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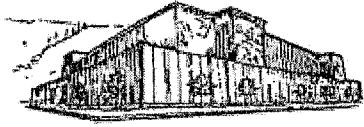
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Civic Engagement in Higher Education: A Grounded Theory

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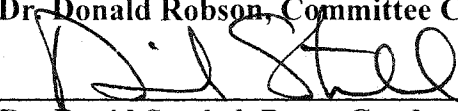
A Dissertation Submitted
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Department of Educational Leadership
School of Education
The University of Montana
Missoula, Montana
April 2003

Approved By:



Dr. Donald Robson, Committee Chairman



Dr. David Strobel, Dean, Graduate School

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ABSTRACT

McGovern, Dean P., Ed.D., April 2003

Educational Leadership

Civic Engagement in Higher Education: A Grounded Theory

Chair: Donald Robson, Ph.D. DR

The purpose of this grounded theory study was to generate a theory that explicates the institutional commitment to civic engagement from the perspective of chief academic officers at Montana Campus Compact institutions. Data were collected from interviews with fifteen chief academic officers. These participants also supplied data via institutional documentation, literature, and materials.

Data were analyzed using the accepted method of grounded theory analysis. This process comprised open coding, axial coding, and selective coding of the data. When completed, the analysis produced a grounded theory that describes two central phenomena which chief academic officers experience—the ambiguity of civic engagement and the competing institutional priorities. The grounded theory is depicted in logic model. This model illustrates the causal conditions that influence the phenomena including cultural norms of the institution, institutional mission, size, and community needs. The model further explains the strategies that chief academic officers employ as a result of the phenomena. Specifically, these include defining civic engagement for their institution and prioritizing civic engagement at their institution. As the model delineates, these strategies occur within a context of barriers or catalysts that affect both the phenomena and the strategies. Finally, the model describes the consequences of employing such strategies—an increased level of commitment to civic engagement and ultimately an engaged campus.

This study concludes with recommendations for future study including a list of testable propositions related to the grounded theory presented.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Someday girl, I don't know when,
we're gonna get to that place
where we really want to go
and we'll walk in the sun,
but 'til then, tramps like us,
baby, we were born to run.

--Bruce Springsteen, 1975

I have looked forward to writing this page for quite some time. It is the “thank you” note after a great party. This party was long and it is finished. Now, as I clean up the cups, plates, and assess the stains on the rug, I feel both satisfied and tired. Most of all I feel grateful. I wish to express my deepest appreciation to those who showed up and helped out.

My committee comprised talented and generous people. Each provided invaluable contributions to the final work that sits here. Thanks to Dr. Betsy Bach for her keen attention to my chosen research method. Thanks to Dr. David Aronofsky for his insightful help with clarity and prose. And thanks to Dr. Roberta Evans who motivates and inspires with her interminable optimism. Special thanks to Dr. Don Robson who graciously stepped in to serve as chairman and has given me thoughtful guidance, perspective, and wisdom.

I wish to reserve a distinctive acknowledgement for Dr. Len Foster. He has been a transformational icon in my academic career. The kind of professional that I am and will become is in large part because of Dr. Foster. He has been my teacher, sensei, mentor, counselor, and dear friend. Thank you.

I thank my friends and family who have engaged in the joys and challenges of my life since I started my doctoral work. You walked with me; held my hand, cried with me, pushed me to celebrate the small victories, gave me a boost up over the obstacles, and helped me remain grounded to what I value most. Thanks to all of you.

After almost three decades of formal education—involving countless books, courses, articles, debates, experiences, and teachers—nothing has been more enlightening and edifying than the education I have been given by my daughters. Thank you to Peyton Frances McGovern for her sharp perspective, her challenging questions, her firm commitment to truth, and her warm sensibility. Thank you to Margot Irene McGovern for her boundless charm, her quick wit, her devilish sense of humor, and her gregarious disposition. I love you both more than you can know.

DPM, April 2003

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables and Figures	vi
Chapter One: Introduction	
Introduction.....	1
Statement of Problem.....	4
Purpose of Study.....	5
Importance of Study.....	6
Definitions of Terms.....	8
Assumptions Inherent in the Study.....	9
Delimitations of the Study.....	10
Limitations of the Study.....	10
Chapter Two: Review of Pertinent Literature	
Introduction.....	11
The Breakdown of Civic Participation.....	12
The Role of Higher Education.....	17
Individual Roles on Campus.....	22
Summary.....	23
Chapter Three: Methods and Procedures	
Research Questions.....	25
Method of Inquiry.....	25
Procedures of the Study.....	28
Participants.....	29
Form of Data.....	30
Data Analysis.....	32
Ethical Considerations.....	34
Verification.....	34
Reporting of Findings.....	36
Chapter Four: Research Findings & Results	
Findings & Results.....	38
Causal Conditions.....	42
Cultural Norms.....	42
Institutional Mission.....	44
Institutional Size.....	47
Community Needs.....	48
Central Phenomena.....	51
Ambiguity of Engagement.....	51
Pressure of Competing Priorities.....	52

Contextual Markers.....	54
Strategies to Engagement.....	57
Defining Engagement	58
Prioritizing Engagement.....	59
Outreach Offices.....	60
Relevant Curriculum.....	61
Required Service-Learning for Students.....	62
Required Service for Faculty.....	62
Release Time.....	63
Academic Credit for Service.....	64
Grants for Service.....	64
Work-study for Service (Serve-Study).....	65
Outcomes and Consequences of Effective Strategies	66

Chapter Five: Summary, Propositions, & Recommendations

Summary.....	68
Commitment to Civic Engagement.....	70
Categories of Civic Engagement.....	70
Civic Engagement on Campus.....	71
Context for Civic Engagement.....	71
Strategies for Civic Engagement.....	72
Propositions.....	72
Recommendations.....	76

Appendices

Appendix A: Sample Letter.....	78
Appendix B: Interview Protocol.....	79
Appendix C: Executive Summary of The MontanaCampus Compact Annual Report 2002-2003.....	80

References.....	83
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List of Tables and Figures

Table 1: Participating Chief Academic Officers.....	39
Figure 1: A Theoretical Model of Institutional Commitment to Civic Engagement....	41
Table 2: Mission Statements of Participant Institutions.....	45
Table 3: Community Typology.....	50
Figure 2: Civic Engagement Strategies used by Chief Academic Officers.....	58

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Responding to the needs and demands of society is a long-standing goal of higher education in the United States (Karabell, 1998). American colleges and universities were founded with clear public purposes and ambitious civic missions. In the 17th Century, the fledging commonwealth of British colonies, in the New World, urgently needed skilled, educated, and principled public leaders. Indeed, Harvard College was founded in 1636 as the first “American” institution of higher education for two purposes: 1) to train clergy to care for the religious and spiritual needs of the surrounding community; and 2) to educate men who would become political decision-makers in the emerging democratic government (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). Similarly, William and Mary College, Yale College, and Kings College were founded to meet the needs of surrounding communities and colonies.

The distinctive democratic spirit of American higher education was readily apparent as the 20th Century began (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). In Germany, universities emphasized detached scholarship and the creation of knowledge apart from the day-to-day workings of human existence. In Britain, universities continued with their missions to educate and prepare an aristocratic elite. In sharp contrast, Charles Eliot, President of Harvard in 1908, described American institutions as follows: “Teachers and students alike are profoundly moved by the desire to serve the democratic community” (quoted in Boyte & Kari, 2000, p.37).

After World War II, the American academy joined the world in its awe of the triumphs and terrors of science and technology (Schneider, 2000). Rapidly, the

raison d'être of American colleges and universities became creating and disseminating knowledge, rather than championing personal and democratic virtue (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). A strong movement toward reason, value-free analysis, and professionalized academic disciplines pushed American academics to seek distance from civic education. Instead, scholars were drawn openly, or implicitly, toward positivistic science as a model of professional maturity (Bender, 1997). Schneider (2000) notes this detachment from civic issues as a means of protecting the research academy from politically motivated assaults on funding or content of scholarly work. Short of completely abandoning their civic responsibilities, colleges and universities established Western Civilization courses on campuses across the country with the express intention of introducing students to their cultural histories and democratic duties. Faculty work increasingly demanded scholarly inquiry, discovery, creation of knowledge, and research. Throughout the Twentieth Century, public service and the ideals of the Land Grant Acts of 1862 and 1890—which appropriated federal funding to increase the practical social benefits of higher education—became marginalized in promotion and tenure decisions (Boyer, 1990).

The last few decades of the Twentieth Century and at the dawn of the Twenty-First Century have seen abundant calls for a renewal of civic engagement and social responsibility in America. Studies indicate that Americans are in a state of political disengagement (Barber, 1995), waning social capital (Putnam, 1995), and cultural decline (West, 1993). While commentators, pundits, and social observers have chronicled widespread disdain and distrust in civic affairs, politics, and the American democratic process, many look to higher education for leadership and solutions to this

civic disengagement (Lisman, 1998; Boyer, 1996; Barber 1992; Bok, 1990; Boyte, 1991; Ehrlich, 2000). Some observers would like to place American colleges and universities in the role as nurseries for citizenship. In this way, higher education can provide development for students as engaged leaders (Schneider, 2000).

To be sure, decision-makers within higher education have begun to respond. In 1980, a Carnegie report noted: “[I]f there is a crisis in education in the United States today, it is less that test scores have declined than it is that we have failed to provide the education for citizenship that is still the most important responsibility of the nation’s schools and colleges” (Newman, 1980, p. 31.). Ernest Boyer (1987) lamented: “Scholars are busy sorting, counting, and decoding. We are turning out technicians. But the crisis of our time relates not to technical competence, but to a loss of social and historical perspective, to the disastrous divorce of competence from conscience” (p.110-111).

In 1985, in response to criticism from political leaders and communitarian scholars, a triad of college presidents formed Campus Compact. These presidents asserted that although students were indeed engaging in some civic activities, students, faculty, and institutions as a whole needed more encouragement. Since its inception, Campus Compact has grown to more than 900 member presidents and has taken a lead role in educating students for citizenship and equipping faculty members with tools to develop, implement, and evaluate rigorous curricular service-learning and civic engagement (Campus Compact, 2003). Organizationally, Campus Compact has undergone tremendous expansion, with thirty affiliate state offices in April 2003. The Montana Campus Compact (MTCC) was founded in 1993 by campus chief

executive officers across Montana. MTCC has grown to include seventeen member institutions representing Montana's public, independent, two- and four-year, religiously-affiliated, community, and tribal colleges and universities (MTCC, 2003).

Beyond coalition building and public commentary on the issues of civic disengagement, studies have been conducted to uncover and explain trends and federal programming has been initiated. In 1985, the Cooperative Institutional Research Program began surveying freshman college students on their civic values and behaviors (Sax, 2000). Legislation such as the National and Community Service Trust Acts of 1990 and 1993 have helped to connect college students with civic engagement activities such as community service and service-learning projects.

Statement of the Problem

Recently, the term "engaged campus" has been employed to describe the diverse expressions of commitment to connecting the academy and higher education institutions to community needs (Edgerton, 1994, Holland, 1997). In 1995, the American Association of Higher Education dedicated its annual conference to the "Engaged Campus" and since then, several other disciplinary associations and professional organizations have given visibility and importance to the service and service-learning movement (AAHE, 2002).

Although the mission statements, promotion and tenure guidelines, and campus rhetoric at most colleges and universities mention service, outreach, and civic engagement, Holland (1997) asserts that these activities occur differently at each institution. There appears to be disparity in institutional commitment to civic engagement among American campuses (Crosson, 1983; Ward, 1996; Zlotkowski,

1995). Extant literature reveals that civic engagement has real, but poorly understood, impacts on institutional structures, policies, resources, and decisions. In a study of five institutions with distinct and diverse missions, Ward (1996) identified three factors related to the institutionalization of service activities: faculty participation, funding, and leadership for service-learning.

In a 1996 report, Campus Compact identified the congruence of service activities with institutional mission as the most important factor associated with successful institutionalization. Lynton (1995) suggests that institutionalization must focus on policies and resources. Service must be adopted at the core of faculty work and student experiences, and cannot be treated as an extra or add-on assignment or duty (Lynton, 1995). Zlotkowski (1995) asserts that institutionalization of civic engagement requires campuses to move beyond simple implementation issues. He argues that campuses must undergo a complete “transformation of a set of elitist, self-referential academic assumptions” (Zlotkowski, 1995, p.130). He further asserts that civic engagement strategies must be distinctive and appropriate to the individual institution, if commitment is to be realized and sustained. Lynton (1995) admonishes that the form and degree of institutional commitment to civic engagement is highly variable across and within institutions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to generate a theory that explains institutional commitment to civic engagement activities at Montana Campus Compact institutions, using data collected from the chief academic officers of these institutions. The research was guided by the central question and subquestions below.

Central Question

How does commitment to civic engagement on a college and university campus that has a presidential pledge of support manifest itself from the perspective of the chief academic officer?

Subquestions

1. What general categories emerge from data on institutional civic engagement?
2. Where civic engagement is found; what encourages or discourages it?
3. What contextual or intervening conditions influence institutional civic engagement?
4. What strategies do chief academic officers observe, support, implement, and/or articulate regarding their respective institution's civic engagement?

Importance of the Study

Today, mission statements of public, private, large, small, liberal arts, or land grant institutions include a public purpose. These mission statements usually explicate this institutional purpose with terms like "service," "public outreach," "community service," "service-learning," or "civic engagement" (Ward, 1998). There has been increased public, governmental, and internal criticism of higher education in recent years regarding institutional capacity to address these public purposes. Additionally, there remains a certain level of community need, caused by a societal incapacity to meet the educational, public safety, health, social, and environmental concerns, without the assistance of colleges and universities (Barber & Battistoni, 1993). Growing evidence outlines the benefits resulting from civic renewal and engagement to both the higher education institutions themselves and the

communities that are positively impacted. Institutional benefits include improved student learning in both content areas and citizenship competencies, better and more effective faculty teaching and research, and improved public image and support for higher education in general (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Astin & Sax, 1998; Driscoll, 2000; Campus Compact, 2001; Bringle & Hatcher, 1998; Holland, 2000).

