American public believes that higher education is a positive force in society. The challenge, however, is to frame the scope of higher education's social impact in broader terms and to do this in collaboration with other institutions and individuals in society. A parallel challenge is for higher education institutions to act in accordance with their missions to serve society through their unique set of resources and relationships. The consequences of limiting the story told about the social benefits of higher education are real and can lead to significant retrenchments in public support, resulting in financial, political, educational, and civic losses for higher education and society.
>
> (Kezar, Chambers, & Burkhardt, 2005, p. 12)

> Engagement. Community Service. Civic Responsibility. Service Learning. Outreach. Extension. Today there are more nuanced terms that apply to the public-service mission of higher education than ever before. Some believe that this renewed interest in the public-service mission is cyclical and soon will pass in favor of another emphasis in higher education. Others believe that the call back to public service in higher education reflects the significant needs of society or decreased state funding for higher education, two areas that will not change quickly.
>
> (Jaeger & Thornton, 2004, p. 34)

Diversity in Higher Education's Social Mission

According to Alexander Astin (2000), through higher education's social mission, institutions play "a major part in shaping civic life in modern American society" (p. 124). They are however, not necessarily completely free to define and set this mission:

> Civic responsibility, however, is not something that higher education simply defines for itself and then attempts to meet through appropriate programs and policies. On the contrary, what constitutes our civic responsibility is something that is constantly being defined and redefined by our institutions and the larger society. (Astin, 2000, p. 125)

Almost every college or university does, to some degree, profess some concept of civic responsibility, public service or social benefit in their mission statements (Crosson, 1983; Scott, 2006). Institutional differences in conceptions and fulfillment of social mission often fall along functional classifications (community access and lifelong learning, liberal arts, research for the betterment of society etc.). However, even within the same classifications, individual institutions are shaped by years of history and tradition that give rise to differences in how they articulate their social mission (Scott, 2006). Holland (1997) further describes this array:

> Even though the rhetoric of service is similar at many institutions, a cursory glance at campus literature, professional publications, and conference publications makes it obvious that engagement in service-related activities is playing out differently across institutions, and the level of involvement in and commitment to service takes many different forms. (p. 30).

There are, however, interconnected themes, within these diverse articulations and conceptualizations, each with associated values and beliefs as to the role and purpose of higher education in meeting its social mission. Through her work studying the social charter between higher education and society Adrianna Kezar (2004, 2005), has identified three distinct movements that attempt to increase and advance the collective public good benefits of higher education:

1) Civic Education and Fostering a Diverse Democracy
2) Public Service
3) Collaboration

Each movement has a distinct discourse regarding the role and purpose of higher education and the trends in society that it seeks to counterbalance.

Discourses of Civic Education and Fostering a Diverse Democracy

Within the civic and democratic interpretation of higher education's social mission, articulation of purpose and enactment of activities focus upon the development of students' civic and public service understanding and participation (Kezar, 2005). This position is encapsulated by Ira Harkavy (2006):

> The goal for universities, I believe, should be to contribute *significantly* to developing and sustaining democratic schools, communities and societies. By working to realize that goal, democratic-minded academics, I further believe, can powerfully help American higher education in particular, and American schooling in general, return to their core mission – effectively educating students to be democratic, creative, caring, constructive citizens of a democratic society. (p. 9) [emphasis in original]

However, there are differing perspectives on how this is to be accomplished within higher education. According to David Caputo (2005):

> There is long tradition of concern for polity and civil society on the part of higher education and its supporters. Whether it is John Dewey's ideas about experience reinforcing classroom education or John F. Kennedy's call for service to country, a persistent theme has been the need to increase student participation and involvement with their political and governmental system. The assumption, questioned by some, is that such participation develops a better citizen, one more likely to be engaged and involved in the future. This increased engagement, according to proponents, will lead to better public policy and greater allegiance to democratic norms. Thus both the individual and society are transformed in the process. (p. 3)

Caputo continues:

> For many campuses…. the emphasis has been on nurturing a deeper relationship with one or two organizations in their community. It might be the local schools or a community center, but the emphasis is on student volunteerism as a way of improving the social conditions within the surrounding community and broadening the student's perceptions and understanding of society. Volunteerism and community service programs are important on many campuses. (p. 4)

These differing conceptions tie to understandings of democracy and the roles of citizens. Citizens can be seen as "rights bearing members of a representative political system who choose their leaders through elections" and/or as "concerned members of communities who share common values and are responsible to each other and their community" (Boyte & Kari, 2000, p. 40). These understandings lead to distinct civic education pedagogies and methods, and the resulting activities fostered. According to

Boyte and Kari (2000) when approaching civic education from the perspective of citizen rights, higher education efforts typically focus upon “voter registration efforts, programs to enhance student knowledge of public affairs, student government, and political leadership among others” (p. 41). When approached from a community perspective “the purpose of politics should be to pursue the ‘common good’” (p. 41), leading to a focus upon community service and volunteering.

Related to both perspectives of civic education is the idea of fostering a diverse democracy, “students are reading works from and about diverse traditions, considering difficult social issues, examining the sources and histories of prejudicial exclusions and probing competing visions of human community” (Schneider, 2000, p. 117). According to Elizabeth Hollander and Mathew Hartley (2000), these efforts:

> …seek to engage campuses in discussions about the important issues of diversifying faculty, staff, and students, and introducing multicultural education into the curriculum – education that not only exposes students to other cultures, but requires them to critically view issues of difference within their own society. (p. 349)

The efforts described above are usually seen as complementary, according to Thomas Ehrlich, editor of *Civic Responsibility and Higher Education* (2000):

> At the core of the issue, civic engagement means working together to make a difference in the civic life of our communities and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values, and motivation to make that difference. It means promoting the quality of life in a community, through both political and non-political processes. (p. vi)

Discourses of Public Service

Within this theme, Kezar (2005) brings together four areas that she ties to the public service role of higher education – the engaged campus, scholarship reconsidered, college-community partnerships and community-service learning. She introduces this area of focus with:

> The social and public benefits of higher education have often been demonstrated through public service. Public service can vary tremendously: from conducting research in the community, teaching a distance education course within a community, helping to reform schools in the local area, to a faculty member serving on a community board…. In recent years there has been a reinvigoration of the service role. (p. 46)

For many, public service is the primary purpose of a social mission for higher education. As described by E. Thomas Moran (2006), in a piece entitled *Service: The Moral Heart of Higher Education*:

> Academicians need to appreciate conclusively that service should not only extend to the way those in the academy relate to the broader community, but also that higher education should explicitly promote an understanding of our lives in relation to others and a concomitant sense of responsibility for the character of our public life and our common well-being. Seen from this perspective, service is the moral heart of the enterprise. Moreover, such a conceptualization of service is a unique contribution of American higher education. It extends and complements the historic missions of teaching and scholarship in relationship to establishing the foundations for democratic life. (p. 1)

Moran continues:

> Active service evidences not just that we care, but defines what we care about and how we express that care. Because service is a form of caring that is not simply private and intimate but public as well, its role in creating a foundational set of values for a community is decisive. A manifest, widespread commitment to service creates a flourishing community. Such communities are characterized by among other qualities, caring, trust, reciprocity, and a high degree of civic engagement. Flourishing communities also evince a determination to avoid turning inward and becoming narrow, closed and exclusive. Instead they strive to cultivate in their members a capacity for imagining the world from the perspective of the "other" and to extend to them sympathy, generosity of spirit and respect. (p. 2)

When describing the engaged campus, Kezar expressly links the engagement movement with public service. She proceeds by describing engagement, which she qualifies with the modifier *community* as:

> In 1997, Campus Compact attempted to 're'-institutionalize the public service mission of higher education. Their notion of the 'engaged campus' was an attempt to broaden and deepen the campus service role, engaging all members of the campus (faculty, students, staff). Community engagement can vary tremendously by the mission of the institution, but the goal is to encourage a deeper and more systemic engagement across the campus. In this new vision of engagement, the university extends resources and expertise to the community as well as receiving

> input and expertise from the community in ways that serve both institutional and community needs. (2005, p. 46)

Also of prominence in this definition is the value placed upon the reciprocal nature of the relationships, the idea that the community is an equal partner in ventures, whether supporting the educational mission of the university or supporting the social role(s) in economic or community development (Cone & Payne, 2002; Gleazer, 2000).

There are numerous activities that fall within the scope of these partnerships. As described by Mayfield (2001), higher educations' fostering of college-community partnerships:

> Engages its faculty, students, and staff with interests outside the university as it develops new ways to pursue its functions. This engaged role for universities is often juxtaposed against the traditional concept of the modern university as a fortress of pure research, driven by the desire of autonomous faculty for knowledge in their individual disciplines. It is a new way for the academy to fulfill its functions in society, meeting the criticism that universities that universities take public support but ignore the interests and concerns of the community. (p. 231-232)

Kezar (2005) includes in this articulation of higher education's social mission the newer conceptions of scholarship – scholarship reconsidered. This field has its origins in the work of Ernest Boyer. According to Derek Barker (2004):

> The 'scholarship of engagement' terminology derives from the work of the late Ernest Boyer, a former president of the Carnegie Academy for the Advancement

> of Teaching and Learning. Boyer's original concern was to broaden the definition of scholarship beyond research to include the scholarship of teaching, application, and integration (Boyer 1990). In his later work, however, Boyer argued that his own framework should be further broadened to include the scholarship of engagement (Boyer 1996). In this phrase Boyer used 'scholarship' to indicate practices that cut across the categories of academic scholarship he had previously identified and 'engagement' to suggest a reciprocal, collaborative relationship with a public entity. The scholarship of engagement, then, consists of (1) research, teaching, integration, and application scholarship that (2) incorporate reciprocal practices of civic engagement into the production of knowledge. It tends to be used inclusively to describe a host of practices cutting across disciplinary boundaries and teaching, research, and outreach functions in which scholars communicate to and work both for and with communities. (p. 124)

The final aspect of Kezar's (2005) public service theme is service learning, which engages students in service to the community, by incorporating a practical application component to the knowledge they are gaining through coursework. According to A. S. Waterman (1997), "contemporary programs in service-learning represent the confluence of two important historical traditions: (a) the American tradition of service to the community, and (b) the experiential approach to pedagogy" (p. 2). Much of the success of service learning can be attributed to its direct link with the academic role of the university as a means for improving student learning (Lounsbury & Pollack, 2001) and the fact that "the service movement for the most part, has managed to appeal to both the political left and right's interests in democratic renewal" (Hollander & Hartley, 2000, p.

351). It should be noted, however, that while Kezar has placed service learning in the theme of public service, service learning is a multi-faceted pedagogy which can have as a goal the outcomes associated with civic education and democracy (described in the section above) and collaboration (described in the section below).

Discourses of Collaboration

While many articulations of higher education's social mission focus upon the relationships, both in terms of quantity and quality, between the institution and society, in Kezar's (2005) collaboration theme, representations relate to efforts within higher education itself, to improve the capacity for the institution to meet the needs of society. This discourse is framed in the belief that higher education has become fragmented by disciplines and internal processes, has become unable to determine or respond to the needs of society and does not prepare students well for the multifaceted lives they will lead after graduation (Eccles, 1996; Edwards, 1999; Kezar, 2005).

Academic-based efforts include multidisciplinary research and joint student affairs and academic affairs endeavors such as learning communities (Bourassa & Kruger, 2001; Kezar, 2005). These initiatives seek to connect educational and student development goals across the campus as a whole:

> The term learning community has been used to refer to a number of approaches, models and learning environments…learning communities center on a vision of faculty and students – and sometimes administrative, staff, and the larger community – working collaboratively toward shared, significant academic goals…. Learning communities, as an innovative approach to teaching and learning, provide environments for students to acquire common and disciplinary

> knowledge and improve academic performance. The approach is adopted in the design and development of disciplinary courses that facilitate collaboration among colleagues. (Zhu & Baylen, 2005, p. 253)

In the area of multidisciplinary research Kezar states:

> There are many groups advocating the importance of inter- and multidisciplinary research, which is based upon the assumption that each area of inquiry – humanities, social sciences, and physical and biological sciences – are needed to advance knowledge. Multidisciplinary research brings scholars together across various fields of inquiry to address pressing societal problems…. Many scholars have criticized traditional research methods based in a single discipline as being inadequate to understand complex problems in the real world. (2005, p. 49)

There are particular interests in the area of collaboration with k-12 education. In this discourse, specific attention is paid to the inter-dependent nature of k-12 education and higher education and the need for a seamless transition between the two:

> Higher education also cannot be oblivious to the fate of K–12 education in America. In particular, universities must take greater responsibility for the training and education they provide to teachers…. They have a moral responsibility to help fix our public school system by making the education and training of teachers a central priority…. Universities have an obligation to the nation and to themselves not to institutionalize mediocrity by tolerating substandard schools of education on their campuses. (Gregorian, 2005, p. 32)

Much of the discourse on the need for k-16 education, and better systems of articulation and transfer, stems from the concern that by insufficiently collaborating with k-12 education and with other institutions, higher education is not meeting the needs of an increasingly mobile and diverse society (Green & Trent, 2005).

According to Kezar, common within these efforts is a belief that the purpose of higher education is intertwined with the needs of society and “partnerships and connectedness that support the public good are held above private, individual interests” (2005, p. 48). To best serve the needs of society, collaborative efforts in higher education restructure existing programs to “foster greater intellectual connections between students, students and faculty, and between disciplines” (Kezar, 2005, p. 48). Examples of these programs include:

> Campuses across the country now feature their commitment to collaborative learning, community-based learning, diversity and cross-cultural initiatives, and myriad forms of experiential learning including service, internships and other forms of fieldwork. (Schneider, 2005, p. 135)

According to Carol Geary Schneider (2005), these efforts share the understanding that a broader conception of education is needed whereby problems can be solved as “important conceptual breakthroughs can emerge at the intersection of theory and application” (p. 135) and students are prepared “for a world lived in common” (p. 137).

The Importance of Communicating the Social Mission

Within the political legitimizing discourse, the rationale for the support of higher education becomes its significance for society as a whole. Institutions of higher education serve many social roles and as such are increasingly being compared to other intuitions, both public and private, that are providing similar services. In this context, higher education must compete for public legitimacy with other social organizations that provide a public good, increasingly being seen as "another social institution, valuable but with no unique privileges" (Baird, 2001, p. 122). The measures by which higher education has traditionally sought to define its social mission are being examined and questioned, and therefore higher education must "negotiate the right to supply other measures" of performance to justify support (Banta & Borden, 1994, p. 9). There are many social needs and "if policymakers and the general public are not clear about why investment in higher education matters and do not appreciate the social and public benefits, other public policy priorities may end up gaining more support than higher education" (Kezar, 2004, p. 431).

Engaged Higher Education

> At the interface of expert judgment and community participation stands "engagement," the label currently embraced by colleges and universities to describe activities associated with serving the public interest. What had been viewed by higher education as service *to*, then extension *of*, and later still outreach *from*, is now considered engagement *with*.
>
> (Fear, Rosaen, Bawden, & Foster-Fishman, 2006, p. xi)

> In the early 1980s, a deep concern about the "me" generation sparked major efforts to promote college student volunteer community service…. By the mid 1990s a broader concept was emerging – the "engaged campus". This view holds that colleges and universities not only have a responsibility to educate students for active citizenship but have an institutional responsibility as social stewards of their local communities and beyond.
>
> (Hollander, 2007, p. 15)

Discourses of Engagement

Within and across these discourses of higher education's social mission a newer term has been gaining ascendancy – engagement. Although Kezar (2005) places engagement within the discourse of public service, others see engagement as something qualitatively different. In this discourse, engagement is frequently tied to an overarching purpose for higher education combining all the public and social mission activities described in the themes above (Fear, Rosaen, Bawden, & Foster-Fishman, 2006). Within this environment, a concept of reciprocal university-community partnerships integral to the academic and service mission of the university has gained new prominence. For some, engagement is described as a new paradigm for higher education, and for others, a platform for change:

> Many institutions see in the movement to engagement an opportunity to renew the civic mission of higher education. Through service learning, moral and civic education, and research derived from and applied to community issues, colleges and universities are reclaiming their responsibility to prepare students to be active and engaged citizens and to contribute productively to their local and global communities. They find in engagement a potent antidote to the rising tide of commercialism and corporatism that threatens to erode the heart of higher education's compact with society…. Other institutions find engagement to be an exciting way to strengthen and expand on the scholarship and teaching that have been the foundation of the academy. Linking discovery and learning to the real needs of a local or worldwide community invigorates the work of both faculty and students and re-connects colleges and universities to expertise and resources outside the campus gates. University engagement is both a renewal of the civic mission of higher education and a bold direction for academic practice. Together these two complementary strands have intertwined to create a growing momentum for change. (Brukardt, Holland, Percy, & Zimpher, 2004, p. 1)

The idea of social needs compelling institutional change, either through external pressures or internal impetus, is not new in higher education. According to Patricia Crosson (1983), “throughout the history of higher education in the United States, the concept of service and references to service have been used to justify claims for public support” (p. 1) and “the concept of service, linked with notions of utility, has also been used throughout our history to justify and rationalize new departures for higher education” (p. 2).

Perhaps one of the most influential publications in the discourse of engagement has been the Kellogg Commission’s *Returning to Our roots: The Engaged Institution*. The Kellogg Commission viewed engagement as a response to:

> Growing public frustration with what is seen to be our unresponsiveness. At the root of the criticism is a perception that we are out of touch and out of date. Another part of the issue is that although society has problems, our institutions have “disciplines.” In the end, what these complaints add up to is a perception that, despite the resources and expertise available on our campuses, our institutions are not well organized to bring them to bear on local problems in a coherent way. (1999, p. 13)

The issue of whether engagement is viewed as improvement or change and whether this is for internal assessment or eternal accountability is important. Different perspectives on engagement will lead to different types of evaluation processes and methods – most broadly classed as summative or formative evaluations. Different types of evaluations serve different audiences and those audiences comprehend and use the evaluation results in accordance with those assumptions. These issues are discussed in more depth in the following sections.

Expectations of Engagement Endeavors

Attendant with the numerous values and belief surrounding the roles and purposes of higher education in serving the public good, expectations of the endeavors that higher education should undertake to provide public service or social benefit are subject to varying interpretation by both society and the institutions of higher education themselves (Stanton, Giles & Cruz, 1999). Many of these differences are revealed in the both the language used by the different groups who are calling for engagement and by higher education institutions when describing their engaged activities (outreach, community service, economic development, applied research, etc.). Higher education's engagement takes many forms and may focus on student social and moral development, pedagogical improvement or increased civic and community involvement by students and institutions. Engagement practices are promoted as providing far-reaching benefits to communities that gain access to resources that include students, faculty and staff, libraries, technology and research results (Thomas, 1998). Engagement programs can involve faculty in applied research or consultation, or can offer opportunities for students to connect theories with practice through internships or volunteer participation. Effective partnerships can improve an institution's "image and support, and increase funding or recruitment and retention of students" (Holland & Gelmon, 1998, p. 3).

However, there are emergent critiques of these activities as an assessment of engaged higher education. Although engagement is often framed as an institutional commitment, Thomas (1998) argues that these activities "generally occupy a marginal status on campus. They tend to be isolated units or projects, disconnected from the academic functions of the campus" (p. 3). In addition, reliance on prevailing long-established campus-community collaborations may not meet expectations: "what comprises 'external' groups changes over time. It is therefore necessary to continually redefine public service in terms of the current dynamics of institutional-societal relationships" (Crosson, 1983, p. 6).

The Kellogg Commission believed that engagement was not merely a new expression of higher education's customary fulfillment of its social mission:

> Engagement goes well beyond extension, conventional outreach, and even most conceptions of public service. Inherited concepts emphasize a one-way process in which the university transfers its expertise to key constituents. Embedded in the engagement ideal is a commitment to sharing and reciprocity. By engagement the Commission envisions partnerships, two-way streets defined by mutual respect among the partners for what each brings to the table. An institution that responds to these imperatives can properly be called what the Kellogg Commission has come to think of as an "engaged institution." (p. 13)

The report identified several characteristics that the Commission used to define an engaged institution of higher education: "responsiveness, respect for partners, academic neutrality, accessibility, integrating engagement into institutional mission, coordination, and resource adequacy – almost represent a seven-part test of engagement" (p. 15). They conclude their report with a call for higher education to commit to engagement and demonstrate that commitment by providing support for "systems and data that will allow us periodically to make an open accounting of our progress toward achieving our commitment to the public good" (p. 35). This call to an accounting leads to the ability to assess and evaluate engaged higher education.

U.S. Higher Education and Evaluation

> We do not subscribe to the notion that every worthy and desirable outcome of American higher education will yield to measurement. But we do hold the conviction that quality can be defined, that quality can be measured, and that results of such measurement can be used to improve our impact on students and their growth as well as to enhance programs and services.
>
> (Bogue & Hall, 2003, p. 1)

> The term evaluation has been in the English language for centuries, and it has had diverse functions and meanings during that time. Only in recent decades, in particular the latter part of the twentieth century, has more precision been given to the term, including specificity to basic concepts and more explicit explanations about its aims as a functioning entity.
>
> (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 3)

Evaluation in the Broader Society

In a widely used textbook for the discipline *Evaluation Theory, Models, and Applications*, scholars of evaluation, Daniel Stufflebeam and Anthony Shinkfield (2007) describe the history and development of the evaluation field. They note that:

> Systematic evaluation was not unknown before 1930, but it was not a recognizable movement…. The dawning of the twentieth century saw the emergence of yet another approach to evaluation. In applying the concepts of efficiency and standardization to manufacturing, Frederick Taylor had found standardization to contribute to efficiency and assurance of consistent quality in manufactured products. (p. 32-33)

In tandem with Taylorization, systematic evaluation became a tool of manufacturers and producers who linked evaluation to their systems of control over efficiency and production output to maximize profit. However, the passage of President John F. Kennedy's *Consumer Bill of Rights* in the 1960s "altered the landscape of business by encouraging a power shift from producers to consumers (Koslowski, 2006, p. 279). In this new environment, recipients of services could evaluate performance and hold providers responsible for quality outcomes.

With this broader clientele, evaluation evolved and continued to grow in significance and influence. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield continue:

> Evaluation arguably is society's most fundamental discipline. It is oriented to assessing and helping to improve all aspects of society. Proper objects for evaluation cover a wide range of entities: school programs, libraries, museums, hospitals, physicians, immunization programs, continuing medical education programs, courts, lawyers, judges, universities, schools, university curriculum, instructors, construction projects, ladders, food and other consumer products, telecommunication services, postal services, government agencies, transportation services, parks and recreation programs, agricultural extension services, environmental policies, disease prevention and control programs, national defense, border control, research plans and findings, theories, and many more. These examples illustrate that evaluation is ubiquitous. It permeates all areas of scholarship, production, and service and has important implications for maintaining and improving services and protecting citizens in all areas of interest to society. Evaluation is a process for giving attestations on such matters as

> reliability, effectiveness, cost-effectiveness, efficiency, safety, ease of use, and probity. Society and individual clients are at risk to the extent that services, products, and other objects of interest are poor. Evaluation serves society by providing affirmations of worth, value, improvement (and how and when this should happen), accreditation, accountability, and, when necessary, a basis for terminating bad programs. (2007, pp. 4-5)

According to Patton (2000), there are over “one hundred names distinguishing different types of evaluation” (p. 6) and “nearly sixty terms are equivalent to evaluation in one context or another…. The language reflects not only the immense importance of the process of evaluation in practical life, but the explosion of a new area of study” (Scriven quoted in Patton, 2000, p. 7).

