Exploring Faculty Members’ Motivation and Persistence in Academic Service-Learning Pedagogy

Alexa Darby and Gabrielle Newman

Abstract

This qualitative study provides a theoretical framework for understanding faculty members’ motivation to persist in utilizing academic service-learning pedagogy. Twenty-four faculty members from a private liberal arts university in the southeastern United States were interviewed about the benefits and challenges of teaching academic service-learning courses and the factors influencing their motivation to continue. Bandura’s (1997) model of motivation, which emphasizes the roles of forethought and retrospective reasoning, was adapted to illuminate the faculty members’ motivational cycle. The study examined faculty members’ cognized goals, outcome expectancies, perceptions of success, and perceived causes of difficulty in the academic service-learning experience and elicited their recommendations for enhancing faculty members’ motivation to continue using this pedagogy. Drawing on these voices and perspectives, we proposed a theoretical framework for understanding faculty members’ motivation for persisting in teaching academic service-learning courses and offer recommendations for universities seeking to strengthen faculty members’ continued commitment to this pedagogy.

Introduction

In higher education, faculty members’ goal of providing students with experiential learning that genuinely engages them often leads them to academic service-learning (National Survey of Student Engagement, 2010). According to the National Survey of Student Engagement, service-learning is a “high-impact practice” employed across the disciplines to offer students authentic learning environments and opportunities to connect with faculty members and community partners in ways that can be life changing. Academic service-learning is defined as “a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities” (National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2011, p. 1). The benefits of academic service-learning are numerous; however, its challenges can cause faculty members’ commitment to the pedagogy to flag. The pur-
pose of this study was to apply motivation theory to identify the main factors that contribute to faculty members’ motivation to utilize academic service-learning pedagogy.

**Benefits and Challenges of Academic Service-Learning**

Research has shown that faculty members employ academic service-learning pedagogy because it enables students to gain a deeper understanding of the course material, the challenges faced by the community, and their personal responsibility in society (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002; Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hammond, 1994; Hardy & Schaen, 2000; Hesser, 1995; Simons & Clearly, 2006). O’Meara and Niehaus (2009) found that faculty members described the value of academic service-learning pedagogy in terms of their teaching, their personal identity, the institution, and their community partner. Student outcomes are the primary reason faculty members utilize academic service-learning; however, they also continue to use it because it enables them to make a difference in the community and foster relationships between the university and the community (Abes et al., 2002; O’Meara, 2008; O’Meara & Niehaus, 2009).

Academic service-learning courses have the potential to unite a faculty member’s three primary roles of teaching, research, and service. These courses also provide opportunities for students, faculty members, and the university itself to partner with and participate in the community (Ward, 2003). In fact, establishing reciprocal relationships between universities and community partners is critical for the success of academic service-learning initiatives (Arlach, Sanchez, & Feuer, 2009).

Despite the many benefits of academic service-learning, it also presents a variety of challenges that may deter faculty members from continuing its use. Faculty members identified issues of “time and logistics” (Abes et al., 2002, p. 10) as the most common deterrents to continuing the integration of service-learning in their courses. They reported difficulties balancing the time demands required of an academic service-learning course with their many other university commitments, and they often struggled to match community and student needs in service-learning projects (Abes et al., 2002; Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007).

Support available to assist faculty members in addressing these challenges includes advice from colleagues, professional conferences, institutional faculty development opportunities, profes-
Applying Motivation Theory to Faculty Motivation to Utilize Academic Service-Learning Pedagogy

(siological journals, mentoring, and access to community service offices (Abes et al., 2002). Bowen and Kiser’s (2009) research highlighted the importance of faculty fellows programs that teach faculty members about academic service-learning pedagogy and assist them in developing a course syllabus. Faculty members receive a stipend for participation in such programs and must teach their designed academic service-learning course at least once. Bowen and Kiser found that faculty members were more likely to continue using the pedagogy once they had completed the program. They also found that as faculty members continued using academic service-learning pedagogy, they needed “support in different forms and at more advanced levels” (p. 39).

Researchers agree that colleagues’ support is critical for faculty members teaching academic service-learning courses (Abes et al., 2002; Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007; Bowen & Kiser, 2009). Which colleagues provide the most valuable support has been a topic of some debate. Abes et al. (2002) described the value of faculty members from various disciplines across the university providing support, while Banerjee and Hausafus emphasized the importance of department chairs, deans, and fellow faculty members who teach academic service-learning courses offering recognition and assistance to faculty members teaching these courses.

When Forbes, Wasburn, Crispo, and Vandeveer (2008) examined the motivators and incentives for faculty members to employ academic service-learning at research universities, they found that “lack of recognition of service learning with regard to promotion and tenure would be a disincentive to a large portion of the respondents” (p. 38). Two key factors that encouraged faculty members to use academic service-learning were the availability of a faculty training program and university assistance in finding community partners. Additionally, the faculty members in this study felt it was imperative for both faculty members and community partners to be recognized for “successful service-learning projects” (Forbes et al., 2008, p. 39).

In addition to faculty development programs, some institutions have started to offer release time or sabbaticals for faculty members who practice academic service-learning to conduct scholarship and/or program development (Campus Compact, 2012). With the increase in faculty incentive programs, Campus Compact emphasized the importance of identifying which incentives are desirable to faculty members. To do so, researchers and institutions must first understand the factors that maintain and increase,
as well as those that reduce, faculty members’ motivation to use this pedagogy.