There is a strong need to shed light upon the overlooked experiences, methods, techniques, qualities, and struggles of the campuses that purport to engage their faculty, staff, and students in civic activities and keep them directed toward their public missions. Barritt (1986) contends that by heightening awareness and subsequently increasing dialogue around experiences, a better understanding emerges. This understanding of the way things appear to others and an explanation of the experience of others can lead to improvements in practice. Currently, no theory or model exists that explains individual experiences of civic engagement in higher education. For this reason, there is no theoretical perspective from which to improve current practice.

A study of college and university commitment to civic engagement is important for several reasons. First, understanding the practical significance of the public outreach component in institutional missions clarifies values and priorities as colleges and universities set goals and prepare for the future. Second, findings from this investigation may explicate for legislators, decision-makers, and other external constituents the actual commitment to statewide or regional issues outside of the campus community. Third, there remains a dearth of literature which informs

institutional commitment to a specific component of the mission, namely the public purposes of institutions.

Definitions of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions apply:

Community service is a set of activities that provide benefits to a group of people with a need, problem, or issue. In the higher education context, “community service” comprises several types of service-based or experiential learning activities—extracurricular volunteerism, field education, internships, and service-learning (Furco, 2000).

Campus Compact is a national coalition of more than 900 college and university presidents committed to the civic purposes of higher education. To support this civic mission, Campus Compact promotes community service that develops students’ citizenship skills and values, encourages collaborative partnerships between campuses and communities, and assists faculty who seek to integrate public and community engagement into their teaching and research (Campus Compact, 2003). As of April 2003, The Montana Campus Compact comprises seventeen (17) member institutions representing public, independent, two- and four-year, religiously-affiliated, community, and tribal colleges and universities throughout Montana.

The ***Chief Academic Officer*** is a higher education administrator or officer responsible for directing the academic, curricular or scholarly program of an institution. Typically, this program includes academic planning, teaching, research, extensions, and coordination of interdepartmental affairs (Rodenhouse, 2001). This officer reports directly and only to the president or CEO of the institution and is

usually second in command. This officer is responsible for all academic programs and academic personnel. This position has several interchangeable titles such as *Provost, Dean of Faculty, Dean of Instruction, or Vice-President for Academic Affairs* (James, 1970). This position is often referred to with the acronym *CAO* (chief academic officers).

Civic Engagement is the individual and collective actions designed to identify and address issues of public concern. Civic engagement may take many forms, from individual volunteerism to organizational involvement to electoral participation. It can include efforts to address an issue directly, work with others in a community to solve a problem or interact with the institutions of representative democracy. It may encompass a range of specific activities such as working in a soup kitchen, serving on a neighborhood council, writing a letter to an elected official, organizing a group around a particular issue, working on a campaign, picking up trash along a riverbank, or voting. Those who are engaged should have the ability, agency, and opportunity to move comfortably among these various types of civic acts (Campus Compact, 2001).

Service-learning is a process and pedagogy in which students engage in reflective community service as part of academic course work. The learning process integrates rigorous academic content with community-based service experiences (Jacoby et al., 1996).

Assumptions Inherent in the Study

For the purposes of this study, it is assumed that chief academic officers of Montana Campus Compact institutions have knowledge of civic engagement activities, initiatives, and projects occurring on their campuses. It was further

assumed that these chief academic officers (CAOs), by virtue of their positions, have a unique understanding and perspective affording them the opportunity to reflect on and speak about their institution's commitment to civic engagement. It was also assumed that these CAOs accurately recalled and articulated their perceptions with regard to the central questions and subquestions of this study.

Delimitations of the Study

This study is delimited by the following:

1. The present study focused on institutional commitment to civic engagement from the perspective of chief academic officers at sixteen Montana Campus Compact institutions.
2. The present study focused on the observations, perceptions, and opinions of chief academic officers about their own institutions and does not include an analysis of data gleaned from other administrators, faculty, staff or students.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited by several factors which include:

1. Data gleaned from a specific interview protocol.
2. The participants' responses to questions.
3. The ability of participants to recall, reflect, and accurately articulate their perceptions.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Pertinent Literature

“A troubled universe can no longer afford the luxury of pursuits confined to an ivory tower...scholarship has to prove its worth not on its own terms, but by service to the nation and to the world.”

~Oscar Handlin (1990, p. 3)

Introduction

The 19th Century French scholar Alexis de Tocqueville noted that the United States, as a democratic society, modeled an approach to civic life different from the more centralized French state (Tocqueville, 1945). Specifically, he commented that the constitutional structure of the United States ensured not only checks and balances at the federal level but also the maintenance of multiple layers of governance throughout the citizenry. Beyond the federal-state division of powers, he was impressed by the great deal of political activity at the local level. Moreover, Tocqueville noticed, there was a tremendous degree of voluntary and civic association among Americans. He asserted that when people combine for common purposes, they not only foster self-reliance but also sustain the very skills of association required for a vital citizenry (Gould, 2001).

Any society or culture is reflected in its social institutions. American society has, at the end of each of its centuries, made a public effort to renew, restructure, and

rethink its social institutions (Halliburton, 1997; Putnam, 1995). The end of the Twentieth Century was not an exception. A cursory review of headlines, editorials, news periodicals, and public commentary reveals a call for civic renewal that has been widespread at the beginning of the third millennium. In an effort to ground the present study, a review of pertinent literature on civic engagement was conducted. The review revealed literature regarding the following themes: a) civic disengagement in America; b) the role of higher education in the civic renewal effort; and c) how the individual constituents within the academy and higher education institutions themselves have a role in creating an environment of engagement.

The Breakdown of Civic Participation

Increased computer technology and automation have been identified as culprits in the civic decline of modern society (Rifkin, 1995). New, emerging, and complex problems that require specialized knowledge, such as rampant environmental degradation and dwindling natural resources, are blamed for an overwhelmed and paralyzed citizenry (Stanton, 1990). Some fault a generalized uncoupling of individual rights and responsibilities (Etzioni, 1993; Barber, 1992).

It has been alleged that Americans are demanding too much of the government without accepting their own responsibilities to support the civic infrastructure. Kemmis (1994) bemoans a rising consumer mentality among individuals as they relate to government. He argues that engaged citizens think of themselves as players in the work of governing, rather than as “taxpayers” or “consumers” who “purchase” services from the government on a quid pro quo basis. Kemmis writes that true

citizenship is practiced, not on the sidelines of politics and government, but by active and engaged participation in governing, whether it is within a neighborhood, township, city, state, or republic. Harry Boyte and Nancy Kari (2000) echo the sentiment: “Democracy is neither a consumer good nor a spectator sport but rather the work of free citizens, engaged in shared civic enterprises” (p.42).

In 1985, Robert Bellah and his associates penned Habits of the Heart, which attempted to capture the breakdown of civic vitality in America. Bellah et al. (1985) argue that individualism, personal choice, and excessive liberty have interfered with deeper social commitments. According to Gitlin (1995), the current forces that fragment American society into individual identities based on religion, gender, sexual orientation, race, and ethnicity undermine efforts to create shared goals among people who most likely have more in common than they might believe.

In an article entitled Bowling Alone: America’s Declining Social Capital, Robert Putnam (1995) displays data showing epidemic disengagement in community activities. Social capital, Putnam explains, is the glue that holds communities of people together. This “glue” is a compound of trust, social norms, and networks outside the family that allow people to work and play together in a democratic order (Putnam, 1995). Through several indices related to club memberships, church attendance, voting patterns, charitable giving, family dining behaviors, and even bowling league participation, Putnam chronicles a virtual depletion of social capital in contemporary America.

Gamson (1997) contends that Putnam’s work may have missed the mark. She asserts that although membership in several of the traditional civic organizations may

have dwindled, new forms of civic engagement are emerging. Pollitt (1996) suggests that Putnam's work may have ignored the modern American life. She suggests that self-help programs might speak more loudly to the spiritual needs of contemporary American society than going to church might. This would logically explain increased membership in the former and low turnout in the latter. Pollitt (1996) also notes that activist women are more likely to support policy-influencing groups such as Planned Parenthood or NOW rather than the League of Women Voters (whose declining membership Putnam cites in his study). Dennis Altman (2001) points out that Putnam's work ignores the large amount of social capital and community participation involved throughout the 1990's as gay and lesbian organizations made formal, social, and effective responses to AIDS. As loudly and as ubiquitously as the criticisms, rejoinders, and comments come back to Bowling Alone, very few pundits have come forward to deny the decline in American civic vitality. Some question Putnam's apparent placement of the burden for civic engagement and the responsibility for its collapse on the non-elite classes (Skocpol, 1996).

Even as critics examine claims about a quantitative decline in civic engagement, many believe that there has been and continues to be an important breakdown in civic participation (Barber, 1992; Matthews, 1994; McKenzie, 1994; Lasch, 1995). Gamson (1997) and Barber (1992) lament that although millions of people vote with their feet to immigrate to the United States, as a population, American citizens themselves rarely muster a fifty percent turnout at elections. Matthews (1994) cites a general decrease in the amount of social activism in America. Lasch (1995) argues that the blame for the breakdown might rest with those he calls the "economic elites."

These wealthy individuals, according to Lasch, have taken their money and privilege and gone their own way without regard for the plight of their neighbors.

Additionally, Lasch (1995) notes that the civic crisis is based on the failure of the “intellectual elites” to sustain identity and communications with the American people.

Against the backdrop of these observations, an argument can be and has been made that the call of civic renewal must eventually rest on the shoulders of education. According to Gamson (1997), teachers, scholars, and intellectuals must recognize and take responsibility for their habits of skepticism and relativism that may work to undermine the basis for shared values and civic responsibility. Pollitt (1996) asserts that there is misplaced and disproportionate responsibility for civic engagement and that members of the intellectual elite have been publicly excused from their civic responsibilities. She sardonically observes that although “tenured professors may be too busy to sing in the choir: The rest of us are just couch potatoes” (Pollitt, 1996, p.9).

Voting—arguably the most basic civic responsibility—is on a forty-year decline in the U.S. In 1996, fewer than one third of eligible 18- to 24-year-olds voted. In 1998, fewer than 18% of those under 25 years old voted (Tarrance Group and Lake, Snell, & Perry, 1999). Barber (1998) notes: “In a country where voting is the primary expression of citizenship, the refusal to vote signals the bankruptcy of democracy.”

To be sure, poor voting habits are not the only consideration of this civic disengagement crisis in America. A number of studies state the extent to which young citizens are removed from politics and public life (Sax, 2000; Levine & Cureton, 1998). In a recent study, college students indicated extreme political

alienation and pessimism. Many commented that politics has nothing to do with their lives (Harwood Group, 1993). The Fall 2000 Freshman Survey conducted annually by the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) revealed political engagement at an all-time low, despite the survey being conducted in an election year when freshman interest in politics traditionally increases (Sax, et al., 2000). A January 2000 poll of college students echoed these findings about the political disengagement of young Americans (Panetta Institute, 2000). Additionally, a number of studies indicate that youth pay little attention to news reporting on public affairs (Bennett, 2000; Sax, 2000; Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1998; Loeb, 1994). It is clear from the literature that young people in the United States are disillusioned with partisan politics (Sax, 2000; Loeb, 1999, 1994), fed up with political incivility (Loeb, 1994; Levine & Cureton, 1998), and angered by their assumed political impotence (Loeb, 1999).

Beyond decreased voting behaviors and other political activities lie other indicators of civic disengagement and general lack of vibrant public life. These things include depressed activity around what Tocqueville witnessed Americans engaged in almost two centuries ago—voluntary associations, creation of social capital, and community identities. Just as Putnam's study generated a theory about a decline in social capital among the general public, he concluded the same about college students—they do not want to be actively involved in community activities, they do not see themselves as future community leaders, and they do not want to make their communities better places to live (Putnam, 1995). Barber (1992) notes that democracy and education are concomitant ideas. The critical role of higher

education, he argues, is to encourage, train, and educate students so that they may take their places as engaged citizens of the community in which they reside.

The Role of Higher Education

The crisis in citizenship development has led to concerns regarding American civic education (Benson & Harkavy, 2000). With growing evidence that Americans are in large numbers disengaged from politics and public life, there is suspicion that our educational institutions are leaving students unprepared for a life of engaged, democratic citizenship (Colby & Ehrlich, 2000; Boyer, 1996; Harwood Group, 1993).

Some believe that civic disengagement is fostered by traditional means of education. Almost a century ago educator and philosopher John Dewey (1916) asked: “Why is it, in spite of the fact that teaching by pouring in, learning by passive absorption, are universally condemned, that they are still entrenched in practice?” (p.13). Some authors continue to ask that same question of American educational institutions (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Kolb, 1984; Freire, 1970). Eyler & Giles (1999) found that students believe they learn more from experiential learning activities such as service-learning than from traditional lecture classes. Kolb (1984) delineated a learning cycle constructed from Dewey’s theories. He suggests that learning takes place only when there is integration between feeling and action with abstract and systematic thought. Freire (1970) laments an outdated “banking” concept of education in which knowledge is deposited into the minds, souls, and psyches of pupils. He suggests that this traditional construction of knower and learner is destructive, oppressive, and yields passive, less engaged individuals.