In Evaluation: A Systematic Approach, authors Peter H. Rossi, Mark W. Lipsey, and Howard E Freeman describe several purposes of evaluation:

> Evaluations are initiated for many reasons. They may be intended to help management improve a program; support advocacy by proponents of critics; gain knowledge about the program’s effects; provide input to decisions about the program’s funding, structure or administration; or respond to political pressures. One of the first determinations the evaluator must make is just what the purposes of a specific evaluation are. (p. 34)

When the purpose of the evaluation is for improvement a formative approach is most often used, when the purpose of the evaluation is accountability – either for efficient use of resources and/or attainment of specific outcomes a summative approach is used (Rossi, Lipsey, & Freeman, 2004; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). A summary of some of the aspects of formative and summative evaluations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Formative Evaluation and Summative Evaluation

Descriptors	Formative Evaluation	Summative Evaluation
Purpose	Quality assurance; improvement	Provide an overall judgment of the evaluand
Use	Guidance for decision making	Determining accountability for successes and failures; promoting understanding of assessed phenomena
Functions	Provides feedback for improvement	Informs consumers about an evaluand's value, for example, its quality, cost, utility, and safety
Orientation	Prospective and proactive	Retrospective and retroactive
When Conducted	During development or ongoing operations	After completion of development
Particular Types of Service	Assists goal setting, planning, and management	Assists consumers in making wise decisions
Foci	Goals, alternative courses of action, plans, implementation of plans, interim results	Completed projects, established programs, or finished products; ultimate outcomes
Variables	All aspects of an evolving, developing program	Comprehensive range of dimensions concerned with merit, worth, probity, safety, equity, and significance
Audience	Managers, staff; connected closely to insiders	Sponsors, consumers, and other interested stakeholders; projected especially to outsiders
Evaluation Plans	Flexible, emergent, responsive, interactive	Relatively fixed, not emergent or evolving
Typical Methods	Case studies, observation, interviews, not controlled experiments	Wide range of methods including case studies, controlled experiments, and checklists

Descriptors	Formative Evaluation	Summative Evaluation
Reports	Periodic, often relatively informal, responsive to client and staff requests	Cumulative record and assessment of what was done and accomplished; contrast of evaluand with critical competitors; cost-effectiveness analysis
Relationship Between Formative and Summative Evaluations	Often forms the basis for summative evaluation	Compiles and supplements previously collected formative evaluation information

(Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 25)

Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2004) caution that the true purpose of the evaluation can be hidden by stakeholders with different agendas and/or used for other purposes. Thus although an evaluation can be presented as formative/for improvement, and those methods used, those seeking the information may actually intend to make a summary judgments and use the information. Care must therefore be taken to understand the purpose of the evaluation and ensure that an understanding of the purpose of the evaluation is communicated along with the findings.

The Measurement Discourse in Higher Education

The growing influence of evaluation in society and the processes of evaluation have had an impact on all areas of society, including the field of higher education. A myriad of decisions, made by diverse groups define why evaluation occurs in higher education, what systems are used and how they work. As noted above, the tensions between need, purpose, criteria and resources make any evaluation a very political process. For higher education, a vital question is – what gets measured and against which criteria should the item be measured? Higher education performs multiple functions and has many expected outcomes and assessing performance is therefore equally complex.

Thus a plethora of information systems and assessments have been developed. A summary of some these current systems and assessments is provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Higher Education Institutional Information Systems and Assessments

Type	Contents	Audience/s	Uses	Examples
Databases	Measures of institutional attributes using broad definitions that can be applied to all institutions	General research community. These do not produce a "user-friendly" assessment or make comparisons	Building block for additional research including comparative analyses	U.S. Department of Education IPEDS; Common Data Set Initiative
Classification Systems	Typologies of institutional characteristics	General research community	Basis for comparative research; often used within institutions for peer research on salaries, programs, etc.	Carnegie Classification System (mission based); NCPI/Gumport alternative (market based); Winston "decile" (subsidy based)
Public Comparisons	Comparative analyses of institutional attributes based on criteria such as quality, geography, price, or program	Consumer information, particularly to prospective students; recognition of quality via awards	Used for student recruitment and information; also used within institutions for peer comparisons; can be used for competitive awards programs	US News and World Report Rankings; Peterson's Guide; Wintergreen/ Orchard House College Finder; Baldrige Awards
Accreditation Reviews	Assessments of institutions or programs for "quality" as defined by agency standards	General public, state and federal government	Establishes that an institution meets minimum community standards to be accredited; used for federal aid, licensure, and transfer purposes.	Regional and "specialized" or programmatic accreditation
Emerging Research Models	Comparative analyses of institutional or state effectiveness in student engagement or outcomes	Institutions, the research community, and the public	Improve measures of effectiveness by focusing on results and/or factors that influence results	National Survey of Student Engagement; College Results Index; National Report Card

(Shedd & Wellman, 2001, p.4)

Until the middle of the last century, quality and performance expectations within the system of higher education were guided by the apex institutions. These high-profile, high-reputation institutions (i.e. Oxford, Cambridge, Berlin, and Chicago) were those known to be the best, and acted as role models showing “what proper academics – and proper universities – should value” (Cowen, 1996b, p. 1). Assurance of quality was implicit within higher education and beliefs that “quality could not be measured but could be recognized by academics when and where it existed were prevalent” (Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002).

However, as higher education expanded in terms of number and diversity of both institutions and students, the apex institutions no longer reflected representative or meaningful models for the system as a whole, requiring new guides to quality. Those impacted by higher education – increasingly diverse students, their families, and future employers – necessitated broadening the scope of activities performed by the institutions. Public expectations grew to include economic and social development, and workforce preparation and development (Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002). As a result, both the cost to and the expectations of, the state and public have increased, and this has led to increased demands for measures of accountability (Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002; Trow, 1975).

Evaluation of higher education’s performance and accountability date back to the start of the 20th Century. Assessments and evaluations included reputational ranking studies, institutional comparisons, and peer comparisons (Borden & Bottrill, 1994, p. 5). Measures with a focus on cost-efficient management emerged in the 1960’s and were strengthened by the 1980’s legislative scrutiny and a series of highly critical reports on education (*A Nation at Risk*, *Transforming the State Role in Undergraduate Education*, *A*

Time for Results etc.) (Franoza, 1996). As noted by Cowen (1996a), for stakeholders to gain control over evaluation mechanisms and satisfy themselves that “accountability is occurring and that quality is following” (p. 3), they are breaking down traditional academic evaluation vocabulary and using the language and methods of business: information systems and efficiency. These perspectives on the purpose and type of appropriate evaluation and possible influence on evaluative processes and measures have several implications and potential impacts for higher education.

Implications and Impacts of Evaluation

> The language of evaluation is rarely, if ever, neutral. Language use inherently depends on point of view. Even supposedly fundamental technical terms such as goals, measurement, validity, reliability and methods generate debate about their definitions and generality of applications. They require context to be clear about their meaning and that context includes cultural and paradigmatic assumptions.
>
> (Patton, 2000, p. 6)

> Addressing conflicting values is not an easy task for evaluators, if for no other reason than they are not the sole arbiters of one set of values over another.
>
> (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 22)

Evaluation as a Genre

According to Norman Fairclough (1995), a genre is “a socially ratified way of using language in connection with a particular type of social activity…. and a genre may predictably draw upon a particular range of discourses (p. 14). Genres thus “accommodate various types of complex intertextuality in texts” (p. 14) extracting meaning from a number of sources and combining those sources in such a way that it may be impossible to ascribe their original sources. Evaluation is such an activity, drawing from the discourses of the evaluation field, the field being evaluated (in this study – engagement) and the discourses of the stakeholders and evaluators. The discourses and practices of the evaluation field adapt to context and needs:

> In earlier times, for example, evaluation was commonly closely associated with assessing achievement against behavioral objectives or conducting norm-referenced testing. Then, particularly during the 1970s, emphasis was given to professional judgment. Since that time, an increasing number believe that evaluation is the collection and analysis of quality information for decision makers. These and other 'definitions' of evaluation have elements of credibility, depending often on the type of evaluation study being undertaken. (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 7).

Thus, the resulting evaluation discourse incorporates many positions, although not all may be represented equally or accurately.

In the construction of an evaluation process, there is accommodation and assimilation of different perspectives in order to develop the language of the materials and measures. As noted by Placier, Walker and Foster (2003), the resulting evaluation standards or criteria policies and documentation are remarkably similar, usually presented in the form of lists, and written in a manner, which reflects a compromise between competing interests. The evaluation standards and criteria themselves are often selected with a "bias in favour of easily measured attributes," even when more relevant, but more complex, attributes would yield greater understanding and communication of the assessment (McCormick, 2008, p. 209). In addition, most evaluation measures "tend to be numeric and seek to operationalize concepts such as quality by specifying how they will be quantified" (Barnetson & Cutright, 2000, p. 278) leading to the need for further homogeneity within the process.

Because of the complex interplay of intertextuality, assimilation of discourses, evaluation purposes and stakeholder needs, the evaluation choices made – such as theory, methods, and/or practice in a system of evaluation – might not, and probably will not, provide all the detail needed for unambiguous understanding. Indeed, the methods chosen may misdirect our understanding "instead, these tools or conceptual frameworks limit what we (as researchers, and evaluators in this case) need to know; even more problematic, our own tools may guarantee that we will not find out what we need to know" (Hopson, Lucas, & Petersen, 2000, p. 30). To reveal whether evaluation practices are aligning with stated or assumed purposes a more critical examination of evaluation assumptions may be needed.

Values and Evaluation

As described above, the process of evaluation requires simplification. According to McCormick (2008) simplification requires "the distillation of this complex reality into a limited set of attributes" (p. 209) and the challenge for evaluators is to "select and preserve the most 'important' attributes…These judgments cannot be value-free: the choice of attributes reflects the interests, biases and importantly, the analytic needs of those creating the comparative tool, as well as those of its audience and potential users" (p. 209). For this study, the definition of evaluation advocated by Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) has been used: "evaluation is the systematic assessment of the worth or merit of an object" (p. 9). They establish that their usage of evaluation recognizes that:

> Evaluation’s root term, value, denotes that evaluations essentially involve making value judgments. Accordingly, evaluations are not value free. They need to be grounded in some defensible set of guiding principles or ideals and should determine the evaluand’s standing against these values. This truism presents evaluators with the need to choose the appropriate values for judging an evaluand. For example, in evaluating U.S. public services, evaluators should be true to, and sometimes specifically invoke, precepts of a democratic society such as freedom, equity, due process of law, and the need for an enlightened population”(p. 9).

For Stufflebeam and Shinkfield sound evaluations are grounded in clear and appropriate values which must hold to standards of merit and worth: “the criteria of merit reside in the standards of the evaluand’s particular discipline or area of service” (p. 9) and “assessments of worth have to be keyed to assessments of need within the context of a particular setting and time period” (p. 11). These factors are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Characteristics of Merit and Worth in Evaluation

Merit	**Worth**
May be assessed on any object of interest	Assessed only on objects that have demonstrated an acceptable level of quality
Assesses intrinsic value of object	Assesses extrinsic value of object
Assesses quality, that is, an object’s level of excellence	Assesses an object’s quality and value or importance within a given context
Asks, “Does the object do well what it is intended to do?”	Asks, “Is the object of high quality and also something a target group needs?”
References accepted standards of quality for the type of object being evaluated	References accepted standards of quality and data from a pertinent needs assessment

Merit	**Worth**
Conclusions rate the object on standards of quality and against competitive objects of the same type	Conclusions note the object's acceptable level of quality and rate it on importance and value to a particular consumer group
Assessments of merit may be the comparison of an object with standards or competitive objects	Assessments of worth may be comparative or non-comparative

(Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007, p. 10)

Evaluation and Effects on Organizations

In resource limited organizations, relatively small amounts of resources can change behavior (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). When evaluation is tied to resources in some form or another – legitimacy, public relations etc. – it can "propel institutions to act when otherwise they could not or would not" (Barnetson & Cutright, 2000, p. 279). Barnetson and Cutright also note that evaluation shapes organizations by making specific institutional performance aspects the focus of attention, and by the selection of those aspects of performance by the evaluator, the evaluator is setting the agenda. By selecting evaluation measures and by structuring the evaluation system, the performance aspects chosen by the evaluator are made public: visible and reportable. In effect, the evaluation of performance shifts "the power and priorities to set goals to those who create and control these documentary decision-making systems" (pp. 280-281). McCormick further cautions, "all forms of institutional comparison represent potential threats to an institution's message regarding its identity and peer group" (2008, p. 213)

Barnetson and Cutright (2000) describe three types of indicators used in comparison and assessment systems "simple (neutral descriptions), general (data unrelated to goals), and performance (possessing a point of reference or goal against which a performance is compared)" (p. 278). Performance indicators are used in systems of evaluation that explicitly link performance to a standard or benchmark that is a stated goal for the system or stakeholders. Although not all evaluation measures have the explicit purpose of shaping performance they may do so anyway. As noted by McCormick (2008) if "measures are widely believed, rightly or wrongly, to correlate with quality or prestige" (p. 210) they will shape behavior. The influence of evaluation on institutions becomes more "salient to users primarily when the classification criteria align with the broader value structure of US higher education" (McCormick, 2008, p. 210).

Engaged Higher Education Evaluation Discourses

> University presidents and chancellors are making "engagement" their idea, a priority item on a leadership agenda with boundary conditions they manage and with outcomes they prefer. Because of that, it is no wonder that so much of the conversation about engagement patterns pertains to organizational matters…. they seek to colonize that space by declaring engagement's meaning and its proper conduct. This stance has enormous implications because with authority and power invested in their positions, elites can mandate conformity to the engagement platform as they define it.
>
> (Fear, Rosaen, Bawden, & Foster-Fishman, 2006, p. 49)

> A potentially destructive situation exists when the larger society is evaluating the university in terms of one tradition while the university is pursuing another, or when members of the university community are in fundamental disagreement as to which function they are to serve.
>
> (Castle, 1971, p. 551)

Evaluating Engagement

In the past decade, as part of the calls for higher education to become engaged, a discourse of engagement assessment and evaluation has developed: "many stakeholders questioned higher education's relevance to current issues and sought to create policies that would test the performance and impact of academic institutions" (Sandman, Holland,

& Burns, 2007, p. 22). However, reflecting the differing discourses on the roles of higher education in serving the public good, a preliminary survey of articles, reports, publications and communications indicates that there is no common vocabulary shared by those framing the discussion on the evaluation of engagement by higher education. Words and phrases such as public or common good, service, community, democratic values, and civic responsibility all appear to fall under the scope of engagement and are conflated in the attributes proposed to be measured.

In 1999, the Kellogg Foundation funded research into assessments of higher education's public service, with the intent "not necessarily to present new information but rather to collect what is known about outreach and service in a way that might allow us to think about assessment, effectiveness, and impact in new ways" (p. 1). The resulting report, *Methods of Assessing the Quality of Public Service and Outreach in Institutions of Higher Education: What's the State of the Art?* provides a summary of a literature review taken to answer the following:

- How is outreach/public service being defined today in academic communities?
- In what ways does the definition vary across different institutions and campuses?
- What characteristics constitute quality outreach/service?
- How can outreach/service be measured at the faculty, department, school/collegiate unit, and institutional levels?
- What does an institution desiring to achieve excellence in outreach "do," or "look like"?

(p. 2)

It is interesting to note that despite the fact that the term engagement had been in the lexicon of higher education outreach for almost a decade at this point (and was used in the influential Kellogg Commission report *Returning to our Roots* the same year) it does not appear in the report. The findings of the report highlight the variety of definitions encountered and the subsequent difficulties in creating a measurable construct for public service. They state:

> The dialogue of voices addressing the topic of "quality" [in public service/outreach] speak mostly at the theoretical/conceptual level and flow from the writings of Boyer, Rice, and Glassick, et al. The literature offers very little in terms of empirical research on outreach assessment, probably because before something can be measured, it must be able to be defined in fairly precise ways, and the construct of outreach is still emerging from its cocoon. (p. 17)

And later: "the field is drawing closer to identifying some of the characteristics of institutions that are leading the way in terms of quality outreach, but we still lack many successful accounts of actually documenting/measuring/assessing outreach quality at a systems level" (p. 31). The Kellogg Foundation's tables for suggested indicators for and potential characteristics of quality institutions are presented in Appendix A.

Challenges in Evaluating Engagement

In *Measuring Public Service: Assessment and Accountability – to Ourselves and Others*, Nancy Frank (2008) notes that most of the tensions surrounding evaluation in higher education as a whole revolve around the notion that higher education has many intangible and qualitative characteristics that cannot be captured in a limited number of measures. She describes how this becomes even more salient for higher education's social role: "public service contributions are among those intangible values that most assessment regimes may miss" (p. 499). From the perspective of the "relatively simple" qualitative measure of public service resource allocations alone, challenges in both understanding public service and the way the activities are dispersed through an institution of higher education make it "impossible to develop an accounting system that measures the amount of institutional resources devoted to public service" (Crosson, 1983, p. 108).

However, Frank puts forth the provocative notion that "service may seem to have intangible value only because the academy has never invested the resources needed to make the social and institutional value of service visible and measurable" (2008, p. 499). She notes that making service measurable requires an understanding of higher education's social mission involving: "definition, range, and qualities of activities that make it valuable to universities and society" (Frank, 2008, p. 501). These values and beliefs will shape the measures chosen – for example defining higher education's engagement as "charitable" service (a gift) will lead to measures that focus upon resource inputs from the institutions of higher education (Frank, 2008, p. 502).

In 2001, Campus Compact convened an Advanced Institute on Classifications for Civic Engagement to investigate:

> …options for classifying or measuring civic contributions of higher education…[and provide] a general overview of the already existing institutional classification systems and sorting mechanisms in higher education, as a way to frame some of the issues that need to be considered in the design of a civic contribution measuring system. (Shedd & Wellman, 2001, p. 2)

Shedd and Wellman (2001) define the term civic contributions as "encompassing special efforts by institutions to distinguish themselves through civic education or institutional service" and further define civic education as "education of students to be effective citizens in a democratic society" and institutional service as "the myriad ways that institutions serve their communities, through individual efforts of students, faculty and staff and through organized institutional activities to communities" (p. 2). While noting that their definition does not appear to hold across institutions they state:

> Although logically definitions and data should precede the development of other assessments, the complexity of the topic suggests that basic assessment research may need to precede data development. It may be the case that there is no common definition of 'civic' activity that would be appropriate for all types of institutions. (p. 5)

For the same Classification Institute, Barbara Holland (2001) developed a paper on *Exploring the Challenge of Documenting and Measuring Civic Engagement Endeavors of Colleges and Universities: Purposes, Issues, Ideas*. Holland's work focused more on identifying the underlying purposes and motivations for developing evaluation systems and the impact that these would have on the structure of the created system. She notes, "the reasons we seek to create measures or descriptors directly influence the types of measures we should seek, and the methods we use to develop and maintain them" (p. 3). Holland lists several goals for creating a system including: academic legitimacy; image and reputation; accountability; different civic missions; quality; and matching measures to purposes and audiences and cautions that with potentially varying goals, different systems will be vulnerable to misinterpretation. She further cautions that "engagement measures are especially vulnerable to misinterpretation since a deep understanding of the local context is essential for creating a suitable panel of measures or indicators as well as for interpreting the results" (p. 20).

Summary: The Need to Critically Examine Engagement Evaluation

> During the past twenty years, two themes have emerged in higher education. One theme has been an increased attention to the service mission of universities, a matter of special importance to planning programs. The other has been an increased emphasis on accountability and performance assessment, an emphasis that has attracted much attention.
>
> (Frank, 2008, p. 499)

> A potentially destructive situation exists when the larger society is evaluating the university in terms of one tradition while the university is pursuing another, or when members of the university community are in fundamental disagreement as to which function they are to serve.
>
> (Castle, 1971, p. 551)

Conceptual Boundary Setting

In the higher education engagement discourses the concept of engagement appears to lack clear boundaries – and lacking established boundaries – any concept can (and probably will) vary according to context or intent of the user (Gee, 1999; Urciuoli, 2005). In some instances, there are benefits to fluid conceptual boundaries: vagueness in definitions may be necessary for group cohesion. As noted by Fine (2002), when beliefs are narrated explicitly divisions over views can undermine assumptions of unity and a group can be "torn asunder" (p. 239).

However, when evaluation of performance on the concept is being made, more established boundaries may be necessary. According to Morse, Mitcham, Hupcey, and Tasón (1996) concepts can only be evaluated or researched when they have reached a necessary level of maturity. They state:

> Concepts do not just dichotomously exist or not exist. Rather, concepts emerge and are tentatively introduced to the scientific community…. Over time and with continued use and acceptance, concepts are refined and become mature. Thus, an indefinite range of maturity exists in concepts – from poorly defined, poorly understood and ambiguous concepts to clear, unambiguous, well-developed concepts. When concepts are immature, two or more concepts may compete to explain the same phenomenon…and as concepts mature and their meanings are clarified, concepts become distinct and the boundaries well-delineated. (p. 387).

The determination that a concept is immature “indicates only that important work towards refinement of the concept needs to be done” (Morse, Mitcham, Hupcey, & Tasón, 1996, p. 389). Sandmann and Weerts (1996) echo this theme but propose that it is through evaluation and research that concepts achieve maturity.

Flexibility in the conceptual boundaries of engagement may be an inherent part of the nature of engagement and the purpose of the engagement field itself:

> Currently, engagement is perceived by many as an exploratory or transformational endeavor, and the diverse views of engagement’s potential seem to be extremely helpful and even essential tools of flexibility that facilitate campus attempts to explore the meaning of engagement in their own internal and community contexts. For example, research suggests that flexibility in the local interpretation of the jargon of engagement (service, outreach, engagement, community partnerships, etc.) is vital to the ability of a campus to initiate new program efforts without triggering resistance generated by unintended verbal meanings. (Holland, 2001, p. 24)

For Barbara Holland (2001) the development of systems to measure and assess engagement should be flexible enough to support the emerging field of engagement:

> Efforts to measure engagement must recognize that current conceptions and institutional explorations of the potential role of engagement are still in an early stage of development on a national level. In terms of academic maturity, this is a very young institutional reform movement that is still taking shape. There's a lot of work going on, and some patterns are emerging, but there is much work and experimentation yet to accomplish before engagement reaches some later stage of consistency and coherence as an academic activity. How can attention to measurement or description help advance this work at this stage? (p. 24).

