

## A Conceptual Model to Explore Faculty Community Engagement

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*This article presents a holistic approach to understanding the activities that constitute faculty engagement. After setting an historical context for the public service roles of faculty, the authors define specific activities involving service-learning, community-based research, and certain forms of professional service as the most relevant to engagement because of their direct connection to the teaching, research and service functions of the professoriate. The article presents the Faculty Engagement Model (FEM), which results from a broad literature review and offers a comprehensive perspective outlining the personal, professional, and institutional factors likely to predict engagement participation.*

### Context and Background

Since the founding of Harvard in 1636, American universities have existed, in part, to serve the needs of society (Bringle, 1999; Gonzalez & Padilla, 2008). Today, however, many leaders call upon American higher education to reclaim its historical commitment to service. In recent years, there has been much attention paid to higher education's role in fostering the public good (Bok, 2003; Boyer, 1990, 1996; Chambers, 2005; Cohen, 1998; Ehrlich, 2000; Gonzalez & Padilla, 2008; Kezar, 2004). This current concern for the public role of higher education stems from a combination of forces, including soaring tuition costs, public distrust, perceived neoliberal tendencies, and a lack of congruency among societal expectations and institutional priorities (Chambers, 2005; Cohen, 1998; Giroux, 2003; Lynton, 1995; Thelin, 2004; Ward, 2003). Engagement, or how colleges and universities address important social issues while preparing an educated citizenry for active civic, economic and cultural participation, has become a widespread concept, phenomenon, and movement (Campus Compact, 2007; Chambers, 2005; Kellogg Commission, 1999).

Within engagement broadly-defined, there are two distinct emphases: one which aims to involve students in the community and prepare them for responsible citizenship and another encouraging faculty and administration to frame higher education "as a public good *for* the public good" (Chambers, 2005, p. 3). While efforts to understand student engagement and preparation for responsible citizenship have thrived in recent years, less is known about how faculty contribute to the public mission of their institutions. What activities constitute faculty engagement and how do faculty perceive and experience engagement? The following section will briefly trace the origins of

community engagement as it pertains directly to the faculty role.

### *Historical Viewpoints on Faculty Roles in Public Service*

The concept of service has functioned as a guiding principle of the academy since the colonial era (see Ward, 2003). Much as higher education historically served the public good, service has been a core function of faculty work in American higher education. Here, we review some significant historical milestones that have directly impacted the faculty role in fulfilling institutional commitments to the public good and set the context for exploring faculty activity in the current context of engagement.

During the colonial era, faculty members, or tutors at that time, were public servants. Members of the clergy held most of the faculty positions and the job was considered neither desirable nor well remunerated (Thelin, 2004). "Unlike lawyers or physicians who expected to be paid for their ministrations, faculty were more like volunteers engaged in public service" (Thelin, p. 27). In its earliest form, the American faculty role was indistinguishable from the public service role of higher education. Service was not simply a faculty expectation; rather, the faculty position existed to serve.

This notion changed by the 1800s, when a core of permanent faculty were in place in most colleges (Ward, 2003). A trend toward the professoriate as a career, rather than a temporary public contribution emerged (Cohen, 1998). The breadth of faculty roles expanded as new purposes for higher education developed. Faculty were expected to provide training for careers other than the pulpit, deliver general education curricula, and pass on a shared cultural heritage (Cohen). As the role of the American scholar further evolved, the service role of faculty took the

form of civic and community endeavors (Thelin, 2004; Ward). Most professors served as leading members of their community by taking part in civic affairs and, after the 1850s, filled the role of public intellectuals (Cohen; Ward).

In the first half of the 20th century, the faculty position continued to transform. Notable changes included a reduction in religious involvement, widespread adoption of responsibility for service to the community, and the establishment and acceptance of a professionalized faculty alongside the rise of the American research university. A career ladder developed and the notion of faculty loyalty to a discipline gained prominence. The new academic culture valued research and the advancement of knowledge, and separated principles of moral and civic education from the concerns of the academic discipline (Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003). Priorities of the professoriate shifted. By mid-century, “the ethos of what it meant to be a faculty member, at all types of institutions, included teaching and research; the challenge was to strike a balance between those functions while maintaining allegiance to society and higher education’s covenant with society” (Ward, 2003, p. 33).

After WWII, higher education faculty were affected by a vast growth of the federally-funded research enterprise (Chambers, 2005; Cohen, 1998; Thelin, 2004). The land grant movement had set the stage for a partnership between the government and higher education that produced knowledge for the common good. This partnership flourished in the post-war era, as federal research funding expanded university/governmental partnerships and set the stage for the research emphasis that exists today in higher education (Ward, 2003). Stemming from this heavy research emphasis, a perceived hierarchy emerged among the disciplines (the hard sciences became “the model” for how things were done) and among institutional types (a research-orientation conveyed more prestige) (Ward). Ultimately, the increased research emphasis compromised the balance of teaching, research, and service envisioned under the land grant movement (Bok, 2003; Slaughter & Rhoads, 2004; Ward).