In 1998, the National Commission on Civic Renewal reported on the crisis of civic disengagement. This report failed to acknowledge a role for higher education in the shaping of moral and civic virtues in students or society. Higher education was again rebuffed when the Council on Civil Society released its report in 1998. Colby & Ehrlich (2000) point out that not only was higher education left without a role, but also was considered part of the problem. This was especially true among politically conservative authors (Bloom, 1987; Kimball, 1990; Silber, 1990; Sykes, 1990; D'Souza, 1991) who all denounced the progressive academic establishment as the root cause of poor citizenship. In the mid 1980s, Reagan's Secretary of Education, William Bennett, cited the erosion of the classical academic canon as the reason for loss of civic virtue among graduates (Barber, 1992).

In recent years, however, colleges and universities have been called upon to encourage civic responsibility by teaching and modeling civic virtues (Hollander & Hartley, 2000). Higher education institutions have been reflective regarding their own failings about engaging students as active citizens in their democracy, and in encouraging faculty to build partnerships with the communities and agencies off campus (Campus Compact, 2001).

Many college and university leaders have chosen to speak directly to the charge of civic deficiencies (Bok, 1990; Boyer, 1990; Levin, 1997; Cartwright, 1996; Stukel, 1994; Ramaley, 2000; Prince, 2000; Elsner, 2000). Bok (1990) sounded the clarion call for universities to take responsibility for the future leaders of the country. Boyer (1990) asserts that faculty work must be reframed in order to adhere to the purpose of the modern academy and to serve society in more significant ways. College

presidents Cartwright (1996), Stukel (1994), and Ramaley (2000) have written and spoken publicly on the need for higher education campuses to become better “citizens” in the communities where they reside (McGovern, Foster, & Ward, 2002).

Several campus presidents have chosen to make the work of their campuses relevant to public problems and responsive to public needs by joining Campus Compact (Battistoni, 2002). The movement among campus leadership to renew the public purposes of higher education and address the crisis of civic disengagement was exemplified in the *1999 Presidents’ Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education* (Campus Compact, 2000). In a concluding paragraph the assembled presidents called upon their colleagues, faculty, staff, students, and members of governing boards to rise to the challenge:

We believe that the challenge of the next millennium is the renewal of our own democratic life and reassertion of social stewardship. In celebrating the birth of our democracy, we can think of no nobler task than committing ourselves to helping catalyze and lead a national movement to reinvigorate the public purposes and civic mission of higher education (Campus Compact, 2000, p.4).

Higher education has also responded from the faculty ranks. In 1985, an organization created by and for faculty—The Invisible College (now known as the Educators for Community Engagement [ECE])—was established. Since then, the ECE has convened interested, engaged, and active faculty from across the disciplines around topics such as community-based learning, service-learning, and experiential education. Additionally, prominent scholars have independently called for colleges

and universities to affirm their missions for educating citizens for democracy (Benson & Harkavy, 1997; Boyer, 1994, 1996; Barber, 1992; Bok, 1990). Benson & Harkavy (1997) call for a “revolution” that realizes a vision for an education/democracy/pedagogy-centered university that serves as a capstone to a kindergarten through postsecondary citizenship incubator. Boyer (1994) asserts that it will require a truly democratic schooling process to deliver outcomes ultimately beneficial to a democracy. He further claims that it is the responsibility of higher education to model this process for all of education. Bok (1990) writes that students themselves must be empowered to take control of their education and actively partner with faculty to create their own knowledge and civic skills.

In 1984, college students around the country established Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) to spur student-led civic engagement initiatives. Both COOL and Campus Compact began by encouraging an ethic of service through extracurricular opportunities and activities. By the 1990’s, however, both were strongly influenced by the efforts of the National Society for Experiential Education to link experiential pedagogy with the community service movement. In 1990, the National Society for Experiential Education published an extensive report outlining the benefits of service-learning both pedagogically and as a method of citizenship development (NSEE, 1990). By 1992, college campuses began to receive federal funding to support service-learning initiatives through the Corporations for National Service and its Learn and Serve America Program. By the turn of the century, service-learning was strongly endorsed by not only COOL, Campus Compact, and NSEE, but also the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U),

the American Association of Higher Education (AAHE), the American Council on Education (ACE), the Council of Independent Colleges (CIC), the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC), and most other higher education organizations (Battistoni, 2002).

While growing evidence of the efficacy of service-learning accrues, some continue to believe that a systemic renewal and restructuring of the way colleges and universities do business must occur (Ramaley, 2000; Colby & Ehrlich, 2000). Ramaley (2000) asserts that higher education ought to reflect upon at least three considerations if it is to accept its civic responsibilities: 1) institutional expectations of faculty and administrators; 2) institutional aspirations for students; and 3) the nature and intentions of institutional relationships with the larger society.

In *Scholarship Reconsidered*, Ernest Boyer (1990) proposed a new paradigm for academic work—one to replace the outdated and ambiguous triumvirate of teaching, research, and service. His proposal assigns to the professoriate four essential and interconnected functions—discovery, integration, instruction, and application (Boyer, 1990). In a 1996 article which reflected upon his earlier work, Boyer (1996) added *engagement* to his list of faculty functions. He delineated two specific levels at which the scholarship of engagement might be realized. At the first level, to engage is to connect the rich resources of higher education to the pressing social, civic, and ethical problems of our cities and children. At a second level, engagement means to create a “special climate in which academic and civic cultures communicate more continuously” (Boyer, 1996, p. 146).

Individual Roles on Campus

Stanton (1990) has observed that faculty buy-in is essential to almost any kind of long-term institutional undertaking. Zlotkowski (1999) asserts that as more research has been conducted on service, outreach, and service-learning, the civic engagement efforts of colleges and universities have had a substantial faculty development focus. Holland (1999) notes several factors that may work to motivate faculty involvement in engagement activities. These factors include intrinsic rewards, individual values toward altruism, professional goals, and external incentives such as funding, prestige, or evidence of positive impacts on organizational factors that are valued. Holland (1999) further identified several obstacles to faculty involvement in engagement activities. These include concern about the time it takes to create new courses, activities or community partnerships. Additionally, resources available to support these activities, lack of confidence and skills, deficient common understanding of the language of engagement, and lack of institutional leadership towards engagement were found to be obstacles for faculty involvement in civic engagement activities.

Colby & Ehrlich (2000) assert that higher education's central role in responding to contemporary social needs is challenging students to think beyond historic approaches to resolving problems. Institutions have a unique opportunity and responsibility to provide an environment for helping students create innovative and effective methods for preventing and curing social ills (Barber, 1993). Parks Daloz, Keen, Keen, & Daloz Parks (1996) suggest that colleges and universities should strive to become places where students may move away from learning by tacit,

conventional assumptions and move toward critical, socially conscience, and multi-cultural thought allowing them to envision new possibilities.

Longitudinal studies have found the college experience associated with measures of civic responsibility (Sax, et al, 1998; Sax, 2000). Sax (2000) has noted that, during their time at college, students become more committed to helping others in difficulty, influencing social values, influencing the political structure, and participating in community action programs. These findings affirm earlier research by Jacob (1957), Astin (1977), Hyman & Wright (1979), Bowen (1980), Pascarella, Smart, & Braxton (1986), and Pascarella & Terenzini (1991). All emphasized the power of the college experience to increase altruism and civic responsibility. Sax (2000) admonishes, however, that these effects on civic engagement generally disappear in the first several years after college. Her study also found three factors correlated to an increased sense of civic responsibility after college—(1) increased time in religious studies, services or meetings; (2) increased time volunteering; and (3) increased time socializing with other students from different racial/ethnic groups (Sax, 2000).

Summary

The higher education enterprise began in America with a strong civic purpose. As the academy and individual institutions have evolved, priorities have shifted accordingly. Although the postsecondary system in the United States may be, as Boyer (1996) claims, “the envy of the world,” it is increasingly lacking in public confidence. Reports show that civic disengagement in America is at an all time high. Arguably, this comes at a time when America needs an engaged citizenry more than ever to tackle complex social, economic, environmental, and public safety problems.

The meaning of these trends has not been lost on educators and campus decision-makers. Individually and collectively, scholars, presidents, and students, have explicated the dangers of civic disengagement both for the future of higher education itself and for the nation as whole. Service-learning, volunteerism, voting initiatives, and other campus activities and pedagogies have emerged as potentially viable means to renew the public purposes of higher education.

The notion of the “engaged campus,” while historical in spirit, is relatively new to the scholarly conversation on academic work. Accordingly, research on the progress and outcomes of this contemporary movement is scarce. Although studies which report the impact of service-learning or the effectiveness of volunteerism on students exist, there remains a dearth of literature to explain the institutional commitment to the civic engagement endeavor.

CHAPTER THREE

Methods and Procedures

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to generate a theory explaining institutional commitment to civic engagement activities at colleges and universities from the perspective of chief academic officers. Specifically, this study sought to answer the following central research question and subquestions:

Central Question

How does commitment to civic engagement on a college and university campus with a presidential pledge of support manifest itself from the perspective of the chief academic officer?

Subquestions

1. What are the general categories that emerge from data on institutional civic engagement?
2. Where is civic engagement found; what encourages or prevents it?
3. What contextual or intervening conditions influence institutional civic engagement?
4. What strategies do chief academic officers observe, implement, and/or articulate regarding their respective institution's civic engagement?

Method of Inquiry

To answer and address the research questions, a grounded theory study was conducted (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Qualitative data were collected from chief

academic officers at Montana Campus Compact institutions who voluntarily served as participants to the study. The data collected were analyzed using a rigorous and systematic constant comparative process (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Qualitative inquiry is based in very different, and often opposite, assumptions about reality, truth, and ways of knowing than is quantitative inquiry. Ontologically, qualitative researchers do not believe in objective realities or truths that frame the social world, but rather believe that the social world is composed of multiple realities and perspectives (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Since truth regarding social phenomena is relative to the perspective of the knower, research aimed at explaining the social phenomena cannot remain objective, unbiased, and value-free. Instead, qualitative inquiry takes the biases and values into account and is, therefore, value-laden (Patton, 1990). Given the assumption that social data are value-laden, it is not necessary to control the setting and reduce extraneous variables. For these reasons, qualitative data are collected naturally or in the setting that best informs the study (Creswell, 1998).

Creswell (1994) states that a research study begins by selecting a topic and a paradigm. Quantitative research is helpful if the research problem can be answered by testing an existing theory, with measurable variables that can be statistically analyzed. Qualitative research is helpful if the researcher wishes to understand social behavior, attitudes, or perspectives, by constructing a thick descriptive picture from stories and experiences of the study participants. In the case of the “engaged campus,” no extant descriptions or theories exist from the perspective of the chief

academic officers. For this reason, qualitative inquiry is most appropriate to answer the research questions of the present study.

Within the qualitative paradigm, this study borrowed from the grounded theory tradition. The use of grounded theory is seen primarily in social science research—specifically in sociology, nursing, and education (Creswell, 1998). Its origins are rooted in the seminal work of Glaser & Strauss (1967), *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*.

Grounded theory research aims to generate or discover a theory that relates to a particular situation or condition (Creswell, 1998). This condition sees people acting, interacting, engaging, and reflecting upon a process in response to a phenomenon. Through interviews with participants, a researcher obtains a holistic picture of the perspectives embedded in the condition under investigation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, the typical grounded theory study utilizes in-depth interviewing of several people with specific knowledge about the phenomenon. The goal is to obtain data from which to generate a theory about the phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

Creswell (1998) calls the schematic or narrative representation of an emergent theory the “centerpiece” of grounded theory research. Often this theory is reported via written narrative (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), a visual picture (Morrow & Smith, 1995), or a series of hypotheses or propositions (Creswell & Brown, 1992). This study facilitated the generation a theory that is a plausible relationship among concepts related to the phenomenon of institutional commitment to civic engagement.

Procedures of the Study

Collecting data in grounded theory research is a rigorous and systematic process. Creswell (1998) describes this process as “a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering good information to answer emerging questions” (p. 110). Creswell (1998) goes on to delineate two general data collection activities—choosing participants and gathering information from participants. Both of these activities involve decisions regarding the form of data and the process of collecting it. For data collection, the present study utilized a technique called “theoretical sampling” and interviews.

Theoretical sampling involves choosing participants based on their ability to contribute to an evolving theory regarding institutional commitment to civic engagement (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). According to Miles & Huberman (1994), selecting participants begins with identifying a homogeneous group of individuals. In this study, chief academic officers were identified and invited to participate in the study because of their unique positions from which to speak to the topic of civic engagement. More specifically for this study, CAOs at Montana Campus Compact institutions informed, focused, and facilitated the data collection processes.

Spradley (1979) asserts that the participants are the key sources of information, data, and interpretation in any qualitative investigation. They become teachers or the experts regarding the phenomenon under inquiry. Hammersly and Atkinson (1995) describe participants as key individuals who provide important insights and perspective on a topic of interest. Chief academic officers at Montana Campus Compact institutions served as the participants in this investigation. During data collection, no attempt was made to select participants randomly; rather, all were

selected for their knowledge and experience as chief academic officer at a Montana Campus Compact institution.

The CAO has a broad and overlapping institutional role with multiple functions involving multiple constituencies. Consequently, the CAO has oversight and understanding in the educational outcomes of students, professional expectations of faculty, and a keen eye toward the overall purpose of the institution (Sagaria & Burrows, 1998). The unique institutional position of the CAO provided a lens through which a complex and comprehensive understanding of institutional commitment to civic engagement can emerge. This position is discussed more thoroughly in the following section.

Participants

Arguably, some of the most important work of American college and universities is the charge of the chief academic officer (McVey & Hughes, 1952). Once exclusively the task of the college president, academic administration has been shifted to the positions of vice-president, provost, deans of faculty, or deans of instruction, all of whom operate under the general title of chief academic officer (CAO). The position of CAO reports directly and exclusively to the president (James, 1970). The CAO is traditionally charged with several overlapping and distinct administrative functions. These functions can include leading staff in support services; leading faculty through curriculum development and academic program planning; setting the professorial direction for the triangular applications of teaching, scholarship, and service; connecting the educational mission and interdisciplinary relationships of the arts, sciences, and professions; overseeing all learning repositories and resources from

libraries to laboratories; facilitating collaboration between campus constituencies to provide the vehicles and viaducts for authentic academic dialogue; and developing an administrative infrastructure that combines strategic budgeting with academic management of programs and services (Stevenson, 2001).