Potential Value

Higher education as a social institution and provider of services to society is the focus of a great deal of evaluation. Evaluating higher education is complex – multidimensional and often subjective and includes both direct and hidden costs (Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002). Good evaluation procedures should explicitly align with the concepts being evaluated and the purpose – accountability of improvement – of the system of evaluation (Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002). This review of the literature raises important concerns regarding the ability to align the many constructions of engagement, their underlying values and the accompanying expectations of higher education institutions, with the systems developed and the potential uses and misuses of those systems. As observed by the Kellogg Foundation (1999):

> The findings also echo a concern for institutions holding themselves accountable to an outreach mission by understanding what impact their work has on the

> intended publics. This goes beyond the public relations by-product that occurs when an institution disseminates its ‘good works’ and ‘research findings’ and in other ways publicizes its accomplishments. (p. 36)

Given the multifaceted understandings of engagement and potentially conflicting expectations of higher education, an examination of the evaluative measures of engagement is necessary, if challenging. As noted by Holland (2002):

> The important ideas and challenges inherent in the engagement movement also create a sense of urgency and some tension between the call to action and the desire to ensure effectiveness. Our communities and our democratic fabric demand attention. At the same time, institutions must take the time to responsibly and appropriately explore the new programmatic, organizational, financial, and cultural issues that are raised by the new work of engagement. This tension has, so far, seemed to be constructive given both the speed and creativity evident in the expanding national discussion of and experimentation with the role of engagement. This kind of flexibility, experimentation and openness to innovation is essential during exploratory phases of change, if we are to ensure the sustainability of engagement as a component of academic work. This does not mean measurement or description is futile at this point. To the contrary, it is an essential and timely activity. (p. 24)

CHAPTER 3:
METHODOLOGY

Discourse Analysis as a Research Method

> …the meanings of words are not stable and general. Rather, words have multiple and ever changing meanings created for and adapted to specific contexts of use. At the same time, the meanings of words are integrally linked to social and cultural groups in ways that transcend individual minds.
>
> (Gee, 1999. p. 40)

> The evaluation language we choose and use, consciously or unconsciously, necessarily and inherently shapes perceptions, defines "reality," and affects mutual understanding. Whatever issues in evaluation we seek to understand – types of evaluation, methods, relationships with stakeholders, power, use – a full analysis will lead us to consider the words and concepts that undergird our understandings and actions, because language matters.
>
> (Patton, 2000, p. 15)

Problem Statement and Research Questions

This study is framed by the following problem statement: In the higher education discourse there appears to be multiple uses and understandings of the meaning of "engagement," and a subsequent lack of precision in the articulation and communication of engagement expectations among higher education institutions, leadership groups, foundations, governments and the broader public. Claims to evaluate engagement and/or attain engagement rest upon a particular conception of engagement. Without understanding the conception(s) of engagement being used, the outcomes of these evaluations can be misinterpreted and therefore ineffectual or even detrimental in meeting intended goals.

Based upon the theoretical perspective that discourse both reflects and shapes meaning based upon the values and beliefs of a discourse community, and that evaluation draws upon those shared understandings, the questions addressed in this study were:

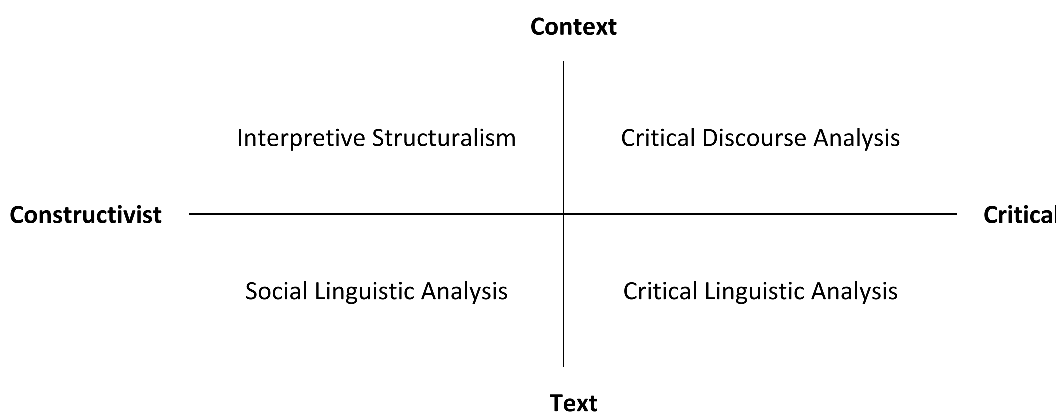
1. How is engagement constructed in the engagement discourse communities – what shared understanding(s) can be implied?
2. From the system of evaluation (processes, review and stated goals) – what assumptions are made about evaluating higher education engagement?
3. Within the evaluation measures themselves – what assumptions are made about the engagement concept being evaluated?
4. If different discourses of engagement occur, can they be tied to other discourses on the roles and purposes of higher education?

Theoretical Frame of Discourse Analysis

To answer the research questions, a discourse of the materials and publications of the engagement evaluation systems was conducted. This qualitative method was selected because of the study of language used in meaning-making (i.e. forming definitions and communicating concepts) and because, as a descriptor of relationships between higher education and multiple communities, engagement has the potential to have "multiple truths." According to Diane Macdonell (1986), studies of discourse have evolved from early studies of language that assumed that words stood for pre-existing ideas that were "represented by words" or were "expressed in words" to theories that meaning itself is "issued from language" (p. 9). In this new understanding of discourse, "the things that make up the social world – including our very identities – appear out of discourse….Without discourse, there is no social reality, and without understanding discourse, we cannot understand our reality, our experiences, or ourselves" (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 2).

There are many definitions and approaches to discourse analysis; Nelson Philips and Cynthia Hardy (2002) describe discourse analysis as a “compelling theoretical frame for observing social reality….an epistemology that explains how we know the social world, as well as a set of methods for studying it” (pp. 2-3). They present a framework for organizing discourse analysis along two key dimensions: “the degree to which the emphasis is on individual texts or on the surrounding context and the degree to which the research focuses on power and ideology as opposed to processes of social construction” (p. 18). Their framework is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Different Approaches to Discourse Analysis



(Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 20)

The approach of this study was the analysis of texts (materials from the engagement evaluation systems) within the broader discourse contexts (as revealed through the literature review) in order to determine the concepts of engagement they constructed and to determine the underlying values they revealed. Thus, the methodological approach needed for the study has aspects of social linguistic analysis, which focuses upon how texts (verbal and visual) organize and construct phenomena, aspects of interpretive structuralism (community/societal benefit perspectives) and aspects of critical discourse analysis (ideological dimensions). The system of analysis developed by James Paul Gee (1999) was selected because of the ability to balance both text and context and critical and constructivist research. Gee (1999) describes his approach as an "analysis of language as it is used to enact activities, perspectives and identities" (pp. 4-5). Gee's focus is on how analysis of discourse reveals social and cultural perspectives and assumptions through an examination of the "building tasks" of Semiotics, World Building, Activity Building, Socio-culturally Situated Identity/Relationship Building, Political Building, and Connection Building of the language to create the "tools of inquiry" of Situated Meanings, Cultural Models, Social Languages and Discourses of the analyst. (See Appendices B and C.)

Validity in Discourse Analysis

Due to the reflexive and interpretive nature of discourse analysis, validity in study results does not conform to traditional measures. Much of the justification for the use of discourse analysis comes from the analyst's explanation of the rationale for the findings. When describing "validity" in the study of meaning, Robin Tolmach Lakoff (2000), notes that linguistic analysis is always open to "the possibility of alternative understandings" (p. 12) and lays claim to the idea of "'good enough' linguistic analysis" (p. 12) and "'good enough' understanding" (p. 13). Phillips and Hardy (2002) state that since all meanings are constructed and contested, and validity itself is a construct, in discourse analysis "traditional" validity is not relevant, instead researchers must aim to ensure that readers "understand why and how the findings are legitimate" (p. 79).

James Paul Gee (1999) notes that validity in discourse analysis cannot reflect a single simple reality because "humans construct their realities" (p. 94) and "discourse analysis, being itself composed in language, is reflexively related to the 'language-plussituation" (p. 94). Gee explains "the analyst interprets his or her data in a certain way and that data so interpreted, in turn, renders the analysis meaningful in certain ways and not in others" (1999, p. 94). According to Gee the validity of discourse analysis findings is based upon the four elements of:

- Convergence – when the findings provide compatible and convincing answers;
- Agreement – when (according to speakers of the discourse) the social languages function within the settings/discourses;
- Coverage – when the analysis can be applied to make sense of related data;
- Linguistic details – when the communicative functions uncovered are linked to the language's linguistic structures.

Although these elements do not guarantee that the analysis is valid, taken together these elements ensure that it is "highly improbable" that the results are not trustworthy (p. 95). Each of these elements is addressed in the methods of discourse analysis section of this chapter and further discussed in the findings.

Methods of Analysis

> Much of the vocabulary of any language, and even parts of grammar, will reflect the culture of its speakers.
>
> (Goddard, 1998, p. 1)

> In evaluation, language serves the instrumental function of communicating the value or worth of social programs.
>
> (Madison, 2000, p. 17)

James Paul Gee's Approach to Discourse Analysis

This study uses the discourse analyst's examination of the language's "building tasks" (Gee, 1999) to reveal taken-for-granted assumptions within discourse communities and to interpret the discourse that supports them. These findings can then be extrapolated across other discourses to make assumptions about other groups or to theorize about the discourses of similar groups. Within Gee's approach, language is "language-in-action," and through the "building tasks" of language, users are continually constructing the following areas of reality:

- The meaning and value of aspects within the material world – speaking and acting creates a setting;
- Activities – the manner of speaking and acting identifies the activity;
- Identities and relationships – speaking and acting creates and aligns with roles;
- Politics (the distribution of social goods) – consideration of the speaking and acting is interpreted based upon the speaker's identity/role;
- Connections – speaking and acting links to other speech(es) and action(s);
- Semiotics – speaking and acting endorse different symbols, systems and forms of knowledge.

(p. 12)

In turn, listeners (and discourse analysts) are using the following building task "cues or clues" to interpret (and co-construct) this reality:

- Semiotic Building – using cues and clues to determine relevant communication and knowledge systems;
- World Building – using cues and clues to determine the setting;
- Activity Building – using cues and clues about the activity being built;
- Socio-culturally Situated Identity and Relationship Building – using cues and clues to identify attitudes, values, knowledge and beliefs and the ways they are interacting;
- Political Building – using cues and clues to construct the relevance of social goods;

- Connection Building – using cues and clues to determine coherence with past and future interaction.

(pp. 85-86)

A matrix of questions for these building tasks can be found in Appendix B.

Using the "cues and clues" above, discourse analysts can "develop several 'tools of inquiry' (ways of looking at the world of talk and interaction) that will help us study how these building tasks are carried out and with what social and political consequences" (p. 12) and serve as "'thinking devices' that guide us to ask certain sorts of questions" (p. 37).

- Situated identities – the social identities and positions enacted and recognized in different settings;
- Situated meanings – a pattern or image of meaning assembled based upon prior experience within a given context,
- Cultural models – a system of explanation of, and reinforcement for, situated meanings within a socially defined group;
- Social languages – the different styles of language used by different identities in different settings;
- Discourses – the integration of language with "non-language stuff" to give the material world certain meaning;
- Conversations – long-running themes that appear in different discourses.

(pp. 12-13 and pp. 42-43)

Discourse Building Tasks and Tools of Inquiry

Taken together, these building tasks and the tools of inquiry that form them, allow researchers to discover implied meanings of the language-in-use and the cultural assumptions within the discourse that supports them. However, as noted by Gee, an actual analysis may only use a selection of the full range of the tools and "usually develop in detail only a small part of the full picture" (p. 92). The purpose of this study was to examine the conceptualizations and discourses in the evaluation of engagement, these areas fall under Gee's "World Building" task for which the analysis examines:

- What are the situated meanings of some of the words and phrases that seem important in the situation?
- What situated meanings and values seem to be attached to places, times, bodies, objects, artifacts, and institutions relevant in this situation?
- What cultural models and networks of models (master models) seem to be at play in connecting and integrating these situated meanings to each other?
- What institutions and/or Discourses are being (re-)produced in this situation and how are they being stabilized or transformed in the act?

The tools of inquiry questions in this building task address situated meanings (how was engagement conceptualized and defined and on what values were these based), cultural models (how was this understanding shared and communicated), and discourse reproduction (how is engagement tied to other discourses and institutions) and these aspects of analysis are discussed below.

According to Gee (1999) situated meanings consist of "an image or pattern that we assemble 'on the spot' as we communicate in a given context, based on our construal of that context and on our past experiences" (p. 80). As such, situated meanings are "a product of the bottom-up action and reflection with which the learner engages and the top-down guidance of the cultural models or theories the learners is developing" (p. 51). Negotiating between these two levels of concreteness and abstraction through communicative social interactions allows users to formulate understandings that incorporate both the application of the accepted name/noun for the concept and its usage within that context (Gee, 1999, pp. 51-52). Users of the evaluation materials must assemble an image of engagement based upon both their existing understanding(s) of engagement and evaluation, and the understanding(s) they are gathering from the materials used in the study. As a tool of inquiry, an examination of situated meanings guides researchers to consider key words that appear important to the analysis and consider the context within which they are placed (p. 53). Gee notes that situated meanings "are always open to revision as we learn more about the context, and we can nearly always learn more about the material, social, cultural, and historical contexts in which the words were uttered or written. However, at some point, what we learn may well cease to change our answers to these sorts of questions in a very substantive way" (p. 54).

The second tool of inquiry, cultural models, are "rooted in the practices of socioculturally defined groups of people" (p. 43) and provide *explanation* for the images and patterns of our situated meanings, "that is, the patterns are required to make sense within some kind of cause-effect model or 'theory' of the domain" (p. 43). When analyzing discourse, Gee states:

> We always assume, until absolutely proven otherwise, that everyone has 'good reasons' and makes 'deep sense' in terms of their own socio-culturally-specific ways of talking, listening (writing, reading), acting, interacting, valuing, believing, and feeling. Of course, we are all members of multiple cultures and Discourses and so the analytical task is often finding which of these, and with what blends, is operative in the communication. The assumption of 'good reasons' and 'deep sense' is foundational to discourse analysis. It is not only a moral principle. It is based, as well, on the viewpoint, amply demonstrated in work in cognitive science, applied linguistics, and in a variety of different approaches to

> discourse analysis, that humans are, as creatures, sense makers par excellence. Within their cultures and Discourses, they move to sense, the way certain plants move to light. (pp. 78-79)

Within the engagement evaluation process, the cultural model tool of inquiry leads to an analysis of the values and beliefs that underlie the activities being measured and the methods of evaluation.

The final tool of inquiry, social languages, Discourses and Conversations, are ways that theoreticians and discourse analysts talk about and construct and construe the world (p. 37). For Gee, in order to create, sustain or transform them, Discourses require "performance, negotiation, and recognition work" (p. 21). Discourses have contestable boundaries and are defined in their relationships with other Discourses and Conversations. For Gee, Conversations are long-running themes: "(historic) conversations between and among Discourses, not just among individual people" (p. 34) that "have been the focus of a variety of different texts and interactions (in different social languages and Discourses) through a significant stretch of time and across an array of institutions" (p. 13).

An examination of Discourses provides the analyst with a map with "moveable boundaries" that "gives you a way to understand what you are seeing in relationship to the full set of Discourses in an institution…or society as a whole" (p. 22). Using this tool of inquiry for this study leads to an examination of how the concept of engagement is recognized within the engagement evaluation communities and how it is sustained in relationship with other Discourses in higher education – both currently and historically.

A full listing of the tools of inquiry example questions can be found in Appendix C.

Typology of Performance Indicator Assumptions

Building upon their scholarship in higher education planning and higher education's economic and social impact, Bob Barnetson and Marc Cutright (2000) studied the role of performance indicators and performance funding in shaping institutional behavior. As a result of their study, they proposed that performance indicators (PIs) function as conceptual technologies shaping "*what* issues we think about and *how* we think about those issues" (p. 277). They contend that both the structure of the evaluation system and the selection of measures have embedded within them assumptions related to the purposes, goals and values of higher education. By examining these embedded assumptions, academics can "understand, refine or critically challenge the implementation of PIs" (p. 278).

Barnetson and Cutright's study lead to their development of a typology of indicator assumptions. This typology includes assumptions of value, definition, goals, causality, comparability and normalcy represented in the evaluation measure (see Tables 9, 10, and 11 in Appendix D). Barnetson and Cutright state that by using this typology trends will emerge that should be "compared to the stated goals of a system. This comparative process may find similarities between stated goals and the trends evident in the PIs used within the system. Comparing stated goals and the structures designed to bring them about may also illuminate unstated goals, how those goals are operationalized and attempts within the system to mitigate or alter goals at the operational level" (2000, pp. 286-287).

As noted in the literature review, all evaluation has stated goals based upon values that are assessed through measures that provide judgments of merit and worth. Although performance indicators “require the explicit statement of goals and objectives” (Borden & Bottrill, 1994, p. 18), all judgments of merit and worth require a conclusion on attainment of an established level of quality (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). Thus, the Barnetson and Cutright study can be useful in the study of the engagement evaluation measures – which have the purpose of determining whether an institution of higher education has attained the goal of engagement. By utilizing the Barnetson and Cutright typology as a framework for Gee’s world building tasks, a matrix of evaluation specific tools of inquiry emerged, which allowed for deeper examination and comparison of the findings of the discourse analysis. The resulting framework is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Engagement Evaluation Tools of Inquiry

Type	Explanation
Value:	The act of evaluation delineates what activity or outcome is valued. That is, the inclusion or exclusion of measures determines what is considered important and unimportant. 1) By their inclusion, what do this system’s evaluation measures indicate is important to those who developed this system? 2) What do the measures excluded in this system indicate is of lesser or no importance to those who developed this system?
Definition:	Evaluation (re)defines concepts by operationalizing them in measurable terms. 1) What situated meaning(s) are the evaluation measures providing by defining the measurable terms? 2) What alternative situated meaning(s) exist? 3) Are there linkages of situational meanings or values evident within the system? 4) Do the measures in the system define situated meanings in terms associated with other discourses in higher education or society?

Type	Explanation
Goal:	Evaluation includes some point of reference by which an outcome is judged. Evaluation assigns goals through both the values embedded in the measure and the points of reference used for the measure. 1) What outcome does this measure expect from an institution (department, individual, etc.) based upon the value and the point of reference embedded within it? 2) Are there connections in the engagement goals assigned by this system and other discourses of higher education?
Causality:	Evaluation assigns responsibility for an activity or outcome by embedding an assumption of causality and further asserts which institutional activities play a determinant role in generating the outcome assessed. 1) Which group(s) does the evaluation measure make responsible for engagement? 2) What assumptions of causality underlies this assignment of responsibility? 3) Is responsibility consistently attributed to one group? 4) Are there connections in the assumptions of causality that underlie the assignment of responsibility?
Comparability:	The use of common evaluation measures assumes institutions are comparable. This may pressure institutions to generate common outcomes or undertake common activities which may or may not be appropriate given institutional circumstances and mission. 1) In what ways does the evaluation measure assume institutions are comparable? 2) How does the evaluation system make comparisons between institutions? 3) Does the system consistently (or inconsistently) recognize or ignore differences between institutions' goals, missions, circumstances and resources?
Normalcy:	Evaluation delineates a range of normative behaviors or outcomes. 1) What assumptions do these evaluation measures make about "normal" behaviors or outcomes? 2) What activities and/or outcomes does this system assume to be normal? 3) What institutions and/or Discourses are being (re-)produced in this situation and how are they being stabilized or transformed in the act?

Parameters of the Study

> If I had to single out a primary function of human language, it would be not one, but the following two: to scaffold the performance of social activities (whether play or work or both) and to scaffold human affiliation within cultures and social groups and institutions.
>
> (Gee, 1999, p. 1)

> Whichever way we look at language, it is hard to ignore that language is essentially powerless on its own. It is people who have the power to use language in various ways; it is people who give discourse its form and make judgments about the status of various texts; and it is the situations in which people have power and are using language to serve some potent purpose that gives language a power that it lacks when it is without such precise contexts.
>
> (Corson, 1995, p. 6)

Discourse Sample

The study limited the selection of evaluation systems to those that use the term "engagement" – other systems exist that measure outwardly comparable terms (outreach, community and public service etc. as noted in the literature review) however, this study's focus was upon what appears to be a particular conceptualization of the role and purpose of higher education. The study was also limited to systems that are multi-institutional (several single-campus evaluation systems exist, and have been used in the discussion chapter for contrast or comparison purposes). Within these parameters, two systems that were most "visible" (cited in the literature, used in marketing materials etc.) were identified:

1) The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT) - Community Engagement Elective Classification
2) The North Central Association of Colleges and Schools: Higher Learning Commission (NCA:HLC) – Criterion Five: Engagement and Service

Source Documents and Materials

The primary source materials used for this study were the published materials relating to the evaluation of institutional engagement disseminated by the selected agencies. These include the evaluation materials themselves (rubrics/matrices/measures/instruments), the supporting materials (instructions and/or guidance given to institutions), and a selection of associated materials (papers/articles and presentations regarding the systems and press releases or other publicity about the systems). Surrounding discourses were explored as an integral part of the literature review. All of this information is in the public domain.

The primary source for the NCA:HLC data for this study is the *NCA:HLC Handbook for Accreditation*. Chapter three of the Handbook is "The Criteria for Accreditation." The analysis focused on pages 3.2-16 through 3.2-19 (see Appendix E), which relate to Criterion Five: Engagement and Service. This handbook is used by institutions when preparing their institutional self-study for the accreditation review. The primary source for the CFAT data was the Elective Classification: Community Engagement 2008 Documentation Framework and the resources for applicants materials (sent as webpage links in the invitation to apply email from CFAT) (See Appendix F).

Data Analysis

An examination of the literature identified conceptualizations of higher education's role in serving the public good and revealed distinct themes for the shared understandings within the discourses of *engagement*. Using these themes as a framework, the systems and measures of engagement were analyzed using James Paul Gee's (1999) discourse analysis tools and Bob Barnetson and Marc Cutright's (2000) determination questions for performance indicator assumptions. Both of these methods require that the analyst examine the language and format of the materials, and the context of the material as a whole, to gain a richer understanding of the discursive environment. Gee's (1999) building task and tools of inquiry questions and Barnetson and Cutright's (2000) are listed in the appendices.

Limitations

The potential limitation of the trustworthiness of the findings of this qualitative research study comes from the exclusive use of published materials. By using written texts, many of which have no attributed individual author(s), there is no opportunity for member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, the use of published and widely disseminated materials does allow an analysis of a discourse that impacts a broad group in a more routinized and standardized manner – i.e. there is a reduced likelihood of individually-mediated subjective changes in transmission and reception. In effect, the researcher has the same level of accessibility to the information as all engagement evaluation applicants and/or interested publics. Future research could allow presentation of the findings to members of the engagement discourse communities studied, specifically developers and evaluators of the two systems to construct further understanding of the situated meanings of engagement for these influential actors within the discourse.

Both a weakness and a strength of this study is the feedback of the dissertation committee and additional reviewers. All are practitioners and researchers within higher education and areas of expertise include qualitative research (including discourse analysis), higher education policy, higher education evaluation, and includes experience with areas usually linked to engaged higher education (public scholarship, policy analysis etc.). While this reviewer expertise strengthens the study's trustworthiness in the area of agreement – "according to speakers of the discourse the social languages function within the settings/discourses" (Gee, 1999, p. 95) – it may also limit the ability of the reviewers to approach the work critically. In effect, as members of the discourse community being studied they will most probably share the same underlying values and assumptions that this study attempts to make explicit.

A related factor is that the dissertation is, in essence, an artifact of a lengthy and deep-rooted tradition within higher education and is constrained by accepted methods, processes and conventions. The dissertation process itself has underlying assumptions and values and the language and presentation used foregrounds some discourses at the expense of others. The peer review process, for example, both in the literature reviewed and the dissertation created, imposes limits on the authority of voices and standardizes the discourse.

