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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the meaning Mississippi education faculty give to the concept of service within their scholarly work and examine the relationship between faculty definitions, reward structures, and service activity. Survey results from 131 faculty members (45% of the sample) and focus group data from a few faculty members at each campus relating to education faculty activities, perceptions, and attitudes were collected and compared with national data. Definitions and typologies of professional service were compared to other state and national data related to professional service, and attempts were made to identify specific performance benchmarks related to service in institutional documents at each of Mississippi's public universities. This investigation confirmed that service as a faculty role is generally neither well defined nor highly valued. Other important considerations include: (1) no consistent relationship exists between how faculty define service and how service is defined by the institution; (2) previously generated typologies of service are not a very effective means of characterizing service activities; (3) gender, academic rank, institution, size of institution, and type of institution did not have a significant impact on attitudes toward service; (4) perceptions of service vary significantly by both institution and size of institution; (5) an inverse relationship exists between the relevance of institutional documents and the amount of time spent on service activities; and (6) service-related survey data from Mississippi is remarkably consistent with the results of a 1989 national survey of faculty. Ten appendixes provide supplemental information about the study and faculty perceptions. (Contains 13 tables, 26 figures, and 114 references.) (Author/SLD)

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The Meaning and Value of Service in the Scholarly Work of Education Faculty at Mississippi
Public Four-Year Institutions

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Mississippi

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the meaning Mississippi education faculty give to the concept of service within their scholarly work and examine the relationship between faculty definitions, reward structures, and service activity. Survey and focus group data relating to education faculty activities, perceptions, and attitudes were collected and compared with national data. Definitions and typologies of professional service were compared to other state and national data related to professional service, and attempts were made to identify specific performance benchmarks related to service in institutional documents at each of Mississippi's public universities.

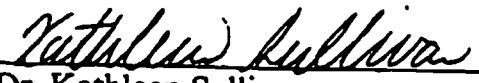
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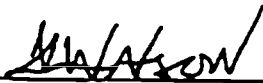
THE MEANING AND VALUE OF SERVICE IN THE SCHOLARLY WORK OF
EDUCATION FACULTY AT MISSISSIPPI PUBLIC FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS


BY

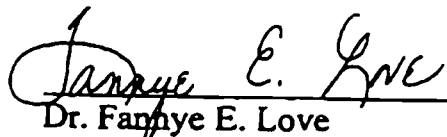
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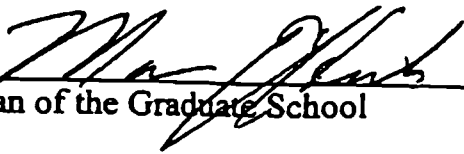
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Mary Esther and Elizabeth Ruth,
who respectively gave the support and the reason for completing the project.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Although service to society has always been a part of the mission of American higher education, the meaning and value of service as a scholarly endeavor has been historically vague. This was illustrated in a recent conversation with the chief academic officer at a small, private liberal arts college. The chief academic officer was asked if a particular faculty member who was known to be very active in the community might be nominated to a consortium of faculty interested in studying and supporting collaborations between campuses and communities. The administrator responded that the particular faculty member was approaching a tenure decision and needed to focus on publishing scholarly works.

The administrator's response is indicative of what Boyer (1990) calls "a more restricted view of scholarship, one that limits it to a hierarchy of functions" (p. 15). Within this view, service is not an essential element of scholarship, but grows out of basic research. Boyer goes on to state that "colleges and universities have recently rejected service as serious scholarship, partly because its meaning is so vague and often disconnected from serious intellectual work" (p. 22).

American higher education, however, has both historical underpinnings and contemporary declarations of devotion to the concept of serving society. Higher education historians such as Rudolph (1990) and Hofstadter and Smith (1961) have chronicled the social service function of higher education in great detail. Samuel Eliot Morison (1935) wrote that Harvard University's original goal was connected not only to the advancement of learning and to the training of ministers, but also to the maintenance

and betterment of the Commonwealth. Three and one half centuries after the founding of Harvard University, Derek Bok (1984, 1986, 1990) wrote several important treatises charging institutional leaders to take more seriously the social responsibilities of the modern university. The notion of institutional responsibility to society is often generally embodied as some form of service within mission statements. For example, the mission statements of every public university in Mississippi include service to community or society. On a national level, general commitments concerning the institutional obligation and desire to serve the surrounding community are often contained in college and university mission statements.

Even though service to society is articulated among mission statements, it is often difficult to identify how and where this commitment is carried out. The academic dean's concern about tenure further confirms the finding of James Fairweather's 1987-88 National Survey of Postsecondary Faculty, which found that at many institutions, including liberal arts colleges, research scholarship involving the discovery of knowledge is the most highly valued form of scholarship in terms of faculty tenure and promotion (Fairweather, 1993a). The reward structures of many American colleges place great value on research scholarship and, in recent years, teaching has come to bear more influence on tenure and promotion (Glassick, Huber, and Maeroff, 1997). Meanwhile, service is often considered the sum of teaching and research (Wellman, 2000), the more highly regarded constituents of the higher education mission triumvirate.

Over the past decade, this summative assumption drew the attention of influential leaders of higher education. The aforementioned work of Ernest Boyer (1990) (particularly Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate) inspired a national

dialogue concerning the nature of faculty work and provided a foundation for the “engaged campus” model. For example, the American Association for Higher Education established the Forum on Faculty Roles and Rewards as a means of engaging scholars and administrators in a dialogue concerning Boyer’s work. In July 1999, Campus Compact and the American Council on Education convened a group of 51 college presidents who signed the Presidents’ Fourth of July Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education (see Appendix A). This document articulated a commitment of all sectors of higher education, public and private, two- and four-year, to their civic purposes and called educators to identify the behaviors that will make this commitment manifest. This type of intense commitment to the social responsibilities of higher education institutions seems to be a reversal of some recent academic trends. Three decades ago Jencks and Riesman (1968) noted that professional schools that were built around the concept of connecting theory and practice had begun to lessen their commitment to applied work in order to foster a more academic atmosphere.

Although more attention is being paid to the role of applied work and service within the institutions, there is much room for growth. While the Presidents’ Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education called for civic renewal, it fell short of making concrete recommendations that might have an impact on faculty behavior. Boyer noted that although faculty reward structures systematically measure and reward for excellence in teaching and research, service continues to be paid little attention – indeed faculty may be negatively predisposed to performing service because of current reward structures (Boyer, 1990).

Collegiate or professional service will remain on the periphery of institutional consciousness until a systematic means of qualifying, quantifying and reviewing faculty service is embraced (Boyer, 1990). It must also be recognized that the meaning and value of professional service within higher education institutions changes over time (Boyer, 1990).

Furthermore, Robert Diamond and Bronwyn Adam (1995a) recognized that significant change will only take place if the concept of service is reexamined at the departmental or discipline level. It is unclear whether the changes recommended by the 51 presidents participating in the 1999 Leadership Colloquium will be acted upon within disciplines or departments. Therefore, study must be continuous and focused on the departmental or discipline level.

In his introduction of Abraham Flexner's pivotal Universities: American, English, German, Clark Kerr warned that explorers of the field of higher education should "look at the current reality and not at a glamorized perception of an earlier reality...history can take sharp turns and it can be risky to see the future as simply reflected in a rear-view mirror" (Kerr in Flexner, 1994, p. xii). This investigation sought to determine whether explorers and practitioners have heeded this warning.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the meaning education faculty give to the concept of service within their scholarly work and examine the relationship between the faculty definitions and how institutions reward faculty for service activities in the promotion and tenure track.

Research Questions

Seven research questions have been identified. These research questions are examined throughout the study and are outlined below.

1. Does a relationship exist between how faculty at schools of education within Mississippi public four-year institutions define service in a scholarly context and how service is operationally defined in tenure and promotion policies?
2. Are the examples of professional service given by education faculty at Mississippi's public four-year institutions of higher learning consistent with the typologies developed by Lynton (1995) and the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Faculty Guide for Relating Public Service to the Promotion and Tenure Review Process (Farmer and Schomberg, 1993)? These typologies are included as appendices B and C.
3. Do differences in education faculty attitudes about service exist based on tenure status, academic rank, gender, and institution?
4. Do differences in education faculty perceptions of the value of service exist based on tenure status, academic rank, gender and institution?
5. Do faculty in departments with explicit definitions of professional service and specific performance benchmarks relating to professional service have more positive attitudes and perceptions of service activities?
6. Do faculty in departments with explicit definitions of professional service and specific performance benchmarks relating to professional service report being engaged in more service activities?

7. Do responses given by Mississippi education faculty correlate with national data collected by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching?

Limitations and Delimitations

This investigation was delimited to the attitudes, perceptions, and activities of full-time faculty and the reward structures and policies at the eight public universities in the state of Mississippi. Although survey data produced in this investigation is compared to national data, the results and conclusions apply only to the institutions included in the study.

Limitations include the means by which focus group participants were selected, the author's college board employment, and the teleological nature of the study. First, the respective deans selected focus group participants for each institution. The author described the nature of the study to the deans prior to soliciting for participants. The deans may have been predisposed to select service-oriented faculty or faculty whose conception of service closely mirrored the dean's. The author requested that the dean's be as impartial and objective as possible when selecting focus group participants.

Second, the author's employment at the State college board office may have introduced some confusion about the origin and purpose of the study (i.e., deans and faculty aware of the author's position may have wrongly assumed that the study was initiated by the college board). While this assumption may improve the survey response rate, it might also have an effect on individual responses. The author attempted to make faculty and deans aware in conversations and correspondence related to this study. The overall response rate may have also been impacted by the fact that officials at Jackson

State University required that survey participants to provided their names on the informed consent form.

Finally, the teleological nature of the study was also a potential limitation. It is difficult to capture the breadth of meaning given to both scholarship and service. For example, after identifying 249 attributes related to scholarship, Sundre (1992) concluded that the construct of faculty scholarship was more complex than initially imagined. Such a limitation, however, is also an indictment of the need for such study.

Terms and Definitions

Tenure status. Faculty members were categorized as either tenured, non-tenured and in a tenure track position, or non-tenured and not in a tenure track position. Individual faculty members were asked to classify themselves when responding to the survey.

Institution size. A large institution is defined as an institution with ten thousand or more students. A small institution is defined as an institution with less than ten thousand students. Fall 1999 enrollment figures compiled by the Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning were used to determine institution size. These figures included the on-campus and off-campus full-time equivalent headcount of both undergraduate and graduate students. Mississippi State University (MSU), the University of Mississippi (UM), and the University of Southern Mississippi (USM) are considered large institutions. Alcorn State University (ASU), Delta State University (DSU), Jackson State University (JSU), Mississippi University for Women (MUW), and Mississippi Valley State University (MVSU) are considered small institutions.

Institution Type. The historical racial composition of the institutions involved in this study was used as an independent variable. Three of Mississippi's eight public universities are considered "historically black" (ASU, JSU and MVSU). According to the Mississippi Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning annual report, African Americans comprised no less than ninety-four percent of the student enrollment at these institution during the Fall 1999. The other five institutions are frequently referred to as "historically white", and Caucasian students constitute between sixty-nine percent (MUW) to eighty-one percent (UM) of the student enrollments at these campuses.

Scholarship. For the purposes of this study, scholarship shall be operationally defined as activity for which faculty members are rewarded and for which they are recognized by peers as scholars. For further clarification, the author adopted Robert Diamond's (1993) six basic features of scholarly work to form a more complete definition of scholarship.

1. The activity requires a high level of discipline-related expertise.
2. The activity breaks new ground, is innovative.
3. The activity can be replicated or elaborated.
4. The work and its results can be documented.
5. The work and its results can be peer-reviewed.
6. The activity has significance or impact.

Service. A cursory review of literature and mission statements revealed an almost overwhelming lack of clarity on what is meant by the term service. Literature also revealed that the concept of service within higher education yields numerous typologies.

For instance, Janet Luce (1988) reviewed the pedagogy of service-learning (one manifestation of collegiate service) and found that more than 149 distinct definitions existed. Service in its broadest sense can mean a great many things such as institutional citizenship, community service, civic contributions, disciplinary citizenship, the scholarship of application, service-learning, volunteerism, and many other manifestations.

Because the purpose of this study was to determine the meaning and value that faculty give to service as a scholarly endeavor, the researcher purposefully selected rather broad operational definitions for both service and scholarship. However, throughout this investigation the meaning of service will be limited to activities that potentially occur within the framework of scholarship. This is perhaps most accurately delineated by the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign as professional service. Professional service by faculty refers to service comprised of the following three elements (Lynton, 1995, p. 17):

- service that contributes to the public welfare or the common good; and
- service that calls upon faculty members' academic and/or professional expertise; and
- service that directly addresses or responds to real-world problems, issues, interests or concerns.

The terms collegiate service and professional service will be used interchangeably to represent the concept of service being studied.

Framework of Scholarship. Juxtaposed with Diamond's (1993) six basic features of scholarly work and the definition of service provided by the University of Illinois at

Urbana Champaign, the author has adopted Boyer's framework as an operational definition of scholarship. Boyer's work outlines a new way of defining the work of faculty that departs from the traditional concepts of teaching, research and service. Boyer's framework includes the following four modes of scholarship (Boyer, 1990):

- Scholarship of Application – The process of simultaneously applying and contributing to human knowledge via professional activity. The scholarship of application asks the questions, “How can knowledge be responsibly applied to consequential problems? How can it be helpful to individuals as well as institutions?”
- Scholarship of Discovery – Free and disciplined inquiry that contributes to a) the stock of human knowledge and b) to the intellectual climate of the college or university.
- Scholarship of Integration – Making connections across disciplines, placing specialties in larger context, illuminating data in a revealing way, educating non-specialists. Serious disciplined work that seeks to interpret, draws together, and brings new insight to bear on original research.
- Scholarship of Teaching – The work of educating and enticing future scholars. Teaching is a dynamic endeavor that recognizes that the work of a professor becomes consequential only when others understand it, and that it involves analogies, metaphors, and images that build bridges between the teacher's understanding and the student's learning.

It should be noted that what Boyer presents is a framework for an operational definition of scholarship, rather than an actual definition.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Francis Bacon's 16th century utopian fable New Atlantis provides an appropriate introductory reflection on how the role of the academic has evolved in the western hemisphere. In New Atlantis, Francis Bacon describes the riches of Salomon's House, also known as the College of the Six Days' Works. The "employments and offices" of Salomon's House include the following:

Merchants of Light travel to foreign countries and bring back books, abstracts and patterns of experiments. Depredators collect experiments in all books. Mystery Men collect the experiments of all mechanical arts and liberal sciences, and of practices that are not brought into arts. Pioneers (or Miners) try new experiments. Compilers synthesize the work of Merchants of Light, Depredators, Mystery Men, and Pioneers and create observations and axioms. Dowry-men (or Benefactors) review the experiments of others and attempt to make them useful. Lamps review the work and meet with others, and direct new, more penetrating experiments. Inoculators execute these new, higher level experiments and report the results. Finally, Interpreters of Nature elevate the discoveries of the Inoculators into "greater observations, axioms, and aphorisms." Bacon includes novices and apprentices as part of Salomon's House as a self-evident after-thought (Bacon, 1627).

Bacon's work is cited for two reasons. First, he essentially identified what he considered the various roles of the faculty of the College of Six Days' Work that were essential for academics to be engaged in if they were to have a part in human intellectual

advancement. The irony lay in the fact that Bacon's utopian faculty epitomized the scientific revolution and consisted of a diverse set of academic roles – which are themselves a linear and sequential pattern of discovery. Furthermore, the concepts of coupling individual specialization, diverse and hierarchical roles, and systematic experimentation (Melchert, 1995; Moore and Bruder, 1996) were clear precursors for what was to become known as scholarship. All of these things are, for better or worse, a part of modern academic life. That scholarship is today so difficult to generally define across countless disciplines and specialty areas gives credence to the second law of thermodynamics which states that systems free of external forces will tend towards increasing disorder until they reach equilibrium (a law first postulated by Sadi Carnot in 1828).

A second irony is revealed by the fact that Plato's description of the ancient Atlantean empire and Bacon's New Atlantis both end suddenly in the middle of a sentence. They are incomplete – as is our understanding of utopias and the role of the academic – and this investigation is perhaps a search for Atlantis.

This review of literature begins with this acknowledgement that the role of the academic is extremely complex and that our understanding of scholarship (and the scholar) is incomplete. However, literature pertinent to this study is reported in four sections. Section one provides a general overview of the meaning of scholarship, beginning with a brief etymology and including a review of the evolution of the concept of scholarship from medieval times to the present. Section two focuses on literature that describes the relationship between scholarship and service. More specifically, this second section will juxtapose literature that describes service as scholarship with

literature that describes service as a distinct faculty role. Section three examines literature pertaining to the value and assessment of service provided by faculty members. The fourth and final section examines the interrelationship between service and scholarship in the field of education and reviews the structures and documents pertaining to service and scholarship at Mississippi schools, departments, colleges and divisions of education.

The Meaning of Scholarship

Etymology of Scholar and Scholarship

The etymology of the term “scholarship” demonstrates that, even from its origins, the word had multiple meanings. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1989), the term first appeared in the 16th century and was concomitantly used to describe the attainments of a scholar, especially in the study of Greek and Latin language and literature, literary education, or the status or emoluments of a scholar. The latter use evolved into the current concept of providing financial assistance for students to support their studies. The former uses are of great interest with respect to this review because they apply to the work of scholars.

During the 17th century the word scholar, when used by the lesser educated, described a person able to read, write and possibly count. In earlier, more educated circles, the use of the term was reserved for persons well-studied in the classic languages and literature. Scholarship was also used to describe the collective attainments of scholars and the “sphere of polite learning” (Oxford English Dictionary, p. 630).