One of the major consequences of this shift in institutional priorities is that faculty allocated disproportionate amounts of time to developing research proposals and securing grant funds at the expense of other activities. Their increasing success in obtaining grants from the government, companies, and foundations fostered a newfound sense of independence (Slaughter & Rhoads, 2004), which helped further the importance of disciplinary bond over institutional bond. While the societal role of faculty may have been clear at one time, today faculty find themselves amid conflicting expectations (Ward, 2003). In the current era, professors operate in an environment

with ambiguous performance expectations, where decreases in funding mean that higher education must do more with less. As a result, faculty are encouraged to seek even more external funding, and institutions respond to even greater demands for accountability (Ward). Service as a core function of faculty work has changed.

Recently respected critics have recognized that while there are no simple answers to the multi-dimensional pressures confronting the academy, the academy and its academics must focus on the broader public mission. Cohen (1998) states:

Boyer (1996) argued that higher education reached its finest moments when it served larger purposes, as when it participated in the “building of a more just society” and making the nation “more civil and secure” (p. 13). He deplored the scholars who viewed the campus “as a place where students get credentialized and faculty get tenured, while the overall work of the academy does not seem particularly relevant to the nation’s most pressing civic, social, economic, and moral problems.” (Boyer, 1996, cited in Cohen, 1998, p. 414)

Indeed, faculty participation in engagement, or the reframing of academic work to link teaching, research, and service purposefully to the public good, was re-legitimized in the 1990s with Boyer’s *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities for the Professoriate*. Faculty engagement emerged out of Boyer’s (1990) notion of the scholarship of application. In his conceptualization of scholarship, faculty work is connected to the purpose and mission of the engagement movement. Later, Boyer’s (1996) scholarship of engagement provided a model for integrating faculty work. This work makes it possible to see how research, teaching, and service can contribute to the scholarship of engagement (Ward, 2003). Boyer’s conceptualization of the scholarship of application and later the scholarship of engagement offer holistic approaches to faculty work with public good or public benefit outcomes.

Unlike the narrow, traditional view of scholarship, Boyer and others attempt to demonstrate the merits of service-oriented forms of scholarly work. Colbeck and Wharton-Michael (2006) advance a conceptualization of engaged scholarship that differs from the community outreach that faculty take on to supplement their primary responsibilities; rather, their concept presents engaged scholarship as integrated work that frames public service and academic work as an inseparable whole. The National Review Board for the Scholarship of Engagement defines engaged scholarship as “faculty engaged in academically relevant work that simultaneously fulfills the campus mission and goals, as well as community needs...[It] is a scholarly agenda that incorporates community

issues that can be within or integrative across teaching, research and service” (Sandmann, 2003, cited in Campus Compact, 2007, p. 9).

### Faculty Engagement Behaviors

As a result of Boyer’s (1990) work as well as recent calls to action and reports from organizations such as the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC), the Kellogg Commission, the American Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE), the American Association of Colleges and Universities (AACU), Campus Compact and others, significant attention is directed toward the nature of faculty work in relation to the public good. Today, more and more scholars investigate how faculty help fulfill their institutions’ public service missions. Through a close review of the literature, the most prevalent activities faculty undertake that also meet the Kellogg Commission criteria of engagement as a “two-way street” can be identified. These engagement-related activities are best discussed by teasing apart the research, teaching, and service functions of the faculty role and demonstrating how the selected activities contribute both to the mission of higher education to serve the public good and to scholarship.

#### *Research*

Community-based research is often cited as the form of scholarly work that meets societal needs while fulfilling the research function of the faculty position. It is a “collaborative process of critical inquiry into problems of social practice in a learning context” (Couto, 2001, cited in Ward, 2003, p. 81). Other forms of faculty work that contribute to the community engagement agenda and emerge out of the research domain include outreach scholarship, public scholarship, and action-based research, to name a few. Because the nomenclature in this area lacks consistency, community-based research is presented as the most recognizable demonstration of a collaborative, research-oriented activity that meets scholarly objectives while contributing to the welfare of the community. Community-based research differs from traditional research in that the goal of the research is to produce information that will benefit community members or agencies serving the community (Strand, 2000). Community-based research is applied research and may include student involvement. Yet, this research, if planned carefully, can and should also contribute to other academic bodies of literature. In this article, the term community-based research is used and defined as scholarship that involves collaboration with community members to address community needs.

#### *Teaching*

Service-learning is the most common pedagogical model applied to strategically link classroom learning

to the service mission of higher education. The language of the Campus Compact Web site states that service-learning constitutes activity focused on meeting a human need in the community where that need involves the well-being of individuals and/or of the environment in which they live. Service-learning is further described as a curricular, or course-based learning experience where faculty lead students in an organized service activity with a reflective component that meets community needs while also addressing relevant academic subject matter (Campus Compact, 2008). Service-learning integrates teaching with the public good or engagement mission of the faculty role because faculty are simultaneously filling teaching and service roles (Ward, 2003). In this discussion, service-learning is defined as a course-based, reflective educational experience where an organized service activity meets community needs while developing students’ academically-based skills and knowledge.