Finally, and probably most importantly, in the particular case of the study of engagement, the voices of the public and others whom higher education engages ***with*** would lend rich depth about the breadth of conceptions of engagement. However, sources from these discourses (mostly) free of higher education discourse biases is not readily available and perhaps would not even be possible. It should also be noted that the audience for most of the literature on higher education service is for higher education researchers and most often describes the benefits to the higher education community (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000). Just as with the evaluation systems examined in the study, care must be taken to ensure that the limits of our own discourses are considered:

> There is no guarantee, inclusive approaches or not, that we evaluators will understand what these…groups say or mean nor that we are competent or self-conscious enough to decipher the implicit and explicit measures we gather. Only part of the key lies in listening…another key may lie in understanding the language of the group or program people we intend to impact. (Hopson, Lucas, & Petersen, 2000, p. 30)

CHAPTER 4:
ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS: SYSTEMS

The Discursive Context

> Of this we may be certain: The person who dares to evaluate anything in higher education invites evaluation.
>
> (Bogue & Hall, 2003, p. 55)

> The presence of sound evaluation does not necessarily guarantee high quality in services or that those in authority will heed the lessons of evaluation and take needed corrective actions. Evaluations provide only one of the ingredients needed for quality assurance and improvement.
>
> (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007, p. 5)

History of the Organizations

Both the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT) and the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools: Higher Learning Commission (NCA:HLC) were founded at the start of the 20^{th} Century during a period described by Hugh Hawkins (1992) as one marked by *associationalism*:

> It is too little recognized that American colleges and universities, near the turn of the century, themselves launched a program of coordination through various institutional associations which lead to what, in the American idiom, may be called a voluntary system. Educators chose to sacrifice a measure of institutional autonomy to gain the benefits of cooperation. (p. xi)

Hawkins notes that these groups recognized that more leadership, organization and standardization was necessary (in the face of widely-varying definitions and quality of higher education, over-proliferation of institutions, and fraud and corruption by special interest groups), however, they also wished to limit control by the Federal government. By forming membership associations, higher education institutions could perform an intermediary role, limiting governmental efforts to seek control over institutions while still accepting the much-needed financial support the government was providing. It was during this period that the:

> …regional associations strengthened their work in accrediting secondary schools and began accrediting colleges. Professional associations began to declare what was acceptable in schools that trained physicians, engineers and lawyers. A new private foundation used its pension program to gain leverage in regularizing the nation's institutions of higher education. (Hawkins, 1992, p. 78)

Carnegie Foundation Background

The new private foundation gaining "leverage in regularizing the nation's institutions of higher education" was the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT):

> Founded by Andrew Carnegie in 1905 and chartered in 1906 by an Act of Congress, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is an independent policy and research center whose charge is 'to do and perform all things necessary to encourage, uphold, and dignify the profession of the teacher.'… In our first several decades, influential Foundation achievements included the landmark "Flexner Report" on medical education, the development of the Graduate Record Examination, the founding of the Educational Testing Service, and the creation of the Teachers Insurance Annuity Association of America (TIAA-CREF). (www.carnegiefoundation.org/about/)

The founding purpose for the Foundation was the establishment of a pension plan for higher education faculty (who often left the low-paid teaching field for other occupations in order to be able to afford retirement). Since Carnegie's gift specified "pensions for teachers in 'higher educational institutions,'" one of the first orders of business was to establish definitions and standards to determine eligible institutions of higher education. The resulting list along with other CFAT sponsored projects – including reports on standards in medical and engineering education and the development of educational testing programs – made the Foundation one of the most influential associations in the academic world in the early part of the 20th Century (Hawkins, 1992, p. 108).

CFAT's later work in higher education standards lead to the creation of the Carnegie Classification System, which was designed to allow researchers to investigate the major issues facing U.S. higher education by grouping institutions along similar, and therefore comparable, functional classifications. Although intended to respect the diversity of institutions, the perceived prestige of the research-type institutions led to institutional aspirations of "moving up" within the classifications and created a homogenizing effect within higher education (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 52). Recognizing the need for systems that better capture institutional diversity, the Foundation has recently moved to create elective, special-purpose classifications. Aligning with the Foundation's recent work focused on moral, civic and political education this effort has lead to the creation of a classification for institutions with special commitments in the area of community engagement (McCormick & Zhao, 2005). The advisory panel for the community engagement classification included a number of published scholars in the field of higher education and in particular the fields of service learning (Holland, Saltmarsh, Ehrlich) and the scholarship of engagement (Driscoll, Sandmann). A full listing of the members is included in Appendix G.

Higher Learning Commission Background

The Higher Learning Commission is part of the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. The Association was founded in 1895 and is a membership organization for educational institutions, which pay annual membership fees. The Association is one of six regional institutional accrediting associations in the United States. Unlike discipline-specific accrediting agencies, the NCA:HLC does not accredit individual programs. The NCA:HLC accredits educational institutions in the nineteen-state North Central region which includes Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Nebraska, New Mexico, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Wisconsin, West Virginia, and Wyoming. The Higher Learning Commission is recognized by the U.S. Department of Education and the Council on Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) (HLC Handbook, 2004).

In the 1930s the NCA was instrumental in reforming the "naively numerical criteria" and conformity by "rigid officials" created during the preceding decades of over-reliance on scientific measures and standardization and under the direction of NCA a shift was made in accreditation "toward institutional self-appraisal and qualitative considerations" (Hawkins, 1992, p. 95). In the intervening years the NCA:HLC has tried to "reflect and to encourage progress in higher education" through revisiting "its criteria and processes regularly" (HLC Handbook, 2004, p. 1.1-3-1.1-4). In 2001-2004 the NCA:HLC launched a project: *Restructuring Expectations: Accreditation 2004*, revising their accreditation criteria to align with their new mission – "Serving the common good by assuring and advancing the quality of higher learning." To explore how accreditation can "challenge higher learning organizations to connect effectively with the communities they serve" (HLC Report, 2002, p. 2) a study team was formed. The team included two upper-level NCA:HLC administrators, three university presidents, a university vice chancellor and a director of an educational association (a full listing of the members is included in Appendix G). As a result of the project, a new criterion – engagement and service – was added.

Building Task Analysis

> There is a broad range of theoretical approaches within the interpretive tradition, with varying ontological and epistemological positions. However a key unifying factor is their focus on achieving a *meaningful understanding* of the actors frame of reference.
>
> (Heracleous, 2004, p. 175)

> As illustrated by … similar efforts, the major investment of time and resources required to create measurement strategies are usually meant to serve two broad common purposes: enhancing understanding among internal and external stakeholders, and informing or benchmarking internal planning/evaluation.
>
> (Holland, 2001, p. 23)

Activity Building

When analyzing discourse, Gee (1999) notes the need to examine the activity that is going on in the situation that produces the discourse. For those seeking NCA:HLC membership it is the process of accreditation. The accreditation process is one of delineating expectations, demonstrating measures and then evaluating evidence. An institution achieves and maintains accredited status with the Commission through the evaluation processes outlined in the *Handbook for Accreditation*. Under the Program to Evaluate and Advance Quality (PEAQ) there is a five-step comprehensive evaluation process to determine continued accredited status requiring: a two-year self-study process and report, a site visit by an evaluation team of consultant-evaluators and report, a review by a Readers Panel or Review Committee, review by the Institutional Actions Council, and validation by the NCA:HLC Board of Trustees. Institutions apply for re-accreditation every ten years.

The accreditation process is both time and resource intensive. Most institutions establish committees that meet regularly during the two-year self-study process. Applicants for NCA:HLC accreditation have several resources for guidance. The NCA:HLC publishes a number of materials including a *Handbook for Accreditation* and *Collection of Papers on Self-Study and Institutional Improvement*. The Commission hosts an annual conference with presentations, workshops and a self-study fair where attendees can meet with representatives of institutions that have recently completed the process.

To apply for the CFAT Community Engagement Elective Classification in 2008, in response to a call for participation, institutions submitted an email letter of intent at the start of the year. If accepted to submit an application, institutions received an email containing an Adobe PDF version of the anticipated web-based documentation framework, a partnership grid (in an Excel spreadsheet format), instructions for completion of the forms and a Word document listing resources for applicants. According to Amy Driscoll, senior scholar at CFAT, the purpose of the process was:

> To engage colleges and universities in a substantive process of inquiry, reflection, and self-assessment, the framework has two major sections: Foundational Indicators and Categories of Engagement. Applicants were asked first to document a set of Foundational Indicators in two categories: “Institutional Identity and Culture” and “Institutional Commitment.” These included both

> required and optional documentation. For example, one requirement of "Institutional Identity and Culture" was that "the institution indicates that community engagement is a priority in its mission" and provides relevant quotations from mission statements to demonstrate that priority, while the "Institutional Commitment" category required documentation regarding budget, infrastructure, strategic planning, and faculty-development efforts to support community engagement. (2008, p. 39)

The deadline for completion of the 2008 Framework was September 1st, and the announcement listing institutions that were successfully classified was made on December 18th. Of the 217 institutions that indicated an interest in applying, 147 completed the application, and of these 120 were successfully placed in the Community Engagement classification (www.carnegiefoundation.org).

The Word document listing of resources for applicants included links to materials developed by Campus Compact, Portland State University's Partnership Forum, and Community-Campus Partnerships for Health. No materials original to the classification were provided. Several service learning and engagement-focused organizations offered sessions on the classification during their annual conferences including the annual and regional conferences for Campus Compact and the National Outreach Scholarship Conference.

In comparing the applicant support for the two systems, the differences in availability of materials and information may reflect the fact that the CFAT system is in the early stages of development and operation. Accreditation as an institutionalized activity and a process has a long history in higher education. NCA:HLC is an established membership organization with regular meetings and therefore a venue and a source of revenue to cover the expenses of informational sessions on their Engagement and Service criterion. In comparison, CFAT does not have this organizational structure within which to offer support sessions. In addition, when the CFAT system was established, it was not known how many institutions would be interested in seeking this classification (McCormick & Zhao, 2005) and therefore possibly difficult to predict the scope of interest or the needs of applicants. As the CFAT system matures and as the other elective classifications are developed (distance education and undergraduate education have been proposed), a more formal system may develop. A summary of the two systems is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Summary Comparison of CFAT and NCA:HLC Evaluation Processes and Materials

	CFAT	NCA:HLC
Method	Documentation Framework and Partnership Grid	Self Study Portfolio and Evaluation Team Site Visit
Description of Engagement Given/Assessed	Community Engagement describes the collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities (local, regional/state, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity	As called for by its mission, the organization identifies its constituencies and serves them in ways both value
Instrument	Quantitative and qualitative measures	Narrative
Primary Materials	Resource materials: previously published reports and conference proceedings	Handbook
Associated Materials	Articles and other association conference presentations	NCA:HLC conferences, papers and example portfolios

Semiotics

Within this area, analysis focuses upon sign systems, systems of knowledge and social languages (Gee, 1999). In the NCA:HLC accreditation process, the *Handbook for Accreditation* is presented as the principal guide, explaining the rationale for the criteria and giving examples of evidence that would meet the criteria. In the *Handbook*, the main sign system is the written text; it is presented in a style or format that resembles textbooks – a system of knowledge with which the academic administration audience would be very familiar. Each page includes headers and footers that contain the handbook title, version, author (NCA:HLC), chapter title and number, section number and page number – all of which orient the reader to exact location within the lengthy document. This format provides ease of use for those referring to different sections and/or criteria while developing a self study. The information on the pages is clearly presented and graphical cues including ruled lines, bulleted lists, and levels of heading make finding information easy (Riordan, 2005). In addition, the "leaf motif" logo that is used on all NCA:HLC publications is included on many pages. Several of these motifs are on the color cover of the handbook, giving the connotation of a professional, established organization.

The social language of the handbook is one that would be familiar to those in academic administration. Phrases used include: "…learns from the constituents served…," "…practices periodic environmental scanning…," "…gives evidence of building effective bridges among diverse communities…," and "…shared educational, economic, and social goals" (p. 3.1-6). These phrases provide "cues and clues" Gee (1999) as to the systems of knowledge from which the *Handbook* developers expect the readers/users to draw. These phrases indicate that the *Handbook* users would be those with a function related to working with external constituents and at a level of administration that would be making strategic decisions as to the effectiveness of those relationships. (Sample pages are presented in Appendix E.)

In contrast, while materials suggested as resources for CFAT applicants are again text-based, the documents are not uniform in media format or presentation. The Campus Compact (CC) website lists responses from successful CFAT applicant institutions that are CC members – in 2008 104 of the 120 (87%) and in 2006 68 of the 76 (89%) successful institutions were CC members. The entries can be searched and/or listed by institution or question response. The CC print resources listed *Assessing Service-Learning and Civic Engagement: Principles and Techniques* and *The Community's College: Indicators of Engagement* can be purchased from this site. The *Assessing* monograph was developed by Sherril Gelmon, Barbara Holland, Amy Driscoll, Amy Spring, and Seanna Kerrigan to provide program assessment models and tools and includes guidance and instruments for use in this area. (It should be noted that Holland and Driscoll are CFAT Classification advisory panel members.) The format is similar to a research report: clearly laid out sections and tables with numerous citations – a system of knowledge familiar to scholars.

The other materials suggested include Portland State University's *Guide to Reciprocal Community-Campus Partnerships*, a brief (8-page) summary of proceedings from a 3-day forum on partnerships. This document consists mostly of bulleted lists of essential components and best practices, again with scholarly references. The Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (CCPH) *Achieving the Promise of Authentic Community-Higher Education Partnerships: Community Partners Speak Out* report from the 2006 CCPH and Kellogg Foundation sponsored Wingspread Summit is a PDF of a glossy full-color publication. This document has a very professional-looking graphic presentation – containing full color photos and a "stick figure" motif throughout. The text is presented in a format similar to corporate public relations reports with color headers and sidebars that include ample quotes from participants (Riordan, 2005).

The final resource is the CCPH *Community-Engaged Scholarship Toolkit*, a web-based collection of materials, tools and sample promotion and tenure portfolios highlighting community engaged scholarship. This format would be most familiar to professionals who have experience with electronic portfolios or other documentation systems (the health professions). Again, scholarly citations and references are used throughout the toolkit.

The social languages used in the CFAT resource materials are predominantly those of higher education scholars. Phrases used include: "… provide health professional faculty with a set of tools to carefully plan and document their community-engaged scholarship and produce strong portfolios for promotion and tenure" (CCPH *Toolkit*), "studies show that an institutional commitment to engagement is strongly linked to the inclusion of community-based learning experiences in an institution's curricula" (CC *Assessing*) and "this guide represents an initial synthesis of existing literature on community-campus partnerships" (PSU *Partnerships*). Many of these materials are written in an "academic social language," particularly the use of the passive voice and an absence of agency, which distances the author from the activities being reported upon (Gee, 1999; Prior, 2003). The use of this social language implies a connection to a larger field of scholarship and defers to, and draws upon that discipline’s system of knowledge (Gee, 1999; Germano, 2005; Prior, 2003).

The CCPH/Kellogg report has a slightly different social language. Many of the headers in the document are formatted as questions (what is the current reality of community-higher education partnerships?) or observations (there is a ‘community engagement buzz’ in higher education and funding circles, including a plethora of policy statements and organizations working in this arena) or challenges (it is difficult to document and measure ways in which community-higher education partnerships build social capital). It should be noted that the placement of the term “community” first in the “community-higher education” descriptor is consistent in the document. Through the language used in the text, the authors appear to enact an identity (Gee, 1999) as partners in dialogue with the (predominately) community representative participants of the summit.

The differences in the semiotics of the two systems tie back to the activity taking place – accreditation and voluntary classification – and the audiences for each. Accreditation is largely a system designed to ensure – and report upon – quality control within systems of higher education (Bloland, 2001). Those that would be responsible for this activity would be academic administrators and policy makers and thus, the materials would be designed to meet their needs and systems of knowledge. For the CFAT classification the audience is (currently) less defined. The traditional classification system was designed to meet the needs of higher education researchers, but over time was used by broader groups including the popular media (McCormick, 2008). The elective classification information will probably be used by all the groups currently using the traditional classification information and thus the information needs to be understandable to these groups. Specifically, however, the support materials for the engagement classification need to link to the systems of knowledge of the people preparing the application to CFAT. The use of the service learning scholarship and community partnership materials indicates that the expectation is that those applying for the classification would be scholars, or familiar with published scholarship, and familiar with the structures of faculty life (i.e. promotion and tenure).

Political Building

In many social situations, there are social goods (status, power, gender, race, class, etc.) at stake, and thus Gee (1999) advises identifying these goods when analyzing discourse. Although accreditation is voluntary, there are many benefits of accreditation (and costs of not having accreditation) in the U.S. higher education marketplace, making accreditation a *de facto* necessary commodity. As noted by Judith Eaton:

> Accredited status is valued by institutions as a seal of approval from their higher education colleagues. It also aids students in the transfer of credits from one institution to another. The availability of federal funds to students and institutions is contingent on accredited status, and employers rely on it when they make decisions to provide tuition reimbursement for employees seeking education for career advancement. (2001, p. 38)

The influence of accreditation on the access to social goods from other institutions also adds to the political impact of accreditation:

> Issues of accrediting gained urgency in part because more and more government agencies were accepting the judgments of accrediting bodies. Some legislation,

> such as the GI Bill, linked accredited lists to eligibility for federal aid. Civil service positions and state licensing often required graduation from an ‘accredited’ institution. (Hawkins, 1992, p. 212)

Thus, for accreditation, the social goods at stake are considerable. It is therefore not surprising that the institutional investments made in obtaining and maintaining accreditation are significant. Institutions pay yearly NCA:HLC membership dues based upon student enrollment and campus sites. The two-year self-study process absorbs a large number of personnel hours. For the site visits, institutions pay the evaluation team’s costs, which average $20-25,000.

The NCA:HLC *Handbook* does not specifically mention the benefits of accreditation to an institution; references to accreditation are more focused on the process and on the expectations (roles and responsibilities) of an institution affiliated with the NCA:HLC. Examples of NCA:HLC references to accreditation include, “…accreditation has two fundamental purposes: quality assurance and institutional and program improvement,” and [accreditation is] “intended to create an environment of self-regulation, to honor the distinctiveness of each affiliated organization, and to assure that the public is well-served…,” “all affiliated organizations voluntarily agree to meet Obligations of Affiliation,” and “the Commission recognizes that its work serves many different constituencies.”

However, in the specific area of engagement and service the Commission does reference the changing political and social climate facing higher education:

> Although some contemporary political thinking might hold that higher education is a private rather than a public good, the Commission continues to believe that

> higher education is an asset of incalculable worth to society as well as to individuals. Whether students attend public, private, or proprietary colleges and universities, they move into a society that expects to benefit from the learning achieved, from the knowledge created, and from the values of social responsibility inculcated. If colleges and universities have erred in the past half century, it has been in marginalizing the importance of their engagement in serving the common good. (HLC Handbook, 2004, p. 3.2-16)

The social goods relating to the established CFAT classification system are also significant:

> Foundations sometimes use the classification as an eligibility criterion for grant programs; some states use the classification (or a derivative system) in their funding formulas; and in its annual college rankings, *U.S. News and World Report* bases its comparison groups on categories of the classification. With each of these, an institution can have a very tangible interest in maintaining or changing its classification, and the stakes are very high. (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 55)

There are also social benefits that are less direct. As noted by McCormick (2008), although many classifications are "explicitly organized around perceived value or quality" the Carnegie Classification, while disavowing any intent to rank, uses measures that "are widely believed, rightly or wrongly, to correlate with quality or prestige" (p. 210). Because the Carnegie system has become the dominant classification system in higher education, CFAT has been placed "in a very uncomfortable position, torn between the desires to preserve the integrity of its classification and to avoid directly harming institutions" (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 55).

The new Community Engagement Elective Classification is part of a series of innovations designed to better represent the diversity and complexity of higher education. CFAT clearly states that these classifications are not designed to be evaluative or ranking systems:

> Because of their voluntary nature, elective classifications do not represent a comprehensive national assessment: an institution's absence from the Community Engagement classification should not be interpreted as reflecting a judgment about the institution's commitment to its community.
>
> (www.carnegiefoundation.org)

Due to the community-engagement classification’s association with, and the accepted (mis)understandings of, the older system it is likely that the same cultural models and their underlying perceptions of value and prestige will attach to the new classification. Given that over two hundred institutions have applied for CFAT classification despite the time and resource commitments necessary (there is no monetary application fee), it would appear that this classification has perceived value. This perception of value is perhaps demonstrated by James J. Zuiches, North Carolina State University’s vice chancellor for Extension, Engagement, and Economic Development, in his summation of the process. In his 2008 *Change* article, appropriately entitled *Attaining Carnegies’ Community-Engagement Classification* he opens with the statement:

> Now that the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching has designated a first round of institutions that meet its criteria for engagement with their communities, those of us at North Carolina State University involved with *winning* the classification for the institution offer our reflections on the process

> for other colleges and universities preparing similar applications.(p. 42) [Emphasis added]

For both systems, accomplishment of engagement accreditation or classification is associated with the legitimizing rationale concepts, discussed in the literature review, for higher education as a public good and therefore worthy of public support. As noted by John Dowling and Jeffrey Pfeffer (2007), “organizations seek to establish congruence between the social values associated with or implied by their activities and the norms of acceptable behavior in the larger social systems of which they are a part” (p. 122). Thus, the systems provide a method (predicated upon the cultural models of the systems) for demonstrating congruence with the larger social system, and for accessing the associated social and political goods.

Socio-culturally Situated Identity/Relationship Building

In this area of analysis, Gee (1999) notes the importance of determining the relationships and identities of those in the discourse process. Given the value of accreditation and of attaining a particular Carnegie Classification described above, it would appear that both NCA:HLC and CFAT are in a position of power over the institutions seeking accreditation/classification. However, both institutions are intermediary institutions, reliant upon the higher education institutions they serve.

NCA:HLC is a membership organization – dependent upon the revenue from the affiliated member institutions. This relationship does lead to public questions of the impartiality of the process. In *Taking Responsibility for Student Learning: The Role of Accreditation* Jon Wergin notes this skepticism when he states, “accreditation is vulnerable to claims that ‘peer review’ is little more than an attempt by insiders to keep the academy removed from public scrutiny” (2005, p. 38).

In the NCA:HLC handbook the Commission appears to present itself as a champion of all interested parties. This is most clearly stated in the section on commission mission:

> The Commission’s new mission statement is succinct, yet directive. Serving the common good by assuring and advancing the quality of higher learning. These few words signal important priorities (“serving the common good” instead of “serving the membership,” for example) while restating the two long-standing purposes of accreditation (assuring quality and stimulating improvement). The use of higher learning in both the mission statement and the organization’s name recognizes the need to respond to rapidly evolving structures – institutional and extrainstitutional – through which students achieve the higher learning once available only in colleges and universities. (p. 1.1-2)

However, the handbook also reflects the balance with the influence of government agencies:

> … being recognized by the U.S. Department of Education (USDE) as a “gatekeeper” agency, the Commission agrees to fulfill specific federally defined responsibilities within the accreditation processes. ‘The Triad’ is the term used to describe the close working relationships between the states, the federal government, and regional accreditation. The Commission values its role in the Triad and through its policies and practices seeks to maintain the vitality of this unique exercise in private-public collaboration. (p. 8.1-1)

and the public:

> Demands for greater public disclosure of information about Commission processes in general, and about individual affiliated organizations in particular, have increased in recent years….The Commission is responding to these demands in several significant ways…. It is increasing its efforts to communicate, in a timely and useful manner…. The Commission's Web site offers the public easier access to current information…. the Commission has strengthened its expectations about public disclosure practices on the part of affiliated organizations…. Issues of public information and public disclosure will continue to be on the Commission's agenda in the foreseeable future, both because the Commission chooses to become more transparent to the public and because federal policy will undoubtedly require it. (p. 8.3-1)

The 1905 founding charge for CFAT was 'to do and perform all things necessary to encourage, uphold, and dignify the profession of the teacher." The Foundation's first President Henry S. Pritchett expanded upon this role to include the standardization of education in order to improve the perception of quality (Shulman, 2005, p. 24). Drawing upon limited resources, CFAT has leveraged its impact by sponsoring reports by scholars in the field of education to meet both public and government needs (Lagemann, 1983). Under Clark Kerr's direction (1967-1973) the CFAT funded Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, followed by the Carnegie Council on Higher Education, published over 37 policy reports and 137 sponsored research and technical reports. These reports did "not speak for the higher education community, 'but rather about higher education and its needs and contributions'" (Douglass, 2005, p. 32).