The history of the root of scholarship (scholar) is more enlightening. Scholar has numerous forms that can be traced back to the early 2nd century. Scholar is derived from

the Old English terms *scolere* and *scoliere*, the Old High German term *scolari*, the Middle High German *Schuolære*, and early modern German *schuler*, now *schüler*. Forms of scholar may also be traced to the late Latin word *scholār-is* and the French term *schola*, meaning school. Use of the term in Old English was rare, and the Middle English term *scoler(e)* may have been adapted wholly or in part from the Old French *escoler*, *escolier* (modern French *Écolier*). This derivation has relatives in the Dutch *scholier*, which came from the Middle Dutch *scholare* and *scholer*.

According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the word scholar first appeared in written work in 1055 in Byrhtferth's Handboc to refer to “a boy or girl attending elementary school” (p. 1986). This earliest use of the word is primarily a description of “one who is taught,” “one who acknowledges another as his master or teacher,” “one who is quick at learning” (p. 629). In this way, the term scholar is used synonymously with elementary student. Later, circa 1303, the term is used to describe “one who studies in the ‘schools’ at a university; a member of a university, especially a junior or undergraduate member” (p. 629).

However, subsequent and chronologically concurrent uses of the word focus on scholar as teacher. During the Elizabethan period the term was used to describe a person who, after study at the university and unsuccessful attempts at obtaining fixed employment, “sought to gain a living by literary work” (p. 629). It was during this time that scholar also came to be used to describe a person adept in classic languages and literature, and as a term used to describe the student and the reward of exceptionally meritorious students.

As pedantic as etymologies may seem, such a review demonstrates that the root of scholarship (scholar) evolved and has had several meanings throughout history. The term initially identified an elementary student, then came to be used to refer to a teacher, specifically a person who excels in the teaching of classic languages. The various uses of the term scholarship remain today, however, the use of the term to describe research or publication (or one involved in this work) is a much more recent adaptation. Scholarship is now used to describe an award of money to support a person's education, great learning in a particular subject, and the methods and achievements characteristic of scholars and academic work.

Scholarship – Early European Views

Lucas (1994) described the rise of scholasticism as having evolved from an intellectual movement that dates back to the 9th century. Medieval scholasticism was a “specific form of syllogistic reasoning worked out among the masters of the cathedral schools” (Lucas, 1994, p. 38). Lucas noted that scholasticism had important consequences as the first “sustained and intensive formal analysis in systemic fashion” (p. 38) that addressed theological questions and contradictions that existed between Church doctrine and pronouncements by clergy and councils. An early example of scholasticism was the debate between Anselm (a Platonic realist) and Roscellinus (an Aristotlean nominalist) over whether reality existed within ideas or within concrete, individual entities.

Francesco Petracco (commonly known as Petrarch) reshaped the meaning of scholarship during the early part of the Renaissance. For Petrarch and his contemporaries, scholarship meant broadening the scope of intellectual endeavors by

retrieving and reviving ancient works of history, poetry, essays, and letters. In sharp contrast to medieval scholasticism, Renaissance scholars wanted more than syllogistic hairsplitting that concentrated on “Aristotelian logic and philosophy in order to place them in the service of Christian truth” (1994, p. 74). Essentially, Petrarch and Renaissance scholars sought to legitimize studies in humanity (studia humanitatis) as an equal partner to the study of divinity (studia divinitatis).

Although one might expect the new, more humanist Renaissance form of scholarship to complement the Protestant reformation view, the two were at odds. For instance, Martin Luther was extremely critical of universities, calling them “dens of murderers, temples of Maloch, synagogues of corruption, nests of gloomy ignorance grown moribund under the weight of scholasticism and unbending tradition” (Lucas, 1994, p. 85). Luther felt that the universities undermined the teaching of gospel. By expanding the scope of scholarship, universities had denigrated the teaching of Latin and German, which were prerequisites for a lettered piety.

The Renaissance humanists eventually won this battle. Their victory was in part due to the fact that Protestantism abolished canon law, which had heretofore been the undisputed and most reputable course of professional preparation formally offered within universities. This shift from the “collegiate ideal of the cleric-scholar to lay professional was a momentous one, carrying with it far-reaching consequences for the basic purposes, general character, essential spirit and substance of institutions of higher education” (Lucas, 1994, p. 88). This tension between Reformation and Renaissance continues to exist both in higher education and American culture as a whole.

The scientific revolution of the 1600's brought about another major shift in the way scholarship was viewed. Lucas notes that scholasticism, the Renaissance humanist, and the Reformation all helped shape this revolution. Whereas scholasticism fostered in pupils the conceptual precision that shaped what would later become empirical investigation, humanist thought enabled scientific research by removing the shroud of sin from the natural world, and the Reformation indirectly contributed by rebuking miraculous explanations and weakening the reliance on Aristotelian dogma. The scientific revolution happened relatively slowly, in part because universities initially had little interest in knowledge production and tended to "insulate themselves from the ferment surrounding knowledge" (Lucas, 1994, p. 94). According to Lucas, it would take another century before the excitement of the scientific revolution would effect established institutions of higher learning. Concurrent with the scientific revolution was a new emphasis on the usefulness of knowledge.

In sum, the meaning of scholarship in Europe, beginning in the Middle Ages and through the mid-1700s, essentially focused on the transmission of knowledge. Despite radical curricular changes sparked by the Renaissance, the Reformation and the scientific revolution, this fundamental meaning of scholarship remained unchanged. Higher education institutions were, at their core, institutions of higher learning. While debates over the curriculum and whether the pursuit of knowledge was capable of being its own end (as opposed to a more pragmatic view) flourished, scholars and the concept of scholarship bore little resemblance to what it is in modern day. As noted by Lucas, although some hoped that universitas would become enclaves of intellectual freedom and inquiry, the reality was that the existing institutions provide narrow training for clerics

and subsequently, served as “finishing schools for the sons of the gentry classes or vocational schools for civil bureaucrats” (Lucas, 1994, p. 99).

Scholarship – Early American Views

While etymologies and a review of early accounts of European scholarship provide a historical context, to avoid narrow pedantry we must look at how the meaning of scholarship has varied with the purpose of higher education in the United States. The purpose of reviewing the following literature is to provide a backdrop upon which to compose a more focused portrayal of the meaning and purpose of service as a higher education endeavor. What follows is not an attempt to provide a comprehensive historical analysis, and any oversimplification of the history of American higher education is due to constraints of space. Readers seeking a more comprehensive review of the American intellectual tradition are especially encouraged to read Hollinger and Capper’s (1989) The American Intellectual Tradition, a two volume set focusing on the evolution of intellectual thinking in America from 1620 until the present. Hollinger and Capper provide a rich overview of American scholarship via periodic encapsulation of key works by American intellectuals.

The concept and production of scholarship – or scholarly activity – is intrinsically connected to the mission of American higher education. However, how scholarship is produced and what is produced as scholarship has evolved with American higher education.

A review of higher education histories demonstrates that an evolution in the concept of scholarship coincided with an evolution in purpose of the higher education institutions in the United States (Rudolph, 1990; Lucas, 1994; Veysey, 1965; Kerr, 1995;

Jencks and Reisman, 1968; Flexner, 1994). The progression outlined below is common among contemporary histories of American higher education.

Initially, institutions were profoundly effected by English Puritanism, which guided them to concomitantly develop a learned clergy and a lettered people. The purpose, quite simply, was to “train the schoolmasters, the divines, the rulers, the cultured ornaments of society – the men who would spell the difference between civilization and barbarism” (Rudolph, 1990, p. 6). Hollinger and Capper write that the Puritans were “enthusiastic inheritors not only of Christian and biblical scholarship, but also of the new learning and culture of Renaissance humanism” (Hollinger and Capper, 1989, p. 3). Puritanism scholarship had at its core the concept of the covenant, which was a series of divinely ordained yet understandable rules that helped define the relationship between God and humanity.

Although Hollinger and Capper describe a Republican Enlightenment in America as tame in comparison to the European Enlightenment, they state that during the second half of the 17th century a “massive Western intellectual reorientation” came into being that rested on two principles. The two ideas, which represented an intellectual departure from the Puritan canon, were that (a) “it was possible to understand the universe through the use of human faculties,” and that (b) “such an understanding could be put to use to make society more rational and humane” (p. 93). The success of the American Revolution had an incredible influence on scholarship and intellectuals of the time, and the question of how to best build a new country occupied the thoughts of many of the periods most notable intellectuals (James Madison, Thomas Jefferson, Thomas Paine, John Adams, etc.). Hollinger and Capper go on to describe the following periods of

intellectualism in America: Evangelical Democracy (1800-1860), Romanticism and Reform (mid 1800s), and Quest for Union (late 1800s). Each of these periods might be thought to represent a unique phase in the development of an intellectual and scholarly tradition that is uniquely American.

American higher education experienced a monumental clash between two intellectual factions in the early 19th century. On one side were those that defended the traditional classical education (commonly known as the Great Books curriculum), while on the other were those that felt that academe ought to broaden the curricula to serve a more directly utilitarian purpose in society. In 1829 the Yale Report concluded that the mission of higher education was to “serve as a custodian of high culture; to nurture and preserve the legacy of the past; to foster a paideia, or “common learning,” capable of enlarging and enriching people’s lives; and to impart the knowledge, skills, and sensibilities foundational to the arts of living themselves” (Lucas, 1994, p. 134). The committee commissioned by Yale President Jeremiah Day had responded to the proposal that the dead languages be dropped from the curriculum with a “closely reasoned defense of traditional classical education” (Lucas, 1994, p. 132). While the report bolstered the position of academic traditionalists, it would not stop the gradual expansion of the college curriculum and the creation of more utilitarian studies and disciplines that embraced scientific and technological advancements.

This struggle is also evident in Cardinal Newman’s The Idea of the University, which is a compilation of lectures given in Dublin in 1852 regarding the purpose of higher education. Newman’s work captured the attention of many Americans and described the primary meaning and purpose of the university as bestowing a liberal

education – as opposed to a “useful education” (Newman, 1982, p. 128) – upon matriculants.

Newman’s treatment is particularly Aristotelian and focuses on the moral obligations universities have to society through teaching, and that its basic mission was to provide an intellectual culture that “educates the intellect to reason well in all matters, to reach out towards truth, and to grasp it” (p. 95). Newman refutes Francis Bacon’s notion that knowledge should be generated for the benefit and use of man (Bacon, The Advancement of Learning essay). Kerr noted that Newman saw the university as having the “high protecting power of all knowledge and science, of fact and principle, of inquiry and discovery, of experiment and speculation” (Kerr, 1995, p. 2). However, this “protective power” did not translate into generative power. Newman felt that universities were not the appropriate place to conduct research, stating that “if its object were scientific and philosophical discovery, I do not see why a University should have any students” (Newman cited in Kerr, 1995, p. 2). Essentially, the focus of scholarship was almost entirely dedicated to providing instruction until the mid- and late-1800’s.

Scholarship – Modern American Views

The expansion of the role of the federal government in academe served as a catalyst to changes in our modern conception of scholarship. These changes, which began with the passage of the Morrill Federal Land Grant Act of 1862 and peaked with the commissioning of full-scale research agendas in the 1950’s and 1960’s through a variety of programs initiated by the National Science Foundation, the National Institutes of Health, and the National Defense Education Act of 1958. During this time the role of

scholars and the meaning of scholarship was reinvented within American higher education.

Fredrick Rudolph (1990) dramatically illustrated a transformation in the purpose of American higher education by juxtaposing the statements made by two prominent college presidents in the late 19th century. In 1866 Andrew D. White stated that at Cornell University, “facility and power in imparting the truth are even more necessary than in discovering it.” Less than thirty years later, William Rainey Harper announced that the University of Chicago – which was touted as a model American university – would make investigation its primary work and make instruction secondary (Rudolph, 1990, p. 352).

This period began during the 1860’s, a period that historian Laurence Veysey (1969) refers to as the “Anno Domini” of higher education. Charles Eliot, Noah Porter, and Frederick A.P. Barnard were respectively the leaders of Harvard, Yale and Columbia. Cornell University and California had just opened. Shortly thereafter, Johns Hopkins University was created. In his inauguration speech, Johns Hopkins’ first president Daniel Coit Gilman stressed “the importance of research and the advancement of individual scholars, who by their excellence will advance the sciences they pursue, and the society where they dwell” (available online: http://www.jhu.edu/news_info/jhuinfo/history.html). Johns Hopkins University was an entirely new kind of American institution – a research university – and was dedicated jointly to advancing students' knowledge and the state of human knowledge through research and scholarship.

Gilman reframed the debate about the purpose of American higher education by asserting that “the best teachers are usually those who are free, competent and willing to

make original researches in the library and the laboratory” (available online: see above). Essentially, this drew attention away from the classic debate regarding the usefulness of a “Great Books” curriculum (the primary focus of the Yale Report), and dismissed the assumption that teaching and research were separate endeavors. Gilman felt that “the best investigators are usually those who have also the responsibilities of instruction, gaining thus the incitement of colleagues, the encouragement of pupils, the observation of the public” (available online: see above). The adoption of this philosophy by other institutions eventually led to the research university as it exists today. Boyer (1990) cites Gilman as having introduced the term “research” into the vocabulary of American higher education in 1906 as a term he borrowed from Cambridge and Oxford.

Gilman’s ideas did not transform American higher education overnight, nor did he do it alone. During his presidencies at the University of Mississippi and Columbia University, Frederick A.P. Barnard repeatedly challenged American higher education to develop true universities. Barnard noted that higher education systems in America functioned just as the Yale Report had suggested they should function – as a means to provide discipline to the mind. Barnard and others (such as Francis Wayland, Philip Lindsley, and Bishop Leonidas K. Polk), felt that American colleges were not particularly adept at disseminating information and needed to be reorganized to facilitate original investigation that responded to a rapidly changing world of increasing complexity (Sansing, 1990, p. 49).

This transformation could be managed in two ways: the establishment of separate, independent graduate institutions or the superimposition of a scholarly research emphasis (German-style university structure) upon a liberal arts institution (English-style

undergraduate college). The first approach is illustrated by Johns Hopkins University, Clark University, and the University of Chicago. The second occurred at Harvard, Princeton and Yale (Lucas, 1994, p. 172). Barnard's approach and vocal advocacy for the creation of a true university was strongly influenced by the Germanic concepts of *Lernfreiheit* (freedom to learn) and *Lehrfreiheit* (freedom to teach), and by the German ideal of disinterested pursuit of truth through original scholarly investigation (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955). This concept eventually led to the establishment of large graduate institutions whose primary aim was to facilitate pure research and *Wissenschaft*, which represented a major departure from higher education's traditional role of diffusing knowledge through teaching (Lucas, 1994). In adopting the German model, the American universities were combining the functions of advanced teaching and research for the first time (Kerr in Flexner, 1994, p. xix). Jencks and Riesman (1968) point out that during this time free-standing professional schools affiliated with universities often began to lessen their commitment to connecting theory and practice and moved towards a new "academic" view – one that was less oriented around practice – of what students needed to know.

The Wisconsin Idea was particularly noteworthy effort to connect the new faculty role of research to practice and outreach (Hoeveler, 1976; Brubacher and Rudy, 1976). During the last decade of the 1800's the Wisconsin Idea represented the most complete and direct engagement of college or university resources toward addressing social problems. Richard T. Ely, appointed director of University of Wisconsin School of Economics, Political Science, and History in 1892, was instrumental in engaging faculty in a new capacity: providing advisory service to governmental leaders (Lucas, 1994).

Under Ely's leadership, faculty were encouraged to use their intellect and the resources of the university to address the social issues of the day. "Hostile to pecuniary values, charged with more than a touch of moral righteousness, the Wisconsin Idea placed the people's university at the service of the people" was how historian Frederick Rudolph (1990, p. 363) described the concept. Rudolph also stated that the Wisconsin Idea was adopted in varying degrees at other institutions, but none epitomized the spirit of Progressivism and acted upon the service ideal as well as the University of Wisconsin. Lynton (1995) described the role of faculty service at the time as,

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

However, no references of this type of activity being referred to as a form of scholarship could be found.

In describing American higher education in the 1930's, Abraham Flexner described the four major concerns of "scholars and scientists" as:

- The conservation of knowledge and ideas;
- The interpretation of knowledge and ideas;
- The search for truth;
- The training of students who will practice and "carry on" (Flexner, 1994, p. 6).

This taxonomy shares some obvious commonalities with both Bacon and Boyer's.

Flexner's distinction of scholar and scientist is particularly noteworthy and may be

attributed to the vestiges of scholarship's historical focus on literature and humanities and concomitant distinction from scientific endeavors.

This period of reinvention culminated during and after World War II. Lucas (1994) described this period as having occurred in three phases. First, government-sponsored research throughout the war "marked the first tentative step toward increased federal involvement in higher education" (p. xv). Second, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (the G.I. Bill of Rights) brought the "greatest expansion colleges and universities had yet experienced" (p. xv). Increased enrollment also meant that that college attendance was no longer an exclusive prerogative, a privileged rite of passage to adulthood, or an "interval of leisurely intellectual contemplation and self-discovery" (p. xv). College attendance would become "another rung on the ladder of opportunity, a necessary preparation for the challenge of making one's way in the new world of corporate business and industry" (p. xv). The third and final phase, brought about by fears of Soviet military dominance due to the launching of Sputnik, was marked by the passage of the National Defense Act of 1958, which authorized the federal government to expand sponsorship of university-based research.

Eugene Rice (1996) argues that the image of the American scholar currently promulgated emerged during the period after World War II. It was during this period of expansion in higher education that the scholar came to be seen primarily as a researcher pursuing knowledge for its own sake. By the 1960's the American research university had achieved an exalted status with respect to other types of institutions. In 1963 Clark Kerr described the basic reality of the American research university as being the production agent of new knowledge, and that this knowledge was,

the most important factor in economic and social growth. We are just now perceiving that the university's invisible product, knowledge, may be the most powerful single element in our culture, affecting the rise and fall of professions and even of social classes, of regions and even of nations (Kerr, 1995, p. xiv). Because these research universities had achieved a higher status than their cohorts, and because they were expected to produce (as opposed to simply transmit) knowledge, many institutions began to actively seek classification as a Carnegie Research I institution. This was (and is) not a simple task and involved energy and resources from faculty and administration.