#### *Service*

Professional service, along with teaching and research, is generally considered one of the three elements of faculty scholarship. While often, for the purposes of promotion and tenure, the service role of faculty is related to the university or to professional associations, in the engagement context faculty service roles are tied to the public good. Professional service can be defined as engaged when it contributes to the public welfare or the common good through the application of a faculty members’ academic expertise to directly address or respond to real-world problems, issues, interests, or concerns. In this way, professional service contributes to the outreach mission of the institution or professional community (Lynton, 1995). This type of professional service may occur through: technology transfer, technical assistance, policy analysis, program evaluation, organizational development, community development, program development, expert testimony, public information, or consulting (Lynton). Collaboration between the community and faculty differentiates engagement from professional service by utilizing disciplinary expertise to address jointly defined needs, problems, or concerns.

### Faculty Engagement Model (FEM)

Having defined the set of activities that might constitute faculty engagement, the next step in developing a framework for examining how faculty fulfill their institutions’ service mission is to identify the factors that are likely to affect the willingness or ability of the faculty to participate in these activities. We organize the discussion of these factors through a new conceptual model, the Faculty Engagement Model (FEM). The FEM (see Figure 1) is presented

in tandem with a review of the literature on faculty service and outreach to describe how the factors included in the model impact the willingness or ability of faculty to participate in these activities. Because the literature on faculty participation in community-based research, service-learning and forms of professional service with a public good outcome is still relatively small, the scope of work used to inform the FEM is broad, and includes literature on faculty participation in civic service and other forms of outreach. Three sets of factors are considered and postulated to impact engagement and are organized within institutional, professional, and personal dimensions.

**FEM: Institutional Dimensions**

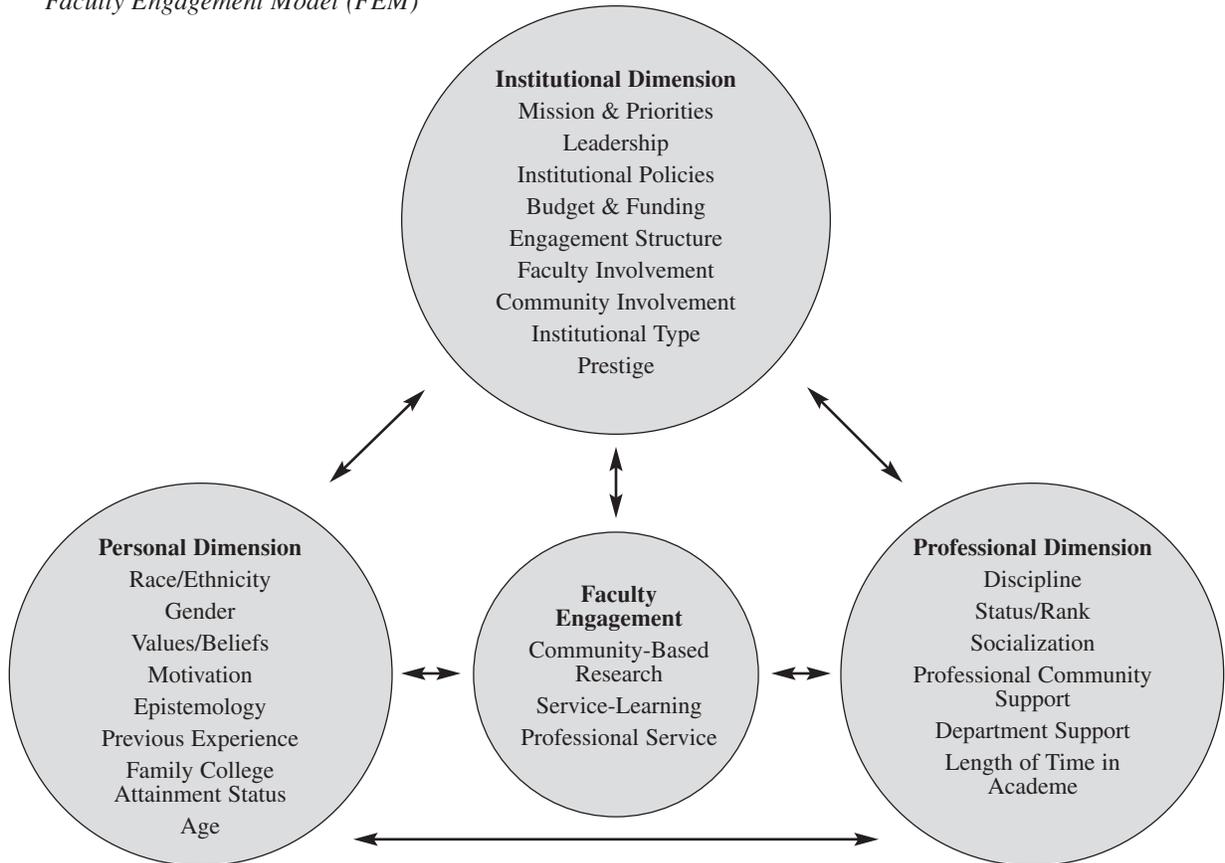
Understanding the role of institutional culture and the way institutions set priorities and create meaning are important considerations when assessing engagement-oriented faculty behavior. The Holland Matrix (1997), the Kellogg Commission’s (1999) work, and Colbeck & Wharton-Michael’s (2006) conceptual model for faculty motivation and engagement in pub-

lic scholarship serve as the primary contributors to the institutional dimension of the FEM.