Previous research has investigated the benefits and challenges of academic service-learning pedagogy for faculty. However, as service-learning continues to be institutionalized and to mature as a discipline, theoretical approaches are needed to connect concepts and guide future research. A theoretical framework will illuminate the process through which faculty members choose—and continue to choose—academic service-learning pedagogy. This understanding of process is vital for informing future service-learning research and practice, as well as providing universities with tools to promote and sustain faculty members’ long-term commitment to the pedagogy.

**Theoretical Framework**

Scholars in the field of psychology examine the construct of motivation from a variety of physiological, cognitive, and behavioral approaches. Social cognitive theory provides a unique perspective on motivation that bridges the behavioral and cognitive psychological approaches. Social cognitive theory was selected as the framework for this qualitative study because it offers a broad theoretical lens that provides an understanding of motivation as linked to both the self and the environment.

Social cognitive theory emphasizes the importance of interactions between individuals and their environments. Bandura (1989) explained that social interactions consist of mutual interactions between individual behavior, the environment, and personal factors such as cognition, an interaction he calls “triadic reciprocal causation” (p. 1175). Within social cognitive theory, the concept of motivation accounts for individuals’ “goal-directed behavior instigated and sustained by expectations concerning anticipated outcomes of actions and self-efficacy for performing those actions” (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008, p. 139). Though numerous definitions of motivation have been offered, all share the basic premise that motivation “gets us going, keeps us working, and helps us complete tasks” (Schunk et al., 2008, p. 4).

Although Bandura’s (1997) theory of motivation is widely accepted in the field of psychology, there are nevertheless criticisms of his work. Those who believe in a biological or genetic basis for behavior argue that Bandura overemphasizes social and environmental factors at the expense of recognizing the impact of biology and other inherent developmental differences (Grusec, 1992;
Woodward, 1982). Such scholars argue that individual behavior may be relatively consistent across changing environmental and social conditions and, conversely, that behavior may vary drastically in the absence of other changes. Moreover, Bandura’s work has been criticized for reducing complex behaviors to an oversimplified learning process (Rottschaefer, 1991). Despite such criticisms, however, the theory’s ability to account for interactions among individual behavior, cognition, and environmental factors made it the most appropriate choice for this study.

The researchers applied Bandura’s (1997) model of motivation to investigate faculty members’ motivation for teaching academic service-learning courses. In his model, Bandura emphasized the importance of forethought and retrospective reasoning in regulating motivation, with specific attention to the interaction of an individual’s cognitive goals, outcome expectancies, and perceived causes of success or failure. Through this regulation process individuals affirm or alter their motivation. The purpose of this qualitative study is to draw on the voices and perspectives of academic service-learning faculty members to develop a theoretical framework for understanding faculty members’ motivation to persist in utilizing academic service-learning.

## Research Methods

### Participants

The researchers interviewed 24 university faculty members (six male and 18 female) who had taught academic service-learning courses at a private liberal arts university in the southeastern United States. The university had 364 faculty members. Of these, 191 were male and 173 were female; 74 were full professors, 140 were associate professors, 112 were assistant professors, and 38 were lecturers. The first author, an associate professor in the Department of Psychology at the university, had taught approximately 28 sections of academic service-learning courses over a 7-year period. The second author is a recent graduate of the university with a degree in psychology who completed two service-learning courses.

Participants were recruited through the university’s academic service-learning email list, comprising approximately 75 faculty members with an interest in academic service-learning. At the time of data collection, 30 to 35 core service-learning faculty members were teaching academic service-learning classes on a regular basis. These courses vary in the type of service required, which may be
project-based, direct service to clients, or a combination of both. The service hours required for these courses range from 20 to 35 hours.

Participation was voluntary, and each participant was entered into a raffle for a $50 gift card. Participants must have taught a minimum of one academic service-learning course. The 24 faculty members who volunteered for this study were from the departments of communications, computing sciences, education, English, engineering, foreign language studies, history, human service studies, leisure sports management, public administration, public health and human performance, and sociology.

Participants included three full professors, 10 associate professors, seven assistant professors, and four lecturers. The average number of years of teaching academic service-learning courses was 8, with an average of eight academic service-learning sections taught per faculty member. Faculty designed their academic service-learning courses with the intention of providing direct service, project-based service, or a combination of both. Faculty and students providing direct service worked on-site with the community partner and its clients. Those providing project-based service worked on a product that would benefit the community organization, such as a website.

Table 1. Participant Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>University rank</th>
<th>Years teaching</th>
<th>Number of academic service-learning sections</th>
<th>Type of academic service-learning (direct, project-based, or both)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alfred</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alice</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audrey</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bella</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brian</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catherine</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claudia</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiona</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genevieve</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harper</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janette</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Applying Motivation Theory to Faculty Motivation to Utilize Academic Service-Learning Pedagogy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Course Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jasmine</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jillian</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jocelyn</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joanna</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juliet</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margaret</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monica</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parker</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patrick</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Project-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piper</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penelope</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Both</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Collection and Analysis

After receiving Institutional Review Board approval, the first author conducted individual interviews with each faculty member to identify the rewards and challenges of teaching academic service-learning courses. In the interviews, which lasted approximately 1 hour, each participant was asked to provide demographic information and answer questions pertaining to their motivation to teach academic service-learning courses. The demographic section of the interview included questions about university rank, number of years teaching academic service-learning courses, number of sections of academic service-learning courses taught, and number of different courses taught. In the questions pertaining to motivation, participants were asked to outline how they became involved in teaching academic service-learning courses, explain their original motivation for teaching these courses, describe the first academic service-learning courses they taught, and list the challenges and rewards that influenced their motivation to teach academic service-learning courses. For example, participants were asked, “How did your motivation stay the same or change as you continued to teach academic service-learning courses?” and “What factors contributed to this staying the same or changing?” Finally, participants were asked to recommend strategies to sustain faculty interest in and commitment to teaching academic service-learning courses.