Critics claim that the quest for the coveted Carnegie Research I classification comes at an exorbitant price. Henry Rosovsky (1990), former dean of the faculty at Harvard University, observed that even private universities essentially owned by the government. He argued that the government had become involved in all the major financial aspects of higher education. Government financed research and served as a banker to students, thereby asserting an enormous amount of regulatory influence over many academic activities. According to Smith (1990), the production of knowledge is particularly expensive, and the desire and ability to tap into research grants and contracts plays a large role in determining who becomes and who remains a part of university faculties.

Despite these criticisms, by the 1980's the predisposition toward and the importance of knowledge production in universities had evolved so completely that the term scholarship had become synonymous with research and publication (Boyer, 1990; Miller and Serzan, 1984; Sundre, 1990; Centra, 1989; West, Hore, and Boon, 1980; Rice,

1991). Scholarship had become narrowly defined as inquiry that leading to publications in prestigious journals (Boyer, 1990; Rice, 1991; Blackburn, Bieber, Lawrence, and Trautvetter, 1991; Reagan, 1985; Pellino, Blackburn and Boberg, 1984; Fairweather, 1993a; Fairweather, 1996). Although these observations are nearly axiomatic, numerous studies have shown that research and subsequent publication is the most important element of scholarship (Braxton and Bayer, 1986; Braxton, & Toombs, 1982; Creswell, 1986; Pellino, Blackburn, and Boberg, 1984; Sundre, 1990, 1992; Boyer, 1990; Glassick, Huber and Maeroff, 1997).

There is a touch of historic irony in the debate that evolved regarding teaching and research. One view is that teaching and research as a faculty role are interecine. A second, which is similar to what Gilman articulated in the founding of Johns Hopkins University, is that the best researchers make the best teachers (this is actually the reverse of Gilman's original argument – that the best teachers make the best researchers).

There is conflicting evidence regarding the relationship between faculty time spent teaching and conducting research. While Fairweather (1993a; 1993b) asserts that a high negative correlation exists (-.61), Dey, Milem & Berger, (1997) maintain that a longitudinal study demonstrated that there is no relationship between the amount of time spent teaching and time spent conducting research. The Dey, Milem, and Berger investigation of faculty time allocation also demonstrated that the amount of time faculty spent conducting research increased over a 20 year period at all four-year institutions. Furthermore, the amount of time faculty spent teaching at research universities decreased during this period, while teaching time increased at doctoral, comprehensive, liberal arts

and community colleges. Finally, the amount of time faculty spent advising students declined at all institutions (Dey, Milem, Berger, 1997).

Similar ambiguity exists regarding the relationship between the quality of teaching and the quality of research by scholars. Initially it was assumed that a faculty member's ability to teach would be enhanced through involvement in research activity, that an empirical link and high correlation existed between excellence in teaching and excellence in research. For instance, like Daniel Coit Gilman, Catherine Burroughs (1990) argued "the finest teachers are researchers excited about returning to the classroom to share their scholarship with students" (p. 14). However, this assumption has been challenged in recent years. Studies of several disciplines have shown that little or no correlation exists between the quality of research and the quality of teaching (Romainville, 1996; Noser, Manakyan, and Tanner, 1996; Feldman, 1987; Brew & Boud, 1995). For instance, Feldman's analysis found an average correlation of .13 between scholarly productivity and teaching effectiveness (Feldman, 1987). Thus, the conflict and debate regarding the internecine nature (or lack thereof) of the relationship between teaching and research certainly warrants more attention.

Scholarship – Postmodern American Views

Criticism of the modern university – particularly Carnegie Research I institutions – extended beyond discussions of the quality of teaching and research and intensified during the 1980's and 1990's. The criticism was in part due to a skepticism that the modern faculty – who were becoming increasingly specialized and work was becoming more insular – were contributing little to larger society and that the American public was not benefiting from its expensive universities. Nancy Thomas (2000) describes the

1980's as a period of public disenchantment stemming from a number of alleged failings, among them the production of abstract research unconnected to real-life problems, the abandonment of humanities, classics and a core curriculum, the matriculation of poorly educated students with no "souls," catering to special interest groups at the expense of constitutional rights of free speech and equal protection, and rewarding research at the expense of teaching.

Throughout the last half of the 20th century (particularly in the last decade), a great deal of attention was given to the relationship between one's ability to teach and one's ability to conduct research. As noted above, this discussion was usually framed as teaching versus scholarship (Burroughs, 1990; Reinstein & Lander, 1993). Recently, however, service has demanded more attention as a faculty endeavor. Studies of faculty work that included a focus on service include Blackburn, Bieber, Lawrence, & Trautvetter (1991), Fairweather (1996), and Diamond (1993).

Some of this attention grew out of the attention that the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching paid to improving the quality of teaching at the undergraduate level. During the 1980's and 1990's, the Carnegie Foundation urged academe to take the role of teaching more seriously, which eventually led to the argument that teaching is a form of scholarship. One of the most vocal advocates for this view is Lee Shulman, president of the Carnegie Foundation and professor of education at Stanford university. However, Shulman and other members of the Carnegie Academic for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning make the careful distinction between the "scholarship of teaching" and "teaching." These authors claim that the scholarship of teachings differs from teaching in at least four significant ways. First, the scholarship of

teaching must be (a) be public (i.e., “community property), (b) open to critique and evaluation, and (c) in a form that others can build on, and d) involve question-asking, inquiry and investigation, particularly around the issues of student learning (Shulman and Hutchings, 1999).

The teaching as scholarship view has its critics. For instance, in response to a report by the Society for the Teaching of Psychology that included teaching as a scholarly activity, James H. Korn writes that the report made “the concept of scholarship overly inclusive and, instead of redefining scholarship to include teachers, the task force redefined teaching as scholarship in the generally accepted, publish-or-perish sense” (Korn, 1999, p. 362). Korn was critical of the task force for not acknowledging the realities of day-to-day academic life, the means by which (and for what) scholars are trained in graduate school, and for applying the rhetoric of the research paradigm to teaching.

In any event, the American postmodern view of scholarship continues to evolve. The American Association for Higher Education has convened an annual Forum on Faculty Roles and Rewards since the early 1990s, at which higher education leaders meet to discuss the expanding role of faculty and how to appropriately reward scholars for the full range of work that is expected of them. Recently, the W.K. Kellogg Foundation provided support for the creation of a National Review Board for the Scholarship of Engagement (“The National Review Board,” 2000). This board will provide leadership on a national level for the development of a process of review of faculty community engagement, service learning and professional service. It is too early to know what effect

this will have on the legitimization and recognition of this work from within the institution or individual disciplines.

In concluding this section two observations from the literature must be highlighted. First, the concept of scholarship is naturally difficult to define deductively. Three decades ago Biglin (1973) argued that faculty scholarship defied a single definition due to its complexity as a construct, an assertion confirmed more recently by Sundre (1989, 1990, 1992). Scholarship is essentially an a posteriori concept that is more easily defined inductively by reviewing what faculty members do and how their efforts are valued. Second, there seems to be little historical treatment of the role of service and its explicit connection to the evolution of the concept of scholarship within higher education. While the past two decades have produced numerous studies about the teaching and research role of the scholar, very few investigations include service as a mode of scholarship.

Frederick Rudolph (1990) writes,

the great role of public service assumed by the state universities, in the tradition of such colonial establishments as Harvard and Yale, has been understood by most friends of the state universities, but just what that role has meant for American society and life in general has not been properly studied (p. 513).

In his criticism of the Carnegie classification, Alexander McCormick (2000) cites the way colleges and universities are classified as an unintentional means of perpetuating this lack of attention. He states that the Carnegie classification “does not attend to the traditional components of mission equally. Research is measured explicitly (if imperfectly); instruction is addressed only indirectly, through degree conferrals and field

coverage; and service is absent” (p. 4). Criticism, public disenchantment, and pressure from legislative bodies have pressured faculty and administrators to review their assessment of the product of scholarly endeavors. These may also have been factors leading to the revision of the Carnegie classification scheme in 2000. However, according to George Dennis O’Brien (1998), “the American institution of higher learning at the end of the twentieth century is the research university” (p. xviii, original emphasis). It remains unclear whether a critical mass has been achieved or is desired within American academe to enable a full-scale revision and broadening of the meaning of scholarship.

Scholarship and Service

Three common perceptions of the relationship between service and scholarship emerged from the review of literature. These perceptions include service as the summation of other faculty roles, service as a distinct academic role, and service as scholarship. These three positions are described below.

Service as the Summation of Other Faculty Roles

At least anecdotally, this view seems to be the most pervasive. Essentially the view of service as the summation of other faculty roles is one in which a faculty member's service responsibility is fulfilled through excellent teaching, research, institutional committee work, external consulting, and work for professional or disciplinary associations. Martin (1977) succinctly stated that “teaching and research have always been and remain today a form of service” (p. 14). While this view is frequently cited by those attempting to refute the concept of service as the summation of other faculty roles (Boyer, 1990; Lynton, 1995), there is a paucity of research and literature that more

accurately describes the view. In focusing on faculty service, Elizabeth Hawthorne (1990) concluded that “the definition of service is motley, suggesting the lack of scholarly attention to this subject and the exploratory nature of research” (p. 6).

Florestano and Hambrick (1984) described several problems that arise from this view. First, the summative view leads to a lack of clarity in defining service and establishing standards to differentiate professional service from non-professional service. This subsequently makes it difficult to establish good measures to evaluate service.

Service as a Distinct Academic Role

Charles McCallum (1994) stated, “when most faculty use the term service they often associate it with an unrewarded but necessary activity distinct from teaching and research or scholarship” (p. 332). This type of activity fits into the role of the academic, but is not considered scholarship.

The National Center for Higher Education Management Systems (NCHEMS) provided another example of this view. In the late-1970’s Oscar Lenning and colleagues at the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems worked with over 800 institutions and codified “Service Provision Outcome Measures” as distinct from “Research and Scholarship Provision Outcome Measures” (Lenning, et. al., 1979). That this system of codification distinguishes service from scholarship is enlightening. While nearly every Service Provision Outcome Measure reflected an explicit orientation toward outreach and attainment of community goals, only one of the Research and Scholarship Outcome Measures (the last - “Assessed Social Impact of Technological Products Developed”) had an outward connection to the larger community. The codification of Service Provision Outcome Measures and Research and Scholarship Outcome Measures

are provided (see Appendix D). It should be noted that the NCHEMS's work has evolved since this time and is now under the direction of Dr. Peter Ewell. Dr. Ewell's work is cited elsewhere in this literature review.

Nancy Thomas (2000) provides a typology that categorizes different types of institutional service activities. Although this typology includes a wide variety of institutional initiatives related to service, Thomas specifically identifies "individual faculty members' professional service and professional outreach" as a form of "worked based on the faculty member's knowledge and expertise that contributes to the outreach mission of the institution" (p. 82-83). Thomas cites institutions such as Oregon State University, Michigan State University and Portland State University as having revised their standard of promotion and tenure to account for this work, but notes that this is the "exception rather than the rule" (p. 84). Thomas does not explicitly argue that service is a form of scholarship.

Service as Scholarship

This view of service as scholarship is embodied in Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate, published in 1990 by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and authored by Ernest Boyer. In the report, Boyer charges colleges and universities to adopt a more capacious vision of scholarship. This challenge seems to have resonated, from within and without, higher education institutions. The report was based on a 1989 national study funded through the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Although Boyer's charge was to study the current state of teaching as scholarship in American higher education institutions, the focus of the study was eventually broadened to review the actual meaning of scholarship. From this book

came a new framework for scholarship: discovery, integration, application and teaching. Boyer (1990) claims that it is “time to end the suffocating practice in which colleges and universities measure themselves far too frequently by external status rather than by values determined by their own distinctive mission” (p. xiii). Boyer and others call for colleges and universities to practice “diversity with dignity” by establishing unique missions that respond to community needs (rather than attempting to emulate or achieve “Research I” status) (Boyer, 1990; Centra, 1989; Miller and Serzan, 1984).

In Making the Case for Professional Service, Ernest Lynton (1995) offers a typology for service activities (see Appendix B). Lynton intended to illustrate the many ways that professional service can be performed and demonstrate that professional service can “constitute scholarship of the highest order, equivalent in intellectual challenge, creativity and importance to scholarly research and scholarly teaching” (1995, p. 21). Diamond (1993, 1994, 1995a, 1995b, 1999) also provides examples of how professional service can be considered scholarly work. In defining “professional service” as a scholarly endeavor, both Lynton and Diamond acknowledge that it can take many forms and should be shaped by institution, departmental and individual priorities, but they hasten to draw sharp distinctions between other forms of institutional citizenship and volunteerism. Diamond’s work is discussed in more detail later.

The work of Boyer and others to redefine and broaden the scope of scholarship is not without criticism. Murray Mitchell (1999) raises three concerns with the Boyer model of scholarship. First, Mitchell feels that existing levels of rigor in evaluating the quality of teaching and research is low by comparison to research standards of peer review. A second concern is that Boyer does not clearly distinguish between scholarship

and good teaching or good service, and that his redefinition “too readily facilitate a shirking of faculty responsibility to extend the knowledge base” (p. 268). Furthermore, Mitchell fears that Boyer’s notion of scholarship may be too easily abused because it unjustifiably “identifies all duties performed by faculty as scholarship” (p. 268). Mitchell asserts that teaching and service are important roles for faculty, but that identifying these duties as scholarship is unwarranted. Mitchell rebukes arguments by Metzler (1994) and Locke (1995) that were highly critical of the social, economic and cultural value of modern scholastic publications. In doing so, Mitchell argues for an alternative view of scholarship as “a formal, ongoing process of developing and sharing work with peers who evaluate the merits of the contribution” (p. 267). Efforts to expand the meaning of scholarship are, according to Mitchell, related to public dissatisfaction with higher education and a misunderstanding of the role of faculty. Better methods exist – including more appropriate selection strategies and faculty mentoring – that will ultimately bring more scholarly attention to significant societal needs.

Related Studies of the Meaning of Service and Scholarship

While attempting to identify differences in cognitive styles based on academic discipline, Biglin (1973) described three broad methods for characterizing academic subject matter. First, he discussed paradigm, which he labeled the “Hard-Soft” discipline continuum. Second, he identified the “Applied-Pure” continuum, which characterized the use and application of knowledge. Finally, he described the “Life-Nonlife” continuum as a means of describing a discipline’s relationship with life systems.

Glenn Pellino and colleagues reported in 1984 that six dimensions of scholarship existed. Their conclusions were based on a factor analysis of the frequency of faculty

and administrator responses to 32 activity statements. The six dimensions of scholarship included professional activity, research (publishing), teaching service, artistic endeavor, and “engagement with the novel” (Pellino, et. al., 1984). Of particular note is the fusion of teaching and service as one activity within the Pellino construct of scholarship.

Bavaro (1995a) examined the definition of scholarship in higher education, focusing on current definitions of scholarship, administrators' perceptions about scholarship, measures of scholarship, and emerging trends in recommendations about scholarship. Bavaro noted that although the traditional concept of scholarship placed greater value in teaching as opposed to research and service, the current model favors research and publication over teaching and service. The majority of faculty in the social sciences, however, believed in the importance of research and publication in scholarship, but feel that too much emphasis is placed on publication. Bavaro cited recent trends in the defining scholarship as having moved beyond publication counts and many schools have begun to place more emphasis on teaching and service.

Bavaro (1995b) conducted interviews with randomly selected faculty from four departments within a school of education as part of an investigation of how scholarship was viewed. The faculty had varying levels of experience and publication rates. The study found that faculty members with lower rates of publication indicated that the current view of scholarship, centered on research and publication, was problematic, regardless of their years of experience. They also thought that the role of scholarship was at odds with teaching. In contrast, faculty with higher rates of publication, regardless of years of experience, described the current view of scholarship as appropriate. The results suggest the need for mentoring programs for junior faculty members, the need to explore

issues related to faculty morale, and the need to explore the perceived lack of confidence in the current system to adequately evaluate scholarly merits.

Donna Sundre (1989, 1990, 1992) attempted to explore and clarify the content domain of the concept of faculty scholarship, an area in which research in higher education has been continuous but uncoordinated. Sundre (1989) asked faculty participants to specify the qualities, attributes, and components of faculty scholarship from their own points of view by naming scholars from three reference groups and listing the reasons why they considered them scholarly. Interviews followed in which participants answered questions about their motivations and their conception of scholarship. Sundre lists the 40 attributes of faculty scholarship most frequently used to describe scholars. The most common attributes included (a) published articles, (b) respect by peers across the disciplines, (c) broad generalized knowledge beyond the field, (d) contribution to, or influence on, the field through research, and (e) sharing knowledge with others. Sundre (1990, 1992) continued attempts to clarify the nature and form of faculty scholarship and focused attention on the faculty at a large public doctoral university. A survey instrument was developed listing 249 attributes of faculty scholarship, and nearly 350 faculty members responded, weighing each attribute in relation to its importance within their conception of faculty scholarship. Four significant and orthogonal dimensions of faculty scholarship were identified, which accounted for 41.6% of the total variation. The four factors were (a) pedagogy, (b) publication and professional recognition, (c) intellectual characteristics of scholars, and (d) creative and artistic attributes.

In concluding the review of literature regarding the meaning of scholarship, it should be noted that a great deal of work remains. After conducting a study in which 249 attributes to faculty scholarship were classified into four significant and orthogonal dimensions including pedagogy, publication and professional recognition, intellectual characteristics of scholars, and creative and artistic attributes, Donna Sundre concluded that faculty scholarship was an extremely complex construct (Sundre, 1992).