Through these processes and activities CFAT has created an identity as experts in the field of education seeking to link people and resources in order to foster change:

> The improvement of teaching and learning is central to all of the Foundation's work. As we bring together researchers, teachers, policymakers and members of organizations with common interests in education, we work to invent new knowledge and to develop tools and ideas that allow us to foster positive change and enhanced learning in our nation's schools. (www.carnegiefoundation.org)

Recent work however, appears to be shifting the relationship the foundation has with society – from dispassionate observer/researcher to a more active role: "we aim for balance, too, between our role as a source of independent scholarship and the need to take stands – to go beyond description to prescription and to take advantage of Carnegie's considerable legacy of moral authority" (Shulman, 2005, p. 28). This may be reflected in the role CFAT is now seeking to assume: classifying institutions as "engaged."

Connection Building

For Gee (1999), discourses have histories and relationships, from which they derive their ability to "make sense" through causal relationships or themes (p. 134). Across large stretches of discourse, over a long period of time, or across an array of institutions, these themes become Conversations. The two engagement evaluation systems share some themes with each other and with other discourses. A recurring theme for both is that of higher education serving the collective public good. As noted in the literature review, for many, this discourse has roots in founding of the nation's institutions of higher education. While the theme of serving the public is not surprising (given the engagement focus of the evaluation), it is noteworthy that the discourses differ in the focus of how the public good is met. The CFAT materials make use of service learning which link the campus and community through community service and academics, and the NCA:HLC materials describe valued collaborations with constituents.

The systems also show evidence of other discourses that they do not share. For the CFAT there is the use of an academic social language and references to previous scholarly work. This pattern of discourse links the engagement evaluation community to disciplinary roots and provides the authority of previous scholars in the field (Bazerman, 1988; Prior, 2003). For the NCA:HLC discourse there is use of a business or managerial social language, linking to business discourses of efficiency and effectiveness of the processes of the member institutions. Both systems naturally link to discourses of evaluation. However, the NCA:HLC focus is upon processes, which links to themes of formative evaluation for self-assessment and improvement. In contrast, the CFAT measures (explained in more detail in the next chapter) include a number of outcome measures, indicating a theme of summative evaluation for accountability or comparability.

CHAPTER 5:
ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS: MEASURES

Conceptions of Engagement

> Efforts to measure engagement must recognize that current conceptions and institutional explorations of the potential role of engagement are still in an early stage of development on a national level. In terms of academic maturity, this is a very young institutional reform movement that is still taking shape. There's a lot of work going on, and some patterns are emerging, but there is much work and experimentation yet to accomplish before engagement reaches some later stage of consistency and coherence as an academic activity. How can attention to measurement or description help advance this work at this stage?
>
> (Holland, 2001, p. 24)

> Words, communities and even institutions can be understood as processes in flux that evolve over time. While we each harbor our private understandings of the terminology in the service-learning field, all words derive their existence, meaning and power by being shared with others. The power of these concepts grows and becomes more valuable as people use these words more frequently, even as their meanings are contested, fluid entities.
>
> (Donahue, Sandy & Ikeda, in press)

World Building

In this area of analysis, the situated meaning – the meaning resulting from the inter-play of individual experience and cultural models – of the key words or phrases is examined. Many words can be interpreted differently depending on their context and the interpreter's past experience (Gee, 1999) and this study's literature review revealed some of the multiple understandings of the term "engagement" in different discourse communities. The NCA:HLC accredits a variety of institutions, each with a different mission, and maintains that they to do so while respecting the diversity of those institutions:

> It is axiomatic to claim that the strength and vitality of higher education in the United States is directly related to the extraordinary diversity of organizations providing that education. Since the early 1930s, accreditation of colleges and universities within the North Central region has respected the importance of institutional diversity by applying broadly stated standards that can be interpreted and applied to fit specific contexts. Fundamental to the Commission's capacity to make organization-specific judgments is the clarity of the [membership-seeking] organization's stated mission. (HLC Handbook, 2004, 3.2-1)

The CFAT Classification is also premised upon the need to respect the diversity of institutions of higher education:

> Over the last few years, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching has engaged in a comprehensive re-examination of its traditional classification system. The redesign stemmed from a concern about the inadequacy of the classification for representing institutional similarities and differences and its insensitivity to the evolution of higher education. (Driscoll, 2008, p. 39)

For both systems the situated meaning of engagement must be flexible enough to meet the needs of all these institutions but still specific enough to provide a common basis of understanding to members.

NCA:HLC Conceptions of Engagement

The NCA:HLC *Handbook* begins the section for Criterion Five: Engagement and Service with the following:

> This Criterion can too readily be understood in the functional context of many organizations of higher learning: It must be about the extension program or the continuing education wing or the customized training department. It is, to be sure, about these components, but the Commission's interest in engagement is much broader. Attention to engagement is woven throughout these Criteria, for it constitutes a basic understanding that an organization affiliated with the Commission cares deeply about how its work intersects with the lives of individuals on and off campus and with local, national, and global organizations. The Commission's interest is directly related to its mission: "serving the common good by assuring and advancing the quality of higher learning." (p. 3.2-16)

The Criterion refers to engagement and service separately. Throughout the section engagement is situated as the involvement of the institution with external constituencies. The word "engagement" or a synonym (commitment, connection, collaboration, involvement, participation, etc.) is used in each of the four core components comprising the criterion and is used to link the institution to civic and business leaders, external communities, other institutions of education, and licensed professionals. This appears to indicate that for this criterion, the NCA:HLC definition of engagement situates engagement as linkages to serve others outside the institution. This discourse links to conceptions of higher education's role in serving the need for workforce development and local, regional and national economic development as noted in the introduction (Dubb, 2007; Kezar, 2004; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997).

However, reflecting the NCA:HLC's need to ensure institutional stability of members, the *Handbook* cautions:

> Effective engagement also requires careful consideration of whether and how the organization can – or should – meet all the expectations. The hard fact is that many organizations lack the capacity to respond to every educational need around them. Not every need, therefore, is automatically an opportunity to be grasped. There are times that organizational mission alone precludes a positive response. More often, the organization needs to be clear about whether it can fulfill the need or should offer to find other organizations better equipped to respond. Usually it is not hard for an organization that is eager to serve to identify unmet educational needs. But the organization should be clear about whether those needs come from its clearly identified constituency and, if so, whether the organization can reasonably meet them. (3.2-16)

When using the term "service," the *Handbook* situates service by the institution as assisting another, usually from a position of strength, in phrases that include: "…demonstrates attention to the diversity of the constituencies it serves…," "…resources…support effective programs of engagement and service…," and " …service programs…are well-received by the communities served" (p. 3.1-6). This conception of service as charity is common in the Judeo-Christian tradition (Donahue, Sandy, & Ikeda, in press; Taylor, 2004). Understandings based upon this cultural model will shape the engagement evaluation measures chosen. Situating higher education's engagement as "charitable" service (a gift) will lead to measures that focus upon resource inputs from the institutions of higher education (Frank, 2008, p. 502).

When comparing NCA:HLC's use of terms related to engagement and service, service appears to be subsumed under engagement, often merely as evidence of engagement, as revealed in the following statements "…services considered by all to be valuable and beneficial constitute evidence of effective engagement…" (p. 3.2-16) and "as important and common as they may be, blood drives, participation in the United Way, and voter registration programs are evidence of service, but may lack the sense of engagement" (p. 3.2-19). Thus, for the NCA:HLC system, engagement is expressed as something broader than, and qualitatively different from, service.

CFAT Conceptions of Engagement

When orienting readers to the Community Engagement Elective Classification the Foundation uses the following definitional statements for engagement:

> Community Engagement describes the collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities (local, regional/state, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity.
>
> The classification includes three categories:
>
> Curricular Engagement includes institutions where teaching, learning and scholarship engage faculty, students, and community in mutually beneficial and respectful collaboration. Their interactions address community-identified needs, deepen students' civic and academic learning, enhance community well-being, and enrich the scholarship of the institution.

> Outreach & Partnerships includes institutions that provided compelling evidence of one or both of two approaches to community engagement. Outreach focuses on the application and provision of institutional resources for community use with benefits to both campus and community. Partnerships focuses on collaborative interactions with community and related scholarship for the mutually beneficial exchange, exploration, and application of knowledge, information, and resources (research, capacity building, economic development, etc.).
>
> Curricular Engagement and Outreach & Partnerships includes institutions with substantial commitments in both areas described above.
>
> (www.carnegiefoundation.org)

Thus, CFAT situates curricular engagement (knowledge-based collaboration), outreach (provision of resources) and partnerships (reciprocal collaboration) as approaches to community engagement. By establishing curricular engagement as a separate category from outreach and partnerships, CFAT also indicates that these are qualitatively different aspects of institutional engagement that should be assessed separately. (These assessment conceptions are examined in the measures section.)

By providing applicants with resource materials that are predominantly from the perspective of service learning practitioners and scholars, CFAT aligns their conception of engagement with this pedagogy. Service learning engages students in service to the community while using the service experience as a learning resource. This places the focus of engagement largely within the academic function of the university and as the responsibility of students and faculty. The use of service learning as model and as a source of materials is not unexpected – currently service learning has the longest history and strongest identity within higher education’s public service programs and has widespread support (Holland & Hartley, 2000; Kezar, 2005). However, as a comparison the NCA:HLC *Handbook* makes only a few, somewhat neutral, references to service learning:

> A connected organization strives to serve constituencies by creating connections among them as well. Service learning programs, for example, now appear on many campuses. Faculty, students, and external constituencies of the college collaborate in creating activities directly connecting student learning with serving community needs. (p. 3.2-17)

Through these conceptions of engagement, both the NCA:HLC and CFAT are re-reproducing Kezar’s (2005) discourse theme of higher education’s public service movement whereby “their notion of the ‘engaged campus’ [is] an attempt to broaden and deepen the campus service role” (p. 46). However, CFAT more clearly associates engagement within the academic activities of higher education and NCA:HLC focuses upon the mutually-beneficial relationships with constituents.

Indicators and Criteria of Engagement

> The intended purpose of making a measurement then has to play a role in the purpose of designing it, and the design process becomes part of a political process. In fact, for successful indicators there is an interaction between design and use, and therefore such measures can and should evolve over time…. The design of an indicator and its environment interact in other significant ways as well. Not only are concepts necessarily based on a particular conception of reality, but also the practical constraints of data collection methods partially determine the concept ultimately measured.
>
> (de Neufville, 1975, p. X)

> Some would say that that it is unfortunate that in evaluation and the social sciences, the gap between many concepts and how the concept is observed in the world is sometimes quite wide. We would rather like to agree with E.L. Thorndike, who said, ‘If something exists, it exists in some amount. And if it exists in some amount it can be measured.’ That is what makes evaluation an art, a science, and a theoretically stimulating exercise.
>
> (Bingham & Felbinger, 2002, p. 31)

The Measures

The use of Gee’s (1999) world building tools of inquiry above, revealed how engagement discourses are creating the meaning and value of aspects within the material world of the systems, and thus creating the setting for the evaluation of engagement. By examining how the measures themselves create meanings and reveal understandings, the analysis can achieve greater depth. For this analysis, the work of Bob Barnetson and Marc Cutright (2000) is used in complement with Gee’s discourse analysis tools of inquiry.

Barnetson and Cutright’s study revealed assumptions of value, definition, goals, causality, comparability and normalcy represented in the evaluation measures for a system of higher education performance indicators (see Tables 9, 10, and 11 in Appendix D). These assumptions lead to a particular operationalization of concepts, the choice of methods of measurement and the eventual inclusion or exclusion of measures. The authors contend that by examining the measures, a determination can be made as to which items are seen as relevant in the discourse of the evaluator(s) and how the desirable performance is being framed. Using the Engagement Evaluation Tools of Inquiry developed in the methodology section (Table 4) the systems were examined to determine assumptions of value, definition, goals, causality, comparability and normalcy within the measures of engagement.

This portion of the analysis primarily focuses on the specific measures of engagement for the two systems the NCA:HLC Criterion Five: Engagement and Service (*Handbook* pages 3.2-16 through 3.2-19) and the CFAT Documentation Framework (presented in Appendices E and F).

Assumptions of Value

The very act of evaluation delineates what activity or outcome is valued and the inclusion or exclusion of measures determines what is considered important and unimportant within the context of that evaluation discourse community. Engagement is a multifaceted concept and therefore there are a large number of possible measures, depending upon the understandings of the concept and the underlying values . The CFAT and NCA:HLC systems have different purposes and audiences as noted above, and their measures for engagement reflect this.

The documentation framework for CFAT includes sections for institutional identity and culture, institutional commitment, curricular engagement, and outreach and partnerships. The sections on curricular engagement and outreach and partnerships indicate that these activities are required for engagement and also indicate that they encompass different aspects of engagement. In the area of curricular engagement, the specific measures focus on service learning courses, curricular activities (student research and leadership, internships and study-abroad), and assessment of learning outcomes. In the area of outreach and partnerships, specific measures include programs (predominantly knowledge-based activities such as tutoring and non-credit courses) and resources (predominantly service-based activities such as co-curricular student service and library services). Indicating the influence of Ernest Boyer, author of *Scholarship Reconsidered* and past president of CFAT, measures for faculty scholarship are listed in both sections.

Not specifically mentioned (although they could be included in partnerships or tutoring activities) are references to the k-12 system or to other institutions of higher education (articulation or transfer), which as noted above is a feature in the NCA:HLC collaborations. In addition while faculty and student efforts are to be documented, no specific mention is made of staff efforts (scholarship or professional service), nor to student affairs programs – either traditional service oriented activities (alternative spring break, Greek system philanthropic efforts, or service organizations) or programs that link academic and student affairs (learning communities, freshman interest groups, or peer mentoring). This focus indicates that the CFAT system situates engagement within Kezar's (2005) theme of public service but with a strong tie to the academic purpose and mission of higher education, defined within the sphere of responsibility of academic affairs.

NCA:HLC includes in its examples of evidence numerous references to collaboration particularly with the k-12 system of education and with the workforce/business community. Not mentioned within the NCA:HLC engagement and service criterion are linkages with the traditional knowledge-based function of higher education (for example engaged scholarship or multidisciplinary research). However, this may be explained in part by the fact that there are four other criteria for accreditation and Criterion Four addresses the acquisition, discovery, and application of knowledge: "the organization promotes a life of learning for its faculty, administration, staff, and students by fostering and supporting inquiry, creativity, practice, and social responsibility in ways consistent with its mission" (HLC Handbook, 2004, p.3.1-5). Examples of evidence for the knowledge criterion include:

- In keeping with its mission, learning goals and outcomes include skills and professional competence essential to a diverse workforce.
- Learning outcomes document that graduates have gained the skills and knowledge they need to function in diverse local, national, and global societies.
- Curricular evaluation involves alumni, employers, and other external constituents who understand the relationships among the courses of study, the currency of the curriculum, and the utility of the knowledge and skills gained.
- The organization provides curricular and cocurricular opportunities that promote social responsibility.

These examples link the value of knowledge acquisition to graduates' workforce skills and the input of constituencies into the utility of these skills. However, despite the dominance of utilitarian measures, the opening paragraphs for the knowledge criterion claim:

> An organization of higher learning, while sharing the same commitment to providing education that is relevant and practical, has a broader perspective on what it means to be an educated person. That is, although it sees a student as a potential skilled employee, it values even more helping that student become an independently creative person, an informed and dependable citizen, and a socially aware and responsible individual. An organization of higher learning sets goals for learning and behavior relevant to these multiple and vitally important needs. (HLC Handbook, 2004, p. 3.2-12)

It is interesting to note that social responsibility has been placed in the knowledge criterion and not in the engagement and service criterion. In addition, it is only *student* social responsibility that is addressed, not that of faculty or staff or the institution as a whole. Civic responsibility or education is addressed only once in the *Handbook* in the *Statement of General Education*:

> Moreover, effective general education helps students gain competence in the exercise of independent intellectual inquiry and also stimulates their examination and understanding of personal, social, and civic values. (p. 3.4-3)

In the same manner, while there is an absence of references to specific community service or public service activities in the examples of evidence for the engagement and service criterion, these activities are mentioned elsewhere. In the *Handbook* section on cross-cutting themes the *The Connected Organization* lists serving the common good, serving constituents, creating a culture of service, collaboration and internal communication (the full listing is presented in Appendix H). Specifically under the bullet on creating a culture of service the *Handbook* states:

> A connected organization creates and supports a culture of service. A variety of programs and volunteer and community service activities may be available for engaging students, faculty, staff, and administrators. Increasingly, organizations have sought to integrate community service into the learning opportunities they provide, expecting students and faculty to define the learning that occurred through participation in mentored activities in the community. In the very way it interacts with local, regional, state, and national organizations and issues, the organization models service for its constituencies. (p. 3.3-4)

(Additional references to both civic responsibility and community service activities are made in the chapters explaining the NCA:HLC's alternative accreditation process – the Academic Quality Improvement Program.)

Thus, although references are made to aspects of community and public service throughout the Handbook they are not placed prominently in the engagement and service criterion. This absence from the criterion of engagement indicates that as a measurable activity, for the NCA:HLC, engagement is most closely situated within Kezar's (2005) theme of collaboration, rather than that of public service.

Assumptions of Definition

As noted above, the two systems differ in their conceptualizations of engagement. In the measures themselves, different definitions for engagement are both given and assumed. The opening paragraphs of the CFAT framework include the statement "the framework is intentionally designed to support multiple definitions, diverse approaches, and institutionally-unique examples and data" (p. 1) and occasionally examples of other terminology that might be used at different institutions is offered. The measures themselves however, situate engagement as community engagement and further appear to define community as locally place-based. Other conceptions may be possible and the narrative fields do allow for alternative responses, but they are not presented as areas to indicate directly in the framework.

As described in the *Assumptions of Values* section, CFAT sets several measures that clearly define the academic aspects of engagement, including the number of service learning courses, measures of learning outcomes and faculty scholarship. The service learning course measures are probably the most specific of all the measures, asking for both number and percentage of courses, departments, faculty and students involved during the academic year. Measures of "regular" community service – for example volunteer hours of faculty, students or staff or the number of philanthropic organizations – are not specifically indicated (although the institutional commitment section asks if there is a mechanism to track engagement in the community).

The NCA:HLC measures align with the statement regarding engagement given in the *Handbook* introduction: "it constitutes a basic understanding that an organization affiliated with the Commission cares deeply about how its work intersects with the lives of individuals on and off campus and with local, national, and global organizations" (p. 3.2-16). The NCA:HLC measures define engagement as collaboration with a variety of constituents for a variety of purposes, but again with the clarification that the institution must also benefit from the engagement activities:

> Engagement is not a synonym for service; engagement suggests a two-way relationship through which the organization is open to learning from those it wishes to serve. Strong mutual understanding is necessary for the many services that an accredited organization may choose to provide to be effective. (p. 3.3-4)

Many of the services given as examples of evidence focus upon workforce and community development, indicating a more practical or utilitarian definition of the purpose of engagement in higher education.

Assumptions of Goals

As noted by Barnetson and Cutright (2000) and the authors cited in the literature review, evaluation includes some point of reference by which an outcome is judged. In the case of the engagement evaluation systems, the "goal" is to attain engagement.

Neither system indicates specific levels for any of the measures; however, the presence of a measure indicates that it is considered in the overall evaluation. Most of the measures require a narrative response, meaning that that attainment has not or cannot be quantified within the system.

The NCA:HLC understanding of meeting the goal of engagement is always couched in terms of relevance to institutional mission and of benefit to both the institution and the constituencies served : "as called for by its mission, the organization identifies its constituencies and serves them in ways both value" (HLC Handbook, p. 3.1-6). In order to meet his goal, the institution is expected to have assessed its constituents' needs, the institution's ability to meet those needs (resources, expertise and mission congruence) and to continually appraise that the services provided to constituents are valued. In this context, engagement is presented as a high level of customer service. Because of the role of accreditation in mediating between higher education and the external publics to ensure quality, this perspective is congruent with the role of and goals of NCA:HLC.

The CFAT framework also has numerous measures that allow for a narrative or qualitative response, indicating that goals for engagement may differ by institution. However, the CFAT framework does include quantitative responses in the areas of institutional resources (funding and staffing) and service learning courses (number and percentage of courses, departments, faculty and students involved during the academic year). Again, while not referencing specific levels, by including these items as quantifiable measures, an indication is given that there is a level to be attained. (This factor is discussed in the section on *Assumptions of Comparability*.)

The inclusion of measures of institutional identity and culture and institutional resources and processes, link to another stated goal of the CFAT system: the institutionalization of community engagement:

> The Carnegie Foundation's elective classification for Community Engagement affirms that a university or college has institutionalized Community Engagement in its identity, culture, and commitments. It also affirms that the practices of community engagement are aligned with the institution's identity and form an integral component of the institutional culture. (p. 1)

The measures that focus upon mission statements, campus-wide awards and celebrations, community engagement offices and personnel, and faculty recruitment and promotion and tenure, indicate an understanding of the factors that facilitate institutionalization. (Albeit with a very traditional view of institutions of higher education, which is addressed in the section on *Assumptions of Comparability*.)

Both systems and measures, understandably because that is their purpose, indicate that engagement is a goal for higher education. Given that both systems have a broad definition of engagement, the measures align with the system goals. Having different overall system goals however, means that the systems' measurement goals themselves differ. This indicates that an understanding of the goals of a system – as denoted by the engagement measures themselves, is necessary when claiming that an institution has (or has not) "achieved" engagement.

Assumptions of Causality

The process of evaluation assigns responsibility to specific groups or individuals charged with the activities or outcomes being assessed. For both the CFAT and the NCA:HLC there is a general, anthropomorphic, level of responsibility – " the institution" – assigned in the overall guidelines. References to assessment or measurement of the impact of engagement activities places much of the responsibility for meeting criteria or responding to measures within the administrative functions of the institution. The CFAT framework in particular places this responsibility at an institutional level:

- Does the institution have mechanisms for systematic assessment of community perceptions of the institution's engagement with community?
- Does the institution maintain systematic campus-wide tracking or documentation mechanisms to record and/or track engagement in community?
- Are there systematic campus-wide assessment mechanisms to measure the impact of institutional engagement?

However, within the measures, assignment of responsibility becomes more concrete. The NCA:HLC engagement criterion opens with a statement "that effective engagement with society is a dialogue that involves the organization at multiple points and levels" (HLC Handbook, 2004, p. 3.2-16). Examples of evidence for meeting the criterion includes; continuing education, customized training, workforce development and extension services. These are programs that are traditionally the responsibility of the outreach divisions of an institution.