Holland (1997) advances seven organizational factors impacting engagement based on two studies: one looked at the institutionalization of service at institutions that had self-identified as adopting distinctive missions of community-based scholarship, and a second study which was intended to test and refine the matrix of factors developed in the first study. Seven organizational factors developed from patterns and themes in the data explain engagement at varying levels: organizational mission; promotion, tenure, and hiring procedures; organizational structure; student involvement; faculty involvement; community; and, campus publications. Holland (2005) later added three additional factors to her matrix, including leadership, policy, and budget allocation.

The report of the Kellogg Commission (1999) reinforces the centrality of the factors advanced by Holland. The Kellogg Commission’s seven-part test includes these characteristics that define an engaged campus: responsiveness to the community; respect for partners; academic neutrality; accessibility; inte-

Figure 1  
*Faculty Engagement Model (FEM)*



gration of engagement into mission; coordination; and resource adequacy. The organizational factors advanced by Holland (1997; 2005) are addressed by the Commission, with community involvement, mission, infrastructure/coordination and resources receiving emphasis in both works. Moreover, the Commission recommends key strategies for developing, fostering, and nurturing the engaged institution that also cross over with the factors in the Holland Matrix. The Kellogg Commission policy recommendations relate to mission revision, policy, evaluation of the rewards processes, the role of university leadership, and faculty support and involvement. The Commission's work, all in all, captures the same dimensions or factors relevant to engagement in the Holland Matrix, with the exception of student involvement. Thus, mission, leadership, the faculty promotion, tenure and reward system, policy, budget allocation, organizational structure, faculty involvement, and community involvement appear to be consistent factors across two pivotal pieces of literature on institutional/organizational factors. The model incorporates these factors, addressing tenure, promotion, and hiring processes within a broader Institutional Policies factor.

A more recent work by Colbeck and Wharton-Michael (2006) also provides a strong conceptual framework to understand the organizational characteristics that impact faculty participation in engagement activities. They focus on four institutional factors: mission, resources, norms, and evaluation, which are consistent with the conceptual models discussed above. These researchers postulate that evaluation is critical to understanding engagement because,

the more institutional evaluations separate faculty activities and products into mutually exclusive categories, the less faculty are likely to enrich their teaching with their research, inform their research with lessons learned from the community, or involve their students in research with community partners for the benefit of the public good. (p. 23)

Moreover, they call attention to the effect of institutional norms on faculty activity. Considering this perspective with Holland's (1997) work, which indicates that the level of faculty involvement can describe or predict engagement, it is possible to postulate a direct link between norms and the likelihood of faculty engagement.

#### *Leadership and Mission*

Other studies also support the inclusion of the institutional factors in the FEM. Almost all of the literature reviewed considered the role of institutional leadership and mission. Institutional commitment to

community engagement had a positive effect on engaged scholarship (Vogelgesang, Denson, & Jayakumar, 2005), while the service-learning literature recognizes that if there is administrative support for service, faculty members will be more likely to participate in engagement initiatives (Hinck & Brandell, 2000; Ward, 1998). Bringle and Hatcher (2002) give strong emphasis to institutional mission in their work, and university-level service missions were found to influence the adoption of service as scholarship in O'Meara's (2002) study.

#### *Institutional Policies*

Institutional policies and procedures, especially related to hiring, promotion, tenure and time allocation, all influence faculty engagement as well. Current tenure schedules and workload demands greatly reduce the time available for faculty members to structure service-related activities that may contribute to their scholarship (Hink & Brandell, 2000) and can particularly serve as obstacles that discourage faculty participation, especially for junior faculty (Holland, 1999). Boyer's work sheds light on these policy dynamics. Based on his 1989 National Survey of Faculty, faculty appear to reject service-related activity in the framework of serious scholarship. This likely is attributable to the lack of definition or measurement parameters for this aspect of their work. Without concrete organizational definitions, policies to allocate time for developing engaged scholarship, or methods to account for engaged work in the promotion and tenure process, faculty have little incentive to participate in engagement. Glassick, Huber, and Maeroff (1997) sum up the critical importance of tenure and promotion policies and the impact such policies have on motivating or deterring engaged faculty: "it has become clear...that an essential piece is missing. The effort to broaden the meaning of scholarship simply cannot succeed until the academy has clear standards for evaluating the wider range of scholarly work" (p. 5). The restructuring of promotion and tenure policies to account for engaged faculty work and the creation of additional institutional policies which support engagement efforts (i.e., time allocation for developing service-learning courses) are among the most crucial organizational factors to advancing the engagement movement.

