In announcing the 76 institutions to receive the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching new elective Community Engagement classification, Amy Driscoll, associate senior scholar and director of the pilot project, noted that, “even among the most compelling applications, few institutions described promotion and tenure policies that recognize and reward the scholarship associated with community engagement” (available online: http://www.carnegiefoundation.org/news/sub.asp?key=51&subkey=2126). Driscoll’s tempering of the Carnegie announcement is significant: for many advocates of postsecondary community engagement and academic service-learning, sustainability of efforts is linked to ensuring faculty reward for efforts in these areas. Given the importance of reward structures for the future of community engagement on college campuses, we know little about faculty perceptions on this topic. Of the nearly 200 articles published to date in the Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, approximately 13 have explored factors that motivate, influence, or impact faculty involved in service-learning or community-based research. However, none have focused directly on the specific issue of how faculty perceptions and behaviors may be influenced by reward structures. This article investigates faculty perceptions of the relationship between the concepts of service and scholarship, exploring the impact of institutional attempts to modify those perceptions.

Faculty Perceptions of Service As a Mode of Scholarship

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The authors provide historical context related to the changing nature of scholarship and how it is rewarded, paying particular attention to the concept of service. Data collected from education faculty employed at Mississippi public universities is then used to identify how perceptions of service as a supported form of scholarship correlate to institutional policies (most notably tenure and promotion policies). Conclusions are consistent with other studies that find the service role to be neither highly valued nor well defined. However, it appears that institutional initiatives aimed at broadening the notion of service and strengthening rewards for it are reflected in faculty perceptions on individual campuses. It is not clear, however, that faculty behaviors actually conform to those perceptions. Some of the qualitative data suggest that other social, cultural, political, and contextual realities within an institution and/or discipline have an equal or greater role in the formation of these perceptions. These considerations about service are considered in the context of recent exhortations for faculty to incorporate activities immediately useful for communities into their work.

In announcing the 76 institutions to receive the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching new elective Community Engagement classification, Amy Driscoll, associate senior scholar and director of the pilot project, noted that, “even among the most compelling applications, few institutions described promotion and tenure policies that recognize and reward the scholarship associated with community engagement” (available online: http://www.carnegiefoundation.org/news/sub.asp?key=51&subkey=2126). Driscoll’s tempering of the Carnegie announcement is significant: for many advocates of postsecondary community engagement and academic service-learning, sustainability of efforts is linked to ensuring faculty reward for efforts in these areas. Given the importance of reward structures for the future of community engagement on college campuses, we know little about faculty perceptions on this topic. Of the nearly 200 articles published to date in the Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, approximately 13 have explored factors that motivate, influence, or impact faculty involved in service-learning or community-based research. However, none have focused directly on the specific issue of how faculty perceptions and behaviors may be influenced by reward structures. This article investigates faculty perceptions of the relationship between the concepts of service and scholarship, exploring the impact of institutional attempts to modify those perceptions.

Literature Review

Scholarship and Service: A Historical Context

What is regarded as scholarship in higher education has evolved over time. From the beginning, there has been a clash between the traditional classical (Great Books) curriculum and the idea that academe ought to serve a more direct utilitarian purpose in society (Flexner, 1994; Jencks & Reisman, 1968; Kerr, 1995; Lucas, 1994; Rudolph, 1990; Veysey, 1965). According to an 1829 Yale Report, the focus of scholarship was almost entirely dedicated to providing instruction until the mid- and late-1800s (Lucas, 1994). In 1866, Andrew D. White stated that at Cornell University, “facility and power in imparting the truth are even more necessary than in discovering it.” Less than 30 years later, William Rainey Harper announced that the University of Chicago would make investigation its primary work (Rudolph, 1990), and Johns Hopkins’ first president, Daniel Coit Gilman, asserted that “the best teachers are usually those who are free, competent and willing to make original researches in the library and the laboratory” (available online: http://www.jhu.edu/news_info/jhuinfo/history.html). At about the same time, the Wisconsin Idea, representing the most complete and direct engagement of college or university resources toward addressing social problems, was established by Richard T. Ely, director of University of Wisconsin School of Economics, Political Science, and History in 1892. Ely was instrumental in engaging faculty in a new
capacity: providing advisory service to governmental leaders (Lucas, 1994). Lynton (1995) described this role of faculty service at the time as,

an application of the individual’s professional expertise to problems and tasks outside the campus. It did not mean committee work on campus, nor the work for professional or disciplinary associations; it did not mean collecting for the United Way or jury duty. (p. 8)