Researchers ensured the quality or trustworthiness of interview studies by making certain that the interviewer and interview questions were not leading and by having an audit trail (Roulston, 2010). The interviewer in this study adhered to the interview protocol and asked all participants the same questions. Additionally, all interviews were transcribed verbatim, and the researchers main-
tained an audit trail by providing detailed descriptions of the interview and analysis processes.

After the interviews were transcribed verbatim, the researchers conducted open coding, identifying relevant fragments in each transcript in response to the analysis questions (Boeije, 2010). The following analysis questions guided the coding of the transcripts.

1. What are the overall benefits of academic service-learning?
2. What are the challenges to motivation for faculty members?
3. What factors increase faculty members’ motivation?
4. What factors decrease faculty members’ motivation?
5. How do faculty members maintain their motivation?
6. What professional development supports would increase faculty members’ motivation to continue their academic service-learning practice?

Codes were then placed in a table to enable an examination of patterns, known as categories. Categories are “a group or cluster used to sort parts of the data” (Boeije, 2010, p. 95). While examining the categories, the researchers created a visual display to observe how the categories interacted. This process led to the identification of four themes: (1) faculty members’ goals, (2) faculty members’ expectations, (3) faculty members’ perceived successes, and (4) faculty members’ perceived challenges.

Once the themes were established, the researchers applied Bandura’s (1997) model of motivation, as illustrated in Figure 1, to the findings. Bandura described individual motivation as a cycle with an anticipatory cognitive process that involves using forethought and retrospective reasoning. Forethought encompasses individuals’ goals and belief in their ability to achieve a desired outcome. Retrospective reasoning involves the individual appraising the success and failure of the situation. Bandura emphasized within this motivational cycle the role of cognized goals. These are goals with current value that provide individuals with “direction to their behavior and create incentives to persist until they fulfill their goals” (Bandura, 1993, p. 130). In this study, cognized goals helped illuminate faculty members’ overall purpose for employing academic service-learning pedagogy.
Similarly, Bandura (1997) also highlighted the significance of outcome expectancies in influencing motivation, explaining, “People act on their beliefs about what they can do, as well as on their beliefs about the likely outcomes of performance” (p. 130). When individuals think about outcome expectancies, they are determining what they need to do to achieve a cognized goal and what the likely outcome of their actions will be. Both while an action or performance is occurring and after it is completed, individuals use retrospective reasoning to determine perceived causes of success or failure. These components collectively determine an individual's level of motivation. The following section outlines how faculty members' cognized goals, outcome expectancies, and perceived causes of success and failure interact in maintaining their academic service-learning motivation.

Findings

As illustrated in Figure 2, the researchers used Bandura's (1997) terms but modified the structure of the model. The modified version illustrates how faculty members’ motivation is contingent on a cycle of reflection that occurs before and after an academic service-learning course. In this motivational cycle, faculty members’ preexisting cognized goals and outcome expectancies shaped their reflections on the perceived causes of success or failure. Faculty members began the academic service-learning course using forethought to formulate their goals and expectations. As the
experience unfolded, the faculty members' successes and failures in relation to their students, community partners, and perceived university support led to retrospective reasoning. Anticipatory cognitive motivators, in the form of cognized goals and outcome expectancies, fueled their motivation to pursue the academic service-learning experience and provided a framework through which to examine its successes and failures. The faculty members' overall level of motivation was determined by the connections between these key components.
Cognized Goals

The primary cognized goals of faculty members using academic service-learning pedagogy were to provide students with real-world experience and to teach students civic responsibility (Table 2). A civically responsible person is “concerned about the welfare of others, not only at a personal level but also at societal and global levels” (Da Silva, Sanson, Smart, & Toumbourou, 2004, p. 230). According to Bandura’s (1997) model, cognized goals provided faculty members with both direction in selecting the pedagogy and incentive to continue its use. All 24 participants in this study identified their primary rationale for using academic service-learning pedagogy as the opportunity to provide students with real-world experience embedded in a course.

Table 2. Cognized Goals and Number of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognized Goals</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Real-world experience</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students and community</td>
<td>Civic responsibility:</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Awareness of community issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social justice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fifteen of the 24 participants reported that they also utilized this pedagogy to teach students about civic responsibility in one of three areas. Three faculty members identified a cognized goal of raising students’ awareness of the issues facing people in the local community. Two faculty members identified a goal of civic responsibility and charity by inspiring students to give back to the community by contributing either time or money. The largest group, 10 faculty members, sought to teach students about civic responsibility and social justice by helping them recognize their personal responsibility to advocate for the fair treatment of all people in society.