In general, and regardless of institutional type, the CAO has within the position's purview the entire educational authority over programmatic, personnel, and curricular decisions (James, 1970). Although organizational structures may vary by institutional type, the CAO often has jurisdiction over the academic deans, registrar, chief admissions officer, chief librarian, and chief research officer, unless any of these officials serve at the vice-presidential level (Stevenson, 2001). An understanding of institutional commitment to civic engagement can be gleaned from the perspective of an institution's chief academic officer. The overlapping nature of this position affords a comprehensive and complex understanding of the institution, including its internal and external operations.

Form of Data

In this study, the data comprised transcribed interviews and institutional documents. Most qualitative scholars agree that interviews are a main form of data collection in studies, and particularly in grounded theory studies (Spradley, 1979; Tierney, 1995; Kvale, 1996; VanMaanen, 1988; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Fontana & Frey (1998) call interviewing "one of the most powerful ways we use to try to understand our fellow human beings" (p.47). For these reasons, interviews were utilized in concert with institutional documents to collect data for this study. First, a semi-structured interview protocol was used to guide each interview in an effort to

elicit the most detailed, rich, and pertinent information regarding institutional commitment to civic engagement. Each participant was asked for public or institutional documents including policy outlines, directives, procedures, catalogs, or speeches, that may pertain to the level of civic engagement of the institution or that could be used to corroborate or contradict a statement or description from the interview.

Before data were collected, the study proposal was reviewed and approved by Institutional Review Board of The University of Montana. After IRB approval, the researcher invited the CAO at each Montana Campus Compact institution to participate in the study. Each CAO received a letter stating a) the importance and intent of the study; b) an explanation of the interview process; c) assurances of confidentiality; and d) an invitation to examine the final report (for sample letter see Appendix A). The researcher followed up each letter with a phone call to ensure that it has been received and to set up an interview time and place.

An interview protocol was developed and utilized in an effort to obtain the most useful information toward the goals of the study (Creswell, 1998; Merton, Fiske, & Kendall, 1956). The protocol comprised questions constructed with special attention to existing literature on institutional commitment to civic engagement, to the research questions guiding this study, and to the information needed to develop an emerging theory about the topic of institutional commitment towards civic engagement from the perspective of CAOs at sixteen Montana Campus Compact institutions. The interviews were semi-structured and tape-recorded (for protocol see Appendix B).

Participants were asked to provide their consent prior to participating in the interview. The interviews were conducted in a telephonic format. Each interview was tape-recorded. Additionally, the researcher took field note memos during and after each interview. These memos comprised the researcher's reflections, observations, and comments regarding each participant's responses, remarks or stories. Field note memos were kept to a minimum during the interview so as to avoid disruptions or distractions. This allowed the interview to flow more easily as a conversation. Following each interview, the tape recordings were transcribed for analysis. The raw transcribed data were stored on computer files to facilitate retrieval, searching, and analysis. Field notes were also be filed and used for analysis.

Data Analysis

Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe qualitative data analysis as a process, which involves compiling, coding, categorizing data, and finally writing a rich descriptive narrative. Additionally, it is accepted practice in qualitative studies to perform these tasks concomitantly (Merriam, 1997; Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Marshall & Rossman, 1989). To facilitate the analysis process, Strauss and Corbin (1990) advance open coding procedures, which help develop categories; axial coding procedures, which interconnect the categories; and selective coding procedures, which help build the story or theme around and between the categories. Finally, the analysis process concludes with a discursive set of theoretical propositions (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

In the present study, audio-taped interviews were transcribed immediately after they are conducted. Once hard textual copies were obtained, the transcribed interviews, institutional documents, and field notes were read and reread. During

these initial readings, open coding was conducted and preliminary categories of institutional commitment to civic engagement were established. This introductory understanding and categorization were then used to form the basis for subsequent questions that were asked of the data. Conrad (1978) refers to this as “constant comparative” method. In other words, after initially coding the data, he researcher then identified general categories that explain the phenomenon, and continued to compare activities, events, words or phrases from the data back to the original categories. This process helped to develop and saturate the emerging category. Ultimately, these categories formed the basis for a thick description and theory regarding institutional commitment to civic engagement.

After categories emerged from the data, the researcher identified the interrelationships among the categories and identified a central phenomenon that was actually embedded in the data. This axial coding revealed causal conditions that influence the phenomenon, strategies for addressing the phenomenon, the context shaping those strategies, and the outcomes and consequences for employing those strategies (Creswell, 1998). From that matrix, a theoretical model emerged describing the wide range of conditions and consequences related to the CAO perceptions of institutional commitment to civic engagement.

As Patton (1990) noted: “[T]he data generated by qualitative methods are voluminous” (p.297). This study was no exception. To manage the abundant information that this study produced, the researcher utilized computer word-processing software (Richards & Richards, 1994). With this software, the researcher was able to reduce the large amount of information into initial categories, themes, and

ultimately into a viable theory. Creswell (1998) outlines several advantages to using computer software for data analysis such as an organized filing system for data, easy retrieval of information or bits of data, and the means to analyze each sentence, idea, or thought closely and carefully.

Ethical Considerations

All researchers must face the ethical issues which arise from involving other people in the collection of data (Creswell, 1998). Specifically, researchers must protect the anonymity of the participants and must not deceive participants about the nature of the study (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). To those ends, for the purposes of this study, the researcher assigned numbers and a pseudonym to each participant to protect their identities. The researcher also developed a composite picture of phenomenon, rather than an individual picture. Although individual quotations and examples are used to support the overall theory, no individuals are identifiable. Finally, the researcher disclosed the specific nature of the study and asked participants to provide their informed consent before participating. Throughout the study, special attention was given to all rights, needs, and values of the participants. The researcher made the transcript from each interview available to the participant of that interview.

Verification

To fulfill the purpose of any study, it is important to recognize that the researcher must be clear regarding the standards of quality. The standards must be clear and understood by scholars, reviewers, and external readers. The positivist, or traditional, terminology used for these standards is *validity* and *reliability*. Validity explains the

extent to which the study actually measures what it purports to measure. Reliability refers to the extent to which the study can be replicated and yield similar results with similar data. For the purposes of this study, the researcher explained the generally accepted standards for verification and outlined a plan to uphold these standards. Specifically, the researcher delineated how this study's process and final product would be verified as "believable, accurate, and right" (Creswell, 1998, p.193), rather than valid or reliable.

Rather than adopt criteria from a positivist philosophy for use in a post-positivist or postmodern method of inquiry, more appropriate verification standards were utilized (e.g., Lincoln, 1995; Wolcott, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Eisner, 1991). Lincoln (1995) suggests alternative terms for verification based in a naturalistic paradigm that include trustworthiness, credibility, transferability, and dependability.

To achieve the goals of making the final report of this study trustworthy, credible, transferable, and dependable, several techniques were adopted. First, the researcher used triangulation by: a) collecting data from multiple participants who represent different institutions; b) collecting multiple forms of data by way of transcribed interviews and institutional documentation; and c) collecting data from different types of institutions (e.g., research-intensive, tribal colleges, public, private, two-year, and four-year). Institutional documents were analyzed concomitantly with the interviews. These documents comprised admissions catalogs, mission statements, brochures, speeches, and inter-campus memoranda. The document analysis process provided corroborating evidence to the emerging theory (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Second, the researcher clarified all biases and assumptions at the outset

of the study (Merriam, 1988). This clarification provided insight as to any factors that may have shaped the researcher's interpretation or approach to the study. Third, the researcher conducted member checks to ensure that any conclusions drawn from data are accurate and trustworthy. Member checks were conducted by soliciting feedback from participants regarding categories, themes and conclusions. Lincoln & Guba (1985) describe member checks as the most important method for establishing credibility. Fourth, the researcher provided a *thick description* that Geertz (1973) asserts allows a reader to assess the transferability of the study. This rich and detailed narrative enables readers to transfer information to other contexts due to shared characteristics (Erlandson et al., 1993). Finally, as suggested by Tierney & Rhoads (1993), the researcher continually asked the following questions of the process: a) Are the voices presented in the study believable? b) Is the central phenomenon or theory plausible? c) Where do I fit in the formation of the text and what other interpretations might be offered? d) Has the text enabled the reader to reflect on the reader's own life and work?

Reporting of Findings

The final report of the findings contains a comprehensive data display. Narrative text has traditionally been the form of display for qualitative data (Miles & Huberman, 1984) and this project utilized that form together with diagrams to illustrate emergent theoretical constructs. The researcher used "thick description" (Geertz, 1973) as a tool for providing an explication of institutional commitment to civic engagement.

The findings illustrate a grounded theory regarding institutional commitment to civic engagement using a construction of the participants' experiences. The voices of the participants were used to support the meanings they each attach to their experiences.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Findings & Results

This study was guided by a central research question—How does commitment to civic engagement on a college and university campus with a presidential pledge of support manifest itself from the perspective of the chief academic officer? Several subquestions were also asked of the data—1) What are the general categories of CAO experience that emerge from data on institutional civic engagement? 2) Where is civic engagement found; what encourages or prevents it? 3) What contextual or intervening conditions influence institutional civic engagement? and 4) What strategies do chief academic officers observe, implement, and/or articulate regarding their institution's civic engagement? It was through these research questions that this study sought to develop a theory on institutional commitment to civic engagement.

Fifteen participants were purposefully selected to provide the data for this study. At the time data were collected, all fifteen participants worked as chief academic officers at a member institution of The Montana Campus Compact. Eight participants were men and seven were women. Two participants worked at Research-Intensive Universities, according to Carnegie Classification; three worked at Tribal Colleges; four worked at Associate Colleges, three worked at Master's Universities, two worked at Baccalaureate Colleges, and one worked at a Specialized Institution. Thirteen chief academic officers were employed at public institutions and two were employed at private or independent institutions.

A semistructured interview protocol was utilized to elicit data. The participants were individually interviewed and also asked to supply the researcher with any supplemental publications, brochures, speeches and/or other documentation that addresses the central

research question or subquestions. It was from these sources of data that a theory emerged to explain the experiences of the participants and their institutions with regard to civic engagement.

Presented in Table 1 is general demographic information pertaining to each of the participants. This information includes: the participant's name (all pseudonyms); the institutional type at which the participant is employed (presented as two year or four year to protect the identities of participants and institutions); and the number of years that the participant has worked in the position of chief academic officer (presented as a range to protect the identities of the participants).

Table 1. Participating chief academic officers

	Name	Institutional Type	Years in Current Position
1	Provost Applegate	Four-year	1-6 years
2	Provost Bench	Two-year	<1 year
3	Provost Clemson	Four-year	1-6 years
4	Provost Davis	Four-year	> 6 years
5	Provost Emerson	Four-year	1-6 years
6	Provost Foley	Four-year	1- 6 years
7	Provost Games	Four-year	1- 6 years
8	Provost Hightower	Two-year	1- 6 years
9	Provost Israel	Two-year	1- 6 years
10	Provost Joyce	Four-year	> 6 years
11	Provost Kidder	Two-year	< 1 year

12	Provost Lovelace	Four-year	> 6 years
13	Provost Nelson	Two-year	<1 year
14	Provost O'Connor	Four-year	> 6 years
15	Provost Paulson	Two-year	1-6 years

Data analysis involved a systematic process of reading and coding the interview transcripts and institutional documents. The initial open coding process yielded hundreds of coded concepts relevant to the study questions. Next, an axial coding process generated proposed relationships among the coded concepts as the researcher linked the concepts, drafted proposals, re-read the data, deconstructed the original proposals, and finally reconnected them until a set of plausible relationships emerged to explain all of the data and their coded concepts. The final process of selective coding built a theory that connects all of the relationships. The theory is stated as a logic model diagram, which forms the basis for a series of propositions (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

As shown in Figure 1, the model that emerged from the analysis of data explains a theory regarding the central phenomena experienced by chief academic officers: a) ambiguity about what constitutes civic engagement; and b) competing institutional priorities. The logic of this model explicates that causal conditions contribute to the central phenomena. Once these phenomena manifest themselves, strategies are employed, relative to the context under which the phenomena exist, and yield certain outcomes or consequences. This logic leads to several propositions and sub propositions regarding civic engagement for future testing. The model and propositions are discussed in the sections that follow.