According to Rice (1996), the current image of the American scholar emerged during the period of expansion in higher education after World War II, when the view of the scholar as researcher pursuing knowledge for its own sake emerged as dominant. In 1963, Clark Kerr described the basic reality of the American research university as being the production agent of new knowledge and that this endeavor was,

...the most important factor in economic and social growth. We are just now perceiving that the university’s invisible product, knowledge, may be the most powerful single element in our culture, affecting the rise and fall of professions and even of social classes, of regions and even of nations. (Kerr, 1995, p. xiv)

By the 1980s, the predisposition toward and importance of knowledge production in universities had evolved so completely that the term scholarship had become synonymous with research and publication (Boyer, 1990; Rice, 1991; Sundre, 1990). Scholarship had become narrowly defined as inquiry that led to publications in prestigious journals (Blackburn, Bieber, Lawrence, & Trautvetter, 1991; Boyer, 1990; Fairweather, 1993, 1996; Pellino, Blackburn, & Boberg, 1984; Rice, 1991).

Studies of emphasis confirm these trends, often measured in terms of time spent on the various tasks involved in the tripartite faculty role: research, teaching and service. Looking at trends over 20 years in three national surveys, Milem and Berger (2000) found a growing similarity in patterns of time allocation, with faculty at all types of institutions reporting that they spend more time doing research and preparing for teaching, and less time advising or counseling students. Earlier, some conflicting evidence emerged regarding the relationship between the time spent teaching and conducting research. Fairweather (1993, 2002) found a high negative correlation to exist, while Dey, Milem and Berger (1997), using longitudinal data, found no relationship between the two. The latter study also showed an increase in the amount of time spent conducting research over a 20 year period at all four-year institutions, a decrease in time spent advising students, and a decrease in time spent teaching at research universities, but an increase at doctoral, comprehensive, liberal arts, and community colleges. Results from several national studies over several decades show the ascendancy over time of research productivity in determining faculty rewards (Blackburn & Bentley, 1990; Fairweather, 1996).

Various researchers have constructed typologies of faculty duties and responsibilities that imply levels of importance of service. Pellino and colleagues (1984), based on a factor analysis of the frequency of faculty and administrator responses to 32 activity statements, delineated six dimensions of scholarship: professional activity, research (publishing), teaching, service, artistic endeavor, and “engagement with the novel.” Sundre (1989) also used factor analysis to delineate the most common attributes of scholars: (a) published articles, (b) respect by peers across the disciplines, (c) broad generalized knowledge beyond the field, (d) contribution to, or influence on, the field through research, and (e) sharing knowledge with others; these were organized into four factors: (a) pedagogy, (b) publication and professional recognition, (c) intellectual characteristics of scholars, and (d) creative and artistic attributes. Other typologies are offered by Ernest Lynton (1995) and Diamond (1993, 1994, 1995a, 1995b, 1999).

Catalysts for Change

Changes in perceptions of faculty roles and rewards over the long run seem to have been generated largely by external influences rather than from within. The expansion of the role of the federal government in academe served as one catalyst to changes in our modern conception of scholarship, beginning with the passage of the Morrill Federal Land Grant Act of 1862 and peaking with the commissioning of full-scale research agendas in the 1950s and 1960s, through a variety of programs initiated by the National Science Foundation, the National Institutes of Health, and the National Defense Education Act of 1958. During World War II, sponsored research increased the federal government’s involvement in higher education. After the War, the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act of 1944 (the G.I. Bill of Rights) brought a great expansion of colleges and universities. Finally, fear of Soviet military dominance following the launch of Sputnik resulted in the National Defense Act of 1958, which authorized the federal government to expand sponsorship of university-based research (Lucas, 1994).

Ewell and Wellman (1997) note three influences on higher education and faculty roles and responsibilities: (a) direct regulation, (b) incentive systems,
and (c) information-driven markets by the federal government, the states, institutional creditors and governing boards, disciplinary and professional organizations, third-party information providers, and the market. Bloland (1999) notes the overall impact of “outside” stakeholders increasingly wielding influence on faculty lives, and Layzell (1996) referred to the issue of faculty workload and productivity as “one of the more highly charged and controversial topics pertaining to higher education today” (p. 267). There is little doubt that external scrutiny of faculty activity and productivity has increased, and any discussion of faculty roles, assessment, and reward would be incomplete were this political and economic reality unrecognized.