In the CFAT framework, the responsibility for several aspects of engagement is assigned to academic affairs and, in particular, faculty governance committees (promotion and tenure, faculty recruitment, learning outcomes) and individual faculty (use of service learning pedagogy, faculty scholarship). This assignment is probably to be expected because of CFAT's overall linkage of engagement with higher education's academic role. Not specifically assigned, but necessary to respond to measures is the tracking of all the individual elements or activities listed in the outreach and partnerships section (non-credit courses, training programs, cultural or athletic offerings, faculty consultation etc.). This responsibility would probably fall to the areas offering the programs.

Assumptions of Comparability

A system of evaluation assumes that the subjects of the evaluation are in some manner comparable. The measures used in the evaluation, because they are applied across all institutions, make an assumption that they are relevant to all institutions. Barnetson and Cutright (2000) caution that this aspect of evaluation may pressure institutions to generate common outcomes or undertake common activities that may or may not be appropriate given institutional circumstances and mission. Both the NCA:HLC and CFAT systems profess to respect institutional differences. The engagement criterion of the NCA:HLC opens with this qualification: "*as called for by its mission*, the organization identifies its constituencies and serves them in ways both value" (p. 3.2-16) [emphasis added]. In the materials describing the community engagement classification, the Carnegie Foundation states:

> Because of their voluntary nature, elective classifications do not represent a comprehensive national assessment: an institution's absence from the Community Engagement classification should not be interpreted as reflecting a judgment about the institution's commitment to its community. (¶ 3)

However, as noted in the *Assumptions of Values* section, by merely evaluating engagement both systems make the assumption that attaining engagement is an appropriate pursuit for institutions of higher education. The development and use of engagement measures indicates those common activities that all institutions will need to address when being evaluated. Both the CFAT measures and the NCA:HLC criterion assume that institutions have the autonomy to make decisions about the engagement activities they can offer and the constituents they can serve. This focus on a reliance upon institutional planning, processes and strategy implies that institutions can operate in a rational manner relatively free from external constraints. In social organizations however, the actual processes of decision making are more likely operate using the "bounded rationality" proposed by Herbert A. Simon (Bendor, 2003), whereby institutional choices are constrained by the limits of what is known, the timeframe they have to make decisions, and their prior experience in making decisions. From this perspective, institutional attainment of engagement is dependent upon external factors beyond mission or tradition alone, and therefore institutions may differ considerably in the ability to plan for or conduct engagement activities.

Assumptions of Normalcy

As noted above, while conceding institutional differences, by having a system of evaluation for engagement both the NCA:HLC and CFAT indicate that it is normal and expected of institutions to be engaged. In addition, the measures themselves reveal a range of normative higher education behaviors. Within the CFAT system the section on institutional culture and commitment indicates an assumption of the necessary support structures and barriers to institutionalizing new ventures in higher education. These measures focus on the resources available including physical structures and personnel, the faculty reward and recognition processes and the more hortatory or symbolic aspects traditionally used in higher education (mission statements, campus-wide recognition ceremonies and executive leader endorsements).

In the NCA:HLC criterion very few references are made to the traditional support systems of higher education listed above. Because the NCA:HLC accredits a wide variety of institutions this level of generality is expected. Within the NCA:HLC membership are newer for-profit institutions with very little resemblance to the traditionally structured place-based campuses. Thus, while the campuses would be able to use such examples as evidence of engagement, the NCA:HLC is not establishing them as “normal.”

Embedded within both systems is the assumption that tracking of engagement activities and their regular assessment is an established practice. Identifying and recording activities implies that the institution has established both a need to track a particular activity and a system for doing so. As noted in the literature review, this also represents the (now established) measurement focus in society and higher education.

Overarching Themes

Overall, and perhaps representing the newness of the term “engagement” and the many possible conceptions, in both systems measures of input or processes, rather than outcomes, predominate. This focus aligns with the processes of formative evaluation – for the purpose of improvement and guidance in decision making as listed in Table 1 in the literature review. Also as noted in Table 1, the intended audience for the results of a formative evaluation are managers, staff, and insiders. While the CFAT measures concentrate on the academic purposes of higher education they do align with the administrative functions, focusing upon inputs (resources, infrastructure, fundraising) and processes (assessment, marketing, policy making), rather than outcomes – with the exception of the service learning course measures (number and percentage of courses, students and faculty).

The managerial discourse of the NCA:HLC Handbook also supports the observation of a formative style of evaluation for a managerial audience. One of the key factors in attaining accreditation is a demonstration of an ability to function effectively as an institution of higher education, therefore, this attention to the intuition's administrative processes can be expected. Reflecting this institutional approach, the potential outcomes of "internal and external constituencies value the services the organization provides" are measured as the "usefulness and effectiveness of service as the value external and internal constituencies find in it" with again the admonition to ensure benefit to the institution "the organization or members in it should also find value in extending these opportunities" (p. 3.2-18).

CHAPTER 6:
DISCUSSION, FUTURE RESEARCH AND CONCLUSIONS

Understandings of Engagement

> There is a lot of palaver out there about extension and engagement. The words are confusing and the meanings are even more confusing. ‘Extension,’ ‘engagement,’ ‘scholarship,’ ‘engaged scholarship,’ ‘the scholarship of engagement’ among others. Now it seems every other person in extension wants to be engaged and/or views engagement as the ultimate goal of extension. … Personal intuition tells me that with respect to the desirability of extension being ‘engaged,’ a party to the university’s engagement, or practicing either ‘engaged scholarship’ or the ‘scholarship of engagement,’ it ain’t necessarily so.
>
> (McDowell, 2003, ¶ 1-2)

> Only if an idea is convincing to a large number of people will it carry social force and gain materiality.
>
> (Condit, 1990, p. 9)

Summary of the Study Findings

This study examined the multiple uses and understandings of the meaning of “engagement” for higher educational institutions. The literature review revealed that many of these understandings can be linked to one of two legitimizing discourses regarding the role and purpose of higher education as a whole – epistemological and political (Brubacher, 1982). Within the political discourse there are two main conceptions of higher education serving the public good – those that see the public good from a summation of the opportunity for individuals to achieve their own personal good and those that see the need for higher education to serve a collective public good (Mansbridge, 1998). Nested into the public good perspective there are three distinct themes in how higher education should meet its social or public service mission – civic education, collaboration, or public service (Kezar, 2005).

Thus, in answer to the first research question:

1. How is engagement constructed in the engagement discourse communities – what shared understanding(s) can be implied?

It appears that in the higher education (and associated "publics") discourse, while there are differences in usage and meanings of "engagement" these can be broadly linked to underlying understandings of civic education, collaboration, or public service as the appropriate role for higher education in meeting its social mission.

Using Gee's (1999) building task tools of discourse analysis, and the framework of the shared understandings identified through the analysis of the literature, the study then explored in more depth the two engagement evaluation systems selected – the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (CFAT) and the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools: Higher Learning Commission (NCA:HLC). An analysis of the discursive context of the evaluation systems looked to answer the second research question:

2. From the system of evaluation (processes, review and stated goals) – what assumptions are made about evaluating higher education engagement?

The analysis revealed that as the systems had different purposes – accreditation and voluntary classification – these purposes shaped assumptions about both evaluation and higher education engagement. For the NCA:HLC criterion, much of the discourse on engagement was framed from the perspective of meeting the needs of constituencies and examples of evidence offered often focused on instructional-based support programs including delivering training and workforce education, developmental education and articulation. For CFAT the application materials focused upon (mostly) scholarship in the field of service learning, thus advancing this perspective of engagement. While not mutually exclusive to each other, or to other perspectives, the two systems seem to separately promote the discourses of higher engagement as collaboration (NCA:HLC) and public service (CFAT).

For both systems, the time and resource intensive nature of the process of completing the evaluation, appears to assume – or at least not question or make apology for – that this is an appropriate (and perhaps expected) activity at this level of intensity for institutions of higher education. The NCA:HLC review does have a feedback mechanism – campuses receive a copy of the evaluation team report and can address concerns raised, which does allow the process to be used for program improvement. Currently, the CFAT system does not provide feedback to unsuccessful (or successful) applicants, making directed improvement difficult.

To examine the specific concept of engagement being evaluated, the evaluation measures themselves were analyzed using Gee's (1999) world building tasks and the engagement evaluation tools of inquiry questions developed in connection with Barnetson and Cutright's (2000) performance indicator assumptions. This aspect of the analysis focused upon the operationalization of the term "engagement" within the measures of engagement in order to answer the third research question:

3. Within the evaluation measures themselves – what assumptions are made about the engagement concept being evaluated?

Because claims to evaluate engagement and/or attain engagement rest upon a particular conception of engagement, the measures themselves were examined to determine the embedded assumptions of value, definition, goals, causality, comparability and normalcy represented within them. The analysis revealed that while showing some internal consistency, the two systems differed (to some degree) on all aspects of assumptions within the measures.

This finding confirmed the initial observations that lead to the development of the problem statement:

> In there appears to be multiple uses and understandings of the meaning of "engagement," and a subsequent lack of precision in the articulation and communication of engagement expectations among higher education institutions, leadership groups, foundations, governments and the broader public.

As noted by Pirkko Vartiainen (2005), to have authority in the evaluation of higher education engagement, those who are evaluated and those who use the results must believe in the systems' legitimacy:

> The social rules of higher education evaluation are the methods, indicators, and criteria. Higher education policy bodies and evaluation institutions create these rules…. However, we have to notice that legitimacy is not a one-sided concept; people in higher education must believe and accept the right of these institutions to act in the field of evaluation. In addition, the evaluation methods and indicators must be accepted by academics, at least to some degree, if the aim is to reach as high a legitimacy as possible. (p. 372)

For the engagement evaluation systems, if the conceptualizations of engagement and the underlying assumptions appear to conflict or do not align with the concepts of the evaluated, their legitimacy will be seen as dubious and the authority of the evaluation systems will be debatable. This finding lends further support to the contention of the study's problem statement that:

> Without understanding the conception(s) of engagement being used, the outcomes of these evaluations can be misinterpreted and therefore ineffectual or even detrimental in meeting intended goals.

However, as noted in the literature review there are reasons to allow for fluid conceptual boundaries (these are also discussed in more detail in the following sections) and conceptual boundaries will often develop through further research and evaluation (Morse, Mitcham, Hupcey, & Tasón, 1996; Sandmann & Weerts, 1996),

The final research question addressed the issue of how engagement relates to other discourses – or in Gee's (1999) terminology, Conversations – regarding the role and purpose of higher education:

4. If different discourses of engagement occur, can they be tied to other discourses on the roles and purposes of higher education?

The analysis of the two systems did reveal different conceptions of engagement related to different discourses on the role and purpose of higher education, and in particular the expectations of higher education in serving the public good. While falling within Kezar's (2005) theme of public service, the CFAT system focused on the academic role of higher education and traditional conceptions of higher education (a physical campus, time-honored structures and processes). The CFAT system also relied heavily upon scholarly or research-based materials for applicant guidance and support. While evidencing aspects of the public service theme, the NCA:HLC system discourse fell more within Kezar's theme of collaboration. Aspects of the discourse focused upon collaboration with the k-12 system and with other institutions of higher education revealing an overarching k-16 educational systems discourse. In particular the NCA:HLC discourse made frequent references to process assessment and improvement, which tied to managerial discourses.

Conceptions and Discourses of Engagement Evaluation

> We cannot avoid the analytic and value decisions involved in choosing measures. It is only self-deception to think that by not making the choices explicitly we are somehow being objective. We are simply replacing our judgment with chance or someone else's judgment.
>
> (de Neufville, 1975, p. 125)

> It is generally accepted that performance indicators make knowledge objective that is, independent of its creators and users through quantification. Quantified knowledge is independent because it is less dependent than narrative derived knowledge for interpretation and therefore, is more easily transported across time and distance with minimal los of content. Quantification also facilitates comparison between or generalizations about institutions or systems by suppressing contextual factors.
>
> (Barnetson & Cutright, 2000, pp. 287-288)

Power and Authority

The methods of discourse analysis selected for this study were those developed by James Paul Gee (1999). This approach was chosen for the ability to balance both text and context and critical and constructivist research. The analysis and findings revealed aspects of social linguistic analysis (how texts – verbal and visual – organize and construct phenomena), interpretive structuralism (the perspective of community/societal benefits), and of critical discourse analysis (values and beliefs). Within the dimension of values and beliefs, Gee's Political Building Tasks examined the social goods at stake in the engagement evaluation process. This analysis revealed that while both systems are voluntary, the social goods directly tied to accreditation and indirectly linked with a Carnegie classification, are of considerable worth to an institution of higher education. This places the engagement evaluation systems in a position of power over the institutions of higher education.

Substantive input on the development or refinement of measures and the definition of the concepts may not be provided to the communities most affected by an evaluation. As Anna Marie Madison notes, "the power to coin language to describe social phenomena is variably distributed among the intellectual elite, policymakers, evaluators and service providers" (2000, p. 26). In an article describing the insights from the initial year of CFAT applications, Amy Driscoll, a Carnegie Senior Scholar noted, "the areas in which institutions struggled to provide documentation offer as much insight as do their areas of strength. Those struggles occurred in two areas: assessing the community's need for and perceptions of the institution's engagement and developing substantive roles for the community in creating the institution's plans for that engagement" (2008, p. 41).

The capability to establish evaluative standards reflects authority and control of the discourse (Vartiainen, 2005). By foregrounding particular understandings of engagement and limiting others, the purposes and roles of engaged higher education are set within particular boundaries. The authors of the standards and the groups that promote those standards are members of a discourse community with shared values and ways of being. (Smagorinsky & Taxel, 2005) and it is those values that will dictate the understandings and boundaries. By outlining what is "expected" of an accredited institution in terms of engagement and service, these systems (and any others with similar control of social goods) will influence both the engagement and service activities of the campus and the ways in which they are reported and assessed.

This creation of these "cultural norms" for the evaluation of engaged higher education leads to the possibility of the establishment of an hegemonic discourse (as applied in the work of Antonio Gramsci and Michel Foucault), which in turn indicates a need to provide a system of checks and balances. Currently the CFAT does not provide feedback to successful or unsuccessful applicants. This does not allow for the possibility of challenging the result or "improvement" for re-application. As a private organization CFAT may have more freedom of control over its processes. However, given the impact on a broad range of public institutions this may be (and in the opinion of this author should be) challenged. As the number of institutions applying for the classification increases, and therefore the number of unsuccessful applicants also increases, there may be pressure to create more transparency in the process. (A listing of successful applicants is included in Appendix I.) Future research may allow for an examination of unsuccessful applications to determine at a more precise level the operationalization of "engagement" within the context of the CFAT discourse community.

Networks of Influence

Related to the issues of power and authority is the identification of the influence of actual individuals who are responsible for the creation of the systems and the materials that support them. Through both the authorship of documents and their positions within organizations and institutions, several names appeared regularly in the course of the study. Possibly the most often cited was Ernest Boyer (1990) whose work *Scholarship Reconsidered* was used by proponents within all three of Kezar's (2005) social mission themes. Much of his scholarship during his tenure as president of CFAT from 1979 to 1995, centered upon a re-definition of the role of faculty in higher education and the need for institutions of higher education to adapt policies and practices that supported undergraduate teaching as opposed to a focus on research alone. This influence is noted in the CFAT framework and measures of these “alternative” conceptions of faculty scholarship are used in the institutional commitment, curricular engagement, and outreach and partnerships sections.

The role of other documents and reports is also significant. According to Lindsay Prior (2003), references in documents serve to form alliances with other scholarly works. He states, “the text, as it were, recruits allies – in other texts – so as to overwhelm with a sheer weight of numbers” (2003, p. 130). The texts used as “allies” are also part of a discourse community with a constructed understanding of the role and purpose of higher education and situated meanings for engagement.

CFAT has a long history of authoring or sponsoring hundreds of influential reports regarding many aspects of higher education. These reports date from the early days of the foundation and include the 1910 *Flexner Report* (medical education), reports on legal and teacher education in the 1920’s and 1930’s, work on educational testing during the 1940’s and the reports from the Carnegie Council and the Carnegie Commission Higher Education of the 1960’s and 1970’s (Douglass, 2005; Lagemann, 1983). As noted by Lagemann:

> Unless one were to subscribe to the narrow and inaccurate assumption that public policy is merely government decision making, one must therefore concede that, as a result of their forceful and deliberate participation in the politics of knowledge,

> the Carnegie Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation have always been major institutions of public policy. (1992, p. 365).

In the area of higher education engagement there are other foundations that have created influential reports, possibly the most often cited are the Kellogg Foundation's *Returning to Our Roots: The Engaged Institution* (especially in works by land grant institutions) and the publications from the Johnson Foundation's Wingspread conferences and summits (more often in the discourses of public service and community partnerships). The role of foundations in the area of higher education engagement bares some examination. As noted by Arnove and Pinede (2007), foundations are affected by the society they are in turn seeking to change and cannot be entirely altruistic in the issues they pursue or in the manner in which they pursue them. They state that foundations:

> …remain ultimately elitist and technocratic institutions…. It is still the foundations, with the profits they have derived from the given social system, that determine what issues merit society's attention, who will study these issues, which results will be disseminated, and which recommendations will be made to shape public policy. Decisions that should be made by publicly elected officials are relegated to a group of institutions and individuals who cannot conceive of changing in any way a system from which they derive their profits and power. (2007, p. 422)

Thus, a fruitful and probably enlightening avenue for future research would be to examine the individuals and reports in the engagement field (and their connections or relationships with institutions) using the tools and methods of social and citation network analysis. This examination would allow for better identification of any underlying networks of influence that may not be immediately apparent within the engagement evaluation systems discourses.

Contextual Understanding and Evaluation

As noted often in this study, there are numerous purposes for developing a system of evaluation and numerous methods of identifying or selecting the concepts in question and developing the measures to capture them. The measures developed and their use should align with the overall purpose and goals of the system (Barnetson & Cutright, 2000; Rossi, Lipskey & Freeman, 2004). Thus, systems and measures of engagement designed to promote engagement – as stated by both CFAT and NCA:HLC – would, ideally foster institutional efforts to “become engaged.” Such systems would be formative in nature, clearly define expectation and provide feedback on whether those expectations are being met. Given the multiple discourses and understandings of engagement, definition appears elusive and thus evaluation processes should proceed with caution. For “full disclosure,” evaluators should clearly state what the system’s conception of, and purpose for, “engagement” means within the context of the evaluation. Those using the evaluation should be aware of this context and have the understanding that these measures are still in developmental stages.

In Barbara Holland’s conclusion of her Campus Compact’s Advanced Institute on Classifications for Civic Engagement Classification Institute paper, *Exploring the Challenge of Documenting and Measuring Civic Engagement Endeavors of Colleges and Universities: Purposes, Issues, Ideas,* she states that the current state of affairs:

> …suggests an immediate emphasis on strategies for documentation and measures that are descriptive and diagnostic more than comparative. Descriptive indicators focus on capturing practical and useful information that can inform the work of others, identify key issues, and legitimize engagement efforts in ways that respect the current diversity of interests, contexts and motivations. In addition, a focus on detailed, objective, and consistent approaches to descriptive indicators lays the essential groundwork for more analytical work. For example, though flexibility in language has been helpful in these early stages, precise measurement of performance and effectiveness will make little sense without some concurrence on common terms of art. But working on definitions in and of themselves is often fruitless, frustrating work. By first developing ways to more consistently and specifically describe the work, techniques, forms, processes and purposes of engagement, new and more specific terms and indicators essential to advanced measurement of outcomes and quality will emerge" (Holland, 2001, p. 25).

This study's findings may assist in the development of the engagement evaluation systems. By providing an analysis of the background discourses, information is available to inform the work of others, particularly in the area of how current systems and measures construct engagement in a manner that may or may not "respect the current diversity of interests, contexts and motivations." Given that the CFAT system is new, and that the narrative responses will provide the developers with a wealth of information on how institutions are defining their own engagement, these responses will provide a valuable source for future discourse analysis and refinement of the evaluation systems.

Other Avenues for Future Research

This study focused on the primary documents of the two selected engagement evaluation systems: the CFAT *Documentation Framework* and supporting applicant materials and the NCA:HLC *Handbook of Accreditation*. As noted in the limitations section of the Methods chapter, there are strengths and weaknesses to this approach. Analysis of these findings could be further informed through interviews with measurement and criterion developers, reviewing the NCA:HLC self-study documents and peer reviewer feedback, and reviewing and comparing successful and unsuccessful CFAT applications. In addition, other scholars in the field of engagement should be consulted to determine if the interpretation developed by this researcher displays agreement with other speakers of the discourse and shows evidence of coverage, i.e. the analysis can be applied to make sense of other discourses of engagement.

Finally, further research could also examine the findings in terms of the influence of institutional type (related to the institutional differences in social mission that were noted in the introduction to this study), institutional control/autonomy (public/private, state coordinating boards etc.), demographics (student, faculty and staff), and location (rural/urban). Regional influences beyond geography should also be considered (the NCA:HLC accredits institutions in nineteen States in the north central region, CFAT is nationwide). These influences include those that usually influence the policy environment including economic trends, demographics of the area, business cycles, and political cultures and systems (Fowler, 2000). An analysis on this level is likely to yield additional differences in the understandings of higher education for the public good and therefore the higher education engagement discourse.

Conclusions

> Without shared and communicated culture, sustained collective action is impossible. Discourse shapes identity and action.
>
> (Fine, 2002, p. 230)

> Engagement is increasingly cited as a distinguishing characteristic of the best learning in American higher education today. Vision statements, strategic plans, learning outcomes, and agendas of national reform movements strive to create engaged learning and engaged learners. Despite this emerging emphasis, an explicit consensus about what we actually mean by engagement or why it is important is lacking. Is engagement an end in itself, or a means to other ends? Is engagement as important as other characteristics of a good education such as intentionality, balanced breadth and depth, complexity, multidisciplinarity, integration, and contextual awareness? And, while we are asking questions, perhaps we should begin by asking – Engagement with what?
>
> (Bowen, 2005, p. 4)

Current Conceptualizations of Engagement

A dissertation (or any study) takes time. Initial exploratory research in 2004-2005 found few references using the term "engagement" in the literature. By the close of this study in 2009, references to engagement had grown exponentially – but almost always included some modifier: student-engagement, community-engagement, engaged-scholarship – with the term civic-engagement dominating the discourse. Gee (1999) refers to this process as nominalization – which allows:

> …one to take a lot of information – indeed, a whole sentence's worth of information – and compact it into a compound word or a phrase…. The trouble is this: once one has made the compacted item (the nominalization) it is hard to tell what information exactly went into it. (p. 31)

Understanding what "information" goes into the term "engagement" is difficult, nationally and internationally. In the international literature, references to engagement usually indicated citizen participation in government (United Kingdom) or government involvement in community development (Australia), but expressions of alternative interpretations and arguments over meaning, especially in the case of university-community engagement were also noted (Onyx, 2008).