Miranda, an associate professor who teaches college students entering the teaching field, identified a cognized goal of connecting classroom learning with real-world experience. Her students worked in a public school classroom over the course of a semester. Reflecting on this experience, Miranda noted:
[Students] frequently have said that [the academic service-learning experience] brings the text to life, it brings the content to life . . . it helps them understand what we’re talking about because they can read about [classroom pedagogy] and think they have a sense of it, but then when they actually see it play out, they understand not only the nuances but also the complexities.

Miranda’s cognized goal provided the direction for student learning, as her students integrated their experience in the public schools with the discipline-specific knowledge they discussed in her class. Miranda’s goal is associated with future teachers; however, the same cognized goal was expressed by each of the faculty members in this study.

The second most frequently mentioned cognized goal was teaching students civic responsibility. Faculty framed civic responsibility in terms of raising students’ awareness of problems facing the local community, inspiring them to give back to their community with contributions of time or money, and encouraging them to accept responsibility for ensuring the fair treatment of all individuals in society.

Like Miranda, Juliet had a cognized goal of providing her students with real-world experience. In addition, she wanted to teach her students to be civicly responsible by developing their awareness of challenges facing the local community. Juliet explained this goal for guiding future teachers: “It’s not just knowing the students you teach, but it’s knowing the community where they’re living.” Juliet wanted to help teacher candidates better serve the students in their classrooms by fostering an understanding of the local communities in which their students live.

Two faculty members expressed a cognized goal of teaching civic responsibility in terms of giving back through charity; however, they also emphasized the importance of raising students’ awareness of community needs. Harper teaches a service-learning course in event management in which the students plan a fundraising event for a local organization, such as the Boys and Girls Club. Harper shared, “It’s more just understanding the agency and helping raise funds for them, but the bigger goal is that they will hopefully become aware of the needs in the community and hopefully in the future we’ll have a greater sensitivity about the needs in the community.” Through the process of raising money for an organization, Harper hoped his students would gain a better understanding of their community’s many needs.
Ten of the 15 faculty members addressed civic responsibility in terms of instilling a sense of social justice in their students. Social justice entails understanding the issues faced by various individuals and groups in the community and advocating for the fair treatment of fellow human beings. Genevieve, who teaches education courses, emphasized this point:

That was my goal: to have them break through some of the biases and stereotypes and really get a better understanding of the values of another culture and how to communicate and how to really become advocates for social justice in the community and in the classroom.

Genevieve sought to teach her students course content while also raising their awareness of the stereotypes they hold about various groups and cultures. Through this heightened awareness, Genevieve strived for her students to value and advocate for those who are disadvantaged.

Faculty members’ instructional cognized goals were twofold: (1) teaching students course content in a real-world setting and (2) teaching students to become civically responsible citizens. All faculty members wanted their students to have real-world experience to apply to the course material. Fifteen of the 24 faculty members emphasized the importance of teaching civic responsibility by raising awareness of local issues, inspiring students to donate their time and/or money to community organizations, and encouraging students to advocate for the fair treatment of all people. These cognized goals in turn influenced the faculty members’ outcome expectancies for their academic service-learning courses.

**Outcome Expectancy**

The faculty members’ outcome expectancies allowed them to examine their own abilities and predict what was achievable for themselves, their students, and their community partners over the course of the semester (Table 3). As outlined above, faculty members expected students to be able to transfer knowledge gained in the classroom to their real-world experience and to increase their sense of civic responsibility. Within the continuum of costs and benefits for community partners, faculty members expected community partners not only to value their relationships with students, faculty members, and the university, but also to view the students’ participation as beneficial for their organization.
Table 3. Outcome Expectancies and Number of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Transfer of knowledge</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students and community</td>
<td>Students gain civic responsibility, community partners value and perceive the benefits of the relationship</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Claudia, who teaches a foreign language academic service-learning class, framed her outcome expectancies around her ability to teach students the language in a way that enabled them to use their skills in the real world. She explained, “It just reaffirms that I’m meeting my goal for my students to be comfortable using their language with native speakers, and it doesn’t matter if you don’t conjugate your verb correctly.” Claudia's cognized goal of authentic learning led her to expect her students to be able to use their foreign language skills in the real world.

For other faculty members, outcome expectancies were defined not only by the application of disciplinary knowledge to the real world, but also by the students’ capacity for leadership and civic responsibility. Fiona, an associate professor, attributed student success in her communication course to the students’ growing awareness of what they personally had to offer:

They’re seeing that they’re needed. Their leadership is needed in the community. And it’s not needed just in terms of communication materials, but it’s needed in terms of just human beings that we need for you to step up and to continue this service work. . . . We need you to fill these gaps when you leave here, not just for your profession but for helping the community.

Fiona’s outcome expectancy for her students was to use their leadership skills for the betterment of society. She wanted her students to leave the university understanding that they possessed both the power and the responsibility to help their community.

Faculty members expected students to gain real-world experience and community partners to find their relationship beneficial. The nature of the relationship with community organizations varied based on whether students were providing direct service, project-based service, or a combination of both. Whatever the
type of service—which varied by course and organization—faculty members’ outcome expectancies centered on the community organizations’ reporting that the students’ service met their organizational needed.

Alfred, who teaches a policy course that develops projects for community partners, explained:

I want to have a good relationship with the partners... I want us to be helpful to the community. In the policy analysis class, I want our projects to be helpful, which is hard sometimes to work out... It’s just trying to make sure that what we’re doing is useful in some way to them and it’s going to vary from agency to agency what that is or project to project what that is.