Although external factors have historically served as the primary catalysts for major change, attempts at reform have happened within the academy. During the 1980s and 1990s, many individuals and organizations within academe began to reexamine the way faculty roles were defined and rewarded. During this period, nearly all major postsecondary organizations created programmatic initiatives, commissioned studies, and/or issued reports related to the changing nature and definition of scholarship or how it was rewarded. These efforts focused largely on the concept of teaching as scholarship (Shulman & Harms, 1999) but also included a general broadening of conceptions of scholarship. The conversation had traditionally been framed as teaching versus scholarship (Burroughs, 1990) but during this period began to focus more on the integrative nature of the areas of research, teaching, and service, with all three increasingly seen as aspects of scholarship (Blackburn, Bieber, Lawrence, & Trautvetter, 1991; Diamond, 1993; Fairweather, 1996). A view of service as scholarship was first embodied in Boyer’s Scholarship Reconsidered (1990), which provided a new framework for scholarship: discovery, integration, application, and teaching. Boyer and others urged colleges and universities to practice “diversity with dignity” by establishing unique missions that respond to community needs. A decade later, Rice (2003) described the evolution of Boyer’s concept of a “scholarship of application” into a “scholarship of engagement.” The chief distinction made is that engagement emphasizes genuine collaboration and moves away from the more traditional “expert” model wherein knowledge flows in one direction: out from the university.

By 1994, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching’s survey of chief academic officers (CAOs) at the nation’s four-year colleges and universities indicated that the “most widely embraced goal was to redefine such traditional faculty roles as teaching, research and service” (Glassick, Huber, & Maeroff, 1997, p. 12). An overwhelming majority of CAOs asserted that definitions of scholarship were being broadened at their institutions to encompass the full range of faculty activities.

**Complexity of Assessing Effectiveness of Broadened Scholarship Reforms**

Several factors have impeded progress toward assessing the effectiveness of these efforts. First, there seemed to be little consensus about definitions of scholarship, mechanisms to assess the quality of service work, or appropriate ways to broaden the reward structure to accommodate broader scholarship conceptualizations. Service is difficult to define within a scholarly context. Boyer (1990) wrote that “colleges and universities have recently rejected service as serious scholarship, partly because its meaning is so vague and often disconnected from serious intellectual work.” McCallum (1994) states, “when most faculty use the term service they often associate it with an unrewarded but necessary activity distinct from teaching and research or scholarship” (p. 332). Hawthorne (1990) concluded that “the definition of service is motley, suggesting the lack of scholarly attention to this subject and the exploratory nature of research” (p. 6).

Assessing the quality of service is difficult. Although Glassick, Huber and Maeroff (1997) suggest six specific criteria for recognizing service activities: (a) shared goals, (b) adequate preparation, (c) appropriate methods, (d) significant results, (e) effective presentation, and (f) reflective critique (p. 25), there seemed overall to be little consensus, especially in arguments about whether applied scholarship (typically associated with unidirectional outreach to the community) was clearly distinguished from campus and community citizenship. Glassick et al. note that even when public service activities are identified in faculty handbooks, there is rarely any guidance regarding how to define and assess the quality of work in this area. Layzell (1996) reviewed faculty workload studies from across the country and reached the following conclusion: “the methods have numerous drawbacks, namely, the inability to account for such intangible aspects of productivity as the quality of output” (p. 277). O’Meara (2005) and Braxton et al. (2002) identified the development and adoption (particularly by prestigious institutions) of meaningful assessment criteria as one of the greatest challenges to institutional reform.

Another issue has been determining how to reward these activities within a scholarly context. Diamond (1999) has written extensively about the need to adjust faculty reward structures to emerging modes of scholarship. In doing so, he concludes that
an appropriate and effective promotion and tenure system must (a) align with the institution’s mission, (b) be sensitive to disciplinary differences, (c) be sensitive to individual differences, (d) include an appropriate, fair, and workable assessment program, (e) recognize departmental needs and priorities, and (f) articulate the characteristics of scholarly work. Palmer and Collins (2006) found that faculty emphasize recognition and access to new opportunities as rewards that vie with the importance of salary/financial rewards, and others stress the importance of different forms of institutional support, such as faculty development programs, acknowledgement from key individuals, and financial allocations toward logistical and administrative support (Bringle et al., 2000; Driscoll et al., 1996; Holland, 1997; Zlotkowski, 1998).