The Value of Service

In conducting a review of literature related to higher education assessment and reward structures, it can be demonstrated that the value of service as a scholarly endeavor can be evaluated from both an institutional and individual perspective. What follows is a review of literature related to current means, methods and processes of valuing service from these two perspectives.

Institutional Value

In 1994 the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching surveyed all of the chief academic officers at the country's four-year colleges and universities and found that the "most widely embraced goal was to redefine such traditional faculty roles as teaching, research and service" (Glassick, Huber, and Maeroff, 1997, p. 12). When asked whether the definition of scholarship was being broadened at their institution to include the full range of faculty activities, an overwhelming majority of chief academic officers responded affirmatively. Responses are shown in Figure 1.

Statement: THE DEFINITION OF SCHOLARSHIP IS BEING BROADENED TO INCLUDE THE FULL RANGE OF ACTIVITIES IN WHICH FACULTY ARE ENGAGED

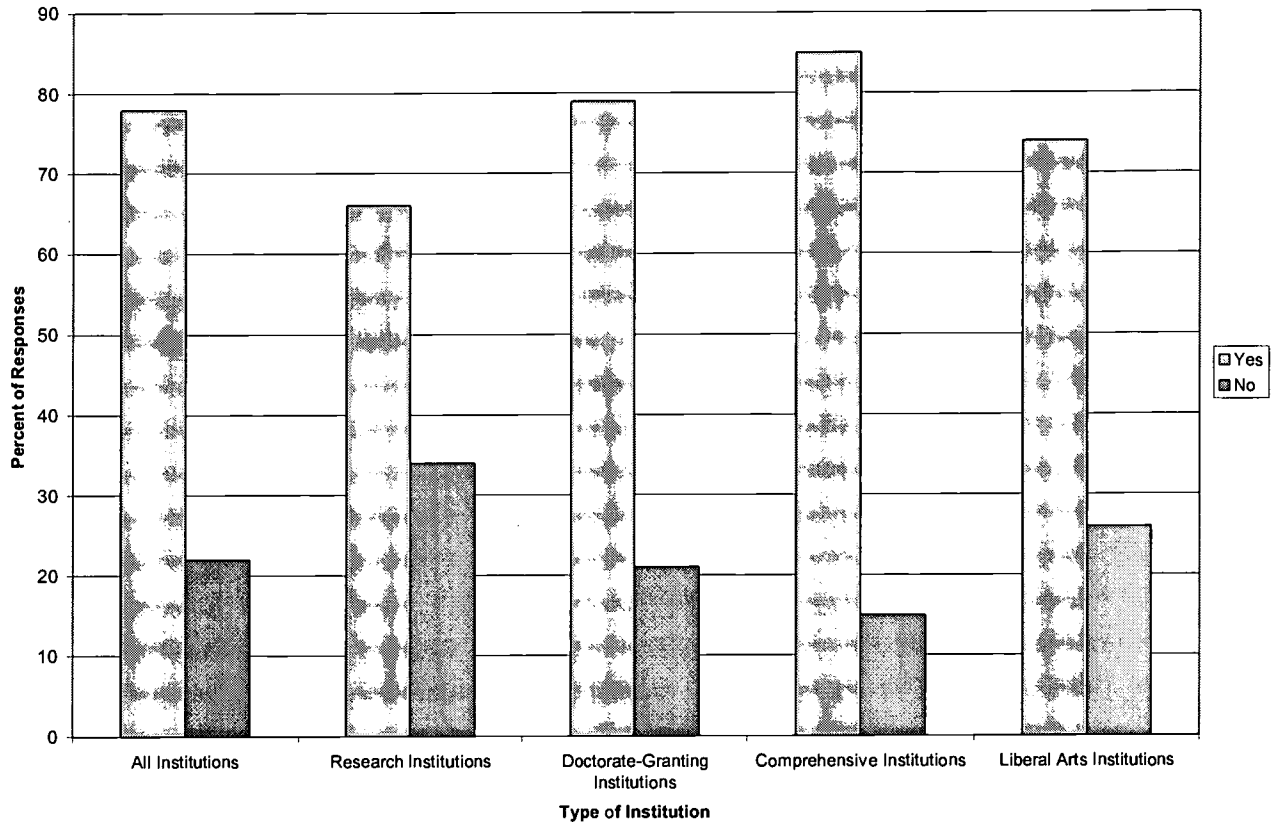


Figure 1. 1994 National Survey on the Reexamination of Faculty Roles and Rewards responses from chief academic officers regarding the concept of scholarship.

However, these authors also found that while the definition of scholarship was expanding at many institutions, there was often little consensus on the meaning of scholarship or on the means of concurrently enlarging the scope of the reward structure.

For instance, there was significantly less consensus among chief academic officers when asked whether applied scholarship (or outreach) was clearly distinguished from campus and community citizenship. These responses are illustrated in Figure 2.

Statement: APPLIED SCHOLARSHIP (OUTREACH) IS BEING CLEARLY DISTINGUISHED FROM CAMPUS AND COMMUNITY CITIZENSHIP

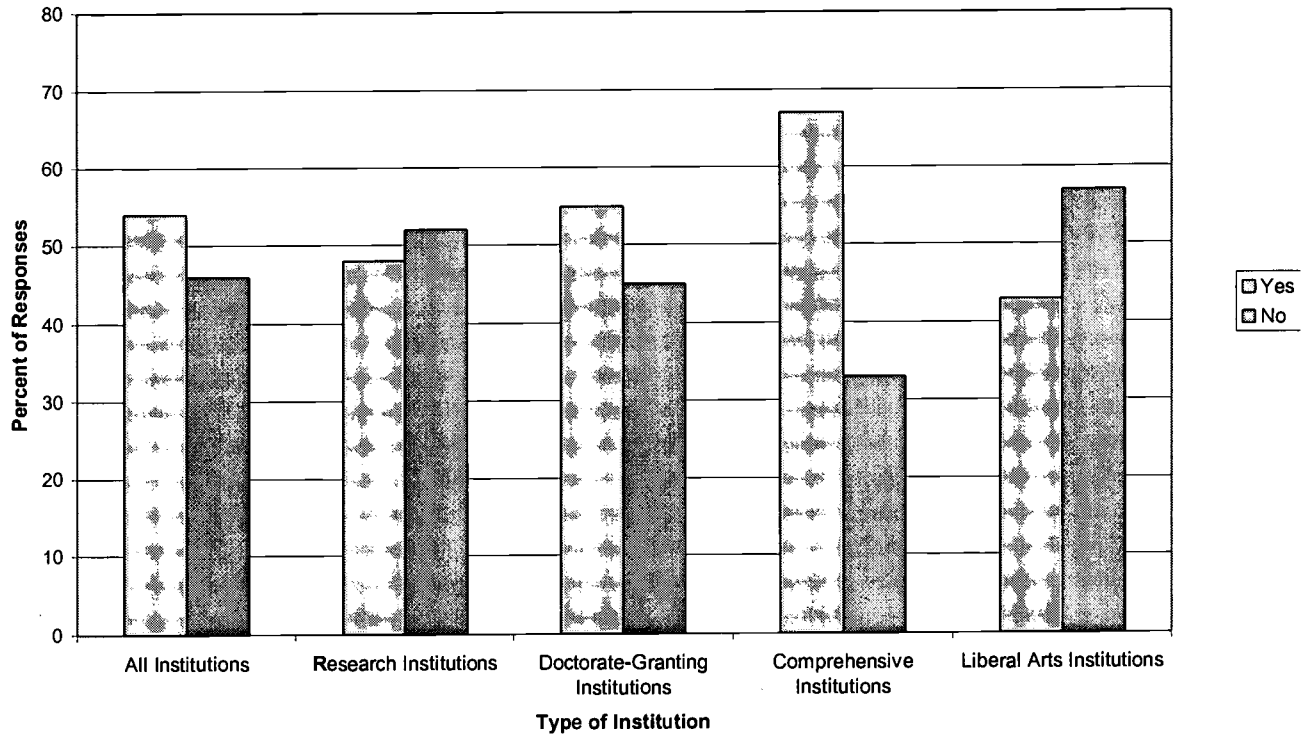


Figure 2. 1994 National Survey on the Reexamination of Faculty Roles and Rewards responses from chief academic officers regarding campus and community citizenship.

It is significant that discussions about the nature and meaning of scholarship are taking place at the institutional level. However, for these discussions to translate into changes in institutional behavior, they must be encouraged with incentives and resources. Institutional mandates and regulations intending to guide institutional behavior that are not coupled with resources are generally ineffective (Ewell, 1998). The ultimate meaning in rhetoric of institutional purpose and the meaning of scholarship can be found in the management and assessment strategies of an institution.

There is an abundance of literature concerning the management and assessment of higher education from the institutional perspective. To maintain accreditation colleges and universities must undergo periodic self- and peer-evaluation. However, in recent years fiscal and political realities – as well as declining public trust – have forced institutions and systems of higher education to reevaluate how they manage and assess themselves (Chaffee, 1998; Glassick, Huber and Macroff, 1997).

To be clear, the higher education management and assessment “movements” are distinct. The former focuses heavily on inputs and relies heavily on adaptations of popular corporate models such as Total Quality Management, Continuous Quality Improvement, Performance-Based Budget and others. Langford and Cleary (1995) and Lewis and Smith (1994) provide excellent overviews of how the corporate “quality” movements are adapted for educational endeavors and Ewell (1999b) offers insight regarding how universities adapt imported management techniques. The latter focuses heavily on outputs, such as student competencies or professional effectiveness, and is often influenced by disciplinary or internal structures, content and values. Edwards and Knight (1995) drew from a variety of disciplines to provide an excellent overview of the issues, challenges and controversies of assessment in higher education.

This review will focus primarily on management and assessment strategies that influence or gauge the level of commitment and activity relating to service or civic engagement from a departmental or institutional perspective. What follows are brief descriptions of several prominent or particularly creative institutional or departmental management or assessment systems. The purpose of presenting these models is to demonstrate the breadth of possibilities and diversity of approaches taken to similar tasks

of assessing, managing and accounting for service activities. By comparison to general institutional assessment literature – or literature specifically related to institution-level assessment of research and teaching – there is a dearth of assessment measures and management strategies related to service activities.

Higher education accreditation agencies provide one source of criteria for evaluating both scholarship and service. The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges – the agency responsible for accrediting Mississippi institutions – does not explicitly require colleges or universities to provide public service. According to the 1998 accreditation criteria, which are currently being revised, the service role is collectively referred to as “continuing education, extension education, outreach, or public and community service programs” (available online: <http://www.sacscoc.org/COC/criteria.htm>). Surprisingly, when delineating accreditation criteria SACS defines a full-time faculty member as an individual “whose major employment is with the institution, whose primary assignment is in teaching and/or research, and whose employment is based on a contract for full-time employees” (available online: <http://www.sacscoc.org/COC/criteria.htm>, emphasis added). No mention of the faculty service role is made in defining faculty; however, “service to the public” is a factor mentioned in the section describing faculty loads. This is yet another indication of the ambiguity and confusion related to the faculty role as it relates to service.

While the accreditation process is primarily conducted by peers from within the higher education community, a similar lack of focus and attention to how institutions serve the public is demonstrated in the annual U.S. News and World Report ranking of

America's colleges and universities. According to the 2000 version, the criteria used to develop the annual rankings include academic reputation, retention, faculty resources, student selectivity, financial resources, graduation rate performance, and alumni giving rate (Graham and Morse, 2000). No consideration is given to the service function or performance of the institution. The methodology of the rankings has come under sharp criticism in recent years. Leo Reisberg (2000) reported that an independent review of the methods used for ranking colleges commissioned by U.S. News and World Report in 1997 revealed that the current approach lacked "any defensible empirical or theoretical basis." Although the rankings are intended for use by families, their annual publication has an undeniable effect on institutional prestige and undoubtedly influences what academics and administrators do in terms of improving public perceptions of their college or university's relative worth.

The California Postsecondary Education Commission conducted and published a study of campus climate in the early 1990's (available online: <http://www.cpec.ca.gov/>). Its first report, Toward an Understanding of Campus Climate, was published in June 1990 and centered on defining and better understanding the nature of campus climate. The second, Assessing Campus Climate, was published two years later and focused on the process, methodological issues, and educational significance of assessing campus climate. Although the Commission's study was primarily focused on the issue of educational equity, it offers illustrations of various methodological approaches to studying campus climate: surveys of students, former students, faculty and staff; interviews; focus groups and other group meetings; and the analysis of institutional documents to learn more about the perceptions, attitudes, and values of members of the

campus community. The study also included topics and surveys designed to cover topics such as student/faculty interaction, curriculum, campus life, campus leadership, academic support, and relationship between the campus and surrounding community.

In 1999 the Templeton Foundation published the Templeton Guide, which profiled 405 exemplary programs from across the country. The programs were classified into one of ten categories and are meant to represent a rich tapestry of "best practices" on college campuses that foster and encourage character development. Although strategies, approaches, and objectives differed at each of the campuses included in the Templeton Guide, the programs focused on fostering such virtues as honesty, self-control, respect, and compassion. The selection criteria for inclusion in The Templeton Guide: Colleges that Encourage Character Development and a descriptive guide to Templeton Programs are provided (see Appendix E).

The National Commission on Civic Renewal created the Index of National Civic Health (INCH) in 1974 in order to gauge the country's civic condition each year (available online: <http://www.puaf.umd.edu/civicrenewal/>). The INCH includes 22 quantitative measures in the following categories: political participation, trust, family strength, group membership, and personal security. Although the index is used to gauge the level of civic engagement health of the general public, similar frameworks might be used in the future to rank the public service role of a department or institution (this would of course require major revisions in the criterion factors).

Barbara Holland (1997) developed and articulated a model designed to explore the dynamic relationship between organizational factors related to service-learning and actual levels of institutional commitment. Holland charges institutions to formulate and

clearly outline academic priorities, including the role of service as an aspect of mission, and set goals related to their level of commitment in these priorities. A matrix is proposed that links organizational factors to levels of commitment to service as one possible approach to setting institutional goals, assessing current situations, and monitoring progress.

Eyler and Giles (1993) compiled a report that was the product of a 1993 meeting of higher education service-learning pioneers. The work describes the “state of service” at colleges and universities and also establishes an agenda for research and evaluation. A great deal of research on community service-learning during the 1990’s grew out of this work or was guided by it.

With support from the Dean of the Faculty and the President of the Faculty at the Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI), a faculty task force conducted a thorough review of service at their campus (Vessely, et. al., 1996). The task force was charged with the responsibility of examining service as an activity of faculty and librarians. In doing so, the group collected information from peer institutions, consulted with experts, identified definitions of service, surveyed the variety of ways service is interpreted and rewarded by IUPUI academic units, and identified the components necessary to document and measure excellence in service. The task force submitted its findings to the IUPUI faculty council in 1996.

Like the IUPUI faculty task force, Farmer and Schomberg (1994) surveyed faculty and produced a guide for relating public service to the promotion and tenure review process at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. According to usable responses from 328 of 500 University of Illinois faculty, they view public service as

activities using their expertise to address societal needs directly or to help others do so, for the benefit of the public; it is distinct from other types of professional services.

Driscoll and colleagues (1996) developed model for assessing the impact of service-learning on faculty, students, community and institution. The model was developed at Portland State University and blends quantitative and qualitative measures in order to determine the most effective and practical tools to measure service-learning impact and to provide continuous improvement feedback. The Portland State University policies and procedures for the evaluation of faculty for tenure, promotion and merit increases were highlighted as particularly effective in Zlotkowski (1998) and have potential value for institutions with similar agendas for service-learning.

A similar study of the impact of service-learning – particularly the programs and projects funding by the Corporation for National Service Learn and Serve program – was conducted by RAND (Gray, Ondaatje, and Zakaras, 1999). The study included, among other things, a review of four institutional objectives of the Learn and Serve programs.

These objectives were:

1. Expanding service opportunities for students.
2. Integrating service into courses.
3. Strengthening community relations.
4. Promoting program sustainment.

The RAND study concluded that the Learn and Serve program had met three of four institutional objectives, but that it was too early to determine the outcome of the fourth objective (promoting program sustainment). RAND pointed out that, at the end of their study, nearly half the Corporation for National Service sponsored programs lacked the

institutional resources to sustain the service-learning programs beyond federal funding. Furthermore, RAND concluded that key institutional factors regarding the sustainability of service-learning programs included a strong institutional tradition of service, the leadership of key individuals, faculty support of the concept, and the presence of service centers.

Peter Ewell, director of the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, has been a vocal advocate of a "coordinated" system of institutional quality assurance and has made numerous contributions to discussions of management policies and practices. Ewell and Wellman (1997) proposed an assessment model founded on three strategies: (a) direct regulation, (b) incentive systems, and (c) information-driven markets. The authors acknowledge the key roles played by the federal government, the states, institutional accreditors and governing boards, disciplinary and professional organizations, third-party information providers, and the market. Furthermore, Ewell (1998) argued that "active public engagement on the part of all colleges and universities is a requisite for achieving academic high performance" (p. 121). Ewell cited Richardson (1996) in noting that a redirection of higher education's research and service capacities toward public purposes "requires state governments to systematically create markets for specific research and service activity, much as the federal government did for basic research during the three decades after Sputnik, but on a far more local basis" (Ewell, 1998, p. 133). Ultimately, Ewell (1999a) suggests that only institutional performance measures that can be verified by "hard" statistics be used in performance funding approaches, although other forms of assessment (surveys and the use of good practices) may indirectly inform longer-term resource investments.