Like other faculty in this study, Alfred expected his academic service-learning course to provide his community partner with needed assistance from his students and for their course project to be useful for the community partner.

The faculty members’ cognized goals and outcome expectancies for their courses spurred forethought that increased their motivation to use academic service-learning pedagogy. These cognized goals and outcome expectancies also framed their retrospective reflections regarding the successes and failures of their course.

**Perceived Causes of Success**

Faculty members evaluated the success of their academic service-learning courses in relation to their cognized goals and outcome expectancies. Success occurred when the goals of students, community partners, and faculty members align and when the community partner found the collaboration helpful in increasing the organization’s capacity to serve (Table 4). For the goals to align, students need to value the experience and integrate the information learned in class with their experiences with their community partner. When community partners reported to faculty that the benefits of their relationships with students and faculty outweighed the costs, they supported the faculty members’ cognized goals and outcome expectancies.
Table 4. Perceived Causes of Success and Number of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Value the experience, integrate class knowledge into the service-learning experience</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Partner</td>
<td>Value student and faculty relationships, create a meaningful collaboration</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Faculty members judged their teaching in an academic service-learning course to be effective when students valued what they learned. One student in Catherine's research class marveled:

I had no idea research could matter this much to people. I thought it was just a bunch of silly concepts and now I understand that we have something to tell this community about how people perceive diversity on their campus.

When this student and others recognized the importance of their research class, Catherine felt supported in her cognized goals and outcome expectancies. This student demonstrated the value of the academic service-learning experience by recognizing the importance of the course content and understanding how she could apply it to make a difference in the local community.

The faculty members’ perception of success in an academic service-learning class, unlike traditional college classes, also depended on their relationship with the community partner and on the course’s ability to meet that organization’s needs. Monica, a senior lecturer, noted that the community partner needs to be invested in the collaboration and to articulate a specific need. She stated, “So for us, for me, it benefits a lot to have a partner that’s willing, that has a need and that the students can satisfy that need.” Monica’s perception of success was thus affected by her cognized goal and outcome expectancy of meeting a community need, which increases the likelihood of the community partner valuing the collaboration.

Once faculty members had established a partnership with a community organization, they tended to work with that organization for a number of years. Jocelyn explained, “I think with the long-term partnership, there is some motivation in just the existing partnership with a sustained relationship and so there’s a sense of
commitment both ways, and we want to just keep that going.” As evidenced by Jocelyn’s and Monica’s responses, the relationship between the faculty member and community partner is a crucial component of faculty members’ perceptions of success in the academic service-learning experience.

The success of an academic service-learning course relies on the commitment and skill of faculty members, students, and community partners. Faculty members need to frame the academic service-learning experience with reference to the community organization’s needs, the disciplinary objectives of the course, and the students’ needs. Students have to integrate the course material with their observations of the real-world setting and understand the importance of collaborating with the community partner. Community partners should have a stake in their relationship with the course, the students, and the faculty member. Faculty members compare their observations of all these factors with their goals and outcome expectancies to engage in retrospective reasoning. When these factors align, such reasoning reinforces the faculty members’ purpose in teaching academic service-learning courses; when the faculty members’ purpose is validated, their motivation increases.

**Perceived Causes of Difficulty**

Faculty members teaching academic service-learning courses often experience success, but they also confront challenges. Departing from Bandura’s (1997) model, the faculty members in this study characterized challenges in teaching academic service-learning courses not as failures, but as problems to be explored. These challenges included students’ negative responses to academic service-learning experiences, the university’s lack of support, and difficult relationships with community partners (see Table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Negative student attitudes, lack of integration of course material in the real world</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Failure to make a difference, lack of communication between faculty member and community partner</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University/Department</td>
<td>Lack of support and/or recognition</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The students’ lack of motivation, negative feedback, and inability to integrate the course material with their experiences in the community proved to be the most discouraging aspects of the teaching experience. Additionally, faculty members expressed concern about the lack of recognition and support they received from their department and/or university for the additional workload involved in teaching academic service-learning courses. Faculty members were also discouraged when they felt they were not making a difference in the community and/or when they had a negative relationship with a community partner.

Faculty members expressed frustration when students failed to recognize the importance of collaborating with the community. Penelope identified one of her biggest challenges as “student apathy and lack of commitment.” Similarly, Jillian explained that her motivation “changes with the pushback from students. That just makes me feel like crap that somehow they don’t see the value or they’re trying to negotiate with me.” Students’ lack of commitment to the course discouraged faculty members, causing them to perceive the academic service-learning experience as difficult as opposed to rewarding.

Although such difficulties were challenging, participants explained that negative reactions also motivated them to explore the issues and search for solutions. Faculty members approached these challenging student situations in a variety of ways. Alfred stated, “It motivates me to push that kid a little harder, check in on them and make sure they’re working on it because . . . I want us to be helpful to the community.” Conversely, Brian explained, “As I’ve gotten older what I come more and more to realize is finite resources of, okay, I’ve got so much time here and I could keep trying to pull you kicking and screaming or I could have a whole richer, more meaningful conversation with these folks. I’ll choose B.” Thus, faculty members consistently learned from these difficult situations, leading them to restructure their approach to working with students and realign their anticipatory cognitive motivators.