O’Meara (2005) provides perhaps the most direct assessment of the impact of various reforms to date. Through an analysis of data collected from CAOs, efforts to reform reward systems to encourage multiple forms of scholarship were found to have an impact. CAOs at institutions that had initiated reforms were significantly more likely than their counterparts to report that engagement was a consideration in faculty evaluation and that a higher percentage of tenure and promotion cases emphasized engagement. In addition, these individuals reported a greater congruence between faculty priorities and institutional mission, and an increased focus on improving undergraduate learning. However, the reforms studied “did not mute the very strong trend toward rising research expectations, rather they just contributed to...increasing expectations in every area of faculty work” (p. 505).

It seems, then, that an understanding of how faculty perceive service, especially the extent to which they view service as being connected to scholarly efforts, and how they are influenced by institutional initiatives to expand faculty involvement in service, would be of use to those seeking to promote engaged scholarship (including academic service-learning practitioners). Given that so little consensus on these matters exists within higher education, it also seems appropriate to focus an investigation on specific areas (geographic and disciplinary) within higher education. Such an analysis is provided below.

Methods

Research Design

This article uses data from a larger study of faculty perceptions of and attitudes toward service - including institutional definitions and time commitments—within the discipline of Education. The study used both qualitative and quantitative methods to adequately explore the complexity and depth of the meaning of service within the framework of scholarly endeavors. The qualitative phase of this investigation involved a variety of research traditions as described by Borg and Gall (1996, p. 593), including emancipatory action research, ethnography, phenomenological epistemology, and hermeneutics. The quantitative phase used descriptive and relational approaches, with data obtained through a survey instrument.

Throughout this study, the meaning of service was limited to activities that potentially occur within the framework of scholarship, as delineated by the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign as professional service—service that contributes to the public welfare or common good, calls upon faculty members’ academic and/or professional expertise, and directly addresses or responds to real-world problems, issues, interests or concerns (Lynton, 1995, p. 17). At the time that this data was collected, the term “engaged scholarship” was not commonly used; however, prior to participation focus group members were introduced to Boyer’s reformulation of scholarship into four dimensions, and survey participants were asked to conceive of professional service within the context of their scholarly work.

Sample

The population included individuals holding full-time faculty positions in all eight schools, departments, or colleges of education at Mississippi public four-year universities. Two sets of subjects participated in this investigation. In the first phase, a small set of subjects from each campus were recommended by the deans at each institution to participate in focus group interviews, with equal representation of tenured and untenured faculty. These data were used to construct the survey used in the second phase of the research. In that phase, surveys were made available online and subsequently mailed to the 288 full-time faculty employed within the eight schools and departments of education at all Mississippi public universities.

Data Collection

Focus group interviews on the meaning of service were conducted on each campus, and relevant promotion and tenure policies were also collected and analyzed for each campus. The surveys asked about attitudes and perceptions regarding service activities. The semi-structured faculty focus group interviews provided a means for investigating how individuals define service in a scholarly context, and these were used to develop a construct of how service is defined by faculty of education on these campuses. In addi-
tion to the questions generated from the focus group interviews, the survey incorporated questions from the following Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching surveys: (a) *International Survey of Academic Profession* (1991-93), (b) *National Survey of Faculty* (1989), and (c) *Survey on the Reexamination of Faculty Roles and Rewards* (1994). Survey questions were also formulated from a review of current literature.

The *Survey of Education Faculty at Mississippi Public Universities* was created and piloted by several faculty, administrators, and other professional colleagues. All full-time faculty of education at Mississippi’s public four-year institutions were asked to complete the survey online. Those who failed to submit the informed consent form and complete the online survey were subsequently mailed a hard copy of the survey via regular postal delivery. Of the 288 full-time education faculty, 131 responded to the survey, a response rate of 45%. The rates for individual campuses varied between 33% and 56%.

The first author also conducted an independent content analysis of tenure and promotion policies and other published literature (i.e., institutional and departmental catalogs and mission statements) to determine how service is defined (a) within schools, departments, divisions, and colleges of education, and (b) at the institutional level at the various public four-year universities in Mississippi. A coding scheme was developed to assign each campus a score for the importance of faculty service indicated by these items, based on Holland’s (1997) typology for levels of integration of service-learning within an institution (See Table 1). The schema was also influenced by Diamond’s (1999) analysis of institutional missions and their relation to reward structures.