Peter Ewell (1998) argues that while many management practices are adapted from emerging corporate models that emphasize broad direction setting and decentralization, the manifestation of these policies is sometimes out of step with current corporate practice. For example, Ewell states that too often policies are enacted in order to punish institutional behavior rather than provide positive incentives, regulations are designed to prevent particular incidents from reoccurring, and emphasis is placed on ensuring that lower level decisions are in compliance with detailed regulations and guidelines. He recommends that, when remaking faculty roles and rewards at the institutional level, administrators “accept rational inconsistencies in the ways units or individuals are treated within a broader rubric of clear collective goals and results-oriented standards of achievement” (p. 136).

The National Institute of Standards and Technology (2000) administers the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Program and provide criteria for systems-level assessment of performance management. Education institutions became eligible in 1999 and the criteria reflect validated management practices against which an organization can measure itself. The criteria stress the importance of building clear connections between an institution’s mission and objectives and it’s assessment practices. In responding to the 2000 criteria, colleges and universities are asked how the institution addresses its responsibilities to the public and how it practices good citizenship. More specifically, institutions are asked to identify key practices and measures regarding the impact it has on society.

Faculty activity reports are frequently used to provide quantitative data to assess the effectiveness of institutions and departments. Faculty employed at Mississippi’s

public universities are surveyed to self-report assigned and expected activities. Activities are categorized as instructional, direct instructional support, class preparation, student advisement, research/creative, service, administration, public service, and other.

Department heads subsequently verify this information and the results are reported to the Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning.

The most comprehensive and focused resources reviewed regarding the valuation of professional service activities of faculty were Diamond and Adam's (1995a) The Disciplines Speak: Rewarding the Scholarly, Professional and Creative Work of Faculty, Diamond's (1999) Aligning Faculty Rewards with Institutional Mission, and Lynton's (1995) Making the Case for Professional Service. Each of these publications focus on the need for involvement of institutions and professional associations (i.e., academic disciplines) in the ongoing discussion regarding the revision of faculty roles and reward structures. For instance, Diamond (1999) concludes that an appropriate and effective promotion and tenure system must (a) be aligned with the institution's mission, (b) be sensitive to disciplinary differences, (c) be sensitive to individual differences, (d) include an appropriate, fair and workable assessment program, (e) recognize departmental needs and priorities, and (f) articulate the characteristics of scholarly work.

Although this review provides only a glimpse of available literature regarding theory and practice of institution or departmental assessment strategies related to the valuation of service, its purpose is to reflect the wide variety of options that are available. The next section of the literature review will focus on literature relating to the assessment of individual faculty with respect to the faculty role of service.

Individual Faculty Assessment and Reward Structures

Daniel Layzell (1996) referred to the issue of faculty workload and productivity as “one of the more highly charged and controversial topics pertaining to higher education today” (p. 267). Edwards and Knight (1995) add that the “issue of competence, which is easily tied to user definitions of relevance, represents an extension of government or social control over higher education” (p. 18). Edwards and Knight conclude that current levels of surveillance of higher education by its users and the State may, from a Foucaudian perspective, become the panopticon from which all university learning is surveyed and that ultimately this position may divert attention from moral issues to do with ends, goals and purposes of higher education. There is little doubt that the level of scrutiny of faculty activity and productivity has increased as budgets have decreased. Any discussion of faculty assessment and reward would be incomplete were this political and economic reality unrecognized.

What follows is a review of literature related to how the work of individual faculty members is assessed and rewarded. This section is subdivided into two sections. The first reviews literature related to the assessment and reward of scholarship in general. The second reviews literature related to the assessment and reward of service as a form of scholarship.

Assessment of scholarship.

Just as research seems to have dominated literature regarding the definition of scholarship, the assessment of research productivity seems to dominate literature on the assessment of scholarship. With the proliferation of academic journals and online publishing, the question of how to effectively measure or assess the quality of research

and publication as opposed to simply measuring the quantity becomes more complex. However, since the 1980's, the complexity of the faculty role is being acknowledged by those that study the professoriate. For instance, Braxton and Bayer (1986) found that the measurement of faculty research performance is multidimensional, and no single type of measure can assess the full range of professional role performance. They recommended that a variety of subjective and quantitative measures and weighting systems be used together to minimize bias.

Robert Blackburn was rather prolific on the subject of faculty work during the 1980s and early 1990s. His work was instrumental in drawing attention to the unidimensional assessment of faculty (in favor of research and publication). Blackburn (1986) reviewed research on faculty and psychological and sociological literature on professionals to determine the causes of faculty behavior. Blackburn's review provides a conceptual guide to understanding the complex and multidimensional role of faculty. This work focuses in part on faculty goals, the tripartite division of faculty work functions, and faculty allocation of effort. Blackburn also suggested alternative approaches to understanding how faculty experience their work.

Blackburn collaborated with Bentley (1990) on a study that analyzed data from four national surveys of the American professoriate conducted between 1969 and 1988. The two authors assessed whether groups of institutions might be accumulating advantage relative to others by comparing the research activities across five Carnegie institution types. They concluded that research productivity was being emphasized as a result of accumulative advantage of historically prestigious institutions. In a related study, Blackburn and Bieber (1993) tracked faculty research productivity and publishing

opportunities in Biology, Philosophy and English between 1972-1988. They found that changes in amount of publishing space available and numbers of individuals competing for that space had inflated the relative productivity rate when measured by the numbers of published articles.

Blackburn's later works (1991, 1995, 1996) continued as a meta-assessment of faculty work, but sought a broader understanding of faculty work as it related to functions other than research and publication. For instance, in Faculty at Work, Blackburn and Lawrence drew together empirical evidence on college and university faculty work, developed and tested a theoretical framework of faculty motivation, and suggested how administrative practices can be improved so that faculty work lives are enriched and institutions become more productive organizations. The majority of the book is dedicated to a description of studies conducted to evaluate all facets of faculty work, including publication, teaching, service and scholarship.

Centra also wrote extensively on faculty development, evaluation and productivity. While his early work focused heavily on the research facet of the faculty role, he increasingly broadened the scope of his studies throughout his career (1987a, 1987b, 1989, 1994). For instance, Centra (1986) focuses exclusively on the assessment of faculty research performance. Specifically, Centra sought to understand variations in research performance of faculty based on the common measures: publication counts, citation counts, and peer and colleague ratings. Later, as part of the New Directions for Teaching and Learning series, Centra (1987b) discussed six evaluation methods including student ratings, colleague evaluations, definitions of good teaching, teacher-designed examinations, evaluation of research and scholarship, and the politics of evaluation.

Centra and colleagues (1987a) developed a practical guide that discusses what should be evaluated to assess teaching effectiveness. Sources of information are discussed and various data collection techniques are described. Examples are provided, along with the advantages and limitations of the various approaches. Centra (1994) built upon from his previous work on determining faculty effectiveness, and added a section on teaching portfolios, self-reporting, and the role of colleagues and chairs in evaluating teaching.

The assessment of scholarship is perhaps most readily done through the award of tenure and promotion. Whicker, Kronenfeld and Strickland (1993) indirectly describe the assessment of scholarship in Getting Tenure. The authors outline the steps in the traditional tenure and promotion process and include major emphasis on the politics of promotion and tenure. The focus is primarily on how to meet the research criterion, which is described as the most difficult for many candidates. Getting Tenure also provides rationale for the importance of being involved in publishing and collaborative projects. There are separate chapters on how to meet the teaching and service criterion for tenure. Tierney and Rhoads (1994) discuss the tenure and promotion process as a socialization process that begins at the undergraduate level and continues as new faculty face organizational challenges. Tierney and Rhoads recognize that tenure and promotion processes are shaped by social interactions that are themselves shaped by cultural forces within the academic profession, disciplines, institutions and individuals. Although the authors are not specifically discussing the assessment of scholarship, the implication of their hypotheses is that faculty members must be able to adapt to academic cultural forces and social interactions in order to be successful scholars.

Arreola (1995) developed a practical handbook of protocols, worksheets and assessment instruments that can be used in developing a faculty evaluation system. Arreola also includes a number of case studies and proposes a formula for determining merit pay.

Braskamp and Ory (1994) described the expanding role of faculty assessment and the limitations of present methods and discusses how assessment can be used to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Their work illustrates a trend during the mid-1990s toward redirecting discussions of scholarship toward faculty teaching or non-research responsibilities (Boyer, 1990; Rice 1996; and Shulman, 1999). Braskamp and Ory begin with a discussion of the nature of scholarship and conclude with sections on relating institutional expectations to assessment.

Diamond and Adam (1993) stress the importance of relating institutional expectations and purpose to assessment strategies. Diamond and Adam developed a model reward system that related faculty compensation and recognition to institutional priorities that are enacted at the departmental level. The authors included several case studies, advocate the use of professional portfolios and discuss intrinsic rewards of faculty work.

James Fairweather wrote extensively on faculty assessment and reward structures during the 1990s. The 1987-1988 National Survey of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF) provided data regarding more than 4,000 full-time tenure-track faculty at four-year colleges and universities. Fairweather analyzed this data and concluded that “all types of colleges use...faculty salaries to reinforce norms supporting research and scholarship, not teaching”...and that “teaching activity and productivity are at best neutral factors in pay,

at worst negative predictors of pay” (Fairweather, 1993b, p. 44). Fairweather’s analysis of this and other national data regarding the relationship between faculty activities and compensation appears in several publications (1992, 1993a, 1993b, 1994). Not surprisingly, he concludes that research productivity is the dominant factor in determining salaries regardless of institution type, mission or discipline. Finally, Fairweather (1996) examines the compatibility between faculty reward structures and research, teaching and service.

The National Education Association (NEA) and the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) published statements in about the assessment of scholarship and faculty reward structures. In September 2000 the National Education Association adopted a statement that called for higher education institutions to review their missions and reexamine faculty reward structures to create diversity with dignity (a concept borrowed from Ernest Boyer) in American postsecondary education institutions. In publishing this statement the NEA attempted to promote serious dialogue about changing faculty reward structures and responded to criticisms against faculty by challenging the notion that faculty do not work hard enough and that faculty do not value teaching (see Appendix F). The AAUP (1994) produced a report that directed attention to the total faculty workload rather than classroom hours and sought to broaden the definition of scholarship and give legitimacy to activities that faculty often engage in but are not rewarded for via the traditional reward structures. The timing of the NEA and AAUP statements is indicative of a growing number of academicians who would like to see the definition and assessment of scholarship broadened to include the full scope of faculty activities.

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Assessment of service.

Until recently, there has been relatively little literature on the assessment of faculty service. Elman and Smock (1985) address the issues related to recognizing professional service in the faculty reward system. A rationale is provided for including professional service as part of the reward structure and the authors describe the range of activities that qualify as professional service.

Earnest Lynton was an early advocate for paying more attention to the service role of institutions and individuals. While arguing that a reexamination of the purpose of universities was necessary, Lynton (1983) remarked on demographic changes in students and faculty, the need for more effective ways to disseminate knowledge and technology to the public, and stronger curricular connections between theory and practice. Later, Lynton focused attention on professional service. In Making the Case for Professional Service (1995), Lynton provided a comprehensive treatment of the subject, defines professional service, provides case studies in five disciplines, and concludes with an action agenda and notes the need for better assessment techniques. Lynton collaborated with Amy Driscoll and published Making Outreach Visible (1999), which emphasizes the need for peer review of professional service and offers sixteen prototype service/outreach portfolios as examples. Both publications make pragmatic suggestions for the assessment and documentation of professional service and forcefully advocate that service have a more prominent role in reward structures.

Robert Diamond is another important figure and prolific author concerning the assessment and evaluation of service. Diamond (1994, 1995b) has authored two publications that serve as guides to faculty and administrators regarding the (a) serving

on tenure and promotion committees and (b) preparing for tenure and promotion review. Both guides demonstrate an inclusive approach to reviewing faculty activity, outline problem cases and provide committees with procedural recommendations designed to make the process equitable and easy for the candidate and committee respectively. While Diamond's guides cover a wide spectrum of potential faculty activities, they are distinctive because of the amount of attention paid to documenting and reviewing service activities as a discreet element of the tenure and promotion process.

Diamond and Adam (1995a) edited a publication that consisted of a series of statements from a variety of disciplines regarding reward systems. Diamond and Adam emphasize the disciplinary perspective and include statements from humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, arts and professional programs. Diamond's most recent work, Aligning Faculty Rewards with Institutional Mission: Statements, Policies, and Guidelines, forcefully advocates that institutions align their priorities with reward structures and that related policies, procedures and expectations be clearly articulated. Diamond also provides several examples and models from a variety of types of institutions.

Glassick, Huber and Maeroff's Scholarship Assessed is considered a follow up to Ernest Boyer's Scholarship Reconsidered (1990). In doing so, Glassick, Huber and Maeroff (1997) state that it is "one thing to give scholarship larger meaning, but the real issue revolves around how to assess other forms of scholarship" (p. 21). They recognize that while activities that count as public service may be identified in faculty handbooks, there is rarely any guidance regarding how to define and assess the quality of work in this area. When discussing the standards of scholarship Glassick, Huber and Maeroff cite the

current practice of evaluating the various forms of faculty activity (teaching, research, and service) as each having their own special yardstick. Creative and research work is typically evaluated using a disciplinary yardstick, teaching is evaluated using an institutional yardstick, and currently there are no consistent standards used in evaluating service across projects, professions or institutions. Rather than continue this practice, the authors encourage scholars and administrators to focus on six shared themes that form a common process of scholarship. These themes include (a) shared goals, (b) adequate preparation, (c) appropriate methods, (d) significant results, (e) effective presentation and (f) reflective critique (p. 25). The authors discuss the need to trust the process of scholarship, the qualities of scholars, and effective means of documenting scholarship. Scholarship Assessed also includes the results of the 1994 National Survey on the Reexamination of Faculty Roles and Rewards, which demonstrate a receptiveness among chief academic officers to broadening assessment and reward structures to include the full range of activities generally expected of faculty.

A final significant benchmark in the assessment of service is the recent creation of a National Review Board for the Scholarship of Engagement. The National Review Board is supported by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation and serves to review and evaluate the scholarship of engagement of faculty “who are preparing for annual review, promotion and tenure” (“The National Review Board,” 2000, p. 22). The board is comprised of individuals from in a variety of disciplines, and all are considered leaders in the “institutionalization of community engagement, service-learning, and professional service” (p. 22). The creation of the National Review Board and its availability to

faculty and institutions is considered a much-needed and important step toward improving and standardizing the assessment of service.

Conclusion

Boyer (1990) wrote that “colleges and universities have recently rejected service as serious scholarship, partly because its meaning is so vague and often disconnected from serious intellectual work.” Daniel Layzell (1996) reviewed faculty workload studies from across the country and reached the following conclusion: “the methods have numerous drawbacks, namely, the inability to account for such intangible aspects of productivity as the quality of output” (p. 277). This leads to a frustrating catch-22. Currently, service is a highly qualitative concept – at least more so than teaching and research. If the current method of gauging faculty and institutional productivity favors a quantitative approach, it stands to reason that activities that can be easily defined will be more highly valued. A review of literature confirms two suspicions. First, there is little clarity or consensus regarding the meaning of service as a scholarly endeavor. Second, much work remains in developing assessment and reward structures that adequately recognize professional service provided by faculty.

If we trust Clark Kerr’s assessment that the production of new knowledge by research universities is the “most powerful single element in our culture, affecting the rise and fall of professions and even social classes, of regions and even of nations” (Kerr, 1995, p. xiv), we would expect the services provided by education faculty to be among the most transformative.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This descriptive study took place in two phases and employed both qualitative and quantitative methods. This approach recognizes the complexity and depth of the meaning of service within the framework of scholarly endeavors. This strategy also recognizes that qualitative and quantitative techniques can often be employed most effectively in tandem.

The qualitative phase of this investigation involved a variety of research traditions as described by Borg and Gall (1996, p. 593), including emancipatory action research, ethnomethodology, ethnographic content analysis, phenomenological epistemology, and hermeneutics. The quantitative phase of this investigation made use of descriptive and relational approaches.

Subjects

The population that was studied included individuals holding full-time faculty positions in schools, departments or colleges of education at Mississippi public four-year universities. Two sets of subjects participated in this investigation. The first (qualitative) phase included a small set of subjects from each campus. The second (quantitative) phase included the entire accessible population.

Qualitative phase. During the initial qualitative phase, a criterion sample was selected, with the selection criteria being employed to ensure that the following two distinct types of faculty (cases) were included in the focus groups at each institution:

- experienced faculty and/or faculty with tenure; and

- newly hired faculty (less than seven years of experience) and/or faculty without tenure.

Between two and seven faculty members from each campus participated in the focus group sessions. An equal number of tenured faculty and non-tenured faculty participated in the focus group interviews.

Quantitative phase. During the quantitative phase, surveys were made available online and subsequently mailed to the entire accessible population as described above. This population consists of 288 full-time faculty of education at public universities in Mississippi. Additional demographic data such as gender, years of experience, and other characteristics was collected. The survey was first made available online to reduce postage costs and potentially increase the response rate.

Instruments

Two instruments were used during this investigation. The first instrument was used during the qualitative (focus group) phase, and the second instrument was administered during the quantitative (survey) phase.

Focus group session overview. An interview guide was constructed based on a review of relevant literature and with the help of a variety of peers. The purpose of the instrument was to delineate a framework of scholarship and service without providing explicit definitions for the constructs being studied, and to generate discussion concerning the meaning of service as a faculty role. The focus group questions were designed to provide insight into several research questions, including the determination of differences in attitudes based on tenure and type of institution, and whether faculty view service in ways that correspond to typologies developed by Driscoll and Lynton (1999).

The focus group session followed a semi-structured general interview guide approach. The Focus Group Session Overview is provided (see Appendix G).

Survey instrument. The questionnaire asked faculty to provide demographic information, estimate the amount of time spent in various activities, provide examples of service, and a variety of attitudes and perceptions. The content of the survey was in part determined by the results of the focus group interviews and from the various sources described within the procedure section (i.e., existing surveys relating to the role of faculty, service as scholarship, etc.). An expert panel was asked to give feedback on the instrument's content validity, and the instrument was piloted before general administration.