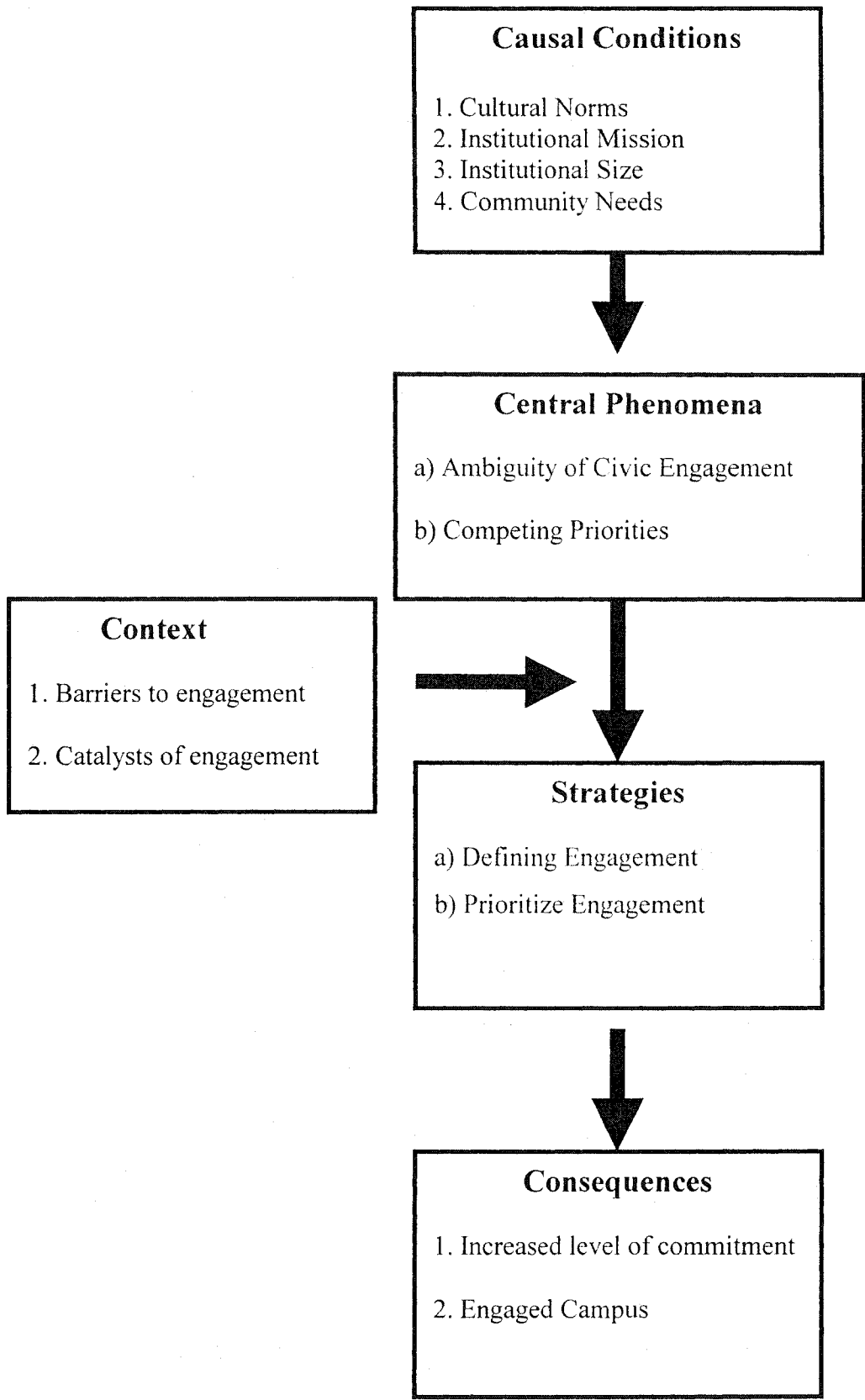


Figure 1. A Theoretical Model of Institutional Commitment to Civic Engagement

Causal Conditions of Phenomena Related to Civic Engagement

Causal conditions are the circumstances presumed to influence or lead to the central phenomena or set of phenomenological experiences related to civic engagement. The analysis of the data revealed four causal conditions: a) cultural norms of the institution; b) the institutional mission; c) size of the institution; and d) community needs. Each of these causal conditions influences both central phenomena: 1) the ambiguous topic of civic engagement; and, 2) the competing institutional priorities that vie for time, resources, and attention. Collectively, the participants reported these causal conditions have an important relationship to the phenomena.

Cultural Norms

The participants all spoke in terms describing factors that shape the work, relationships, expectations, and general conditions of their institutions. Taken together, they spoke of cultural norms—the items that compose the way people or groups operate. Tierney (1988) uses the term “organizational culture” to describe the type human systems specific to colleges and universities. Organizational culture explains that nuances and special circumstances surrounding groups with explicit hierarchy, bureaucratic structure, rules, and individuals with specialized duties toward a common goal. For the chief academic officers who participated in this study, organizational culture shapes their experiences and, at the same time, the work of each CAO shapes the organizational culture. To be sure, each college and university represented in this study has its own distinct culture. The data showed that these cultures manifest themselves in norms, and while separate and specific to each

individual campus, also converged as coded themes. These norms include faculty collegiality, mentoring relationships between students and faculty, and “family-like” qualities of the campus. Provost Clemson’s experiences reflect a number of these norms:

I would say that the students here are exposed to faculty members who are genuinely interested in working with them personally and on the individual student’s projects. I think the faculty is very student-oriented. Also, there is a long history here of faculty members working together, across departments, with each other, and in interdisciplinary and collaborative ways. It’s a necessity.”

Provost Emerson described her campus as having “a nurturing atmosphere of small classes and a lot of interaction between students and faculty.” Emerson stated that her institution emphasizes good teaching, and for her this emphasis ultimately benefits the students. As for faculty members, Provost Emerson described them as “collegial...I think, in many ways, we see ourselves as a community ourselves almost to the extent of being a family.” Provost Foley emphasized an increased value on student government and student participation on his campus. He noted: “There are enormous opportunities and quite varied opportunities for students to be involved with research, scholarship, and service-learning. They are also strongly encouraged to run for office in student government.” The academic rigor presents itself as a cultural norm on Provost Games’ campus: “It’s rigorous but supportive here. There is no question that students are expected to succeed after they graduate from here.”

Institutional Mission

The data showed a second causal condition—institutional mission—that influences the central phenomena of the study. Without exception, a written mission statement guides each of the colleges and universities represented in this study. Some are quite long and detailed, while others are short and comprise only a few sentences. A single sentence constitutes the entire mission at two of the four-year institutions. These mission statements were found in college catalogs, brochures, pamphlets, promotional materials, and in other institutional documents which became data for this study.

Generally speaking, the institutional mission serves to guide the administration, as well as student and faculty work, practice, and purpose at a particular campus. The mission statements examined for this study were constructed in different ways. For example, some are strong, yet contain vague statements of purpose such as “an institution in pursuit of excellence!” Other statements formally list what the institution aims to provide. One example notes: “[T]he college provides a core of general education instruction that results in identifiable student competence.” Still others describe the history, tradition, and values of the institution. One read this way: “In the ecumenical tradition, [the college] is committed to a policy of open participation by members of all religious faiths and all persons of good will in the total academic and spiritual experience of the college community.”

The data indicated that institutional missions range from generating qualified people for entry level positions; to getting students ready to transfer to larger, more

comprehensive colleges or universities; to sustaining and retaining religious or tribal cultures or traditions; and to preparing good citizens for a democracy. Each of the fifteen mission statements examined for this study contained references to a public purpose or civic responsibility. Table 2 shows a list of excerpted sections of each institution's mission statement. The excerpts are listed in no particular order and are the pieces of the document that were coded and analyzed as related to civic engagement. Table 2 also includes the institutional type from where the excerpt is associated.

Table 2. Mission statements of participant institutions

Institutional Type	Mission Statement Excerpt
Two-Year	The college maintains a strong commitment to providing...high quality community service programs.
Four-Year	The university emphasizes experiential learning that combines theory and practice through projects and field experiences...incorporates community service into the curriculum, develops partnerships with...public schools, sponsors youth programs, supports economic development, acts as a good neighbor, and fosters active citizenship. The university promotes... personal responsibility.
Four-Year	The university seeks to educate competent and humane professionals and informed ethical, and engaged citizens of local and global communities. The university provides...service benefiting the local community, region, state, nation and the world.
Four-Year	Ensure that students have a positive impact on the world and on the communities in which they live.
Two-Year	The college curricula will reflect identified needs and interests of the [local] population by providing...community interest programs, courses and activities.
Four-Year	We value...civic and life-long personal development. We strengthen our sense of community and develop our global perspective. We strive to enhance community life and life-long learning.
Four-Year	...provides and intellectual environment that fosters...social responsibility.
Two-Year	...engages in community service and technical assistance

	activities. Enhance students' abilities to...live productive lives while achieving balance between career, personal life, and service to others.
Four-Year	Providing service through outreach to the state, region, and nation. Developing multicultural and global awareness. Provide outreach to citizens. Facilitate wise stewardship by creating effective partnerships with business, government, educational, and service organizations.
Four-Year	Preparing all students for leadership, lifelong learning, and a commitment to service. The university reaffirms a primary mission of preparing students of all ages to be productive and responsible citizens.
Two-Year	Partnerships are sought with businesses and other educational institutions to provide programs and services that enrich the lives of our students and the citizens of our community. Provide a curriculum and services that meet the needs of the [local community].
Two-Year	Provide programs that enhance the cultural, social, and economic well-being of our students and communities. Provide educational programs that will prepare our students for citizenship.
Two-Year	The college serves the needs of the [local] population by maintaining programming based on the needs of the people living [locally]. The colleges serves the people by initiating and supporting community activities and organizations based on the needs and wishes of community members.
Two-Year	Dedicated to meeting the needs of...the [local] community. Provide community service and involvement.
Four-Year	Provides graduates with knowledge and skills necessary for successful lives and careers...and provides related services to the citizens [of the state] and beyond.

These mission statement data revealed a disparity in how institutions (at least in their mission statements) define community. Analysis showed that, in general, mission statements at two-year institutions focus on a “local,” “tribal,” neighboring, or parochial community or constituency. Provost Kidder discussed her institution’s mission as aiming to “provide occupational education, transfer education, continuing education, as well as, economic development, and local community enrichment.” When questioned further about the types of economic development her institution was seeking, Kidder responded

that stimulating business in the town where the college is located is a central aim of the institution. A section of the mission statement at a Tribal College states that, “the college maintains a strong commitment to providing opportunities for life-long education to the reservation population...and high quality community service programs.” Again, much of the data show that a very specific community is the primary focus of some institutions. In contrast, another mission statement from a four-year institution states, “the [institution] also seeks to educate competent and humane professionals and informed, ethical, and engaged citizens of the local and global communities.” This mission focuses on a much less specific community; indeed the mission is ostensibly all-inclusive insofar as who or what compose the community.

Institutional Size

The third causal condition revealed from data analysis relates to the size of the institution. The institutions in this study varied considerably in size. Most CAOs qualified their statements with remarks regarding how large or small their campus is, how many students are enrolled, and how many faculty are employed. The data indicate a perception among CAOs that institutional size is closely related to the amount of resources the institution has to put toward civic engagement activities. Provost Israel commented. “[W]e just aren’t big enough here to support all the things that we want to support. We aren’t a university.” Provost Applegate elaborated:

I think because of its size the academic culture can be wonderful for some students. It will not be for everyone, but because of our size the students get to know the faculty very well. Because we’re not a large research-oriented

institution, faculty members, not graduate assistants, teach the students. The classes are small and students get a lot of personal attention.

Provost Bench noted, “We’re fairly small. We try to know our students and be concerned about them. We can’t give them everything that a big college can, but we put together a nice package.”

Community Needs

The analysis of data uncovered a fourth causal condition—the needs of the community. As seen above, community was defined differently and took on several meanings, depending on the CAO and the institution at which the CAO resided. Unlike the mission statements, however, the CAO remarks regarding how community was defined did not fall into a general dichotomy of two-year and four-year institutions, where the data show the two-year college focus on a narrow community and the four-year college focus on comprehensive community. Rather, the CAO responses reflected a large diversity of opinion and focus on how community is defined. When taken together and juxtaposed against the mission statements, these data indicate that the CAOs may be of their own minds regarding the precise “community” served by their institutions. That is to say, the data indicate that CAOs may define “community” differently from the definition or focus of their institution’s mission statement. For example, at one of the larger comprehensive universities, with a more “global” written mission, the CAO spoke proudly of the faculty this way: “We have people here who are invested in the local community. That’s the kind we have. They aren’t just passing through. They care about the people who live in this town and this area.” Conversely, a CAO of a Tribal College with a very specific mission to

serve the needs of the local tribe and the people of the immediate reservation asserted that in his view, the college was there “to provide post-secondary educational opportunities to Native Americans across The United States and to all tribes.” In a very real way these CAOs were talking about either expanding or contracting the community to whom their institutions were committed to serving.

Several categories of “community” emerged from the data. The last quotation above illustrates “community” as the tribe or several tribes. These are public groups, those outside of the academy or even “off-campus.” The data depicted categories of community which include non-profit organizations, businesses, and government. These categories also comprise subcultures of society or people with identifiable common needs such as the homeless, victims of domestic violence, farmers, at-risk youth, people living in poverty, the incarcerated community, and people living with mental illness, to name a few that were reported by the participants. Other categories of community include the institutional or campus community, the professional or disciplinary community, and the academic community. Presented in Table 3 are the categories of community that emerged from the data with each category’s corresponding needs, as reported by the participants.

Table 3. Community typology

Community	Needs
Public Community	Economic development Campus services Cultural events Expertise
Institutional/ Campus Community	Academic expertise Democratic/Shared governance Committee work Student mentoring/ advising
Professional/ Disciplinary Community	Shared Governance Peer Review Administration Event/ Conference planning
Academic Community/ Higher Education Enterprise	Legislative lobbying/ testimony Public Relations/ Marketing Expertise

Provost Kidder described an institutional or campus community as follows: “ I like to see our faculty and staff engaged in the work of the campus as a whole rather than just their own work. It’s more than just necessarily doing the work at your own

desk or your individual classroom. This campus needs help from everyone.” The professional community and the higher education enterprise were seen as communities with needs as well. Provost Foley noted: “Faculty need to stay active in their professions or fields. The Liberal Arts require strong support in all the traditional and emerging disciplines. They all need engaged faculty.” Foley continued: “This state has a sad tradition as far as supporting higher education through state budgets. Higher education itself needs people who understand its benefits and care about its future.”

Central Phenomena

The analysis of the data revealed that the causal conditions—cultural norms of the institution, the institutional mission, size of the institution, and the various communities with their corresponding needs—result in two core categories of subjective and central phenomena experienced by the participant chief academic officers. The phenomena are a) ambiguity of civic engagement; and b) competing institutional priorities. Both phenomena revealed by the data are explained below.