### Data Analysis

The focus group interviews were recorded and transcribed, and a classification system was established to categorize responses for content analysis. This schema was reviewed by a committee of two faculty members and an external academic affairs administrator. This analysis focused on definitions of service and how they differed by group or institution. This classification schema was compared to typologies created by other researchers, and examples of service activities provided within the survey document were categorized to determine the fit of the responses to the typology. No existing classification schema or typology proved to be sufficiently broad to capture all types of services cited by respondents. Conversely, none of the existing typologies provided enough definition to prevent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
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| Level One Low Relevance | • Service is not operationally defined.  
• Service referred to solely in terms of work on committees or with disciplinary associations.  
• Service priorities are not identified.  
• Guidelines for documenting service activities are not provided.  
• No explicit service-related performance benchmarks or definitions. |
| Level Two Medium Relevance | • Service is only vaguely operationally defined.  
• Service may count in certain cases.  
• Service priorities are vaguely or indirectly identified; perhaps at the institutional level but not at the departmental level.  
• Broad guidelines for documenting service activities are provided.  
• Vague service performance benchmarks and definitions. |
| Level Three High Relevance | • Formal guidelines for documenting and rewarding service.  
• Faculty service is explicitly defined and/or mentioned in mission statement and promotion and tenure materials.  
• Service priorities are identified for the institution and/or the department.  
• Guidelines for documenting service activities are clear.  
• Specific service-related performance benchmarks are provided. |
| Level Four Full Integration | • Formal guidelines for documenting and rewarding service.  
• Faculty service is explicitly defined and/or mentioned in mission statement and promotion and tenure materials.  
• Service-related performance benchmarks are clear for department; service is a key criterion for hiring/promotion.  
• Service priorities are identified for the institution/department. |

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*Schnaubelt & Statham*
Faculty Perceptions of Service

overlap between categories.

The first section of the survey asked faculty a variety of demographic questions. The second section asked faculty to provide information concerning their professional activity and give examples of professional service activities; the examples given were categorized to test how well the responses fit typologies created by Lynton (1995) and by the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Relationships between these professional service activities and gender, institution, academic rank, and tenure status as independent variables were also examined.

The third and final section of the survey asked faculty to describe their attitudes toward service and perceptions of the relative value of service at their institutions. These are the questions we use in this analysis, as they were designed to tap into various aspects of the notion of service as scholarship. One item directly asked faculty if they perceived service to be a form of scholarship. Others asked about related aspects of service as scholarship, such as the extent to which expectations were well-defined and rewarded. Response categories to these questions formed a Likert scale and therefore produced ordinal data. Frequencies were plotted graphically and statistically analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis test for independent sample, a non-parametric one-way analysis of variance that takes advantage of the ordinal nature of the data when more than two groups of subjects are involved (Borg & Gall, 1989). This test was used to examine relationships between activities and attitudes with institution, academic rank, and tenure status.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyze data if the independent variable was dichotomous, so it was used to test for relationships with gender, institutional size, and when comparing responses from historically black universities to historically white institutions (Borg & Gall, 1989).

Relationships between qualitative and quantitative data. Potential relationships between the qualitative and quantitative data (i.e., the relationship between content analysis of policies and other relevant materials, focus group interview responses, and survey data) are also examined, focusing especially on the overlap between scores on mission statements and tenure and promotion documents and respondents’ perceptions, attitudes, and professional activities.

Results

The analysis in this article focuses on determinants of faculty perceptions about service and considers the influence of individual characteristics (tenure status, rank, and gender) and institutional

Figure 1

Variation in Responses to Survey Elements Related to Faculty Perceptions of Service.
Factors (institutional size, initiatives to expand notions of scholarship, and appropriate rewards for specific activities). The authors regret that space constraints preclude sharing the full analysis of the focus group data. However, salient lessons learned from the qualitative work are shared as we report on the results from the survey data.

Demographic Information

The average age of survey respondents was 50.2, and 63% of faculty reported having been employed at their current institution for fewer than 11 years. Female faculty responded in lower proportions than present within the faculty. While 52% of faculty in these departments were female, 41% of survey responses came from female faculty members. Tenured faculty members responded to the survey in slightly higher proportions than they represented: 53% of respondents were tenured, whereas only 48% of education faculty had tenure at the time of the study.

Faculty Perceptions of Service

Five questions provide information about faculty perceptions of service. After the survey was collected responses were collapsed into two categories—agreed/important and disagreed/not important—and a chi-square test was conducted to determine whether differences were significant. Figure 1 gives the results of answers to faculty assessments of service as scholarship and their perceptions that expectations are well-defined and activity is rewarded. A majority of respondents agreed with four of the items included—that service is a mode of scholarship, that it is important in faculty evaluation at their respective institutions, and that it is important in both disciplinary and university-wide contexts for tenure and promotion. The greatest agreement occurred with the importance of service in faculty evaluation in general and the importance of service within a discipline when being considered for tenure and promotion, followed by the importance of service to the university at large. However, the majority disagreed that expectations for service activities were clearly articulated within the university more generally or their departments in particular.