Procedure

This study took place in two major phases. The first phase was a qualitative examination of the meaning of service through focus group interviews and content analysis of relevant promotion and tenure policies. The second phase was a quantitative examination of the attitudes, perceptions and self-reported faculty activity through a survey.

Qualitative phase. The goal of the first phase was to develop a construct of how service is defined by faculty of education at Mississippi's public four-year institutions. This construct was compared to national literature that defines service and was used in developing the subsequent quantitative phase of the study. Focus group interviews with faculty members provided a means for investigating how individuals define service in a scholarly context. The focus group sessions elicited numerous examples of what activities faculty regarded as service. Several of the examples are listed in Chapter Four.

As mentioned earlier, criterion sampling was employed to ensure that tenured and non-tenured faculty from each institution participated. The deans of the education units assisted in the selection of the focus group participants.

The focus group interview questions were open-ended and concentrated on how faculty members define service through their actions. The interview format followed the semi-structured general interview guide approach. The approach and questions were piloted in an interview with a small group of doctoral students and higher education administrators working at the state college board office. The focus group session overview contains the structure and composition of the sessions (see Appendix G).

During the qualitative phase the principal investigator conducted an independent content analysis of tenure and promotion materials. Published literature (i.e., institutional and departmental catalogs and mission statements) was analyzed to determine how service is explicitly defined within schools, departments, divisions and colleges of education, and institutional level at the various public four-year universities in Mississippi. The Office of Academic Affairs at the Mississippi Board of Trustees of State Institutions provided information relating to institution-specific mission statements and promotion and tenure policies. The deans of each of the education units provided documents related to departmental missions and policies concerning promotion and tenure.

The author used the matrix outlined in Table 1, which was modified and adapted from Barbara Holland (1997), to analyze and assign each institution a service-related relevance rating based on its mission statement and tenure and promotion materials. Although Holland's developed the matrix to assess the level of integration of service-

learning within an institution, the instrument has been modified to assess the relevance of a more general concept of faculty service with mission statements and promotion and tenure materials.

Table 1

Classification Criteria for Analysis of Mission Statement and Promotion and Tenure

Materials

Classification	Criteria
Level One Low Relevance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service is not operationally defined. • Service referred to solely in terms of work on committees or with disciplinary associations. • Service priorities are not identified. • Guidelines for documenting service activities are not provided. • No explicit service-related performance benchmarks or definitions.
Level Two Medium Relevance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service is only vaguely operationally defined. • Service may count in certain cases. • Service priorities are vaguely or indirectly identified; perhaps at the institutional level but not at the departmental level. • Broad guidelines for documenting service activities are provided. • Vague service performance benchmarks and definitions.
Level Three High Relevance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal guidelines for documenting and rewarding service. • Faculty service is explicitly defined and/or mentioned in mission statement and promotion and tenure materials. • Service priorities are identified for the institution and/or the department. • Guidelines for documenting service activities are clear. • Specific service-related performance benchmarks are provided.
Level Four Full Integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal guidelines for documenting and rewarding service. • Faculty service is explicitly defined and/or mentioned in mission statement and promotion and tenure materials. • Service-related performance benchmarks are clear for department and service is a key criterion for hiring and faculty rewards. • Service priorities are identified for both the institution and the department.

Table 2 summarizes the procedures and goals of the qualitative phase of this investigation.

Table 2

Summary of Qualitative Procedures and Goals

Qualitative Subject Matter	Data Collection Method	Goal
Tenured/Non-tenured Faculty	Focus Group Interviews	Determine how individual faculty define and value service as scholarship
Published Literature	Content Analysis by Principle Investigator	Determine how institutions and departments define service

Quantitative phase. The second phase of the study built upon the meaning constructed during the focus group interviews and content analyses of relevant tenure and promotion materials. One section of the survey was developed based on the constructs derived from the first (qualitative) phase of the investigation. In addition to the questions generated from the focus group interviews, the survey incorporated questions from the following Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching surveys:

- International Survey of Academic Profession (1991-93), and;
- National Survey of Faculty (1989), and;
- Survey on the Reexamination of Faculty Roles and Rewards (1994).

Finally, the survey questions were formulated from a review of current literature on the subject matter, including the Presidents' Fourth of July Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education (see Appendix A).

Prior to conducting the survey, a database of full-time education faculty was developed using departmental Internet sites and the faculty directories for each education

unit. The author subsequently faxed each of the deans a listing of faculty employed at their institution derived from the database. Deans were asked to verify the accuracy of the database and provide E-mail and postal addresses for individual faculty.

The Survey of Education Faculty at Mississippi Public Universities (see Appendix H) was created in Microsoft Word and converted to an Internet form. The document was then posted on the Internet at www.campuslink.net/facultysurvey.htm. The survey was piloted by members of the author's dissertation committee and other professional colleagues. The author incorporated several minor changes into the final survey form, which was then posted on the Internet at www.campuslink.net/study/survey1.htm. The final Internet and paper forms of the survey were revised based on feedback from the pilot groups.

Once the final version of the survey was complete, all full-time faculty of education at Mississippi's public four-year institutions were E-mailed a request to complete and submit the informed consent form and survey online. An E-mail reminder was sent to those who had not completed the survey within two weeks. Faculty that failed to respond within two weeks of receiving a first reminder were mailed a hard copy of the survey via regular postal delivery. When completing the survey, faculty members were asked to provide identifying information for the purpose of determining who had responded to the survey. However, the names of respondents were immediately separated from survey responses to ensure anonymity. Once an appropriate return rate had been achieved, the data was entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and subsequently imported into SPSS for analysis.

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Data Analysis

Specific data analysis procedures (i.e., the type of variables and how the data was loaded into SPSS software) were determined after the survey instrument had been fully developed (i.e., after the focus group interviews) and are described below.

Qualitative data analysis. The interviews were recorded and transcribed in order to perform content analysis. When analyzing qualitative data, special attention was paid to determining if variance existed in how service was defined between criterion variables (i.e., between tenured and non-tenured faculty and between types of institutions). A classification system was established to categorize responses. Peers assisted by crosschecking this classification system. The classification system that ultimately evolved was compared to typologies created by other researchers, and was used in developing the second, more quantitative phase of the investigation. Examples of service activities provided within the survey document were also categorized to test how well the responses fit the typologies.

Mission statements and tenure and promotion documents were identified as relevant documents and were examined with respect to the various research questions. A coding procedure was developed using guidelines for the development of mission statements and policies prepared by Robert Diamond (1999). The coding procedure and matrix were also influenced by the work of Barbara Holland (1997).

Quantitative data analysis. Data collected using the survey served several purposes and was analyzed several different ways. The first section of the survey asked faculty to self-report a variety of demographic data.

The second section of the survey asked faculty to provide information concerning their professional activity and give examples of professional service activities. Using the demographic data provided in section one, professional activity was plotted and graphically analyzed using gender, institution, academic rank and tenure status as independent variables. As mentioned earlier, the examples of service activities provided within the survey document were categorized to test how well the responses fit typologies created by Lynton (1995) and by the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

The third and final section of the survey asked faculty to describe their attitude toward service and perceptions of relative value of service at their institution. Responses to questions in this section were based on a Likert scale and therefore produced descriptive ordinal data. Frequencies were plotted graphically and statistically analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis test for independent sample. The Kruskal-Wallis test provides a nonparametric one-way analysis of variance and takes advantage of the ordinal nature of the data when more than two groups of subjects are involved. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to analyze responses by institution, academic rank and tenure status.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyze data if the grouping variable was dichotomous. The Mann-Whitney U test was employed when analyzing responses by gender, institution size, and when comparing responses from historically black universities to historically white institutions.

Relationship between qualitative and quantitative data. As a final step in analyzing the data, the author investigated potential relationships between the qualitative and quantitative data (i.e., the relationship between content analysis, focus group interview responses, and the survey data). Specifically, the assigned relevance level of

mission statements and tenure and promotion documents was compared to the responses concerning perceptions and attitudes and professional activity.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of focus group sessions, analysis of institutional documents, and descriptive statistics derived from the survey of full-time education faculty. The survey response rate and demographic information is provided, then the results for each research question are presented in the order they were identified in chapter three.

Survey Response Rate and Demographic Information

The overall survey response rate was 45 percent; of the 288 full-time education faculty, 131 responded. The response rate for individual institutions was calculated by dividing the number of responses by the total number of full-time faculty employed at each respective institution. The rates are provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Survey Response Rate by Institution

Institution	Response Rate (percent)
Alcorn State University	36.4
Delta State University	47.1
Jackson State University	33.8
Mississippi State University	33.3
Mississippi University for Women	40.0
Mississippi Valley State University	55.6
University of Mississippi	46.3
University of Southern Mississippi`	53.1

Of the survey respondents, 59 percent were male and 41 percent were female. Within the Mississippi public university system 63 percent of faculty are male and 37 percent female (Mississippi State Institutions of Higher Learning, 1999). No information is known about the gender composition of education faculty. The average age of survey respondents was 50.2, and 63 percent of faculty reported having been employed at their current institution for less than 11 years.

Tenured faculty members were more likely to respond to the survey. Interestingly, 53 percent of respondents were tenured, 47 percent were not tenured (5 percent of the non-tenured faculty were not in tenure-track positions). However, data provided by the state college board describe the education faculty at Mississippi's universities as being 48 percent tenured, and 52 percent non-tenured (11 percent of the non-tenured faculty are not in a tenure-track position). Tenured faculty constitute 35 percent of the faculty in Mississippi's university system (Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning, 1999).

Research Question One: Relationship Between Faculty Definitions and Institutional Operational Definition

Faculty definitions of service were collected during focus group interviews. Definitions provided in institutional mission statements, faculty handbooks and departmental tenure and promotion documents were also reviewed and analyzed. The comprehensive compilation of the definitions within these documents is provided (see Appendix I). The following is a summary description of the connections that were found between institutional definitions and faculty definitions. After review and analysis of

interview transcripts and the institutional documents the relationships were classified as strong, moderate, or weak.

The most notable connection between the definitions provided by Alcorn State University faculty and that institution's documented definitions was the focus on the act of providing services that improve living and learning conditions. The institutional definition explicitly allows for the provision of service within the institution, whereas the faculty definitions concentrated on the provision of services to external recipients and did not explicitly make reference to acts of internal service. Generally, the relationship between faculty responses and the institution's documented definitions appears to be strong.

At Delta State University, one faculty member chose to define service as “a demonstration of the values and the standards that drive your professionalism.” This concentration on the profession closely mirrors Delta State University's definition, wherein two of the three elements are concerned with the “academic profession” or the “faculty member's academic discipline.” The definition provided by the second Delta State University faculty was “a willingness and a desire to share your knowledge” is also indirectly connected to the discipline. There seems to be a strong relationship between the definitions provided by faculty and the definitions within institutional documents. The common element seems to be a focus on professionalism, or the connection between discipline and service.

The faculty interviewed at Jackson State University generally agreed that service could be defined as “activities where you utilize your professional expertise outside of class and outside of investigative research...to benefit any other outside group.” The

only distinction made by the second faculty member was that service should be uncompensated. The official Jackson State University definition is articulated as “academic citizenship,” and is focused more inward toward the institution (i.e., committee work, advising students, and participating in professional associations). The connection between institutional documents and faculty responses appears to be weak.

Of the two definitions given by Mississippi State University faculty, both focused on improving the lives or condition of children. One faculty member defined service as a commitment. Specifically, service was articulated as a “commitment to our students and to future students, our immediate community at the university and of course the community at large.” Interestingly, one faculty member stated, nearly verbatim, the target populations for service articulated in the documents as “the institution, the community, and the state or nation.” The relationship between these two faculty members’ definitions and the definition provided in Mississippi State University documents is strong.

Like Jackson State University, the Mississippi University for Women institutional definition of service is primarily concerned with institutional improvement. Service is considered “contributions to total university development and growth,” participation in and performance on administrative assignments, and assisting in improving student life. The definition given during the focus group interview was rather succinct and moderately related to the documented version: “service is using one’s leadership to help others.” Although both versions convey a sense of needing to help improve lives, the definition given by faculty fails to capture the “academic citizenship” element provided in the institution’s definition.

The relationship between definitions provided by Mississippi Valley State University faculty members and those within institutional documents was weak. Unfortunately, the focus group participants were asked to provide a definition immediately after a discussion of whether or not service should be compensated and both faculty definitions provided little more than an affirmation of their respective view on this issue. For instance, one faculty member responded, “service is everything you do outside your salaried job.” The institutional definition was the “provision of valuable professional and material resources to the community ranging from the individual involvement of faculty and staff to structured programs in continuing education, social awareness, and recreation.” The inclusion of staff as providers of service is somewhat unique.

Both University of Mississippi faculty members gave succinct definitions of service. The first stated that service is “giving time, energy, and expertise.” The second added that service included “anything that is not teaching and research.” The definitions provided within University of Mississippi documents starkly contrast these definitions by being both long and specific. The relationship between these definitions is classified as weak, based on the ambiguity of the definitions provided by faculty and the specificity of the institutional definitions.

There were numerous definitions of service provided by faculty members at the University of Southern Mississippi. One faculty member defined service as an intention to provide. A second faculty member stated that it is “sharing professional knowledge and expertise above and beyond your actual job description...service [is] just a sort of add-on.” A third faculty member defined service as “the things that you want to do that

are a benefit to the people in addition to you – that they meet needs in some fashion or another.” The relationship between some faculty definitions and the institution’s definition (such as the third cited here) was strong, while other relationships were relatively weak. Therefore, due to the wide range of definitions given by focus group participants, the relationship between definitions provided by faculty and documented definitions will be classified as moderate. The University of Southern Mississippi specifically addressed the issue of compensation for service. Compensation surfaced as an issue in nearly every focus group session. The University of Southern Mississippi allows for service to be “nominally priced or gratuitous” and is the only institution to specifically address this issue. Table 4 summarizes the findings regarding the relationship between faculty member definitions of service and institutional documents.

Table 4

Summary of Findings from the Analysis of Faculty Definitions of Service and Institutional Definitions of Service

Institution	Relationship between faculty definitions and institutional definitions
Alcorn State University	Strong
Delta State University	Strong
Jackson State University	Weak
Mississippi State University	Strong
Mississippi University for Women	Moderate
Mississippi Valley State University	Weak
University of Mississippi	Weak
University of Southern Mississippi	Moderate

Research Question Two: Consistency with Service Typologies

Faculty were asked to provide examples of service activities that they had engaged in within the past year during focus group interviews and when completing the survey. Both sets of examples were categorized using typologies created by Ernest Lynton and the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Respondents were asked to restrict examples to activities that they would be willing to include on tenure or promotion portfolios.

Examples given in focus group interviews. Fifty-four distinct examples were given and are provided (see Appendix J). Each example of a service activity was categorized according to two existing typologies. The results are presented graphically in Figure 3.

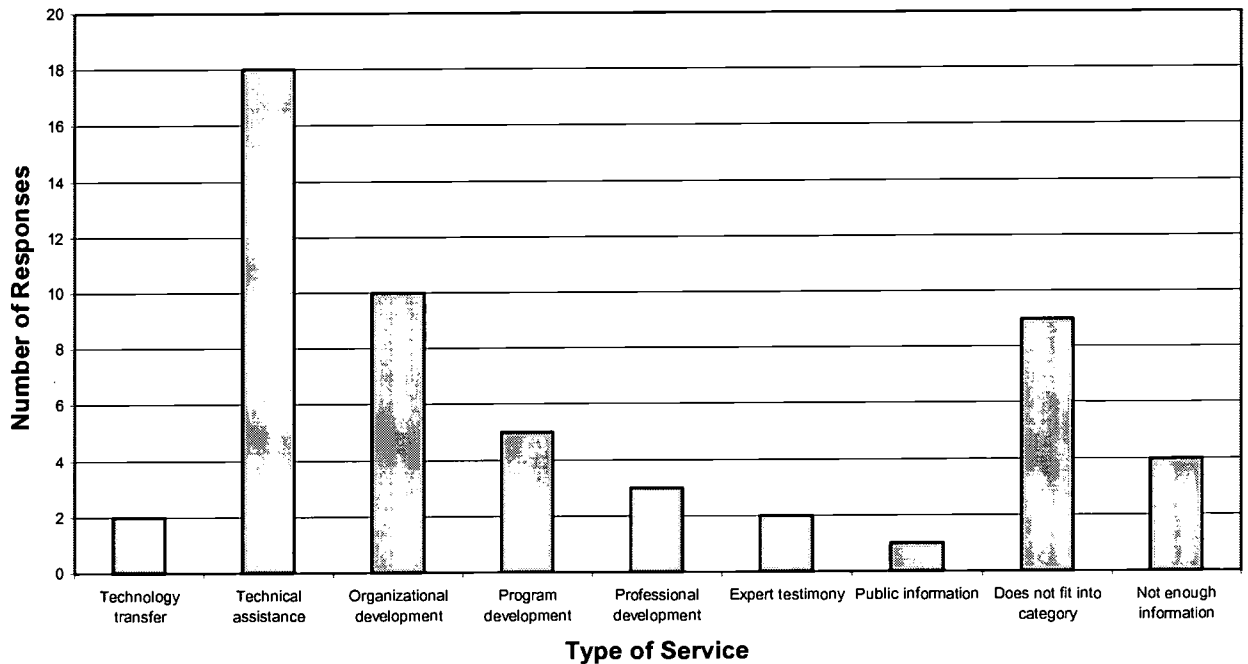


Figure 3. Examples of service activities provided during focus group sessions and classified using the typology developed by Ernest Lynton.

One-third (33 percent) of the examples given during the focus groups were classified as technical assistance. More than half of the responses (52 percent) were classified as either technical assistance or organizational development activities. Nine responses (17 percent) did not fit exclusively into a category, and four responses (7 percent) did not provide enough information to make a classification. Lynton’s categories of “policy analysis,” “program evaluation,” and “community development” were not employed when categorizing these examples.