#### *Budget and Funding*

The availability of internal funding is another organizational factor that appears to predict engagement (Holland, 2005; Ward, 1998). Funding has been shown to be important to institutionalizing service-learning (Ward) and Holland suggested that, if engagement were part of the institution's mission and the institutional funding process were closely related to

the mission, engagement would be more prominent.

### *Structure*

There is some debate in the current body of literature addressing the significance of having a centralized organizational structure, such as an institute or center for applied research and public service programming, to support engagement. Most experts agree that a centralized approach, or office of outreach and engagement, is critical to institutionalizing engagement efforts (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Wolf, 1998). In some circumstances, however, the establishment of a specialized office may create a 'that's what they do over there' mentality. The result limits the degree to which others on the campus accept personal responsibility for developing the initiative, in this case, perhaps slowing the adoption of outreach and engagement to be truly adopted and part of an institution's culture.

### *Community Involvement*

Additional research indicates it is necessary to consider the importance of community buy-in or involvement in the development of outreach and engagement agendas. Bringle and Hatcher (2002) explore the nature of town and gown relationships. They highlight external expectations as one of three primary factors influencing engagement while recognizing that institutions have relatively little control over communal factors. Bringle and Hatcher's emphasis on external expectations, similar to Holland's (1997) community involvement and Kellogg's (1999) respect for partners, acknowledges that the community can impact the level of engagement reached. Recognizing that community factors importantly affect faculty engagement honors the theoretical underpinnings of engagement as a two-way street.

### *Institutional Type and Prestige*

Finally, while not discussed in the guiding conceptual frameworks, research also suggests additional factors for consideration. Antonio (2002), Antonio et al. (2000), Hurtado, Ponjuan & Smith (2003), and Voglegesang et al. (2005) account for institutional type in the analytical models of their respective studies. The research seems to be fairly consistent in that it indicates that private, two-year, and religiously affiliated institutions are more likely to engage with the community. Private institutions tend to have higher proportions of faculty who support the college's role in promoting community service among students (Antonio et al., 2000) and faculty at private universities, and catholic or religious institutions had higher levels of engaged scholarship as compared to those at public universities (Voglegesang et al., 2005). Faculty at universities conduct, use, and value community service at

rates lower than those faculty at two-year and four-year colleges (Antonio, 2002). Moreover, institutional prestige and whether that contributes or detracts from the level of engagement in community programs is also an area of interest. Priority for increasing institutional prestige was positively and significantly associated with engagement-related work by the Diverse Democracy Project (2003). Yet, Antonio et al. (2000) and Voglegesang et al. (2005) find that commitment to service tends to be weaker, at least at the individual faculty member unit of analysis, at more selective/prestigious universities. Both institutional type and prestige are represented in the FEM.

## FEM: Professional Dimensions

### *Discipline*

Turning now to professional factors, one of the recurring themes in the literature is the influence of academic discipline on faculty participation. Many scholars contend that disciplinary norms, more so than institutional norms, determine the way faculty carry out their service work (Antonio et al., 2000; Ward, 2003; Zlotkowski, 2005). Research findings reveal that involvement varies by discipline and type of engagement activity. Faculty in the social sciences, health professions, education, and social work are typically more likely to engage in service activities than faculty in the physical sciences and humanities (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002; Antonio et al., 2000; Voglegesang et al., 2005). The variation in faculty participation is often attributed to fundamental differences in orientation between departments such as humanities, and the physical and biological sciences, and the more community-oriented departments such as education, health professions, and social work.

While the research is fairly consistent and seems to indicate that faculty in education, health professions, social sciences, and social work are the most likely to participate in service, faculty in other disciplines can place a high value on service-oriented activities, even if they are not personally engaged. When considering faculty beliefs rather than participation, different patterns emerge from the research and suggest that faculty in disciplines which are not commonly identified as service fields often place a high value on service even if they do not demonstrate service-oriented behaviors. For example, faculty in biology and the physical sciences are among those most likely to believe it is important or essential to be involved in programs to clean up the environment (Voglegesang et al., 2005). Faculty in social sciences, history, political sciences, and the humanities are among the most likely to believe it is very important or essential to be actively involved in solving the problems of society (Voglegesang et al., 2005). Because the literature explaining the relationship between discipline and

engagement suggests an important distinction between faculty beliefs and opportunities for participation, discipline as well as values and beliefs have been incorporated as important factors to explore in the FEM.

#### *Socialization*

The FEM also considers the impact of socialization processes on faculty engagement, a process which helps build disciplinary norms and which affects personal beliefs and motivation. Faculty socialization begins in graduate school and is strongly reinforced within department settings (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Structures and processes in departments define key concepts of acceptable practices and the extrinsic rewards for faculty. It is hypothesized that those faculty committing to the highest levels of engagement have been socialized during graduate school to see service as part of their identity as scholars (O'Meara, 2002). Similarly, faculty who develop status orientations were most likely socialized to become experts in their field and to have learned that traditional scholarship leads to status gains (Holland, 1999). Anticipatory socialization for faculty roles in graduate school seems particularly important in certain fields. Faculty socialized in service-oriented fields like social work and education appear to incorporate a commitment to service, even when their personal values and orientations are held constant to account for possible effects (Antonio et al., 2000). O'Meara (2005) indicates that graduate school training and socialization toward traditional forms of scholarship serve as a barrier toward the encouragement of public scholarship. Certainly, core faculty, advisors, peers, committees, department chairs, and other socializing forces, both anticipatory and early on in the faculty role, impact service participation.