Similarly, negative feedback from students and lack of departmental and university support for the demands that academic service-learning pedagogy places on faculty members presented another challenge. Audrey explained:

Sometimes you feel like you’re doing all this work and then you get your evaluation back at the end of the semester and there are students who write things on there like “I liked the service learning but it took up
too much of my time.” That can be discouraging and the thought does go through your mind, Why bother? Because this is a lot of extra work for me and if my students don’t appreciate it and if it’s not appreciated from colleagues in my department, then I could as easily teach a regular course and save myself the 10 hours a week in doing the extra stuff.

Bella echoed Audrey’s description of the intensity of utilizing academic service-learning pedagogy, stating, “Sometimes I just get tired. I just want to teach a regular course. Um, ‘cause it’s a lot of extra work.” Faculty members need to develop strategies and support structures to deal with the challenges associated with this pedagogy if they are to maintain their motivation over the long term.

**Recommendations for Support**

The faculty members in this study noted that although their anticipatory cognitive motivators remained strong, support in addressing the difficulties in academic service-learning would nevertheless be helpful. Reflecting on these challenges, faculty members recommended implementing a variety of supports. Suggestions ranged from organizing faculty discussions about service-learning to offering grants to support the creation of academic service-learning courses to providing course release time for faculty members who utilize academic service-learning pedagogy (see Table 6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty support</td>
<td>Mentors, support groups, and discussions with experienced faculty members</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding</td>
<td>Grants, incentives, and support for research</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support and recognition</td>
<td>Center for academic service-learning, course release time, encouragement from department leaders, recognition from colleagues, and academic service-learning assistants</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with community partner</td>
<td>Working in the community, maintaining communication throughout collaboration</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The faculty members emphasized the need to create dialogue among those teaching academic service-learning classes to share positive and negative experiences. The availability of teaching
assistants, funding for grants, and other incentives would provide additional forms of support. The university currently supports faculty members through a center for academic service-learning and a faculty fellows program. Faculty members requested more support from departmental administrators and greater recognition from their colleagues. In addition, because faculty members at times found it challenging to reach and work with community partners, they requested additional assistance in this area.

Many of the participants had applied with their community partner for a grant related to a specific initiative (e.g., books for a school library). Although the faculty members valued this type of grant, they emphasized the need to make additional funding available. Jasmine explained, “One thing that could help faculty is—and we already have the [Community Partnership Initiative] grants—but some sort of grant opportunity where you can take the money to benefit the client.” Some faculty members advocated increasing the Community Partnership Initiative Grant award limit, as many of their projects required more funding than allowed by grant guidelines. Additionally, since applying for a grant doesn’t guarantee funding, the faculty members suggested providing a small discretionary fund for each service-learning class to help pay for gasoline for student transportation, money for an end-of-semester celebration, and some form of compensation for the community partners.

Faculty members also recommended allowing them to accrue release time as a form of recognition for the extensive time commitment required to teach an academic service-learning course effectively. One faculty member noted that at another university, “if you taught three service learning courses, you got a course release as a reward. . . . I thought that was phenomenal.” Another major concern for faculty members was the impact of teaching academic service-learning courses on the promotion and tenure process. One participant stated:

There should be some degree of recognition among people who are evaluating files or making decisions about raises and things like that, not that service-learning is better than other kinds of teaching or that students necessarily learn more, but that to do service-learning, well, there’s a lot of time invested.
Faculty members also suggested allowing them to apply for a teaching assistant to handle some of the logistics that consume so much of their time.

Faculty members benefit from hearing what their colleagues are doing, and a common theme throughout the study was the need for more structured opportunities to interact with other faculty teaching academic service-learning courses. The year-long Service-Learning Faculty Scholars Program at this university invites faculty members to meet on an ongoing basis with a faculty fellow and other university colleagues who want to learn more about academic service-learning pedagogy. Additionally, participants noted that informal lunch meetings with colleagues were especially helpful in enabling them to share ideas, ask questions, and discuss challenges.

The participants proposed creating a mentoring and/or faculty partnership program to address the need for faculty interaction. Brian suggested:

I think that different people are at different places and need different kinds of mentoring at different times. . . And maybe it’s not, it’s not mentoring so much as perhaps partnering. You know, we create a structure where people get $100 [on their university card] or something just to have some money to eat together or have coffee together or whatever. To have more intentional kinds of conversations around the kind of things that we’ve been talking about today: How do you do X or do you have any good readings about this? And not discipline specific but more the pedagogy kinds of stuff; I’m pretty convinced that the pedagogy transcends disciplines. And good teaching transcends the disciplines. So how do we help people be better teachers of that particular kind of pedagogy? And partnering might be a better word than mentoring.

The faculty did not think the pairings should be randomly assigned, but should instead happen organically. One suggested having “three or four people that get together and can talk about how they try to blend theory and practice or how they deal with obstacles.” Such conversations assist faculty in creating their own support network.
Cycle of Motivation

In approaching each new academic service-learning teaching experience, faculty members used forethought in formulating their cognized goals and outcome expectancies. During and after the course, faculty members retrospectively reasoned about the actual outcome of the academic service-learning course. This reasoning in turn helped increase or decrease their motivation, leading to decisions about how to approach the course the next time around. With each decision to continue using academic service-learning pedagogy, faculty members used forethought in framing their cognized goals and outcome expectancies for the next academic service-learning course.

This motivational cycle was continuously influenced by three factors: forethought, the academic service-learning experience itself, and retrospective reasoning. The understanding of motivation as a cycle helped explain the participants’ statements that difficult experiences do not necessarily weaken their anticipatory cognitive motivators to utilize academic service-learning pedagogy. Instead, these difficulties motivated them to explore new approaches to overcome these challenges in the future.