The examples of service activities provided were classified using the typology employed at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. This categorization produced similar results (see Figure 4).

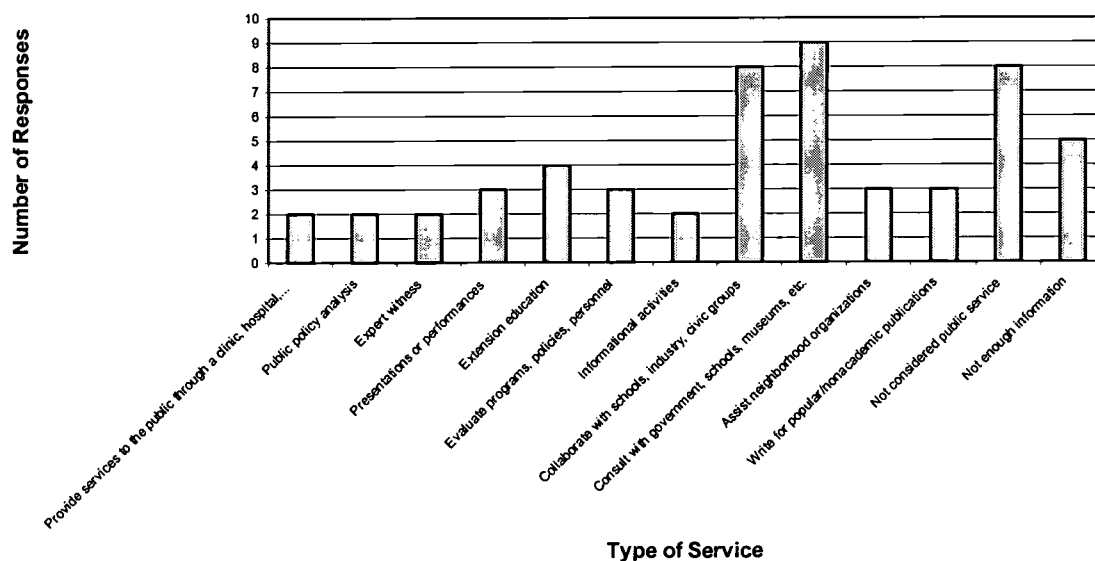


Figure 4. Examples of service activities provided during focus group sessions and classified using the typology developed by the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Nearly one-third (33 percent) of the examples provided were classified as either consulting with or collaborating with public organizations, civic agencies, or individuals. Eight responses (15 percent) were not considered public service activities within the University of Illinois at Champaign-Urbana framework. There were no examples given that fit into the following eight categories: make research understandable, test concepts/processes, applied research, governmental meetings, economic/community development, legislative testimony, study specific problem(s), and serve as expert for media.

Results from examples given in surveys. Survey respondents were also asked to provide an example of a professional service activity that they had engaged in within the past year. The examples were compiled and categorized using two existing typologies. Responses were categorized according to the typology created by Ernest Lynton and are reported in figure 5.

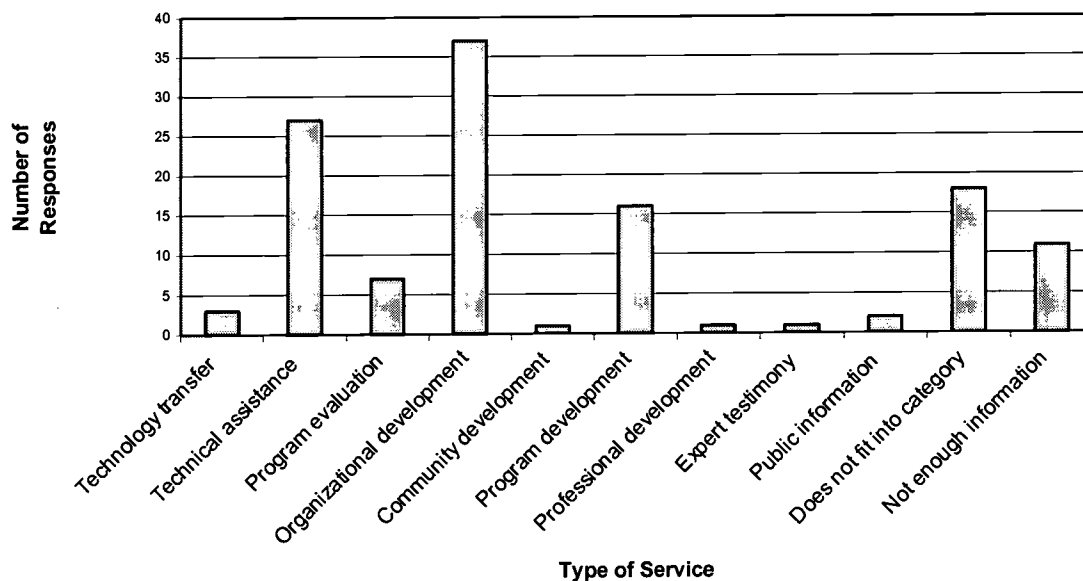


Figure 5. Examples of service activities provided in survey responses and classified using the typology developed by Ernest Lynton.

At least one example was given for each category, with the exception of policy analysis (this category was therefore not included in the graph). The most common example given was organizational development or technical assistance. These two categories represent more than half (52 percent) of the responses. Roughly one quarter (23 percent) of the responses were not categorized. These responses could not be categorized either because not enough information was known about the specific activity, or the activity did not fit into one of the categories.

Figure 6 illustrates the same examples of service activities categorized using the typology from the University of Illinois – Urbana Champaign.

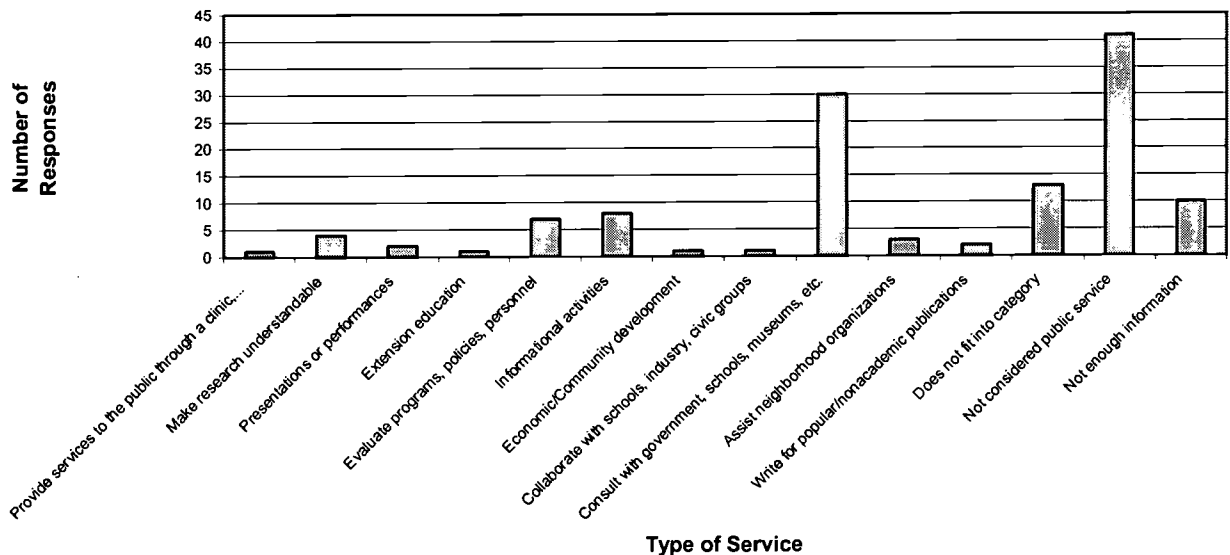


Figure 6. Examples of service activities provided in survey responses and classified using the typology developed by the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Significantly, a third (33 percent) of the responses would not be considered public service if using the University of Illinois at Champaign-Urbana guidelines. The most

common example given was the provision of consulting services to government, schools, museums and other public organizations.

No examples were given that fit exclusively into the following categories: test concepts and processes, expert witness, applied research, governmental meetings, legislative testimony, study specific problem(s), and serve as expert for media. Two things are worth noting with respect to these categories. First, several of the categories are too vague for examples to fit exclusively (i.e., “study specific problems”). Second, the use of these typologies demands a significant amount of subjectivity and, in many cases, assumptions regarding the nature and purpose of the activities listed.

Research Question Three: Faculty Attitudes and Tenure Status, Rank, Gender, and Institution

Chi-squared analysis of survey responses provides information about the general level of agreement or disagreement about various questions regarding faculty attitudes. Responses were compiled into two categories (agree and disagree) and a chi-squared analysis was conducted to determine whether differences were significant. Specifically, this test was used to determine whether opinions varied significantly. For questions on which significant differences of opinion were not found, differences between the proportion agreeing and disagreeing were not sufficiently great to rule out the possibility that the relatively small differences noted were due to chance. The results of the chi-squared analysis are provided in Table 5.

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Table 5

Results of Chi-Squared Analysis of Survey Questions Related to Faculty Attitudes

Question	Asymptotic Significance
For me, service activity beyond the institution is a distraction and competes with essential academic work.	.000***
Teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for promotion of faculty.	.000***
At my institution publications used for tenure and promotion are just counted, not qualitatively measured.	.061
At my institution we need better ways, besides publications, to evaluate scholarly performance of the faculty.	.000***
The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at my university.	.581

The first statement in Table 5 is used as the primary gauge of faculty attitudes in this study. The variance in responses to each of the statement in Table 5 is shown graphically (see Figure 7).

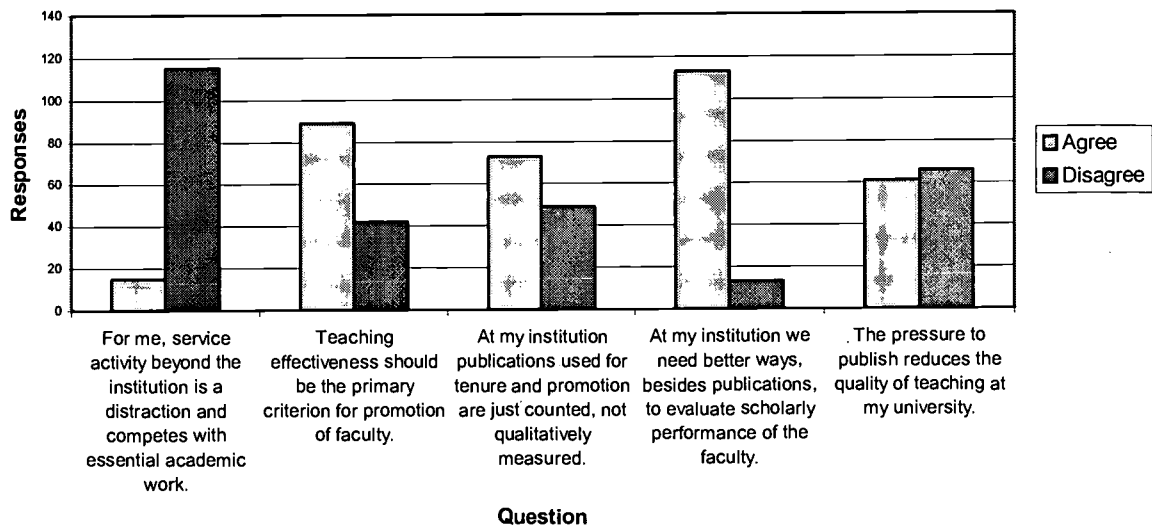


Figure 7. Variation in survey responses to questions related to faculty attitudes.

Focus group results. Several preliminary comments are warranted prior to describing the results of the focus group sessions. These comments apply to all subsequent discussions related to the qualitative component of this investigation. First, the primary purpose of the focus groups was to provide anecdotal and personal observations about perceptions, attitudes and definitions of professional service. No attempt is made to form general conclusions from the focus group responses. However, the focus groups provide some interesting insights into faculty attitudes and perceptions of professional service.

Second, the small size of the focus groups limits the ability to report observations based on tenure, rank, gender and institution. With the exception of the University of Southern Mississippi, the focus groups consisted of two faculty members: one tenured and one non-tenured. Therefore, it would be a potential breach of confidentiality to link a particular response to a specific institution and tenure status. Therefore, observations and data from focus group sessions will be reported exclusively by institution-type. Alcorn State University, Delta State University, Jackson State University, Mississippi University for Women, and Mississippi University for Women have full-time equivalent enrollments of less than 10,000 students and were categorized as small institutions. Mississippi State University, University of Mississippi, and University of Southern Mississippi have full-time equivalent enrollments equal to or greater than 10,000 students and were categorized as large institutions.

Third, academic rank and gender were not considered when analyzing the focus group sessions. A preliminary analysis of the responses revealed little if any discernable differences based on gender. Although a more formal analysis by persons more qualified

to analyze gender and rhetoric might provide some additional insights, such analysis is beyond the scope of this investigation. Also, no attempt was made to discover the ranks of various participants during focus group interviews. It is doubtful that an analysis of responses based on academic rank would provide significantly more information than an analysis of the responses based on tenure status.

Finally, what follows is essentially a summary of several major issues that were identified as recurring within the focus groups. Specific comments are provided to illustrate a particular issue, not as proofs of the generality of a particular attitude or perception.

Some interesting attitudes surfaced concerning compensation and professional service. A tenured faculty member at a small institution juxtaposed intent and compensation as a factor when defining service, stating that “I am not [doing service] just for the money, I am doing service because I truly want to see an improvement in the schools and in education in the State.” A non-tenured faculty at a small institution stated that service was work that was “above and beyond the call of duty...to me, service is not paid.” This position was disputed by the tenured colleague, who stated that service “is part of the total package, part of your responsibilities.” A non-tenured faculty member from a large institution, when asked whether faculty might receive compensation for service activities, responded “Absolutely! It is time, it is energy, and it is giving of expertise whether it is paid or not.”

Other attitudes expressed the relative worth of service. For instance, faculty at small institutions made several comments that revealed the attitude or opinion that service was more important or more valued at their particular institution than at larger

institutions. For instance, a non-tenured faculty member at a small institution stated, “At the larger institutions that are research oriented, they probably wouldn’t spend a lot of time to hash out what service things are because research is what drives their budget.” A similar attitude was expressed by a faculty member from a small institution that purposefully connected the value of service at the institution to the needs of the region: “I think it is real important, personally, to understand that [this institution] lies in the middle of a very rural area. We don’t have the opportunities that many of the other schools in Mississippi have.” This non-tenured faculty member went on to state that the administration was very supportive of service efforts and that “we feel pretty good about the fact that they place value on service.” A non-tenured faculty member from a large institution somewhat confirmed the suspicions of the faculty member from a smaller institution when stating, “I think we get criticized for being an ivory tower – isolated from the real world – and so I think service can be the bridge to bring us to the real world...I think that it should be counted as a more valuable component.” This person went on to state, “Service can feed the research and teaching because service is giving outside the usual classroom realm or the sitting at your desk working on you computer. To me, I get ideas and I get rejuvenated by being in the outside world and seeing what my topic, which is science and math education, why it is important in the real world – so I do bring that back to my teaching and research.” What is significant in this person’s reflection is the juxtaposition of the real (outside the university) world with the implicitly unreal (the teaching and research inside the university).

Attitudes were also voiced in terms of the evaluation of service activities. A non-tenured faculty member from a small institution stated that “it would be nice if there was

some peer review for this service and other kinds of stuff, but institutions don't have the human resources for peer review of all faculty." At one of the large institutions, a tenured faculty member made the point that of the three rating systems (teaching, research and service), "service is the easiest to get high marks in...because the definitions are so broad in general. Anything that isn't teaching or research is service." Some faculty members were openly against the idea of peer evaluation of service activities. For instance, a non-tenured faculty member at a small institution stated, "I personally have a problem with peer evaluations...I'm not saying it needs to be discarded, but I think it needs to be viewed in the proper context, and maybe, in a lot of cases, not hold much weight."

Another topic that was commonly discussed was the articulation of service expectations. A non-tenured faculty member from a small institution stated that service expectations "are pretty clear for us as a faculty because the greatest percent of our time is teaching and service, and not research." This faculty member later stated, "We know exactly what we need to do under each area in order to get promoted." A tenured faculty member from a large institution stated that service expectations were learned through "osmosis" and that "nobody sits you down and says these are your service responsibilities." A non-tenured faculty member at a large institution described service and expectations as follows:

[It] is hard for me to separate these areas...it is hard for me to say that service is 'this,' teaching is 'this,' scholarly productivity is 'this.' For me it is all part of a puzzle that fits as a university employee...service only counts if I don't do it.

A tenured faculty member at the same institution stated, “Anything that doesn’t get published is service.” At a small institution, a non-tenured faculty member worried that expanding upon service expectations would perhaps create even heavier workloads, stating, “If I’m not going to be remunerated for that service, I’m going to have to draw the line somewhere.” The same individual later implied that service is beyond the “pure academic thing that you are doing, what you are rightly hired to do.”

Finally, a tenured faculty member at a large institution defined service differently for tenured and non-tenured faculty. Specifically the faculty member stated that “my definition is very much related to where I am now, not what I would be if I was coming in.” This same tenured faculty member commented that he “wouldn’t be hired” as a new faculty member, presumably because of his current focus on service activities.

It was evident in many of the sessions that peoples’ attitudes about professional service – particularly with respect issues such as compensation, evaluation and definition – were being shaped within the interview. There were several instances when participants openly struggled with these issues, changed their mind during the interview, or stated that they had not previously considered the issue of how service is defined. At least one faculty member (from a small institution) changed his opinion of whether or not service needs to be provided pro-bono during the interview. At another small institution, the focus group discussion brought revelations about the definitions and evaluation of other faculty roles as well as that of service. A tenured faculty member stated,

when you initially raised the question, I thought to myself that there is a real big difference in the way that service is compared with research and teaching; but you know the more we talk, I am beginning to realize that,

well, when it comes to teaching, it really isn't done in a systematic way either.