Differences in definition and the resulting debates may be inevitable without a critical examination of the surrounding discourse and the underlying constructions of meaning. As Samuel Ichiyé Hayakawa (1990) states:

> In the course of argument, people frequently complain about words meaning different things to different people. Instead of complaining they should accept it as a matter of course. It would be startling indeed if the word 'justice,' for example, would have the same meaning to each of the nine justices of the United States Supreme Court; then we would get nothing but unanimous decisions…. If we can get deeply into our consciousness the principle that no word ever has the same meaning twice, we will develop the habit of automatically examining contexts, and this enables us to understand better what others are saying. (p. 40)

The understanding of meaning and context is especially important in the discourses of evaluating engagement. As this study has shown there are social goods at stake and policy decisions being made based upon the perceptions that higher education is engaged (or perhaps more accurately perceptions that higher education is disengaged). Discourse analysis methods allow researchers to investigate the processes by which emerging concepts are stabilized within specific discourses leading to "the groundwork for the eventual stabilization of a larger social change" (Faber, 2003, p. 393). In order for the idea of engagement to "take hold" in both higher education and society a stabilized representation of the concept must "gather its own diverse set of rhetorical meanings into a core concept" (Faber, 2003, p. 393). Those using the terms must be made aware of the value and belief systems framing the evaluation and measures of that concept – in each and every context where the concept is being used.

The Potential Impacts of Higher Education Engagement Evaluation

At a Kettering Foundation and New England Resource Center for Higher Education (NERCHE) sponsored colloquium in 2008, the framing question for the discussion was "why has the civic engagement movement in higher education stalled and what are the strategies and priorities needed to further advance institutional transformation aimed at generating democratic, community-based knowledge and action?" (¶ 1). Participants noted that in the past two decades significant gains in have been made in "first order" changes (those that utilize existing structures and programs) but that "second order," or transformational changes, have not occurred in colleges and universities, leading to "concern with barriers at the level of second order changes – changes that move beyond programs and structures that improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what already exists to changes involving institutional culture and underlying policy" (Democracy, Higher Education, and the Future of Engagement, 2009, ¶ 3).

By creating measurable outcomes and expectations, the evaluation systems investigated in this study may be a lever to create the second order changes desired by those seeking foster engaged higher education. However, in order to significantly influence the activities of higher education these outcomes and expectations must been seen as legitimate both in terms of the appropriateness of the role for higher education as engaged and the validity and reliability of the measures (Vartiainen, 2005). As noted by Bingham and Felbinger (2002), in evaluation and "in the social sciences generally, the issues of validity and reliability of measures is important, as we tend to measure concepts that are not easily observed in reality" (p. 36).

Given the multiple conceptions of engagement, and the resulting differences within just the two systems examined in this study, there is cause for concern regarding the use and potential misuse of the results. When discussing the evaluation of higher education public service as a whole Nancy Frank observes:

> Whether the results of this ongoing transformation will yield net benefits is yet to be seen. Critics of the assessment movement question whether the intangible and qualitative characteristics of an excellent university can be captured in a limited number of measures. Specifically, they fear universities and their programs will alter their behavior to improve their scores on the measures that "count," potentially losing important qualities that are valuable to students and to society but that are not subject to assessment measures. (2008, p. 499).

Finally, if engaged higher education is not seen as a legitimate goal by those on whom responsibility for change is placed, then only the first order changes noted above will occur. As noted by Robert Cowen:

> As organized public groups, academics are complaining, resisting, and redefining the demands of the evaluation systems which affect their professional lives…. academics are working out ways to survive – or even 'to win' – according to the new rules…reorganizing their work patterns 'to beat the system': that is, performing sufficiently in accordance with public criteria to be seen as coping,

while they get on with the work their earlier professional socialization says is important" (1996a, p. ix).

Potential Impacts of this Project

As a social institution, higher education has adapted to the prevailing needs of society and will continue to do so – and the terminology, the conceptualizations and discourses of the role of higher education in serving the public good, will evolve along with the perception of needs and the underlying understandings and values that shape them. This study has shown how the use of three current conceptualizations of higher education's social mission – Kezar's (2005) themes of civic education, public service and collaboration can be used as a framework to situate discourses of engagement. The study also utilized Gee's (1999) tools of inquiry and Barnetson and Cutright's (2000) typology of assumptions embedded in performance indicators to create Engagement Evaluation Tools of Inquiry.

This expanded typology and framework may be a useful tool for both policy developers and the assessment and public relations personnel of institutions, who may need a greater understanding of expectations in the area of institutional engagement. This understanding allows for a more accurate, and hopefully critical examination, of the values underlying the assessment of the performance of higher education in meeting its social mission, at this point in time, within the current context of perceptions and expectations of higher education.

AFTERWORD

Engaged Higher Education in the Summer of 2009

> In the recent past, American higher education has experienced a critical re-examination of the accessibility and systems of knowledge it offers. A 'call to engagement' is echoing throughout higher education with colleges and universities seeking to become 'engaged institutions,' that is, to recommit to the democratic philosophies expressed in original institutional missions.
>
> (Fear, F., Adamek, M., & Imig, G., 2002, p.x)

> The economy …is an extraordinarily powerful set of social relations whose imperatives are penetrating and organizing ever-wider areas of public and private life…It is no longer possible to theorize civil society as a site of democratic activity and counterpoise it to a inherently coercive state without considering how capitalism's structural inequities constitute everyday life.
>
> (Ehrenberg, 1999, p. 248)

The economic challenges facing the United States at this time are monumental and there are no end of "problems" for which solutions can be sought and upon which the resources of higher education can be brought to bear. It is possible that current calls for engaged higher education – conceptualized as fostering the collective public good through civic education, public service and collaboration – will continue to be seen as necessary to meet the nation's current needs. Perhaps there will be a perspective that the nation's current problems have stemmed from a lack of this orientation, and therefore there will be stronger support for this approach. It is also possible, however, that the more established market discourses of the past decade, those that focus upon the need for higher education to compete in the marketplace – see for example Slaughter and Leslie's (1997) *Academic Capitalism* – will again begin to dominate. In either event, neither discourse will completely disappear. Tied as they are to long-running themes – Gee's (1999) *Conversations* – about the role and purpose of higher education, they will likely re-surface, possibly with different conceptions and understandings, as perceptions of needs, problems and potential solutions change.

APPENDIX A

Table 6: Kellogg Foundation: Suggested Indicators of Quality Institutions

Source	Indicators
Oregon State University **Weisner (1996)**	• Percent of Extension faculty (agents and specialists) tenured in colleges and departments, rather than in Extension This indicator would show the degree to which this work force is integrated into the rest of the university, rather than marginalized. Having extension faculty connected to departments also shows concern for their ongoing professional development in core or source knowledge. It also shows concern for ensuring that discipline-based faculty have some means for "reality testing" and getting "refreshed from the outside" by colleagues who spent more time off campus than on.
Urban Community Service at AASCU & NASULGC Institutions – 1995 Survey	• Degree to which community service is recognized/ rewarded • Percent time allotted to faculty, and other forms of institutional support • Degree to which students participate in service learning projects; extent to which student participation is voluntary, substantially supported, or required for degree completion • Existence of effective vehicles for communicating with services audiences, including needs assessment and dissemination • Number of requests from the community for university/ college assistance • Percent of resources allocated for community service activities • Percent of faculty's "service time" that is allocated to professional public service, as opposed to service to the institution, or to the discipline, or to "private" service
Barrett, Green, et al. (1997)	• An institution's or department's financial allotment for service, calculated as a percent of dollars allotted for research This indicator is based on a typical finding on the relative percentages of time and dollars spent on the three missions of teaching, research, and service. This study found, for example, at the University of Michigan (Ann Arbor), faculty spend on average 40% of their time on research, 40% on teaching, and 20% on service. "However, the budgetary allocation for service in the 1996-97 academic year was less than 9% of that budgeted for research."

(Kellogg Foundation, 1999, pp. 32)

Table 7: Kellogg Foundation: Other Potential Characteristics of Quality Institutions

Source	Characteristics
Michigan State University (1993)	Recommendations for the "ideal" scenario: Institutions would: • Adopt new concept and definitions of outreach and revise tenure and promotion forms to include the new definition • Create measurement and evaluation systems to track, assess, and adjust the amount of outreach performed • Involve multiple parties in planning, but place responsibility at the unit level • Create explicit and written guidelines for evaluating faculty performance in outreach • Stimulate, support, and recognize outreach at all levels • Enhance access to university knowledge resources • Strengthen outreach through university-wide leadership
Ramaley, based on work by B. A. Holland (1995)	In discussing the change process in institutions, Ramaly reprints an interesting "pyramid" based on the work of Holland: Typical Arenas of Change in Higher Education. The pyramid posits a scale, from least common to most common forms of change. Least: Faculty roles and rewards Curriculum philosophy and program Academic organization Administrative restructuring Most: Institutional missions and goals Ramaly stated, "The distinctive characteristic of the case of the change process at Portland State University is that all levels of this pyramid are addressed almost simultaneously." One implication of this work, in terms of a possible "quality" characteristic, is that change happens at the "top of the pyramid" in leading institutions, not just at the bottom.
Lynton (1995)	Professional service "is not a philanthropic activity"; it must be built into the budget. It can’t be done on overload; it "must be explicitly factored into that institution’s long- and short-range planning, as well as into its resource allocation process." It must show up as part of an institution’s operating budget; part of an individual faculty member’s grant or contract or fees.
Montgomery (1989)	• Redefine how scholarly effort fits into the service and extension • Differentiate between professional public service and discipline-related and institution- related service

Source	Characteristics
	• Advocate excellence and professionalism in the performance of all faculty
Arnold (1997)	Several themes emerged from "case history examples" cited by participants in the MSU-sponsored, Kellogg Foundation funded Capstone Symposium on University Outreach (1995). These themes suggested to me not only goals but characteristics of institutions that are leading in the right direction.'" • Strategies and efforts to link university outreach activities more closely to teaching and research • Assigning outreach responsibilities more widely within the university, rather than viewing it as the purview of only selected academic disciplines and programs • Assignment of leadership responsibility for outreach programs to academic units • Common strategy elements, including an institutional inventory of outreach activities and development of unit-level plans for outreach • Revisions in promotion and tenure guidelines and modification of other faculty reward systems to strengthen the recognition of outcomes and impacts of outreach (and teaching) functions • Designating administrative leadership responsibility and, in some instances, administrative restructuring for the institutional outreach mission and function
Other ideas extracted from Jordan:	• Expectation that all undergraduate students participate in a service learning project with an external public or private sector organization • Administrative role: having persons with designated responsibility for helping facilitate connections between academic units and external constituents

(Kellogg Foundation, 1999, pp. 33-34)

APPENDIX B

Table 8: Matrix for Building Tasks of Discourse Analysis

Building Task	Questions
Semiotic Building	1) What sign systems are relevant (and irrelevant) in the situation (e.g. speech, writing, images, and gestures)? How are they made relevant (and irrelevant), and in what ways? 2) What systems of knowledge and ways of knowing are relevant (and irrelevant) in the situation? How are they made relevant (and irrelevant), and in what ways? 3) What social languages are relevant (and irrelevant) in the situation? How are they made relevant (and irrelevant), and in what ways?
World Building	1) What are the situated meanings of some of the words and phrases that seem important in the situation? 2) What situated meanings and values seem to be attached to places, times, bodies, objects, artifacts, and institutions relevant in this situation? 3) What cultural models and networks of models (master models) seem to be at play in connecting and integrating these situated meanings to each other? 4) What institutions and/or Discourses are being (re-)produced in this situation and how are they being stabilized or transformed in the act?
Activity Building	1) What is the larger or main activity (or set of activities) going on in the situation? 2) What sub-activities compose this activity (or these activities)? 3) What actions (down to the level of things like "requests for reasons") compose these sub-activities and activities?
Socio-culturally-Situated Identity and Relationship Building	1) What relationships and identities (roles, positions), with their concomitant personal, social, and cultural knowledge and beliefs (cognition), feelings (affect), and values, seem to be relevant in the situation? 2) How are these relationships and identities stabilized or transformed in the situation? 3) In terms of identities, activities, and relationships, what Discourses are relevant (and irrelevant) in the situation? How are they made relevant (and irrelevant), and in what ways?

Building Task	Questions
Political Building	1) What social goods (e.g. status, power, aspects of gender, race, and class or more narrowly defined social networks and identities) are relevant (and irrelevant) in this situation? How are they made relevant (and irrelevant), and in what ways? 2) How are these social goods connected to the cultural models and Discourses operative in the situation?
Connection Building	1) What sorts of connections – looking backward and/or forward – are made within and across utterances and large stretches of the interaction? 2) What sorts of connections are made to previous or future interactions, to other people, ideas, texts, things, institutions, and Discourses outside the current situation (this has to do with "intertextuality" and "inter-Discursivity")? 3) How do connections of both the sort in 1) and 2) help (together with situated meanings and cultural models) to constitute "coherence" – and what sort of "coherence" – in the situation?

(Gee, 1999, pp. 93-94)

APPENDIX C

Tools of Inquiry Example Questions

Situated Meanings Tools of Inquiry Questions

- What specific, situated meanings is it reasonable, from the point of view of the Discourse in which these words are used, to attribute to their 'author'?
- What specific situated meanings is it reasonable, from the point of view of the Discourse in which these words are used, to attribute to their 'receiver(s)' (interpreter(s))?
- What specific, situated meanings is it reasonable, from the point of view of other Discourses than the one in which the words were uttered or written (Discourses which would or do bring different values, norms, perspectives, and assumptions to the situation) to attribute to actual or possible interpreters from these other Discourses? (e.g. what sorts of situated meanings might a creationist give to a text in biology or a Native American to an American history text if they chose to interpret the text from the point of view of their Discourse and not the one from which the text had originally been produced?)
- What specific, situated meanings is it reasonable, from the point of view of the Discourse in which these words were used or of other Discourses, to assume are potentially attributable to these words by interpreters, whether or not we have evidence that anyone actually activated that potential in the current case?

(Gee, 1999, pp. 53-54)

Cultural Models Tools of Inquiry Questions

- What cultural models are relevant here? What must I, as an analyst, assume people feel, value, and believe, consciously or not, in order to talk (write), act, and/or interact this way?
- Are there differences here between the cultural models that are affecting espoused beliefs and those that are affecting actions and practices? What sorts of cultural models, if any, are being used here to make value judgments about oneself or others?

- How consistent are the relevant cultural models here? Are there competing or conflicting cultural models at play? Whose interests are the cultural models representing?
- What other cultural models are related to the ones most active here? Are there 'master models' at work?
- What sorts of texts, media, experiences, interactions, and/or institutions could have given rise to these cultural models?
- How are the relevant cultural models here helping to reproduce, transform, or create social, cultural, institutional, and/or political relationships? What Discourses and Conversations are these cultural models helping to reproduce, transform, or create?

(Gee, 1999, pp. 78-79)

Social Languages and Discourses Tools of Inquiry Questions

- What social languages are involved? What sorts of 'grammar two' patterns indicate this? Are different social languages mixed? How so?
- What socially situated identities and activities do thee social languages enact?
- What Discourse or Discourses are involved? How is 'stuff' other than language ('mind stuff' and 'emotional stuff' and 'word stuff' and 'interactional stuff' and non-language symbol systems, etc.) relevant in indicating socially situated identities and activities?
- What sort of performance and recognition work (negotiations and struggles) has gone on in interactions over this language? What are the actual or possible social, institutional, and political consequences of this work?
- In considering this language, what sorts of relationships among different Discourses are involved (institutionally, in society, or historically)? How are different Discourses aligned or in contention here?
- What Conversations are relevant to understanding this language and to what Conversations does it contribute (institutionally, in society, or historically)?

(Gee, 1999, pp.37-38)

APPENDIX D

Table 9. Typology of Embedded Assumptions

Type	Explanation
Value:	The act of measurement delineates what activity or outcome is valued. That is, the inclusion or exclusion of PIs determines what is considered important and unimportant
Definition:	Performance indicators (re)define concepts (e.g., accessibility, affordability, quality, etc.) by operationalizing them in measurable terms.
Goal:	Performance indicators differ from simple indicators because they include a point of reference by which a performance is judged. Performance indicators assign goals through both the value embedded in an indicator and the point of reference used in the indicator.
Causality:	Performance indicators assign responsibility for an activity or outcome by embedding an assumption of causality. This may confuse causality (i.e., one variable causing a second) with association (i.e., where two variables occur together as a result of a third variable) and assert that institutional activities play a determinant role in generating the performance assessed.
Comparability:	The use of common PIs assumes institutions (departments, individuals, etc.) are comparable. This may pressure institutions to generate common outcomes or undertake common activities which may or may not be appropriate given institutional circumstances and mission.
Normalcy:	Performance indicators delineate a range of normal behaviors or outcomes. This may pressure institutions to alter their activities so as to decrease a systemic disadvantage or increase a systemic advantage.

(Barnetson & Cutright, 2000, p. 286)

Table 10. Determining Assumptions Embedded in Performance Indicators

	Explanation
Value:	By its inclusion, what does this PI indicate is important to those who constructed and/or operate this PI?
Definition:	How does this PI define a concept by operationalizing it in measurable terms? For example, if accessibility is determined by measuring the increase in student spaces available, accessibility is defined as the existence of student spaces. What alternative definition(s) of this concept exist? For example, examining student's ability to afford tuition costs defines accessibility as the affordability of post-secondary education to students.
Goal:	What outcome does this PI expect from an institution (department, individual, etc.) based upon the value and the point of reference embedded within it?

Causality:	Who does this PI make responsible for a performance? What assumption of causality underlies this assignment of responsibility? For example, making institutions responsible for graduates' satisfaction assumes that institutions can control and deterministically influence the factors contributing to satisfaction.
Comparability:	In what ways does this PI assume institutions are comparable? For example, measuring external revenue generation by colleges, universities and technical institutes implies that rough parity in the ability of each type of institution to generate external revenue.
Normalcy:	What assumptions does this PI make about "normal" behaviors or outcomes? For example, measuring graduates' employment rates in fields related to their area of study at a fixed point after graduation assumes that it is desirable and possible for all graduates to find work within their disciplines and that graduates of all disciplines have roughly similar career trajectories.

(Barnetson & Cutright, 2000, p. 287)

Table 11. Determining Assumptions Embedded in Systems of Performance Indicators

	Explanation
Value:	By their inclusion, what do this system's PIs indicate is important to those who constructed and/or operate this system? What do the PIs excluded in this system indicate is of lesser or no importance to those who constructed and/or operate this system?
Definition:	Are there definitional trends evident within the system? For example, do the PIs in a system operationalize performances in economic terms?
Goal:	Are there trends in the goals assigned by this system? For example, do the PIs consistently reward institutions that decrease costs to government by increasing efficiency and broadening the funding base?
Causality:	Is responsibility consistently attributed to one group? For example, a system of PIs may consistently assign responsibility for outcomes to institutions or it may disperse responsibility among several groups (e.g., government, students, institutions, exogenous environmental factors, etc.). Are there trends in the assumptions of causality that underlie the assignment responsibility? For example, a system of PIs may assumes that institutions can control and deterministically influence the factors contributing to several PIs.
Comparability:	How does the PI system deal with comparisons between institutions? For example, a system of PIs may consistently (or inconsistently) recognize or ignore differences between institution's goals, missions, circumstances and resources.
Normalcy:	What activities and/or outcomes does this system assume to be normal?

(Barnetson & Cutright, 2000, p. 288)

APPENDIX E:
NCA:HLC Criterion Five: Engagement and Service

Criterion Five: Engagement and Service

As called for by its mission, the organization identifies its constituencies and serves them in ways both value.

This Criterion can too readily be understood in the functional context of many organizations of higher learning: It must be about the extension program or the continuing education wing or the customized training department. It is, to be sure, about these components, but the Commission's interest in engagement is much broader. Attention to engagement is woven throughout these Criteria, for it constitutes a basic understanding that an organization affiliated with the Commission cares deeply about how its work intersects with the lives of individuals on and off campus and with local, national, and global organizations. The Commission's interest is directly related to its mission: "serving the common good by assuring and advancing the quality of higher learning."

Although some contemporary political thinking might hold that higher education is a private rather than a public good, the Commission continues to believe that higher education is an asset of incalculable worth to society as well as to individuals. Whether students attend public, private, or proprietary colleges and universities, they move into a society that expects to benefit from the learning achieved, from the knowledge created, and from the values of social responsibility inculcated. If colleges and universities have erred in the past half century, it has been in marginalizing the importance of their engagement in serving the common good.

The academy is being buffeted by social and economic changes beyond its control. It is asked to understand and respond to those changes. This Criterion posits that effective engagement with society is a dialogue that involves the organization at multiple points and levels. Moreover, it posits that services considered by all to be valuable and beneficial constitute evidence of effective engagement.

In the first Criterion, the Commission calls for an organization to make explicit how it defines its constituencies and the service it intends to provide them. This fifth Criterion repeats that call but asks for evidence that the organization lives up to its mission.

Criterion Five: Core Component 5a

The organization learns from the constituencies it serves and analyzes its capacity to serve their needs and expectations.

There is an expectation in this Core Component that an organization affiliated with the Commission will be proactive in relations with its constituencies. Assuming that the organization has a clear sense of who constitutes its constituencies, this proposes that an engaged institution tries to listen to them to discern their educational needs. This Core Component deliberately did not use the words "the organization identifies the needs of its constituents." Engagement involves an interaction that leads to results of mutual benefit.

Effective engagement also requires careful consideration of whether and how the organization can—or should—meet all the expectations. The hard fact is that many organizations lack the capacity to respond to every educational need around them. Not every need, therefore, is automatically an opportunity to be grasped. There are times that organizational mission alone precludes a positive response. More often, the organization needs to be clear about whether it can fulfill the need or should offer to find other organizations better equipped to respond. Usually it is not hard for an organization that is eager to serve to identify unmet educational needs. But the organization should be clear about whether those needs come from its clearly identified constituency and, if so, whether the organization can reasonably meet them.

Many colleges and universities have created distinct administrative or educational units to respond to external constituency needs. At the very least, such organizations need to evaluate the effectiveness of those units both in identifying the appropriate needs and in creating and delivering training and education to meet them.

Examples of Evidence

As it defines and interprets evidence related to this Core Component, an organization may wish to consider the following Examples of Evidence.

- *The organization's commitments are shaped by its mission and its capacity to support those commitments.*
- *The organization practices periodic environmental scanning to understand the changing needs of its constituencies and their communities.*
- *The organization demonstrates attention to the diversity of the constituencies it serves.*
- *The organization's outreach programs respond to identified community needs.*
- *In responding to external constituencies, the organization is well-served by programs such as continuing education, outreach, customized training, and extension services.*

Criterion Five: Core Component 5b

The organization has the capacity and the commitment to engage with its identified constituencies and communities.

It is worth noting that capacity appears in two of the Core Components for this Criterion. Over the last thirty years, many organizations accredited by the Commission have moved their educational offerings off campus into high schools, learning centers, shopping malls, branch campuses, and other locations. In so doing, they have dramatically increased access to higher education. Capacity can be a real challenge to being responsive, no matter how strong the commitment. Some colleges clearly have capacity but have no strong overarching organizational commitment that enables them to make use of it.

An effective college or university is able to define its primary constituents and communities. For many, geography essentially defines both. For others, both are defined more by shared beliefs. Some more specialized colleges serve both a professional community and a specific business or industry. In an era of intense competition for students and finances, constituencies and communities of service can become extraordinarily fluid. Community colleges, once clear about who their constituents were, now use the Internet to identify constituents in a global rather than local community. Several liberal arts colleges continue to have small residential campuses but have hundreds or thousands of students enrolled in their programs in foreign countries. Regional public universities use technology to expand their constituencies to include many outside the region and the state. The risk of such fluid definitions of constituencies is that none might be served adequately.