Patrick demonstrated this cycle when he discussed his current level of motivation. “Honestly, it’s a little lower right now. And why that is, is because I guess I know how good it can be and I don’t yet have the partner and the project that’s that good.” Patrick previously evaluated an academic service-learning experience as successful based on his cognized goal and outcome expectancies of having a meaningful collaboration with a community partner. As a result, his anticipatory cognitive motivator is his belief that he must find the right partner to make this pedagogy most effective. Because he doesn’t currently have a partner with whom to forge this type of meaningful collaboration, his anticipatory cognitive motivators have caused his motivation level to decrease, leading him to reevaluate his cognized goals and outcome expectancies.

Discussion

Bandura’s (1997) model of motivation provided the framework for understanding faculty members’ motivation for and continued commitment to academic service-learning. Participants expressed their motivation to utilize academic service-learning pedagogy by referencing anticipatory cognitive motivators contingent on forethought, the academic service-learning experience, and retrospective reasoning. The process of forethought involved formulating
cognized goals and outcome expectancies. Faculty members’ primary cognized goals were for students to connect the course material to the real world and to learn to be civically responsible.

Outcome expectancies for students in academic service-learning courses included acquiring disciplinary knowledge, valuing the academic service-learning experience, and learning civic responsibility. Additionally, faculty members had outcome expectancies for their community partners, expecting them to value their relationships with students and faculty members. During and after the academic service-learning experience, faculty members’ retrospective reasoning allowed them to examine their perceptions of success or difficulty based on student and community partner responses as well as on recognition and support from their university and/or department.

The components of forethought, the academic service-learning experience, and retrospective reasoning shaped faculty members’ anticipatory cognitive motivators for the subsequent academic service-learning experience. These findings are crucial in providing a theoretical understanding of the motivational process that sustains faculty members’ commitment to academic service-learning pedagogy. Understanding this cycle enables faculty members and institutions to strategically intervene in the cognized goals, outcome expectancies, and retrospective reasoning associated with academic service-learning courses to enhance faculty motivation.

The application of Bandura’s (1997) model of motivation extends previous research by capturing the cyclical nature of motivation, illustrating how the factors referenced in the literature may reinforce, undermine, or challenge faculty members’ motivation. As in previous research, the researchers found that the factors motivating faculty members to employ academic service-learning included helping students connect course material to real-world experiences and developing their sense of civic responsibility, while also making a difference in the community (Abes et al., 2002; Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hammond, 1994; Hardy & Schaen, 2000; Hesser, 1995; O’Meara, 2008; O’Meara & Niehaus, 2009; Simons & Clearly, 2006). Also as in previous research, faculty members in this study identified the relationship with the community partner as critical to the success of the academic service-learning experience for both faculty members and students (Arlach et al., 2009).

A consistent theme in the literature on academic service-learning is the intensive time commitment required to teach these courses. A key difficulty for faculty members is balancing the
time demands required for an effective academic service-learning experience with their other university commitments (Abes et al., 2002; Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007). Although this remains an ongoing challenge, participants who found the time demands challenging viewed course release time and teaching assistants as possible remedies to ease these demands. The Campus Compact annual survey (2012) indicated an increase in the number of institutions providing release time and sabbaticals; however, participants in this study did not receive these incentives and indicated that such support would be extremely beneficial in increasing their motivation as well as in the planning and implementation of their academic service-learning courses.

Although Bandura (1997) described successes and failures as elements of the motivational cycle, the participants in this study did not view challenges as failures. Instead, faculty viewed negative responses from students, a lack of recognition from their department, and even difficult relationships with community partners as opportunities for reflection that strengthened their approach to academic service-learning and their overall teaching practice. The university programs described in this and other studies help faculty members obtain the support they need to alter their course design and/or approach to working with the community (Abes et al., 2002; Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007; Bowen & Kiser, 2009; Forbes et al., 2008).

As colleges and universities seek to further institutionalize academic service-learning by creating more formal faculty support systems and programs, it is critical that they understand the complexities of faculty motivation and help faculty to achieve their cognized goals and outcome expectancies. Moreover, anticipating challenges will help faculty and administrators develop solutions that sustain faculty members’ continued engagement with this valuable pedagogy.

The Campus Compact annual survey (2012) called for further research on the incentives faculty find most beneficial. Unique to this study, the faculty members recommended incentives in two main areas: assistance from colleagues using academic service-learning pedagogy and recognition and support from their institutions. All participants referenced the importance of continually reflecting on what was working and not working in their academic service-learning courses. Through reflection, they were able to respond to challenges by not feeling defeated by them and instead reaching out to colleagues and reading the literature on academic service-learning to help them reframe the situation and improve their practice.
Faculty repeatedly referenced the importance of institutional support. The faculty members in this study were grateful for the support they received from the Center for Service Learning and their community outreach staff member. Through a grant awarded to the center, faculty members, community partners, and academic service-learning students could apply for funding to assist with sustainable projects. The center’s community outreach staff member dedicated a great deal of time to connecting faculty members with appropriate community partners and assisting faculty members when they could not reach the community partner. The center also coordinates networking lunches every semester.