Ambiguity of Civic Engagement

The first phenomenon—ambiguity of civic engagement—emerged from analysis of the data as a poignant CAO experience. Each participant, without exception, indicated that civic engagement was, at minimum, a part of faculty work, student activities, and general function of his or her institution. The data also indicated, however, that civic engagement or service is experienced in many different ways. The data illustrates civic engagement as not clearly defined on many college campuses. It is not, in many cases, defined by any of the campus documents,

publications, or public literature. It is usually not clearly defined by faculty or academic units or by the institutional mission itself. Therefore, CAOs must struggle to uphold the public purposes and civic engagement of their institutions without clear guidance. Rather, each CAO is charged with the task of assessing the level of civic engagement without the benefit of standards. As explained later, each provost works in his or her own way to resolve this dilemma.

Provost Games foreshadowed this phenomenon when she asserted, “Service to me is being an active member of the campus community, the broader community that surrounds our campus. I see good committee work sometimes and good external volunteer work at other times. We need to do more of everything and get everyone involved, not just some. It’s just not easy to get people involved if you cannot explain what you want them to do.” Games is not alone in her struggle to define civic engagement, first for herself, and then for others. Her colleagues and fellow participants echoed her comments. One CAO stated that, “our units define it differently for promotion and tenure,” while another CAO lamented: “Faculty will take liberties with what is required of them, if we aren’t clear. I know that I struggle with that.”

Pressure of Competing Priorities

The second phenomenon experienced by chief academic officers is the set of competing institutional priorities. The data revealed that civic engagement, however it is defined, is but one institutional responsibility and therefore constitutes only one of the priorities of the chief academic officer. This finding supports the literature regarding work and responsibilities of the chief academic officer. The CAOs

reported several other priorities which include: providing students with a broad liberal arts education, job-related skills, and transferable/ valuable academic credentials, maintaining a quality faculty, upholding academic standards to attract exceptional students and faculty to campus, ensuring that the institution meets academic accreditation requirements, allocation and reallocation of academic budgets, and continuous academic improvement.

In general, the CAOs who participated in this study oversee curricular decisions, faculty work, and academic budgets. Decisions about the curriculum are, for the most part, taken under strong advisement from the faculty. Provost Nelson explained: “I see my role as the bus driver. The trustees, students, parents, and the president, tell me where I need to get to, but the bus is full of faculty telling me how to get there. I need to listen to their advice, but stay true to the goal. I suppose the route we take is negotiable.”

Nelson’s bus driver analogy can generally be extrapolated into the area of faculty work. Most CAOs reported that unit standards dictate what types of faculty work are rewarded and how heavily each type is weighted. The unit standards are then, for the most part, enforced by the CAO. Provost Paulson and Provost Clemson each saw themselves as a “judge” who was presented with the evidence (faculty dossier) and the standard of review and asked to make a decision. The fact-finding and the standards were not described as part of the CAO role.

The data revealed a clear and predominant perception among participants that each is working in an under-funded environment with either stagnant or diminishing resources. In such environments, budget decisions are often foremost in the minds of

these CAOs. As one community college CAO commented: “I have to make tough choices on what gets funding or where to build and where to cut.” This sentiment was not lost on the other participants. Provost Davis spoke candidly about the realities of decision-making:

Anymore, it is very difficult to keep education as the most important factor to consider. I find myself having to make tough financial decisions about academic programs, courses, faculty, and activities, whether they are educationally sound or not. Good things get cut from the budget. The trick is to not let bad things creep into the budget just because they are cheap. You get what you pay for.

Provost Bench repeated the point: “I took a position as chief *academic* officer. That title implies that I should focus on academics. In an ideal world I’d like the financial folks to handle these funding issues. We can decide what to fund. They can decide how to fund it.”

The central phenomena of ambiguity and competing priorities do not exist in a vacuum. Rather, the phenomena are part of the CAO experience resulting from the causal conditions outlined above and exist within a certain context. The context within which the ambiguity and competing priorities exist is delineated in the following section.

Contextual Markers

The data indicated that chief academic officers and their institutions utilize certain strategies for fostering civic engagement in response to the central phenomena of 1) ambiguity regarding civic engagement; and 2) competing priorities. These strategies

occur within a context. Specific contextual markers related to both the causal conditions—particularly the cultural norms—and the resultant phenomena influence these strategies. The contextual markers that emerged from the data were a) barriers to engagement; and b) catalysts to engagement.

Data indicate that CAOs perceive barriers that may block, prevent, or hinder faculty and student civic engagement. These barriers include faculty workload, time, resources (money and staff), student jobs, individual motivation to engage, and priorities from governing boards. Almost universally, the participants reported that money and time are barriers to faculty engagement with time edging out money as the more commonly reported. Provost Kidder lamented, “It’s hard to get faculty together for a meeting about anything. How we’d get them together to address a common need or serve the institution, I just don’t know.” Provost O’Connor addressed faculty motivation; “you need to find out whether or not individual faculty members have committed themselves to civic engagement. If it was not a component of their own education then it’s going to be tough. If they themselves are not already engaged in the community then I see that as a significant barrier because it doesn’t come naturally.” Provost Joyce indicated that projects stemming from his campus have been frustrated by what he perceives as a lack of cooperation from community partners. He stated: “Sometimes they just cannot meet our needs or see what we are trying to do or understand our timeframe. We want to make ourselves available, but we work on semesters. The world doesn’t work on semesters. Some organizations cannot train our students fast enough to have them be of any help before it’s time for the students to go onto something else.”

Each institution has a Board of Trustees, Tribal Council, or Board of Regents that sets or significantly influences the priorities for the institution. These priorities are top down and flow from a position external to the institution proper. This direction comes from external hierarchical forces beyond the president or CAO. To be sure, the governing board of any particular institution could be either a barrier to engagement or a catalyst. The data from this study indicate that the boards represented may generally serve as barriers. Provost O'Connor explained one of the recent priorities of her institution's board was to "really tighten down the curriculum" by constraining the number of credits students would complete for graduation. She reflected: "This meant a lot of the nice-to-have things like service got dropped to save space for academic content in courses." Provost Paulson's board has directed that the administration and faculty work to decrease class size. She explained that, "if we get up to thirty students in one class then we start looking at how to get two sections created." She continued to say that this external priority significantly impacts the way faculty construct their courses.

The other contextual marker emerging from the data was "catalysts" for civic engagement. The data demonstrated that the central catalyst for engagement is presidential support and commitment. All of the participants, by virtue of how they were chosen to participate in the study, work with a level of presidential commitment to civic engagement that is manifest in their leaders' membership in The Montana Campus Compact. The president or chief executive officer of each institution represented in this study has joined The Montana Campus Compact. The CEO's membership establishes his or her commitment to renewing the public purposes of

higher education and to an institutional level of civic engagement. Each CEO allocates funds and pays membership dues which help maintain MTCC operations. Each campus leader has demonstrated commitment by signing the 1999 Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education and by voluntarily serving on the MTCC Board of Directors. This service includes overseeing MTCC policy, annual budget, and appointment and evaluation of the organization's executive director. The precise level of presidential commitment to civic engagement varies among the institutions in this study. Although it was beyond the specific scope of this study, participants did, in fact, raise the subject of presidential commitment.

Provost Hightower noted that "there is no substitute" for presidential leadership in this area. He added: "When you have support and direction from the top it brings a certain level of clout to the effort. It certainly doesn't hurt the effort." As discussed above, the mission statement at each institution indicates some degree of commitment and a prominent feature of the position of president is to uphold the mission including the public purposes of the institution.

Strategies to Engagement

In the presence of the context described above, the phenomena of ambiguity of engagement and competing institutional priorities lead to two parallel approaches that chief academic officers or their institutions employ to encourage and facilitate faculty and student engagement. These core approaches include: a) defining civic engagement for their institutions; and b) giving civic engagement priority among the competing purposes of the institution. The specific strategies within each core approach are illustrated in Figure 2.

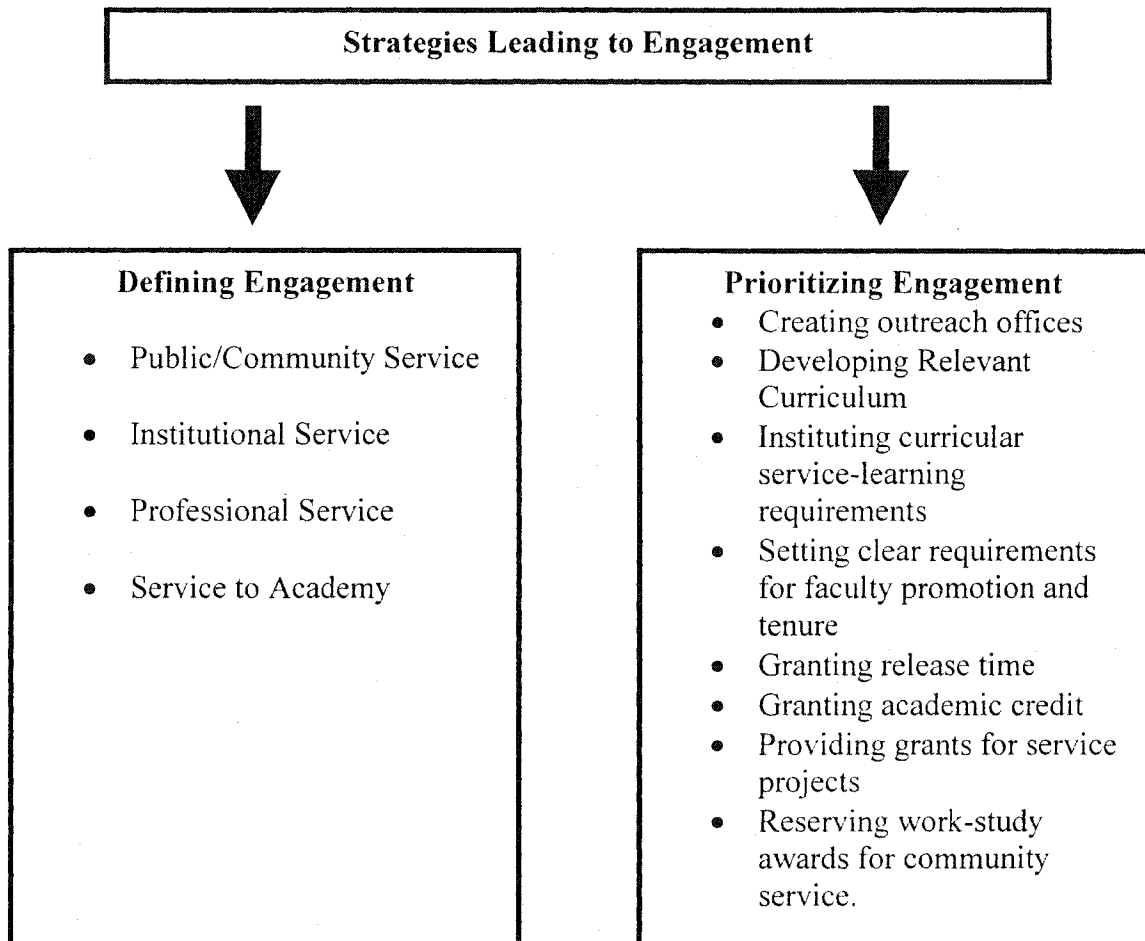


Figure 2. Civic engagement strategies used by chief academic officers.

Defining Engagement

The data indicated that service, outreach, and engagement come in many forms on the campuses represented in this study. Individual CAOs, however, focus on differing purposes or service recipients—the public/community, the institution, the discipline or profession, and the academy. The CAOs address engagement in different ways, but there are common themes. When reflecting on the promotion and tenure review process, some consider committee work as institutional service. Others

consider consulting (paid or unpaid) with community organizations as community service. Many CAOs state that they will not consider paid consulting as any type of service, but certainly consider unpaid volunteerism. Provost Applegate commented: “If an accounting professor is paid to do the books at her church, she is not performing community service. It might be engagement to some, but to me it’s moonlighting.” Some CAOs are clear that the service must pertain to the faculty member’s profession. Provost Israel calls it “relevance” to the discipline. He recalled: “We had one guy who is very active with the town’s hunter safety program. He volunteered his time teaching classes to kids and adults on hunter safety. That’s really wonderful, but he was a math professor. While it might make [the community] a better place, it’s not considered relevant service.” Experiencing service in its many forms, as well as, describing it for one’s self and the institution, are quite clearly the central phenomenon that emerged from these data.

The data from which this strategy emerged support and extend Ward’s (1998) typology of service in higher education. Ward’s typology delineates five types of service performed by faculty members. They include public service, institutional service, disciplinary service, civic service, and consulting.

Prioritizing Engagement

The college and university mission statements examined for this study explicitly address community service and public outreach as core purposes of institutional work. In addition, each participant indicated some level of interest in seeing his or her institution as an “engaged campus.” To that end, these CAOs developed strategies to prioritize engagement on their campuses with the intent of encouraging

civic engagement activities such as service-learning and extra-curricular community service. These strategies were 1) creating outreach offices; 2) developing curriculum relevant to community needs; 3) instituting curricular service-learning requirements; 4) adhering strictly to the service requirements for faculty promotion and tenure; 5) granting release time to faculty and staff; 6) granting academic credit to students; 7) providing grants or seed money for service projects; and 8) reserving a percentage of work study awards for community service.

Outreach Offices

The first strategy used by the CAO participants and their institutions is creating outreach offices. Some of these offices take the form of campus volunteer centers or clearinghouses for service opportunities. Others are service-learning offices that serve as a resource for faculty and students wishing to combine community service with their academic pursuits. Often these offices schedule programming or events that work to engage faculty and students. One participant described the purpose of one such outreach office on a tribal college campus:

The office plans cultural and community activities that bring people from the community onto campus to integrate our Native culture into the academic lives of the students. They invite students to help the elderly members of the tribe and to teach the young children of the tribe. These offices create these important interactions.