The results of the qualitative analyses add depth to the survey results. All eight institutions had formal definitions of service that included references to three different beneficiaries of service activities: the institution, academic discipline, and community or society as a whole. Only three universities, however, specified that service activities must relate to a faculty member’s academic discipline or area of expertise. The definitions provided by faculty ranged from nebulous (“service is using one’s leadership potential to help others” and “a willingness and a desire to share your knowledge”), to exclusionary (“where you utilize your professional expertise outside of class and outside of investigative research...to benefit any other outside group,” “anything that is not teaching and research,” and “acts above and beyond the activities that are stated in your job description”). However, when asked to provide examples of service activities, the vast majority of faculty described activities with clear disciplinary connections that benefited either the community or their academic discipline (only one focus group participant described faculty governance and committee work as an example of service). All of the examples provided that benefited the community or society as a whole had some connection to the respondent’s area of expertise. Responses included activities such as developing and providing in-service training for teachers, curriculum development, counseling and crisis intervention, serving on the boards of education-related community agencies, and grant writing for a day care facility. Using Lynton’s (1995) typology of professional service, more than half (52%) of the examples provided fell into the classifications of technical assistance or organizational development. The same pattern emerged within the examples of service provided within the written survey. Of the 121 individuals who provided an example of a service activity, 97 focused on activities that directly benefited the larger community and was connected to their academic discipline.

The issue of service-related rewards and compensation was a point of contention in most focus groups. In some cases, service was defined as an activity provided gratis (i.e., “everything you do outside of your salaried job”), while others rejected this notion (service is providing “expertise whether it is paid or not”). Of the written policies reviewed, only one institution specifically addressed this issue and allowed for service to be “nominally priced or gratuitous.”

While there was no consensus around the question of compensation, there was general consensus that service expectations were often unclear and a difficult activity to evaluate. One faculty member remarked that “service is the easiest to get high marks in...because the definitions are so broad in general.” Another opined that service expectations were learned through “osmosis” and that “nobody sits you down and says these are your service responsibilities.” Finally, one non-tenured faculty member at a large institution poignantly stated,

[It] is hard for me to separate these areas...it is
Faculty Perceptions of Service

hard for me to say that service is ‘this,’ teaching is ‘this,’ scholarly productivity is ‘this.’ For me it is all part of a puzzle that fits as a university employee...service only counts if I don’t do it.

We next explored if these trends differed by individual or institutional factors. Tests were performed to ascertain the impact of academic rank, tenure status, gender, institution, institution size, and type of institution on these responses. Responses were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U test of significance when the grouping variable consisted of two independent samples. The Kruskal-Wallis test for significance was used when the grouping variable consisted of more than two independent samples. The results are reported in Table 2.

These results show that tenure status, academic rank, gender, and the historical racial composition of an institution were not significant factors in perception-related survey elements. However, these perceptions varied significantly across all five elements by both institution and institution size. Institution size is to some extent a proxy for institution type. At the time this data was collected the three institutions with enrollments greater than 10,000 maintained the “Doctoral/Research Universities–Extensive” Carnegie classification and institutions with enrollments under 10,000 had a variety of classifications. In 2005, the Carnegie Foundation revised its classification schema and Jackson State University currently shares the “Research University-High Activity” classification with the larger institutions. The variation in responses by size of institution is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2 reveals that faculty at small institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grouping Variable</th>
<th>Service is considered a mode of scholarship at this institution.</th>
<th>Service is important in faculty evaluation at this institution.</th>
<th>Service expectations are clearly articulated in institutional and departmental tenure/promotion policies.</th>
<th>How important is service within the university community for granting tenure and promotion in your department?</th>
<th>How important is service within your discipline for granting tenure and promotion in your department?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tenure Statusa</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td>.973</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Kruskal-Wallis)</td>
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<td>Academic Rankb</td>
<td>.226</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.229</td>
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<td>Genderc</td>
<td>.322</td>
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<td>.162</td>
<td>.801</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Mann-Whitney U)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Institutiond</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>.029*</td>
<td>.002**</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Kruskal-Wallis)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Mann-Whitney U)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institution Typef</td>
<td>.588</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td>.371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mann-Whitney U)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Notes.
a Tenure status variables were tenured, non-tenured, non-tenure track.
b Academic rank variables were instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, professor, and emeritus.
c Gender variables were male and female.
d Institution variables included all eight public universities.
e Institution size variables included small (less than 10,000 full-time equivalent students) and large (10,000 or more full-time equivalent students).
f Institution type variables were historically black institutions or historically white institutions.