#### *Rank*

Finally, faculty status or rank is an important consideration for the adoption of engaged scholarly work. Antonio et al. (2000) conclude that commitment to service is highest in faculty members with less status. As stated in the institutional factors section, they also found that commitment tends to be weaker among faculty at more selective/prestigious universities. This indicates that participation in engagement drops in value as professional and institutional prestige rises. Research by O'Meara (2002) and Baez (2000) supports this finding as it relates to junior faculty and participation in service activities. There are, however, contradictory findings which indicate that among faculty who are not currently involved in service-learning, junior faculty and non-tenured faculty are the least likely to begin participation (Abes et al., 2002). Jaeger and Thornton (2006) connect rank to motivation by offering perspectives showing that faculty act on their intrinsic, personal motivation for public service once

the extrinsic motivation (tenure) has passed.

#### **FEM: Personal Dimensions**

In addition to institutional and professional contexts, a number of personal factors make a difference in faculty perspectives about and proclivities toward engagement. It is well known that among the traditional responsibilities of research, teaching, and service, faculty are often least rewarded for their service work (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006; Lynton, 1995; O'Meara, 2002; Ward, 2003). Because the presence or lack of supportive institutional norms and reward systems cannot entirely explain the appeal of service-related activities for faculty, it is often the personal characteristics of faculty, such as race/ethnicity and gender, which help account for engagement participation.

#### *Race/Ethnicity/Gender*

One of the most prominent themes in the research is that faculty of color are more likely to participate in engagement-oriented activities than white faculty (Abes et al., 2002; Antonio, 2002; Antonio et al., 2000; Baez, 2000; O'Meara, 2002; Voglelesang et al., 2005). Antonio et al. (2000) suggest that distinct differences in participation in public service exist across racial groups. In their study, only race remained statistically significant when controlling for personal commitment to service. Voglelesang et al. (2005) arrive at a similar, albeit less distinct, conclusion, leading researchers to seek explanations for the higher levels of engagement participation by faculty of color. The research of Antonio (2002), Baez (2000), and Gonzalez and Padilla (2008) suggests that differences in personal motivation and values may account for the greater likelihood that faculty of color will take personal responsibility for engagement.

Research findings also indicate that women faculty are more likely to participate in service than male faculty members, leading to the inclusion of gender in the FEM (Abes et al., 2002; Antonio et al., 2000; Hurtado et al., 2005; O'Meara, 2002). Women are much more likely than men to teach courses with a community service requirement (Antonio et al.), and to report the use of scholarship to address community needs (Voglelesang et al., 2005). O'Meara found that 90% of the faculty who self-identified as involved in service scholarship were women. Similar to race, it is plausible that gender and personal beliefs about the role of higher education are inextricably linked, and that personal value and belief systems may be the critical factors which explain the patterns of involvement by gender.

#### *Values/Beliefs/Motivation*

Personal beliefs comprise another important factor that has been incorporated into the personal dimen-

sion of the FEM. Values and beliefs appear significant in explaining differences in participation by gender and race; finding personal value in scholarship and service appears fundamental for faculty to have integrated academic lives (Boyer, 1990; Ward, 2003). In Antonio's (2002) study, the concept of personal value system is examined by distinguishing two main orientations: a social change orientation and status orientation. A status orientation, i.e., demonstrated drive for prestige through traditional scholarship, was negatively associated with service. Antonio et al. (2000) develop a similar values dichotomy with the constructs of a humanistic orientation and intellectual orientation. In their study, humanistic orientation was the personal characteristic most strongly associated with commitment to service. Conversely, a strong intellectual orientation was associated with a weak commitment to community.

When considering personal motivation for engaged scholarship, a dichotomy between internal and external motivation is typically drawn to describe faculty service participation. There appears to be correlation between faculty members' engagement in service and their ability to publish and obtain external funding (Checkoway, 2001), leading to a hypothesis that some faculty might be extrinsically motivated to participate in engagement because of potential professional rewards. On the other hand, other research indicates that faculty involved in service see mostly intrinsic rewards; faculty who participate in engagement do so because they see themselves as having a responsibility to society (Holland, 1999; O'Meara, 2003).

### *Epistemology*

Drawing on the theoretical work of Colbeck and Wharton-Michael (2006) and the autoethnographies in Gonzalez and Padilla (2008), epistemology, a person's understanding of the nature and development of knowledge, is postulated as a personal factor impacting faculty participation in engagement. This research suggests that faculty members with a "solidarity approach" are more likely to participate in service-oriented activities, where solidarity is defined as a belief that knowledge is constructed through experience with an emphasis on multiple ways of knowing and sources of knowledge, including community. This contrasts with the objectivity approach which is defined as a belief that knowledge is best obtained through unbiased inquiry.