Provost Nelson explained how this strategy is employed at his institution noting that: “for better or for worse colleges are a collection of programs and offices—without a

volunteer office, students wouldn't know where to go to get involved. We had to create one.”

These outreach offices come in many shapes and many sizes on the different campuses represented in this study. Several are large and well staffed. These include several programs and resources for faculty and students. Other offices are very small, composed of only a collection of books, articles and little or no staff. The offices go by many different names, which often indicate the central focus of their purpose. Names include: the Office for Community Involvement; the Service-Learning Center; The Office of Civic Engagement; The Office of Community Service; The Office of Community Outreach; and the Campus Outreach Office. Some campuses do not have “offices” per se, but people who act as the contact person in charge of outreach, volunteer programs or campus-based community service.

Relevant Curriculum

The second strategy for prioritizing engagement is developing curricula, courses and programs relevant to community needs. Provost Bench explained this strategy on her campus: “[W]e take assessments throughout our surrounding communities and then we provide the courses that are needed.” The CAOs, for the most part, described an understanding that without support from the community at-large, the higher education enterprise would lose support, students, and ultimately a mandate to operate. Provost Hightower captured this concern and his strategy this way: “Each of our academic programs of study has an advisory committee made up of people from the community. These people advise us heavily, and ultimately design our

curriculum. Rarely if ever do I make a change in courses or curriculum without asking them first. We don't always go with what they say, but we always ask."

Required Service-Learning for Students

A third way that CAOs prioritize engagement is to make service-learning a curricular requirement for students. "Academic credit" was cited by many of the participants as the number one motivator to encourage students to engage. "If you've got faculty who understand service as good pedagogy, and make it part of the course requirements, students will do it and learn from it," said Provost Clemson. The data from which this strategy emerged were saturated with the concept of compensation. Provost Lovelace noted: "There has to be some pay off or reward for everything students do. Either [the service] is self-gratifying or you're earning something for it—in this case a stipend or academic credit."

Required Service for Faculty

Developing and adhering to explicit service requirements for faculty promotion and tenure is the fourth strategy for prioritizing engagement. Many of the participants explained that from their experience, promotion and tenure processes are often ambiguous and lack clear objective criteria for success. CAOs interviewed for this study, generally believe that encouraging departments or academic units to make the requirements more specific would help faculty members prioritize their work. This idea is supported by the literature. Specifically, Tierney & Bensimon (1992), found that most tenure-track faculty in their study "never seemed to know what was expected of them"(p.127), including how much to work or what tasks should define the work. In this study, Provost Nelson captured the sentiment this way: "[A]t every

place I've ever been, promotion and tenure is more of a social process. Sure there might be a formal process—one that's written down. You can show good teaching, good scholarship, and show you've done your service, but it's really social. If they like you, you get tenure, if they don't, you won't get tenure.”

Overwhelmingly, the data revealed that, from the CAO's perspective, if institutions want faculty to engage in service-learning and encourage civic engagement in students, then promotion and tenure structures and language need to explicate that goal. Provost O'Connor described her institution's tenure process as having “very specific language about what teaching excellence means, what type of scholarship is expected, and how community service will be evaluated.”

Release Time

A fifth way in which the participants prioritize engagement in the work of faculty and students is to grant release time for faculty and staff to develop community service projects, conceptualize service-learning courses, and/or coordinate and supervise volunteers. The data indicate that the most common barrier to faculty engagement is the amount of time faculty members have, or perceive to have, to plan and implement service-learning courses. Provost Clemson described time as the “biggest impediment for faculty members,” engaging in the community and in community-based teaching. In response to this concern, Provost Clemson facilitates faculty receiving release time or sabbatical for special projects. “Mentally many faculty need something that calms their nerves around deadlines and time-crunches. That way the perceived risk to trying something new is reduced.”

Academic Credit for Service

Another strategy for giving priority to engagement is granting academic credit for students who engage in community service or civic engagement activities. This strategy parallels the infrastructure strategy of integrating service into the curriculum or making service an academic requirement. The CAOs who participated in this study described students pressed for time and money. Provost Joyce illustrated an idea that reveals itself repeatedly in the data: “[M]any of our students work their way through school.” Joyce, like others, believes that his students are unique. The data show, however, that most or all CAOs in this study perceive student work schedules as a significant consideration in their strategies to motivate, encourage or facilitate civic engagement. Joyce’s words epitomize this strategy: “[W]e try to incorporate the service into making progress toward the degree—to provide credit so that students don’t feel like they are spinning their wheels.”

Grants for Service

Making funding available through institutional grants or project seed money is a seventh strategy that works to engage the institution. Several CAOs use what were described as relatively small amounts of discretionary funds to encourage faculty to begin a service-learning course, attend a development conference or work with the community. Additionally, as members of The Montana Campus Compact, all institutions represented in this study have Faculty Fellowships, Student Fellowships, and extra-curricular community service project money available to them. Provost Paulson noted that on her campus, she encourages faculty and students to look for and apply for external funding, and that everyone “needs to be reminded of what we have

available due to our affiliation with organizations such as Campus Compact and others.”

Work-study for Service (Serve-Study)

The eighth strategy that CAOs say their institutions use to prioritize engagement is reserving a percentage of the campus work-study allocation for positions that perform community service. In total, Montana colleges and universities ranked fifth in the nation for statewide use of federal work-study awards for community service jobs. On average, Montana's postsecondary institutions contribute 15.8 percent of their federal work-study dollars to community service, according to (U.S. Department of Education, 2001). That placed Montana 25 percent above the national average of 11.8 percent. “We’ve made it a conscious effort on the university’s part to increase our number of community-based work-study students,” noted Provost Foley. He added: “Recently our financial aid offices have approached the Boys and Girls Club and other non-profits to see if they could use more student involvement. This strategy to increase civic engagement on campus is not without sacrifices, however. One participant admonished: “[W]e must remember that we have a campus to operate and the more jobs we set aside for community service, the fewer we have left for important campus functions.” Currently, the federal government requires that institutions allocate at least 7 percent of work-study funds toward community service and as of February 2003, Congress is considering raising the requirement to twenty-five percent.

Outcomes and Consequences of Effective Strategies

The strategies employed by the CAOs and their institutions yield certain outcomes and consequences. In every case, each participant of the study described strategies that succeed, to at least some degree, in engaging the participant's campus with the community. Provost Applegate describes this success on his campus this way; "I know that most of the faculty members do a very good job of being involved in their professions and most do well at forming appropriate partnerships in the community and in the region—they're engaged." Still, although the data indicated that CAO strategies for engagement are frequently successful, such success often comes with costs or at least perceived costs. The participants perceive costs that are incurred by faculty, by students, and by the institution itself. Provost Emerson explained faculty costs:

Look, we ask these people to do so much. They teach, they conduct research and write, they advise students, they share in governance, they do association work, and they serve the community. The fact is that what's important varies by who evaluates the work performance and what the evaluator values. I don't like to see faculty get dinged when they fall short in one area and are exemplary in all the others, but it happens. There is only so much time to work. If a faculty member makes service a priority, something else is going to have to suffer. If that something is of value to the evaluator then that faculty member is in trouble. Service is important, but many of the decision-makers still don't think it's that important. I think it's all changing slowly.

With regard to perceived costs to students, the data are replete with references to what CAOs understand to be academic and professional relevance for students. “They don’t find value in many things that don’t get them a job or apply directly and explicitly to their discipline. Service outside the classroom can be a very difficult sell,” noted Provost Applegate. Hightower commented: “Many students cannot get past the consumer mentality. They want to be taught things. If they are not sitting in desk taking notes on things that will get them a job, they aren’t interested.” The data reveal that most participants are concerned about whether the costs to students outweigh the benefits. The assessment of the real costs to students and any subsequent benefits of civic engagement were beyond the scope of this study. Hightower believes that the students who “get it” or understand the pedagogical intentions of their professors, will benefit greatly from experiential education such as service-learning. He rhetorically inquired: “What better way to get job skills than to get outside the classroom and work in the laboratory of life?”

Institutionally, the participants are split on their perceptions of the cost-benefit of commitment to civic engagement. “Community service, as noble an activity as it may be, does not pay the bills,” commented Provost Foley. His statement captures the common perception of about half of this group of CAOs, who unanimously agree that higher education is poorly funded.

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Propositions, Recommendations

Summary

Generating a learned and engaged citizenry is one of the most fundamental purposes of American higher education. In recent years the higher education enterprise has seen a resurgence of interest in renewing this public purpose. Studies revealing the impacts of service-learning, campus/community partnerships, campus-based volunteerism, and other civic engagement activities have become commonplace in academic journals and other professional publications. Findings reveal the efficacy, challenges, and impacts of such activities. Most studies shed light on the positive impacts that civic engagement activities have on faculty work, student learning, and institutional goals. Notably absent from these studies is an explication of the experience of key decision-makers as they choose to commit their institutions to civic engagement. College administrators, specifically chief academic officers, are in unique positions to guide their institutions toward their goals of civic engagement. Because colleges and universities diverge in their level of commitment to civic engagement (Battistoni, 2002), decision-makers at each institution interpret the public purposes of their institutions differently, and such complex roles chief academic officers play in shaping the priorities of particular campuses, it is important to understand the phenomena related to institutional commitment to civic engagement from the CAO perspective.

The purpose of this study was to generate a theory that explains institutional commitment to civic engagement activities at colleges and universities from the

perspective of chief academic officers. Specifically, the study sought to determine how commitment to civic engagement manifests itself on campuses, what CAOs experience regarding civic engagement, where on campus civic engagement occurs, what influences it, and the strategies that CAOs employ or observe to manage their experiences with civic engagement. True to its purpose, this study utilized the grounded theory techniques espoused by Glaser & Strauss (1967), yielded qualitative data, and provided an in-depth analysis to explain and conceptualize the experience of chief academic officers in a grounded theory model. Data were collected from fifteen (15) colleges and universities and their CAOs. At the time of this study, these institutions all had presidential pledges of commitment to civic engagement as manifest by their membership in The Montana Campus Compact. The study revealed several important and relevant findings related to the following research questions:

Central Question

How does commitment to civic engagement on a college and university campus with a presidential pledge of support manifest itself from the perspective of the chief academic officer?

Subquestions

1. What are the general categories that emerge from data on institutional civic engagement?
2. Where civic engagement is found; what encourages or prevents it?
3. What contextual or intervening conditions influence institutional civic engagement?

4. What strategies do chief academic officers observe, support, implement, and/or articulate regarding their institution's civic engagement?

This study generated data apropos to each research question. The analysis of these data yielded findings. These findings are summarized in the following sections, each of which is related to a research question.

Commitment to Civic Engagement

Data illustrated several ways in which institutional commitment to civic engagement manifests itself at Montana Campus Compact campuses. These data indicate that from the CAO perspective, institutional commitment reveals itself in mission statements, leadership, pedagogy, programs and centers, faculty roles and rewards, resource allocation, community roles and rewards, and integrated activities. Commitment is found in varying degrees among institutions and among the above-mentioned categories.

Categories of Civic Engagement

Data from this study were analyzed to form categories regarding the concept of civic engagement. The categories provide the framework for a theory of institutional commitment to civic engagement. A logic model explicates the theory (Fig. 1).

The model frames and supports two central phenomena that emerged from data of CAO experience. The first is an ambiguity that CAOs experience about what constitutes civic engagement. This study revealed that CAOs struggle with the concept of civic engagement in the context of broad institutional missions. Second, this study demonstrates that CAOs, as high-ranking administrators, experience competing priorities.

The model also explicates causal conditions that influence both phenomena—cultural norms, institutional mission, institutional size, and community needs, context within which the phenomena occur—barriers and catalysts, the strategies that CAOs employ in response to the phenomena, and consequences or outcomes of employing these strategies.

Civic Engagement on Campus

This study generated data revealing that civic engagement is found in student affairs, academic affairs, and in the administration of institutions. Within student affairs, civic engagement is found in extra-curricular community service opportunities including volunteer work, work-study positions, philanthropic clubs, and campus events. Within academic affairs, civic engagement is found in service-learning courses, community-based teaching and learning, and community-based research. Within the administration, civic engagement manifests itself in public addresses, promotional and informational documentation, and resource allocations.

Context for Civic Engagement

As the model in Figure 1 demonstrates, data from this study outlines the context within which CAOs experience civic engagement on their campuses. The data regarding context is divided into two general categories—barriers and catalysts. Barriers include faculty workload, time, capital and human resources, financial constraints of students, individual motivation, and priorities from governing boards. These barriers, while not insurmountable, are very real and must be overcome to ensure that a campus continues toward engagement.

This study found that presidential commitment serves as an important catalyst to civic engagement. The data showed that CAOs who experience presidential commitment report that the commitment encourages and supports work to move the institution towards engaging the campus.

Strategies for Civic Engagement

The data from this study illustrated the strategies employed by CAOs to direct their institutions toward civic engagement. These strategies fall into two general categories—defining engagement and prioritizing engagement. Defining engagement requires developing an implicit and/or explicit understanding of the types of engagement or service in which a campus or individual places value. The typology that emerged from this study supports previous research and comprises public/community service, institutional service, professional service, and service to the academy.

The second strategy—prioritizing engagement—is composed of several sub-strategies and actions that explicitly place civic engagement on the workplan of the institution’s faculty, staff, and students. When CAOs engage or encourage these particular sub-strategies, they intentionally move toward the civic engagement of their institution.

Propositions

This study produced a theory on civic engagement from the perspective of the chief academic officer. The theory, illustrated in a logic model (see Fig. 1), suggests that certain causal conditions—cultural norms, institutional mission, institutional size, and community needs—influence two central phenomena for the chief academic

officers—ambiguity about what constitutes civic engagement and competing priorities. Once CAOs experience the phenomena, they employ strategies—defining civic engagement and prioritizing civic engagement. These strategies are employed within the context of identified barriers and catalysts to civic engagement. Finally, these strategies yield outcomes such as increased institutional commitment and an engaged campus, which have their own set of consequences.