A connected organization strives to serve constituencies by creating connections among them as well. Service learning programs, for example, now appear on many campuses. Faculty, students, and external constituencies of the college collaborate in creating activities directly connecting student learning with serving community needs.

Examples of Evidence

As it defines and interprets evidence related to this Core Component, an organization may wish to consider the following Examples of Evidence.

- *The organization's structures and processes enable effective connections with its communities.*
- *The organization's cocurricular activities engage students, staff, administrators, and faculty with external communities.*
- *The organization's educational programs connect students with external communities.*
- *The organization's resources—physical, financial, and human—support effective programs of engagement and service.*
- *Planning processes project ongoing engagement and service.*

Criterion Five: Core Component 5c

The organization demonstrates its responsiveness to those constituencies that depend on it for service.

For the most part, it is the college or university, not the Commission, that determines its constituencies. But organizations of higher learning must accept some constituencies as theirs, and recognize that they have a responsibility toward these constituencies. Perhaps the constituencies most talked about are elementary and secondary education systems. From those systems come students for our colleges and universities; from our colleges and universities come the teachers for those systems. More and more high school graduates believe that college is necessary for their future success, and increasing numbers of them matriculate. The lack of fit is evident as developmental courses balloon in numbers and enrollments and as course and degree completion rates stagnate. Responsibility for this must be shared, and many colleges are helping high schools in their region bring their students to mutually accepted standards of performance.

In many rural sections of the North Central region, communities have come to depend on a single college, or two or three reasonably closely located institutions, for educational services. The willingness of those institutions to collaborate to create seamless pathways for many kinds of learners is strong evidence of engagement and service. Sometimes the collaboration must involve local business or industry as the best partner, while at other times the most effective partner could be a college hundreds of miles away that is willing to collaborate in creating programs needed by the community. Participating in the creation of multiorganizational higher learning centers is a good example of responding to educational needs by drawing on the strengths of several different colleges and universities.

In our urban areas, many colleges find their constituencies shifting simply because the demographics of the local population shifts. Suddenly there might be a major demand for educational services that, by mission and commitment, they want to provide, but that they are ill-equipped to handle. It is a testimony to engagement when such colleges show creativity in effectively compensating for their lack of preparedness.

➥ *Visit our Web site*

for a statement of Good Practice on Transfer

The Commission does not dictate organizational policies and procedures for accepting transfer credits, but it holds that good practice requires the consideration of more than the source of the accreditation of a sending program or institution. The team will review the organization's transfer of credit policies as a part of its visit. The Commission encourages organizations to review transfer policies and procedures periodically to ensure clarity for those who administer them, for the students who follow them, and for employers and other stakeholders who refer to them, as well as the consistency of their interpretation and application throughout the institution. The organization should also consider whether its policies and procedures are responsive to new types of learning opportunities outside institutions of higher education.

Examples of Evidence

As it defines and interprets evidence related to this Core Component, an organization may wish to consider the following Examples of Evidence.

- *Collaborative ventures exist with other higher learning organizations and education sectors (e.g., K-12 partnerships, articulation arrangements, 2+2 programs).*
- *The organization's transfer policies and practices create an environment supportive of the mobility of learners.*
- *Community leaders testify to the usefulness of the organization's programs of engagement.*
- *The organization's programs of engagement give evidence of building effective bridges among diverse communities.*
- *The organization participates in partnerships focused on shared educational, economic, and social goals.*
- *The organization's partnerships and contractual arrangements uphold the organization's integrity.*

Criterion Five: Core Component 5d

Internal and external constituencies value the services the organization provides.

This Core Component calls for evaluation, but it sets the measure of usefulness and effectiveness of service as the value external and internal constituencies find in it. Perhaps being able to attend an organization's theater productions or to participate in forums and workshops on health care, child care, gerontology, tax filing, drug dependency, and welfare benefits are of value to members of the community. Moreover, the organization or members in it should also find value in extending these opportunities. While the numbers of partners might testify to the value the external community places in an organization's service learning programs, it is important to know whether students and faculty value the learning achieved through those programs. Sometimes the measures of values differ.

For example, professionals will value a program to gain license-mandated CEUs; the organization may value the income derived from providing the program.

At the center of this Criterion and this Core Component is the expectation that organizations affiliated with the Commission take seriously their unique role in providing services to their communities of interest. As important and common as they may be, blood drives, participation in the United Way, and voter registration programs are evidence of service, but may lack the sense of engagement. Because the Commission accredits such a breadth of organizations and because those organizations have exceptionally different constituencies to serve, there cannot be an expectation that all will provide similar services. A comprehensive community college, for example, may offer many customized training programs; a selective liberal arts college may provide a strong alumni educational program; and a specialized school of applied health may connect with public clinics.

Examples of Evidence

As it defines and interprets evidence related to this Core Component, an organization may wish to consider the following Examples of Evidence.

- *The organization's evaluation of services involves the constituencies served.*
- *Service programs and student, faculty, and staff volunteer activities are well-received by the communities served.*
- *The organization's economic and workforce development activities are sought after and valued by civic and business leaders.*
- *External constituents participate in the organization's activities and cocurricular programs open to the public.*
- *The organization's facilities are available to and used by the community.*
- *The organization provides programs to meet the continuing education needs of licensed professionals in its community.*

APPENDIX F:
CFAT Documentation Framework

Elective Classification: Community Engagement

2008 Documentation Framework
(revised 10/23/2007[1])

The Carnegie Foundation's elective classification for Community Engagement affirms that a university or college has institutionalized Community Engagement in its identity, culture, and commitments. It also affirms that the practices of community engagement are aligned with the institution's identity and form an integral component of the institutional culture. Those practices may be focused in curricular engagement, outreach and partnerships, or both.

> *Community Engagement* describes the collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities (local, regional/state, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity.

The attached documentation framework provides a guide for institutions to develop and document their community engagement efforts. The framework is intentionally designed to support multiple definitions, diverse approaches, and institutionally-unique examples and data. The framework consists of two parts, *Foundational Indicators* and *Categories of Community Engagement.* Only institutions that satisfy the required items in the first part should proceed to the second one.

Institutions currently included in the Community Engagement classification will retain their present classification. The 2008 process is to accommodate new participants.

Process and Timeline

Data will be collected through an on-line survey. A call for participation will be issued in January 2008. The call will be posted on the Foundation's Web site and will be announced to all subscribers to the Classifications mailing list.

Institutions will signal their intent to participate by responding to the call and designating a contact person by March 1, 2008. When data collection opens in April 2008, institution-specific survey invitations will be emailed to each institutional contact. Data collection will close on September 1, 2008, and classifications will be announced in December 2008.

While we expect to accommodate all interested institutions, if the response exceeds our capacity to perform a thorough review we may find it necessary to limit the number of participants. If necessary, our decision will be guided primarily by date of formal response to the call for participation, with additional consideration given to diversity of institutional types.

Please Note: This document was prepared to convey the framework's content, not the precise format of data collection. Changes in content or format may be made in the online data collection.

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[1] Summary of changes from initial version: Introductory wording expanded to describe the process and timeline. "Introduction" and "Wrap-Up" sections added to more fully reflect the online data collection. Minor changes were made on the framework content and formatting.

Elective Classification: Community Engagement

I. Introduction

This documentation framework is intended to gather information on your institution's commitments and activities regarding community engagement. You can stop data entry at any time and resume later. [Other software-specific instructions as needed.]

Use of data. The information you provide will be used to determine your institution's community engagement classification. Only those institutions approved for classification will be identified. At the end of the survey, you will have an opportunity to authorize or prohibit the use of this information for other research purposes.

Please provide your contact information (for Carnegie Foundation use only):

Name:
Title:
Institution:
City, State:
Telephone:
Email:

This is a facsimile of a documentation framework that will be implemented through a web-based data collection in 2008.

II. Foundational Indicators

A. Institutional Identity and Culture

Required Documentation (Complete all 5 of the following)

1. Does the institution indicate that community engagement is a priority in its mission statement (or vision)?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Quote the mission (vision)

2. Does the institution formally recognize community engagement through campus-wide awards and celebrations?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Describe with examples

3. a. Does the institution have mechanisms for systematic assessment of community perceptions of the institution's engagement with community?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Describe the mechanisms

   b. Does the institution aggregate and use the assessment data?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Describe how the data is used

4. Is community engagement emphasized in the marketing materials (website, brochures, etc.) of the institution?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Describe the materials

5. Does the executive leadership of the institution (President, Provost, Chancellor, Trustees, etc.) explicitly promote community engagement as a priority?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Describe examples such as annual address, published editorial, campus publications, etc.

This is a facsimile of a documentation framework that will be implemented through a web-based data collection in 2008. 2

B. Institutional Commitment

Required Documentation (Complete all 6 of the following)

1. Does the institution have a campus-wide coordinating infrastructure (center, office, etc.) to support and advance community engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No — Describe with purposes, staffing

2. a. Are there internal budgetary allocations dedicated to supporting institutional engagement with community?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No — Describe (percentage or dollar amount), source, whether it is permanent, and how it is used, etc.

   b. Is there external funding dedicated to supporting institutional engagement with community?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No — Describe specific funding

   c. Is there fundraising directed to community engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No — Describe fundraising activities

3. a. Does the institution maintain systematic campus-wide tracking or documentation mechanisms to record and/or track engagement in community?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No — Describe

   b. If yes, does the institution use the data from those mechanisms?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No — Describe

   c. Are there systematic campus-wide assessment mechanisms to measure the impact of institutional engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No

   d. If yes, indicate the focus of those mechanisms

   ☐ Impact on students — Describe one key finding

   ☐ Impact on faculty — Describe one key finding

   ☐ Impact on community — Describe one key finding

   ☐ Impact on institution — Describe one key finding

e. Does the institution use the data from the assessment mechanisms?

☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

4. Is community engagement defined and planned for in the strategic plans of the institution?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No Describe and quote

5. Does the institution provide professional development support for faculty and/or staff who engage with community?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

6. Does community have a "voice" or role in institutional or departmental planning for community engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

<u>Supplemental Documentation</u> (Complete all of the following)

1. Does the institution have search/recruitment policies that encourage the hiring of faculty with expertise in and commitment to community engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

2. a. Do the institutional policies for promotion and tenure reward the scholarship of community engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

   b. If yes, how does the institution classify community-engaged scholarship? (Service, Scholarship of Application, other)

   Explain

   b (cont'd). If no, is there work in progress to revise promotion and tenure guidelines to reward the scholarship of community engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

3. Do students have a leadership role in community engagement? What kind of decisions do they influence (planning, implementation, assessment, or other)?

☐ Yes ☐ No Examples

4. Is community engagement noted on student transcripts?

☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

5. Is there a faculty governance committee with responsibilities for community engagement?

☐ Yes ☐ No Describe

III. Categories of Community Engagement

A. Curricular Engagement

Curricular Engagement describes the teaching, learning and scholarship that engages faculty, students, and community in mutually beneficial and respectful collaboration. Their interactions address community identified needs, deepen students' civic and academic learning, enhance community well-being, and enrich the scholarship of the institution.

NOTE: The terms community-based learning, academic service learning, and other expressions are often used to denote service learning courses.

1. a. Does the institution have a definition and a process for identifying Service Learning courses?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Describe requirements

   b. How many formal for-credit Service Learning courses were offered in the most recent academic year? _____
   What percentage of total courses? _____

   c. How many departments are represented by those courses? _____
   What percentage of total departments? _____

   d. How many faculty taught Service Learning courses in the most recent academic year? _____
   What percentage of faculty? _____

   e. How many students participated in Service Learning courses in the most recent academic year? _____
   What percentage of students? _____

2. a. Are there institutional (campus-wide) learning outcomes for students' curricular engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Provide specific learning outcome examples

   b. Are there departmental or disciplinary learning outcomes for students' curricular engagement?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Provide specific learning outcome examples

   c. Are those outcomes systematically assessed?

   ☐ Yes ☐ No | Describe

This is a facsimile of a documentation framework that will be implemented through a web-based data collection in 2008.

3. a. Is community engagement integrated into the following curricular activities?

- ☐ Student Research
- ☐ Student Leadership
- ☐ Internships/Co-ops
- ☐ Study Abroad

Describe with examples

b. Has community engagement been integrated with curriculum on an institution-wide level?

Describe with examples

☐ Yes ☐ No If yes, indicate where the integration exists.

☐ Core Courses	☐ Graduate Studies
☐ First Year Sequence	☐ Capstone (Senior level project)
☐ In the Majors	☐ General Education

4. Are there examples of faculty scholarship associated with their curricular engagement achievements (action research studies, conference presentations, pedagogy workshops, publications, etc.)?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Provide a minimum of five examples from different disciplines.

B. Outreach and Partnerships

Outreach and Partnerships describe two different but related approaches to community engagement. The first focuses on the application and provision of institutional resources for community use with benefits to both campus and community. The latter focuses on collaborative interactions with community and related scholarship for the mutually beneficial exchange, exploration, and application of knowledge, information, and resources (research, capacity building, economic development, etc.

1. Indicate which outreach programs are developed for community:

- ☐ learning centers
- ☐ tutoring
- ☐ extension programs
- ☐ non-credit courses
- ☐ evaluation support
- ☐ training programs
- ☐ professional development centers
- ☐ other (specify)

Describe with examples

2. Which institutional resources are provided as outreach to the community?

- ☐ co-curricular student service
- ☐ work/study student placements
- ☐ cultural offerings
- ☐ athletic offerings
- ☐ library services
- ☐ technology
- ☐ faculty consultation

Describe with examples

3. Using the following grid, describe representative partnerships (both institutional and departmental) that were in place during the most recent academic year. (maximum 15 partnerships)

	Partnership Name	Community Partner	Institutional Partner	Purpose	Length of Partnership	# of faculty	# of students	Grant funding	Institution Impact	Community Impact
1.										
2.										
3.										
4.										
5.										
…										
15.										

This is a facsimile of a documentation framework that will be implemented through a web-based data collection in 2008.

4. Does the institution or do the departments work to promote the mutuality and reciprocity of the partnerships?

☐ Yes ☐ No Describe the strategies

b. Are there mechanisms to systematically provide feedback and assessment to community partners?

☐ Yes ☐ No Describe the mechanisms

5. Are there examples of faculty scholarship associated with their outreach and partnerships activities (technical reports, curriculum, research reports, policy reports, publications, etc.)?

☐ Yes ☐ No Provide a minimum of five examples from varied disciplines

IV. Wrap-Up

1. (Optional) Use this space to elaborate on any short-answer item(s) where you need more space. Please specify the corresponding section and item number(s).

2. (Optional) Is there any information that was not requested that you consider significant evidence of your institution's community engagement? If so, please provide the information in this space.

3. (Optional) Please provide any suggestions or comments you may have on the documentation process and online data collection.

4. May we use the information you have provided for research purposes beyond the determination of classification (for example, conference papers, journal articles, and research reports), with the understanding that your institution's identity will not be disclosed without permission? (Your answer will have no bearing on the classification decision.)

   ☐ Yes ☐ No

APPENDIX G

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching National Advisory Panel: Community Engagement Classification 2007 - 2009 Members

Amy Driscoll
Senior Scholar
The Carnegie Foundation for the
Advancement of Teaching

Tom Ehrlich
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North Central Association: Higher Learning Commission Mission and the Common Good Study Team 2002

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Lady Branham
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Michael J. Garanzini
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Barbara Taylor
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J. W. Upright
President
Clarkson College

Garrison Walters
Vice Chancellor for Academic
Affairs and Economic Advancement
Ohio Board of Regents

APPENDIX H
The Connected Organization

- Serves the common good. The connected organization sees its role as serving society. Throughout these new Criteria, the Commission signals the importance of linkages between member organizations and the broader society. Criteria call on member organizations to state—in mission, vision, and values documents—the ways they mean to serve their constituents. Criterion One is clear that even the most distinctive organization still must understand that it serves the greater society.
- Serves constituents. The test of every good statement of intent is actual performance. While Criteria Three and Four focus primarily on internal constituencies, Criterion Five requires an accredited organization to address the multiple connections between it and the broader society. Engagement is not a synonym for service; engagement suggests a two-way relationship through which the organization is open to learning from those it wishes to serve. Strong mutual understanding is necessary for the many services that an accredited organization may choose to provide to be effective.
- Creates a culture of service. A connected organization creates and supports a culture of service. A variety of programs and volunteer and community service activities may be available for engaging students, faculty, staff, and administrators. Increasingly, organizations have sought to integrate community service into the learning opportunities they provide, expecting students and faculty to define the learning that occurred through participation in mentored activities in the community. In the very way it interacts with local, regional, state, and national organizations and issues, the organization models service for its constituencies.
- Collaborates. A connected organization deals effectively with seemingly competing imperatives: protecting the integrity of the organization while engaging in partnerships and collaborations that challenge some concepts of autonomy. An accredited organization must be responsible for everything that uses its name, but it also must build dependable bridges to other institutions

and organizations that provide education. A connected organization understands its role in helping students create seamless learning pathways through and among these institutions and organizations. This is as true for pathways between high schools and colleges as for pathways between colleges and graduate programs. It is true for pathways from nationally accredited organizations as well as from organizations accredited by other regional associations. Increasingly, connected organizations work to diminish unnecessary educational barriers to people from other countries.

- Engages in healthy internal communication. Other kinds of connections are also vital to the well-being of an accredited organization. The connected organization shows that it understands that the health of connections within its community is key to its success. Effective governance and administrative structures, for example, connect multiple internal constituents in shared efforts to fulfill the organization's mission. Criterion One calls for an institution to evaluate the health and effectiveness of these connections. Criterion Two identifies a major challenge to healthy internal connections, the alignment of all levels of planning with the organization's mission.

(HLC Handbook, 2004, p. 3.3-3-3.3-4)

APPENDIX I:
CARNEGIE CLASSIFIED INSTITUTIONS
2006 Carnegie Community Engagement Classification

Curricular Engagement

Bowling Green State University-Main Campus
California State University-Monterey Bay
Pitzer College
Spelman College
Tusculum College

Outreach and Partnerships

California State University-Chico
Kent State University-Main Campus
Oklahoma State University-Main Campus
Rockford College
Rutgers University-Newark
University of Cincinnati-Main Campus
University of North Dakota-Main Campus
University of South Florida

Curricular Engagement and Outreach and Partnerships

Allegheny College
Antioch University New England
Arizona State University at the Tempe Campus
Bates College
Boise State University
Bristol Community College
Bryn Mawr College
California State University-Fresno
California State University-San Marcos
Chandler/Gilbert Community College
DePaul University
Elon University
Emory University
Gettysburg College
Indiana State University
Indiana University-Purdue University-Indianapolis
Kapiolani Community College
Keene State College
Madonna University
Michigan State University
Middlebury College
Middlesex Community College
Morehead State University
New York University
North Carolina State University at Raleigh
Northern Kentucky University
Otis College of Art and Design
Pace University-New York
Portland State University
Rhodes College
Richland College
Saint Thomas Aquinas College
San Francisco State University
Santa Clara University
Southwestern University
Syracuse University
Texas Tech University
Trinity College
Tufts University
University of Alaska Anchorage
University of Baltimore
University of California-Los Angeles
University of Denver
University of Kentucky
University of Massachusetts-Boston
University of Memphis
University of Minnesota-Twin Cities
University of Nebraska at Omaha
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
University of Northern Iowa
University of Pennsylvania
University of Redlands
University of San Diego
University of San Francisco
University of St. Thomas
University of Vermont and State Agricultural College
University of Wisconsin-Parkside
Virginia Commonwealth University
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Wartburg College
Western Kentucky University
Widener University-Main Campus
Winona State University

2008 Carnegie Community Engagement Classification

Curricular Engagement

La Sierra University
Saint Mary's College of California

Outreach and Partnerships

Massachusetts College of Art and Design
Northern Illinois University
Owens Community College
University of Houston- Downtown
University of New Hampshire
University of North Carolina at Pembroke

Curricular Engagement and Outreach and Partnerships

Alvernia College
Anne Arundel Community College
Appalachian State University
Augsburg College
Bentley College
Berea College
Bunker Hill Community College
Cabrini College
California State University, Fullerton
California State University, San Bernardino
California State University-Long Beach
California State University-Stanislaus
Central College
Clemson University
College of the Holy Cross
Colorado State University
Daemen College
Defiance College
Dominican University of California
Drexel University
Duke University
Duquesne University
East Carolina University
East Tennessee State University
Eastern Kentucky University
Eastern Michigan University
Eckerd College
Emory & Henry College
Fairfield University
Fielding Graduate University
Finlandia University
Florida Gulf Coast University
Fort Hays State University
Georgetown University
Hocking College
Iowa State University
Johnson and Wales University
Judson College
Keuka College
Lawrence Technological University
Louisiana State University
Loyola University Chicago
Mercer University
Messiah College
Metropolitan State University
Miami Dade College
Middle Tennessee State University
Mount St. Mary's College
Mount Wachusett Community College
Nazareth College
Niagara University
North Carolina Central University
Northampton Community College
Northern Michigan University
Northwest Florida State College (formerly Okaloosa Walton College)
Occidental College
Ohio State University
Otterbein College
Pennsylvania State University
Pfeiffer University
Purdue University
Raritan Valley Community College
Regis University
Rice University
Rollins College
Saint Anselm College
Saint Peter's College
San Jose State University
Springfield College
Stetson University
Stonehill College
SUNY College at Cortland
Swarthmore College
The University of Montana- Missoula
Towson University
Tulane University
Universidad del Sagrado Corazon
University of Akron
University of Alabama
University of Alabama at Birmingham
University of Central Florida

University of Detroit Mercy
University of Houston
University of Houston-Clear Lake
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
University of Louisville
University of Maine
University of Massachusetts Dartmouth
University of Massachusetts Lowell
University of Massachusetts Medical School Worcester
University of Massachusetts-Amherst
University of Michigan
University of Missouri-Columbia
University of North Carolina at Charlotte
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
University of North Carolina Wilmington
University of Scranton
University of South Carolina-Columbia
University of Southern Indiana
University of Tennessee-Chattanooga
University of Wisconsin-Madison
Utah Valley University (formerly Utah Valley State College)
Villanova University
Wagner College
Washington State University
Wayne State University
Weber State University
Wentworth Institute of Technology
Wesleyan University
Western Carolina University
Winthrop University
Xavier University

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VITA

I was born in a small town north of Aberdeen, Scotland. My early years included extensive international travel and expatriate living in Cyprus, Zambia and Saudi Arabia, all of which led to a life-long interest in the entrepreneurial development of community support systems. This exposure to many cultures gave me a great appreciation for the myriad aspects of life that shape individual and group experiences. As a result of these experiences, I am acutely aware of how misunderstanding (and conflict) can form based upon differing interpretations of the same phenomena. Through attending college and working at the University of South Alabama, Central Missouri State University (now the University of Central Missouri) and the University of Missouri, I have held a variety of higher education administration positions. Most of these positions have related to policy development or implementation. Currently, my interests (rather broadly) are the impact that society and its institutions have on individual behavior and vice versa. Slightly more specific is my interest in the role of educational institutions (particularly post-secondary) in shaping community engagement and volunteerism and how institutions of higher education “behave” as corporate citizens and the influence they have in terms of fostering service and philanthropy. I continue to be particularly interested in the language and discourse of an institution’s communications, publications, policies and regulations , relating to their community engagement and outreach activities.