### *Previous Experience*

The literature also supports the inclusion of previous experience in the FEM as a personal factor that explains faculty participation in engaged scholarship (Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006). Previous experience inside and outside of academe is likely to

impact faculty beliefs about their capabilities to engage in this type of work. In the FEM-Personal Dimensions, the definition of previous experience is limited to work outside of academe, e.g., prior professional experience in a government or nonprofit organization. Internal previous experience is included among the FEM-Professional Factors as part of professional socialization.

### Conceptual Model and Literature Synthesis

The model in Figure 1 illustrates the factors within each Dimension that are hypothesized to influence faculty participation as captured by the literature review. These factors, drawn from research on the various dimensions of faculty engagement, have been integrated into a comprehensive model of faculty participation in engagement. The model also incorporates and highlights new factors that may have explanatory power. The complexity of the FEM demonstrates the challenge of understanding and explaining faculty engagement behavior.

Faculty engagement is the center or heart of the model and is connected to, and encompassed by the personal, professional and institutional dimensions. The arrows in the model illustrate the interactions among the factors within the dimensions noted in the literature review. For example, a factor in the professional dimension, such as socialization during graduate school, may impact a personal dimension factor, such as motivation to participate in engagement. On the other hand, it is possible that a personal factor such as gender and race/ethnicity may impact factors in the professional dimension, such as choice of academic discipline (i.e., women and minorities are more highly represented in education and social work). For this reason, bidirectional arrows are used to demonstrate the intricacy of relationships among the dimensions of the FEM.

The FEM also proposes new variables to explore: current department support, professional associations, age, length of time in academe, and family college attainment status. Current department support was indirectly discussed in the literature and, therefore, added to the model for further exploration; especially at large institutions, policies and culture are determined at the department level rather than the institutional level. Also included among professional factors in the FEM is professional association. If professional associations elevate, or place emphasis on, engagement, then members of those associations might also be expected to do the same (Ward, 2003). Another variable not discussed specifically in the engagement literature but often noted in other faculty behavior studies is age. Because age and length of time in academe are speculated to influence faculty decisions about allocating time, they have been added to the model for further exploration (Finkelstein,

Seal, & Schuster, 1998). Finally, drawing on the autoethnographies in Gonzalez and Padilla (2008), which related stories of faculty who were among the first in their families to go to college, we find it plausible that individuals who are first generation college students, complete doctorates, and accept faculty positions place a different emphasis on addressing social injustices and serving the public as opposed to other faculty.

#### *Limitations of the Literature*

In review, the institutional dimension of the FEM draws heavily from the conceptual models in the Holland Matrix (1997) and the Kellogg Commission's (1999) Seven Part Test. Both identify the following as the key variables of faculty involvement: organizational mission; leadership; promotion, tenure and hiring procedures; institutional policy; budget; organizational structure; faculty involvement; and, community. Prestige and institutional type also appear to be related to institutional factors influencing engagement (Antonio, 2002; Antonio et al., 2000; Hurtado et al., 2003; Voglegesang et al., 2005). While these variables are relevant based on the literature review, there are notable limits to the literature. For example, the Holland Matrix was designed to be more applicable to liberal arts and master's institutions. This narrower institutional focus may be offset by the outcomes of the Kellogg Commission work, which focused exclusively on land-grant and state public institutions. Yet, the Kellogg Commission work, while expert-based, lacked empirical testing.

The literature informing professional and personal dimensions related to faculty engagement addressed faculty involvement in community service, engaged scholarship, and service-learning. The professional factors examined are discipline, socialization, and status/rank. The personal variables examined in these studies are race/ethnicity, gender, values/beliefs, motivation, epistemology, and previous experience. The primary limitation of this body of literature relates to the data set used for the research. Many of the major studies considering professional and personal dimensions use the same data set, specifically Higher Education Research Institute's (HERI) data, which is limited in terms of its ability to accurately measure engagement. Voglegesang et al. (2005) note that the HERI survey does not define engaged scholarship, contending that the field would benefit "if the measures of engaged scholarship could be broadened to include a wider array of behaviors" and if survey results were "complemented with work that examines the contexts through which faculty are engaged and a more in depth look at the various measures of institutional support for these outcomes" (p. 23).

The assumptions underlying the model were largely shaped by our synthesis of the literature and an

understanding of its limitations. Perhaps the most pronounced assumption is that the variables impacting faculty engagement can be classified neatly within the three primary dimensions depicted. Another overarching assumption is that the more narrowly focused literature on service-learning, public service, service scholarship, and other outreach activities pertain to this model's comprehensive definition of faculty engagement. The model assumes that the results from these bodies of literature may have credence beyond their particular mechanism of delivery.

#### **Uses of the FEM: Implications for Research and Institutional Policy**

This article proposes a conceptual model for explaining faculty participation in engagement. The model represents a synthesis of previous research and literature related to engagement, service-learning, community-based research, public service, institutional policies, and faculty attitudes and behavior. As a synthesis, the model contributes to the identification of a research agenda related to engagement, and creates a context within which institutional leaders may consider policies and programs to enhance faculty involvement in engagement.