* p < .05
** p < .005
generally responded more positively than faculty at large institutions when asked if service was considered a mode of scholarship, if service was important in evaluation, or if service expectations were clear. The largest variation in perceptions related to faculty perceptions of service as a mode of scholarship. While 75% of faculty from small institutions either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement “service is considered a mode of scholarship,” only 41% of faculty from large institutions responded this way. Similarly, 88% of faculty from small institutions agreed or strongly agreed that service was important in faculty evaluation, whereas a minority (47%) of faculty from large institutions responded similarly. Finally, 56% of faculty from small institutions agreed or strongly agreed that service expectations were clearly articulated, while only 39% of faculty from large institutions responded this way.

Of faculty from small institutions, 77% felt that service within their university community was either unimportant or very unimportant. Similar variation was found when reviewing faculty perceptions of the importance of service within their academic discipline when making tenure and promotion decisions. Eighty-three percent of faculty from small institutions responded that service within their discipline was important or very important, while only 52% of faculty from large institutions felt this way.

Here again, qualitative data adds depth to the survey results. For instance, faculty at small institutions made several comments that revealed the attitude or opinion that service was more important or more valued at their particular institution than at larger institutions. A non-tenured faculty member at a small institution stated, “At the larger institutions that are research oriented, they probably wouldn’t spend a lot of time to hash out what service things are because research is what drives their budget.” A similar attitude was expressed by a faculty member from a small institution that purposefully connected the value of service at the institution to the needs of the region: “I think it is real important, personally, to understand that [this insti-
Faculty Perceptions of Service

A tenured faculty member from a smaller institution confirmed the suspicions of the faculty member from a larger institution when stating, “I think we get criticized for being an ivory tower—isolated from the real world—and so I think service can be the bridge to bring us to the real world...I think that it should be counted as a more valuable component.” This person went on to state,

Service can feed the research and teaching because service is giving outside the usual classroom realm or the sitting at your desk working on your computer. To me, I get ideas and I get rejuvenated by being in the outside world and seeing what my topic, which is science and math education, why it is important in the real world—so I do bring that back to my teaching and research.

Institutional Guidelines, Performance Benchmarks, and Perceptions of Service

Institutional mission statements, faculty handbooks, and departmental tenure and promotion documents were analyzed. The previously described factors were used to assign each institution a level of relevance, based on Holland’s (1997) typology of the integration of service at various institutions. Institutions that were identified as level one (low relevance) had only vague operational definitions of service, did not specify performance benchmarks and priorities for service activities, and had no guidelines for how service was to be documented. Conversely, institutions rated as level three (high relevance) had specific operational definitions of service, specific performance benchmarks and priorities for service activities, and established guidelines for documenting service. No institution was rated as a level four (full integration).

Faculty perceptions of service were related to these relevance ratings as an independent variable. Figure 3 reveals that faculty at institutions with low relevance ratings had more negative perceptions about service than faculty at institutions with higher relevance ratings. Not surprisingly, faculty at institutions rated high in relevance perceived service expectations as being most clearly articulated, while faculty at institutions with low relevance ratings perceived service expectations to be least clearly articulated. Faculty from institutions rated as medium in relevance had the most positive perceptions of service as a mode of scholarship and the importance of service in faculty evaluation.

Although there appears to be little difference between responses from faculty from institutions rated as medium and high relevance, faculty from institutions rated as low relevance generally responded more negatively to questions relating service to the university and within a discipline to the tenure and promotion process.

During one focus group session a tenured faculty member from a small institution cautioned against relying too heavily on an analysis of the relevance of institutional policies. This individual felt that departmental culture was often at odds with written policies and the predisposition of the members of the promotion committee was far more important than formal policies. Other members of this focus group subsequently concurred with this assessment.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Relevance</th>
<th>Institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level One: Low Relevance</td>
<td>Mississippi State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mississippi University for Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level Two: Medium Relevance</td>
<td>Delta State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jackson State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mississippi Valley State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Mississippi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level Three: High Relevance</td>
<td>Alcorn State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Southern Mississippi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level Four: Full Integration</td>
<td>No institution was identified as having achieved full integration.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusions and Implications

Certain limitations exist with this study. The data pertain to a single discipline in a single university system in a single southern state. However, these results do shed insight on important questions in the literature on changing faculty roles and reward structures within higher education. O’Meara (2005) used data from academic administrators (CAOs) to conclude that reforms aimed at encouraging multiple forms of scholarship were effective and that the effect of these reforms was significantly correlated to institution type. This study confirms both these conclusions but arrives at these conclusions using the perspectives of faculty (in this case institution size is used as a proxy for institution type). We also find, as have others, that individual demographic characteristics of faculty, such as gender, rank, or age, do not correlate significantly to perceptions of the service role.