This theory and its corresponding model are important for higher education administration and practice insofar as institutions desire to realize their public purposes and missions. The participants in this study provided data, which was based on their experiences, understandings, perspective, and opinion regarding their institutions and civic engagement. Ignoring these experiences—including successes and challenges—places colleges and universities at risk of failing to fulfill their commitments, purpose, and mission. Because the purpose of this study was to develop and present a grounded theory regarding institutional commitment to civic engagement, and to invite the future testing of said theory, the following section comprises propositions and sub-propositions which take the form of hypotheses for future testing:

1.0 The strategies that CAOs and their institutions use to engage their campuses vary by what causal conditions exist.

This proposition suggests that strategies and causal conditions are interrelated. This is to say, CAOs may employ the strategy of defining engagement for themselves and their campuses in such a way that links the cultural norms of the institution to the definition. Small class size and good relationships with community agencies are

examples of causal conditions that might influence a definition of engagement. The mission of the institution may also influence the strategy that it employed. For example, how engagement is prioritized may depend largely on its public purposes and the resources available. Testing this proposition would enhance the work of chief academic officers by encouraging those in that position to think strategically and intentionally about the campus norms, the mission, the size of the institution, and the role of the community.

2.0 Institutional size has a direct effect on an institution's ability and impetus to civically engage.

2.1 Smaller colleges have cultural norms that facilitate civic engagement activities more than larger colleges or universities do.

2.2 Larger institutions have financial resources that facilitate civic engagement activities more than smaller institutions do.

This proposition and its subpropositions represent the need to more fully understand the effect of institutional size has on civic engagement. For years, researchers have controlled their studies for institutional type (Birnbaum, 1983). A particular institution's size and orientation toward traditional objectives—teaching, research, and service— indubitably shape the issues that confront a chief academic officer. Data from this study indicate that size is often the reason or excuse given as to why a campus cannot engage or struggles to engage. Testing this proposition and its subpropositions will shed light upon how institutional size actually affects the impetus to engage.

3.0 Faculty are more likely to involve themselves in civic engagement activities such as service-learning if they see this work as necessary to meet their goals of promotion and tenure.

3.1 Chief academic officers that encourage civic engagement with faculty release time and monetary grants or awards will see an increase in faculty civic engagement on their campus.

The data from this study indicated that CAOs largely believe faculty members respond to a strong rewards structure especially regarding promotion and tenure. Although the literature tends to support this perception (Teirney & Bensimon, 1995), the question of what motivates faculty members was beyond the scope of this study. Similarly, actual strategies to engage faculty members such as release time may or may not be effective. Data generated from examining this proposition would be helpful.

4.0 Students are more likely to involve themselves in civic engagement activities such as community service if they see this work as relevant to their discipline and ultimately related to their career goals.

As with faculty members, the participants of this study collectively indicated a strong belief about what motivates students, generally. Testing this proposition will help to identify what specifically inspires students toward civic engagement.

5.0 Presidential commitment is an important component of encouraging civic engagement on campus, but it alone will not be effective without other supportive institutional factors such as faculty support, student support, and community support.

Presidents have unique opportunities to lead change on college campuses. By virtue of their positions, presidents can set priorities for their institutions (McGovern, Foster, & Ward, 2002). Data from this study revealed that CAOs require this presidential support in their work to encourage civic engagement, which has met obstacles and challenges. Although CAOs perceive this support to be critical, it alone is not sufficient to overcome all obstacles and challenges. Testing this proposition will shed light upon these other factors and inform the literature on how each is interrelated on an engaged campus.

Recommendations

Grounded theory methodology is useful to identify central phenomena and determine how they are influenced and processed. If executed well, a grounded theory study moves beyond personal prejudice, preference, or bias. Its power lies in its ability to capture, in a small group and at one moment in time, those essential elements that transfer across groups and times. When writing about the method Glaser (1993) asserted: “Core variables, particularly basic social processes, have lasting qualities. They are abstract of time and place” (p. 1). The particular study and its data, however, always limit the researcher because he or she can only theorize on the basis of intimate appreciation of what *has been* studied and not what *might* have been studied (Glaser, 1993). The focus in this study was civic engagement from the perspective of chief academic officers. Moreover, the presentation of data was guided by academic protocol and dissertation exercise requirements that called for a focused, empirical data display and narrative, not a voluminous tome in cultural or organizational studies. Inevitably, this study has shed light on several important

issues that were peripheral to the central purpose, but which would profit from further examination. Among these issues are Organizational Theory, Cultural Theory, and Leadership Theory.

In addition to testing the above propositions and examining the aforementioned related issues, it is recommended that campus communities strategically consider their strengths and weaknesses in fulfilling their public purposes. Since it is unlikely, in the foreseeable future, that the purpose and mission of American higher education will exclude service to the greater society, public intellectualism, community-based research, and other civic engagement activities, colleges and universities must intentionally pursue these activities in an efficient and effective manner. When civic engagement activities are strategically and intentionally integrated into the work of faculty, staff, and students, colleges and universities will be operating in accordance with their public purposes and, rather than simply residing in their communities, will become critical and appreciated resources of their communities.

Appendix A: Sample Letter

25 March 2002

Dr. Heywood Jabuzzoff
Vice President for Academic Affairs
Big Sky University
Peerless, Montana 59999

Dear Dr. Jabuzzoff

I write to ask for your assistance with a dissertation study I am conducting. This study will make an important contribution to the scholarly discourse on institutional culture and commitment to specific parts of an institutional mission.

The study involves interviewing chief academic officers at colleges and universities throughout Montana. I am requesting approximately one hour of your time for this process. Additionally, I may ask you to review any conclusions that emerge from data analysis to ensure accuracy.

Please be assured that all information gathered in this study will be treated confidentially. You and I will be the only people to view the interview transcripts. Furthermore, a doctoral dissertation committee and an Institutional Review Board will ensure confidentiality of all data to protect you as an informant.

At the conclusion of this study, I will make a copy of the results available to you. I will be contacting you by phone to answer any questions that you may have and to discuss the possibility of your participation.

Thank you for your kind consideration of this request.

Sincerely,

Dean P. McGovern
Doctoral Candidate
Department of Educational Leadership
The University of Montana

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me. I am doing a research project, in which I'm trying to understand chief academic officers' perceptions of their institutions.

I'm going to begin with some general questions. Please feel free to be open and honest and know that this interview will be kept completely confidential. Additionally, I will let you read your responses when they have been transcribed, if you feel you would like to do so.

A. History

1. How long have you been the CAO at your institution?
2. What about this institution attracted you?

B. Culture

1. How would you describe the academic culture for students?
2. What is expected of students? For matriculation.
3. How would you describe the academic culture for faculty members?
4. What is expected of faculty members? For promotion and tenure.

C. Engagement

1. Please explain your institutional mission.
2. How does your institution operationalize or define the (service, outreach, community, etc...) portion of its mission?
3. When you hear the term "civic engagement" what comes to mind?
4. When you hear the term "Engaged Campus" what comes to mind?
5. Please tell me about the activities, initiatives, projects, or curriculum one might find on the campus that you just described.
6. What do you see as effective barriers to faculty and staff engaging in these activities?
7. What do you see as effective barriers to students engaging in these activities?
8. What encourages these activities?

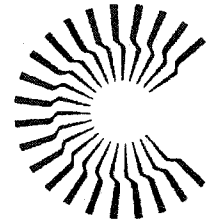
D. Story-telling

1. Tell me a story about an event, occasion, or project that speaks to the commitment to civic engagement of this institution.

**Appendix C: Executive Summary of
The Montana Campus Compact Annual Report 2002-2003**

2002-2003 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Montana Campus Compact is a statewide coalition of college and university CEOs committed to the civic purposes of higher education. To support this civic mission, MTCC promotes community service, encourages collaborative partnerships between campuses and communities, and assists faculty who seek to integrate civic engagement into their teaching and research. The seventeen (17) CEOs of MTCC join in solidarity with **900** other campus leaders across the country to place higher education in service to the nation.



Montana | **Campus Compact**

PROGRAM HIGHLIGHTS

MONTANA CAMPUS CORPS

- Engages college students in extracurricular service projects that address critical community needs including illiteracy, juvenile delinquency, public health or safety concerns, environmental degradation, hunger, poverty, and math/science tutoring.
- MTCC finishing its 8th year of Campus Corps programming.
- MTCC placed and funded **57** Campus Corps members on 11 campuses.
- Campus Corps members engaged **1550** volunteers in **15,556** hours of community service.

MTCC VISTA PROJECT

- Engages full-time members in community capacity building activities to eliminate poverty Montana.
- MTCC finishing its 3rd year of VISTA programming
- MTCC placed and funded **14** recent college graduates in full-time VISTA member positions on **7** campuses and in **9** communities across the state.
- MTCC VISTA members procured grants and in-kind donations totaling **\$54,811**.
- MTCC VISTA members fostered and established **10** community partner relationships with MTCC campuses.
- MTCC VISTA members continue to generate nominations for **Presidential Community Service Scholarships**, which bring tuition dollars into Montana.
- MTCC VISTA members mobilized **1505** volunteers, who contributed **18,534** hours of community service.

FACULTY FELLOWSHIPS

- Rewards outstanding faculty members from various academic disciplines with a stipend and professional development to enhance teaching, research, and outreach through service-learning.
- MTCC finishing its 6th year of Faculty Fellowship programming
- MTCC awarded **7** Faculty Fellowships and **1** Mentoring Fellowship on **6** campuses across the state.
- Fellows generated **10** new service-learning courses and engaged **360** students in community-based, service-learning projects to meet academic course objectives.

STUDENT FELLOWSHIPS

- Rewards outstanding students who desire to integrate service projects into their academic curriculum with an education award and project stipend.
- Students develop a 3-way partnership: Student—Faculty advisor—Community Partner.
- MTCC finishing its 3rd year of Student Fellowship programming.
- MTCC awarded **6** Student Fellowships on **4** campuses across the state.
- Student Fellows established a literacy-tutoring program in and made positive impacts in drug prevention programs in Kalispell, provided computer skills to a nonprofit and established a youth counseling program in Great Falls, created information materials for a community agency in Bozeman, and helped youth improve the natural landscape in Missoula.

COMMUNITY PARTNERS PROGRAM

- Supports community agencies and nonprofits to recruit and retain volunteers with financial and technical assistance.
- MTCC is finishing its 2nd year of Community Partner programming.
- MTCC recruited **10** new community partners this year, which brought the total to **22** community partners in **7** communities across the state.

RAISE YOUR VOICE CAMPAIGN

- Launched in August 2002, finishing its first year
- Goals: 1) Mobilize student action around issues important to them; 2) Increase student voice in higher education decision-making; and 3) Document student-generated and student-led public initiatives across the state.
- MTCC mobilized **42** students at **21** Montana colleges to create a statewide leadership team to create an agenda, develop a budget, and generate enthusiasm for student civic engagement.
- Leadership Team successfully coordinated and executed a statewide WEEK of ACTION in January 2003.
- WEEK of ACTION engaged **907** volunteers, registered **208** new voters, and raised **\$3,500** in private support to sustain activities.

ORGANIZATIONAL HIGHLIGHTS

- MTCC chosen to host **Jimmy & Rosalyn Carter Partnership Award for Campus/Community Collaborations**.
- MTCC procured partnership with Western States Insurance to co-sponsor three **\$500** Community Service Scholarships.
- MTCC awarded **\$100,000** grant from Pew Charitable Trust to launch the Raise Your Voice Campaign.
- MTCC co-sponsored national Educators for Community Engagement Conference in Pablo, MT, in June 2002.
- MTCC convened 150 college students for the annual **Building Engaged Citizens Retreat**, September 2002.
- MTCC co-sponsored the Governor's Conference on Civic Engagement in Billings, MT, in October 2002.
- MTCC has procured: **\$509,547** in federal funding
 \$103,750 in private foundation grants
 \$ 38,317 in program revenue
 \$ 20,486 from in-kind donations
 \$ 6,500 in cash donations
- MTCC has enrolled **104** national service members eligible for education awards totaling approximately **\$468,000**, **most of which will be used at Montana colleges and universities**.
- For every **\$1** in membership dues received, MTCC is able to disseminate **\$15** dollars in campus support in the form of scholarships, fellowships, training, and education awards.

CAMPUS HIGHLIGHTS

Blackfeet CC: Hosted successful regional National Youth Service Day
Carroll College: Formed a community collaboration with 3 Helena nonprofits to mentor teens
Ft. Peck CC: President James Shanley elected Chairman of AIHEC, 2004 AIHEC conf. in MT
FVCC: Created a Service Learning account with FVCC Foundation
FVCC: Students organizing to form Service Learning Club & engaged 150 youth in service day
Little Big Horn: Faculty members forming committee to discuss service-learning
Miles CC: Launched Campus Corps program to engage students in issues affecting Miles City
MSU-Billings: Students hosted an open community forum on critical social issues
MSU-Bozeman: Successfully executed 2nd Annual Service-Learning Seminar in February 2003
MSU-Bozeman: Formed committee to implement service-learning designation in course catalog
MSU-Great Falls: Student leaders attended national conference on service-learning, June 2002
MSU-N: Students staged a successful, winter, community food drive and Soup kitchen
MT Tech: Students remodeled and refurbished Sunshine Camp for youth in need
Rocky Mt College: Students leaders hosted a community dialogue on AIDS
SKC: Hosted Educators for Community Engagement National Conference, June 2002
UM-Helena: Launched a Campus/Community Mapping Project to increase student voice
UM-Missoula: Launched new American Humanics program to certify nonprofit professionals
UM-Missoula: Launched VISTA Alive Program to recognize academic value of a service term
UM-Western: Created a successful service-learning office on campus.
Univ of Great Falls: Students launched Homeless Awareness campaign

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