#### *Research Agenda*

First, unlike previous work, the FEM presents a comprehensive model of the institutional, personal, and professional factors that impact faculty participation in engagement-related activities. By bringing these factors together in a systematic fashion, it supports a holistic approach to the dynamics of engagement. Second, it highlights the relationships between and among the factors perceived to be relevant, offering the opportunity to explore the dynamics that lead to faculty reaction. Third, as with any systems model, the FEM challenges the observer to reflect on the completeness and accuracy of the elements and their interactions. Thus, it provides a systematic basis for discussion and further exploration. Any number of factors or dynamics could be examined through further, focused research. Fourth, the FEM has served as the basis for the development of a faculty survey instrument which is now being pilot-tested. The goals of this single-institution pilot study are to refine the survey instrument itself, and to explore the influence of factors within the FEM.

The conceptual development of the model has already demonstrated a critical need for more precise definitions and measurement parameters for "engaged scholarly work." Before inquiring further about the factors that affect faculty involvement in outreach and engagement, we need to develop a set of precise terms to describe and capture the commu-

nity-oriented activities of faculty that are closely associated with the core research, teaching, and service roles of the professoriate. To learn more about the relative importance of factors within the model, and how their influence may vary depending upon institutional type or culture, inquiry would be desirable with faculty at different institutional types through surveys, interviews, or focus groups.

#### *Policy Agenda*

More and more institutions are attempting to report the engagement work of faculty as part of their response to demands for accountability in the face of state budget cuts and dwindling public support. In addition to helping define a research agenda, the FEM offers institutions serious about elevating the engagement movement on their campuses a basis for exploring factors in the campus environment which might promote or inhibit public service as a robust aspect of faculty work.

The FEM provides a new basis for institutional conversations about the motivators and deterrents for faculty engagement. Institutional leaders can use the model to explore the environmental factors that may bring about change. The institutional factors identified in the FEM serve as a good starting point for soliciting campus-level faculty feedback about specific changes in policy or structure to encourage faculty participation in engagement. The relative influence of the factors will likely differ from campus to campus and faculty focus groups or surveys can be used to explore the anticipated benefits of revised policies. For example, because structure, funding, and university policies and procedures were among the factors identified by major research efforts, an exploration of institutional factors could begin by assessing which of the following changes would be more likely to lead to an increase in faculty participation: a campus office where faculty could get support for their engagement work; engagement funding or grants made more readily available; more weight in promotion and tenure decisions for engagement related activity; or more straightforward inclusion of categories that account for engagement activity in faculty portfolios submitted for promotion and tenure.

The FEM could also be used to as the basis for a meaningful agenda for faculty development. As we see from the model, many factors impacting engagement interact and often cut across the personal, professional, and institutional domains of faculty life and, thus, faculty development opportunities should do the same. A workshop could be developed that focused on how to secure funding by featuring faculty who have received internal or external funds to develop service-learning courses or community-based research projects. Highlighting the success of these faculty might

be effective with faculty who are externally motivated so as to create buy-in to the movement. Alternatively, workshops for first-generation or faculty of color might offer opportunities for dialogue and even research about the personal and professional values that lead to their activity. Such workshops not only offer the opportunity to compare and perhaps integrate projects, but in a more general sense, help build a community of scholars and scholarship.

Even without the results of further systematic research, the FEM can be used as a framework to sort the multitude of factors that appear to impact faculty engagement behavior, and seek out less obvious opportunities to institutionalize engagement. For instance, those seeking to institutionalize engagement may be more likely to focus on outward-oriented departments whose disciplines more readily align with engaged scholarly approaches. However, the FEM reveals other department-level factors which may prove to be central to influencing faculty attitudes and activities, including current department support for engagement, socialization processes, and faculty values and beliefs. Using the multi-dimensional and holistic approach suggested by the FEM, those developing campus-level strategies for institutionalization potentially have additional tools available to create opportunities for institutionalization. By focusing attention on institutional factors at the department level, the FEM leads to new consideration of academic units where support by a dean or active socialization toward engagement by a few key faculty may result in great potential for adoption of engaged scholarly approaches. Using this perspective, departments that typically fall under individual-centered disciplines and that otherwise may be overlooked early in the institutionalization process could be encouraged as early adopters.

#### Conclusion

Models help reveal assumptions, and thereby allow scholars and practitioners alike to test those assumptions—through further research or in the field. The most important assumption that the development of this model revealed, and de-bunked, was that some common definition of “outreach and engagement activity” existed for faculty. Our exploration of faculty engagement behaviors clearly revealed a spectrum of definitions whose complexity could undermine further research until those definitions are made specific and explicit. The model further demonstrates the need for a far more multi-dimensional, dynamic, and holistic description of the factors that affect faculty proclivities to value, or become active with, engagement-related activities. The development of the model is a first, and critical step, toward understanding the nature and interrelationships among these factors.

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