Some of what we found is to be expected. It became clear throughout this investigation that many faculty had not considered the relationship between service and scholarship - particularly with respect to issues such as their compensation, evaluation, and definition—at least when the study began. There were several instances when participants openly struggled with these issues, changed their mind during an interview, or stated that they had not previously considered the issue of how service is defined. One faculty member completely changed his mind during the interview on the issue of whether an activity had to be performed pro bono to be considered a service activity. During several of the focus group discussions, the conversation turned to definitions and evaluation of other faculty roles as well as that of service. As one tenured faculty member stated,

when you initially raised the question, I thought to myself that there is a real big difference in the way that service is compared with research and teaching; but you know the more we talk, I am beginning to realize that, well, when it comes to teaching, it really isn’t done in a systematic way either.

These findings are encouraging for administrators attempting to broaden notions of faculty roles

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Figure 3
Variation by Relevance of Institutional Documents to Service in the Mean Responses in Survey Elements Related to Faculty Perceptions of Service.

![Graph showing variation by relevance of institutional documents to service in mean responses in survey elements related to faculty perceptions of service.]

Note. 1 = Strongly Agree/Very Important; 2 = Important/Agree; 3 = Disagree/Fairly Unimportant; 4 = Strongly Disagree/Very Unimportant
on their campus. Faculty members seem to be responsive to these institutional initiatives, as indicated by our data. However, our qualitative data also suggest that approaches to change must take into account both external realities and internal factors at the institutional, departmental, and disciplinary levels. Factors at the discipline and department level may be more important than at the institutional level, as one of the focus group participants made clear when stating that the influence wielded by tenure and promotion committee members is often greater than written policies.

Another observation stems from a common theme within the focus groups: expectations of faculty are moving upward and appear to be a moving target. Reform related to the recognition of multiple forms of scholarship is practiced as additional forms of scholarship. Research conducted by O'Meara (2001), Huber (2002), Aldersley (1995), and others has led to similar conclusions. William Tierney (1998), in the Responsive University, states that “increasingly, faculty are expected to do less of what they have come to think of as central to their role—research—and more of what they often do not know how to do—serve the larger society” (p. 2). According to our study and several cited in our literature review, only half of this statement is correct. Faculty are expected to serve in other roles that graduate programs do not, as a whole, prepare them for, but they are not expected to do less research.

Changes to written tenure and promotion policies made without faculty input will lead to confusion and/or outright rejection. Focused attention needs to be on approaches that are responsive to the type/size of institution. Moreover, institutions should focus on forming contextually-specific definitions of engaged scholarship, then robust mechanisms/processes for assessing this work that comply with faculty conceptions of scholarship.

Perhaps the most salient implication of this research relates to how efforts to encourage community engagement among faculty are framed. This study demonstrates that, despite efforts to expand the concept of scholarship over the past 20 years, little consensus exists around the meaning and value of “service” as a faculty role. Although many individuals involved in reforms aimed at increasing faculty and institutional engagement have long since rejected “service” language for philosophical reasons (primarily it’s noblesse oblige, uni-directional, and deficit-oriented), this study points to a more pragmatic reason why the language of “service” is not effective among academics. Service has been, is, and will likely remain the least regarded and most ill-defined of the traditional tripartite faculty role (teaching, research, and service). As efforts to expand conceptions of scholarship continue, reformers would be wise to avoid associating engaged scholarship with the traditional notions of service in higher education.

The authors urge more research, particularly replication of this study across disciplines, institutions, and states. Furthermore, research is needed to understand faculty attitudes and perceptions of the concept of “engaged scholarship.” This research can help inform and shape approaches to a more sustainable integration of community-based scholarship in post-secondary education. More importantly, however, the conversations provide opportunities for faculty to reflect on their role and the assessment and rewards of multiple forms of scholarship. These things are far too important to leave to the whims of market forces or political influence.

Note

1 The reason the third survey element has a comparatively low total response (71) is due to an error. When the online survey was initiated, this question did not get activated right away so the first group of responses didn’t include this question. This issue works itself out in the statistical analysis, which takes into account a lower response rate for that particular survey element. Our finding was that the variation was statistically significant.

References


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