Additionally, the institution selects a faculty member every 4 years to serve as the faculty fellow for service-learning. The faculty fellow conducts a year-long program for faculty members who want to learn about academic service-learning pedagogy and design an academic service-learning course. The faculty fellow also spends countless hours meeting individually with faculty members to celebrate successes and help them develop strategies to cope with challenges. Finally, the faculty fellow facilitates informal meetings and lunches that provide opportunities for faculty members teaching academic service-learning courses to discuss their experiences and share ideas.

Although the participants in this study thus received significant support, they nevertheless struggled with the realities of the pedagogy. Many faculty members accepted the challenges of teaching academic service-learning courses but still yearned for greater recognition and support from their departments and the university for the never-ending time demands and other unique challenges presented by this pedagogy. Institutions that continually strive to provide such support will improve faculty members’ pedagogical practice and increase their ability to achieve their cognized goals and outcome expectancies, enhancing the relationships of faculty, students, and the university with the surrounding community.

Bandura’s (1997) model of motivation illuminates the source of faculty members’ motivation as more than simply successes and challenges. The participants in this study reported many of the same rewards and difficulties described in previous research; however, Bandura’s model sheds light on the importance of the three motivational factors—forethought, the academic service-learning experience, and retrospective reasoning—in framing faculty members’ anticipatory cognitive motivation for academic service-learning. Faculty members’ cognized goals and outcome expectancies are critical to their understanding of success or perception of
difficulties in academic service-learning. The participants in this study emphasized that their continued commitment to academic service-learning was framed by their belief in the pedagogy (cognized goals), their outcome expectancies, and the successes and challenges associated with the experience. These faculty members were highly reflective about their own teaching practice, emphasizing that motivation is not contingent on one or two factors but on the continual cycle identified in Bandura's theory.

Limitations of the Study and Areas for Future Research

The main limitations of this study were the small number of participants and the fact that all participants were from the same institution. Due to the nature of the institution, the first author had previously interacted with all of the participants in meetings about academic service-learning. Another limitation was that two participants had taught only one section of their academic service-learning courses; however, the average number of academic service-learning sections taught was eight per faculty member.

The researchers therefore recommend interviewing a larger number of faculty members from a variety of institutions. Additionally, future research should examine faculty members’ motivation for academic service-learning at different points in their career, in particular comparing untenured with tenured faculty members. Since the faculty members in this study were volunteers who chose to continue using academic service-learning, it is also important to use motivation theory to examine faculty members’ reasons for discontinuing the use of academic service-learning pedagogy. Finally, future research should examine faculty members’ motivation at institutions with various levels of support for academic service-learning, including those that provide no support, moderate support, and extensive support for faculty members teaching academic service-learning courses.

Conclusion

This study advances the theoretical understanding of how faculty members sustain their motivation and commitment to academic service-learning and provides suggestions for supporting faculty members. The cycle of motivation outlined in this study provides faculty members and administrators with a deeper understanding of faculty members’ motivation for using academic service-learning pedagogy, beyond the benefits and challenges enu-
merated in the previous literature. In encouraging the continued use of academic service-learning pedagogy, it is important for faculty members and institutions to recognize the role of achieving cognized goals and outcome expectancies in upholding faculty members’ motivation and commitment.

The faculty members in this study emphasized that identifying clear goals and envisioning outcome expectancies prior to undertaking an academic service-learning course constitute best practices in motivation for academic service-learning. Additionally, the faculty members encouraged reflection on the challenges and benefits of academic service-learning during and after the course, with the goal of finding ways to capitalize on the benefits and overcome or cope with the challenges.

This article documents the cycle of motivation as it is observed, but increasing motivation may require altering or influencing what happens in this cycle. Professional development programs play an important role in providing space for faculty to engage in supportive dialogue as well as to challenge one another in their goals and expectations. For example, if one’s cognized goal is to teach students to accept responsibility for rectifying injustice, it is important to distinguish between such a goal as a realistic outcome of a semester-long course and as a lifelong journey.

Additionally, when faculty members confront difficulties in academic service-learning, guidance from experienced colleagues can help them examine how such challenges may undermine their cognized goals and expectations. By understanding the impact of such difficulties on their own motivational cycle, faculty members can choose whether to allow the challenge to deter them from pursuing the pedagogy or to alter their goals and expectations. By providing strategic interventions for retrospective reasoning, then, faculty members can form a community of mutually supportive learners for new and veteran faculty members alike. The application of Bandura’s (1997) motivational theory enables academic service-learning scholars and practitioners to view motivation in all its complexity. It reveals motivation not as a sum of factors that encourage or discourage faculty members’ persistence in the pedagogy, but as a cyclical process that continually influences faculty members’ motivation with each academic service-learning experience.
References


**About the Authors**

**Alexa Darby** is an associate professor in the Department of Psychology and the academic coordinator of the Civic Engagement Scholars Program at Elon University, where she previously served as the university’s first academic service-learning research scholar. Dr. Darby’s research agenda focuses on civic engagement in higher education and teaching and learning in academic-service learning courses, with particular attention to the professional development needs of faculty and community partners and the motivational factors influencing the persistence of students, faculty, and community partners in this pedagogy. She received her M.A. in Educational Psychology from the University of Connecticut and her Ph.D. in Educational Psychology with a specialization in qualitative research from the University of Georgia.

**Gabrielle Newman** is an alumnus of the Department of Psychology at Elon University. She is currently enrolled in the Master of Social Work program at the New York University Silver School of Social Work.