One non-tenured faculty member from a small institution stated "service, the definition of service, is probably an individual thing...I think that service is something that's done above and beyond what your job description calls for."

Responses to focus group questions were predominantly perceptions (which are discussed later) rather than personal attitudes. For this analysis a perception is considered a statement wherein the respondent is stating what he or she perceives to be true based on personal observation (for example, "the institution values service"). An attitude is a more response that conveys a personal belief or opinion (for example, "I think service is important"). Aside from the responses regarding definitions of professional service, which were outlined in the first section of chapter four, there were surprisingly few attitudes voiced during the interview sessions. For example, an analysis of the interview transcript of the focus group session at one large institution revealed no personal attitudes. Most responses were phrased as perceptions rather than attitudes, which can partly be attributed to the structure and content of the interview questions.

Survey results. Faculty attitudes regarding service were gauged by the first question of the survey, which asked faculty members to respond to the statement "For me, service activity beyond the institution is a distraction and competes with essential academic work." Two other survey elements focused directly on attitudes regarding teaching and research and were included in this analysis for comparative purposes. Responses were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U test of significance when the grouping variable consisted of two independent samples. The Kruskal-Wallis test for

significance was used when the grouping variable consisted of more than two independent samples. The results are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

Results of Tests of Significance (p values) for Survey Elements Related to Faculty

Attitudes and Service

Grouping Variable	Question		
	For me, service activity beyond the institution is a distraction and competes with essential academic work.	Teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for promotion of faculty.	The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at my university.
Tenure Status ^a (Kruskal-Wallis)	.627	.929	.950
Academic Rank ^b (Kruskal-Wallis)	.783	.631	.683
Gender ^c (Mann-Whitely U)	.767	.705	.400
Institution ^d (Kruskal-Wallis)	.735	.006**	.001***
Institution Size ^e (Mann-Whitely U)	.282	.000***	.000***
Institution Type ^f (Mann-Whitely U)	.285	.273	.004**

^aTenure status variables were tenured, non-tenured, non-tenure track. ^bAcademic rank variables were instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, professor, and emeritus.

^cGender variables were male and female. ^dInstitution variables included all eight public universities. ^eInstitution size variables included small (less than 10,000 full-time equivalent students) and large (10,000 or more full-time equivalent students).

^fInstitution type variables were historically black institutions or historically white institutions.

Tenure, academic rank, gender, institution, institution size and historical racial composition did not produce significant variation in responses to the question: “For me, service activity beyond the institution is a distraction and competes with essential academic work.” Eighty-nine percent of respondents disagreed with this statement.

However, Table 6 illustrates that there are significant differences in opinions about the value of teaching effectiveness in making tenure and promotion decisions and the conflict between publishing and teaching. These differences are most pronounced when analyzed by institution and institution-size. Figures 8 and 9 illustrate the variation by institution for these two questions.

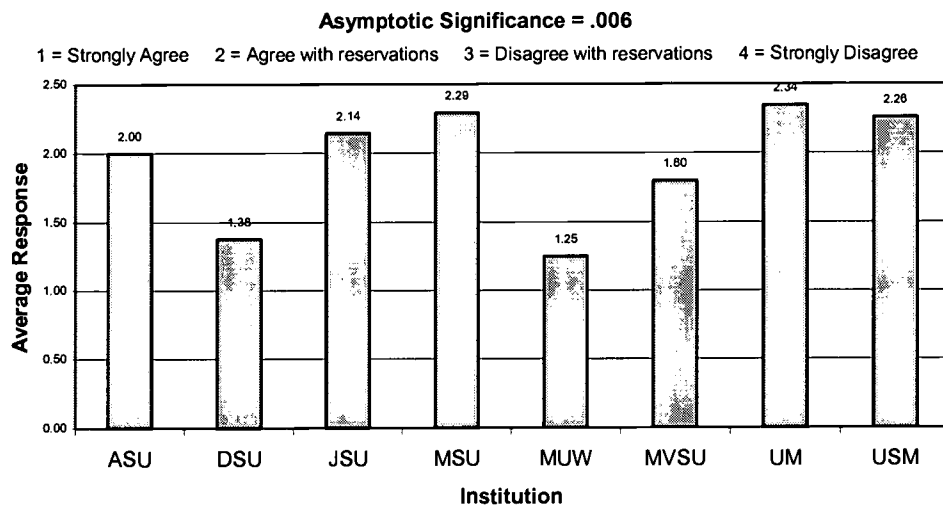


Figure 8. Average response by institution to the statement, “Teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for promotion of faculty.”

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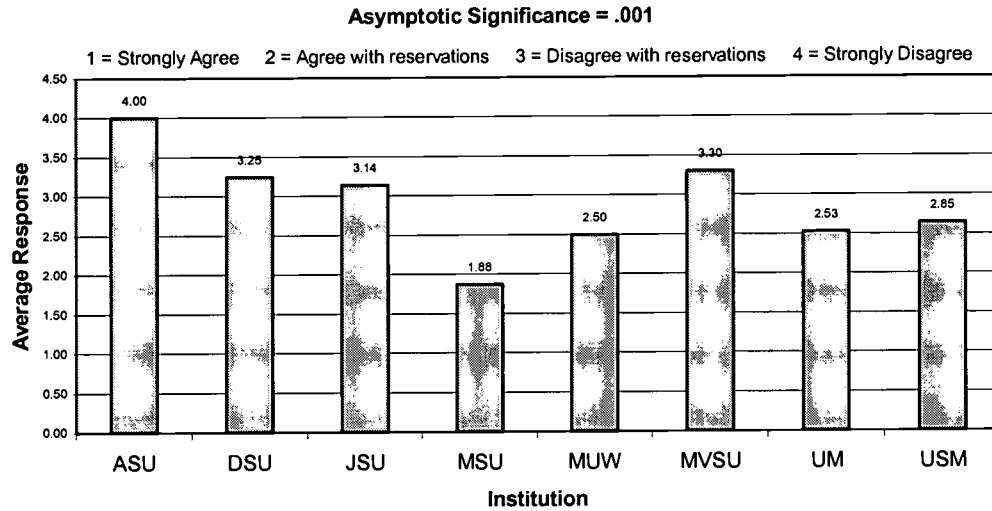


Figure 9. Average response by institution to the statement, “The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at my university.”

The size of the institution appears to be a significant factor for these two survey elements. Figure 10 illustrates the variation in attitudes based on institution size for the survey elements where significance was found.

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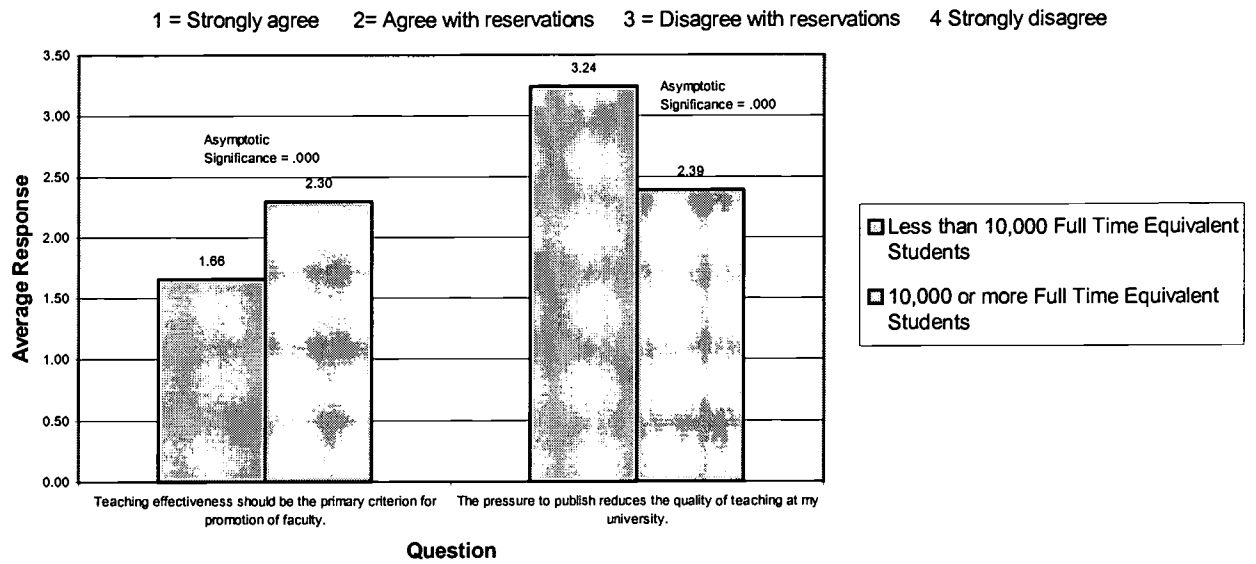


Figure 10. Average response by institution size to survey elements regarding attitudes.

Figure 11 illustrates the variation in average responses to the comment “The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at my university” based on the historical racial composition of the institution (historically black versus historically white).

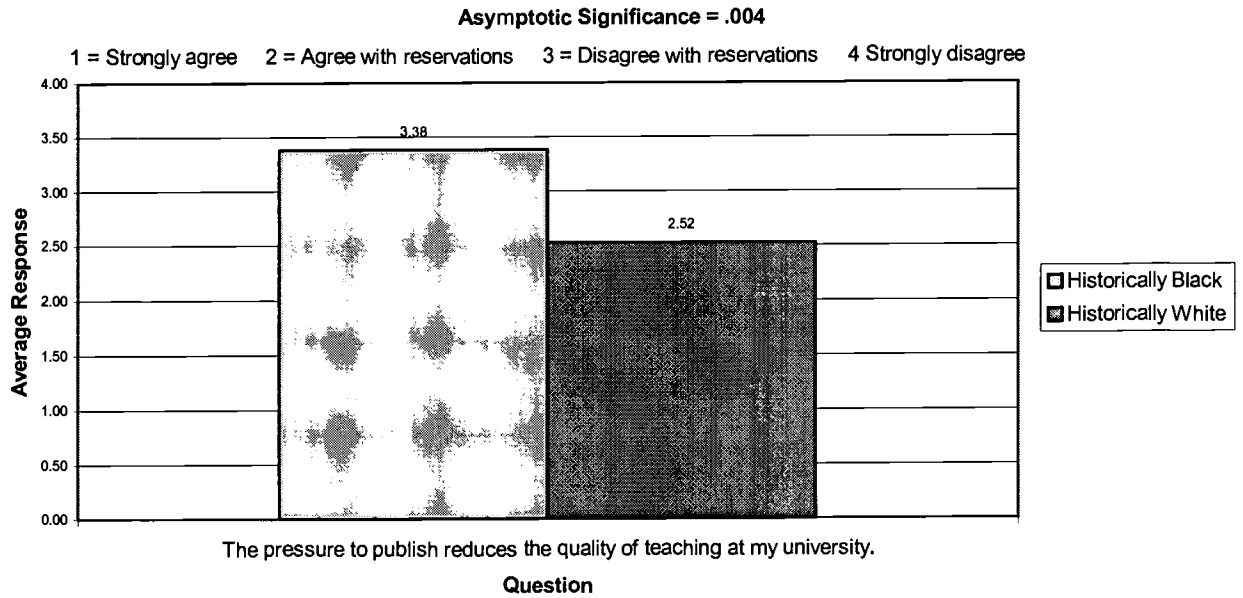


Figure 11. Average response by type of institution to the comment, “The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at my university.”

While there was significant variation in several survey elements related to attitudes, none were directly related to attitudes toward service. The survey elements in which attitudes were found to be different relate to the internecine relationship between teaching and research, or to the use of teaching as the primary criterion for evaluation.

Research Question Four: Faculty Perceptions and Tenure Status, Rank, Gender, and Institution

Chi-squared analysis of survey responses provides information about the general level of agreement or disagreement about various questions regarding faculty perceptions. Responses were compiled into two categories (important and not important) and a chi-squared analysis was conducted to determine whether differences were significant. A significant majority (60 percent) of faculty felt that service was important

in faculty evaluation, and a significant majority (62 percent) agreed that service within their discipline was important for obtaining tenure or promotion. A slight majority of faculty (53 percent) agreed that service was considered a mode of scholarship at their institution. A slight majority (54 percent) felt that service expectations were not clearly articulated in tenure and promotion policies. The results of this analysis are provided (see Table 7).

Table 7

Results of Chi-Squared Analysis of Survey Elements Related to Faculty Perceptions

Question	Asymptotic Significance
Service is considered a mode of scholarship at this institution.	.521
Service is important in faculty evaluation at this institution.	.022*
Service expectations are clearly articulated in institutional and departmental tenure/promotion policies.	.317
How important is service within the university community for granting tenure and promotion in your department?	.092
How important is service within your discipline for granting tenure and promotion in your department?	.007**

The two survey elements with the most significant difference between respondents related to the importance of service in faculty evaluation and the importance of service within a discipline when being considered for tenure and promotion. Figure 12 illustrates the variance in responses to each of perception survey elements.

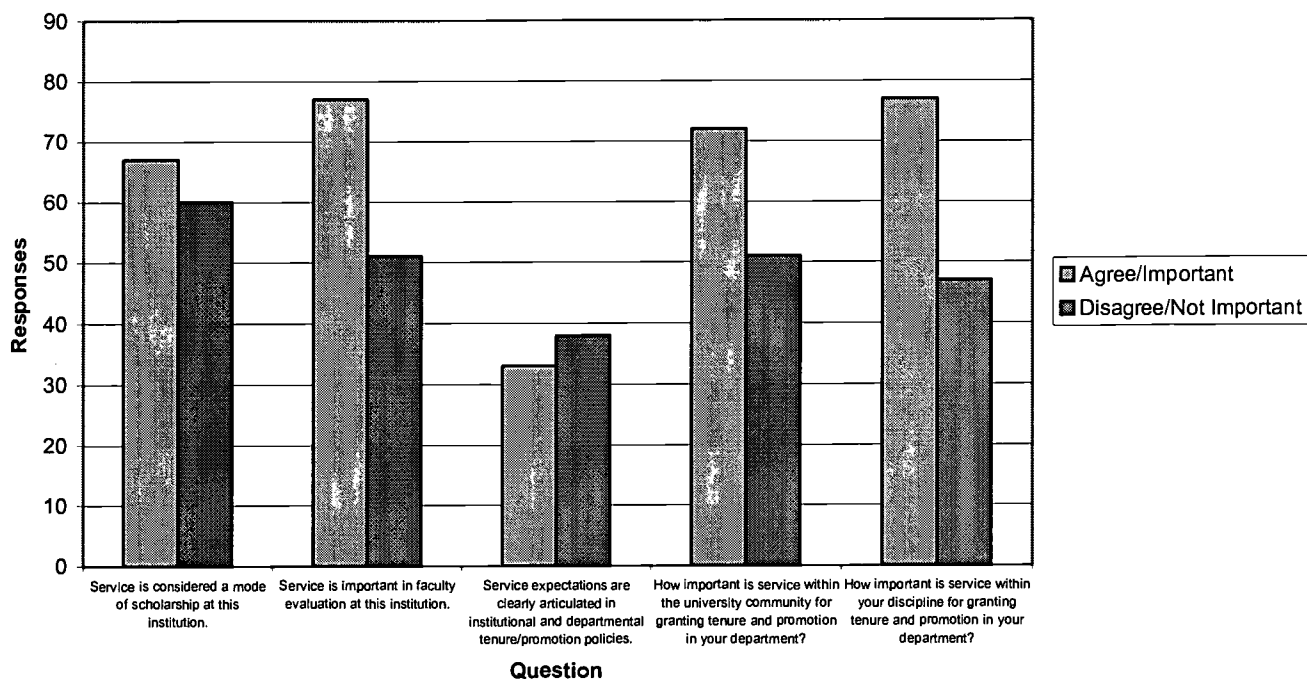


Figure 12. Variation in responses to survey elements related to faculty perceptions.

The importance of dramatic differences, and the implications regarding situations where the variation between responses does not appear to have been significant are discussed in more detail in chapter five.

Focus group results. The reader is reminded that the discussion of focus group results is limited to institution size and tenure status. The caveats and preliminary observations that were discussed concerning faculty attitudes also apply to this section on faculty perceptions.

A large number of interview responses can be classified as perceptions of how service expectations are articulated, how service is valued and evaluated, and how service is defined by the institution. Sample comments illustrating these perceptions are provided below.

Perceptions of the clarity of service expectations at each institution vary greatly. A tenured faculty member at a large institution stated simply that “[service] is a muddy area.” A tenured faculty member at a small institution stated that service expectations are “pretty clear for us as a faculty because the greatest percent of our time is teaching and service, and not research.” A non-tenured colleague at this institution stated, “We have access to [a list of expectations] so we know exactly what we need to do under each area in order to get promoted.” At another small institution, a tenured faculty member stated, it is not like we have mixed messages from our administration. They support [service]. They support us in it. They give us the opportunity...to provide service and they recognize that service is an important component of our professional status...I’m not sure if that is always true at every university. You know, ‘ok, so you are doing service, but how many articles have you published this month?’.

When asked about any qualitative differences between community and university service, this person’s non-tenured colleague stated, “I think you are expected to serve the community like you are expected to do your teaching job.” She also clarified that the institution expected faculty to serve on university committees and that “sometimes you are also expected to do outreach.” The tenured faculty member at this institution noted slight changes in expectations since she had been hired. She stated “I’m noticing, in the last couple years – It is not ‘you have to have X number of articles,’ but there is definitely more emphasis being placed on publishing.”

At one large institution there appeared to be little specificity within the articulation of service expectations. The non-tenured faculty who had recently been

through the orientation process stated that she had been told that grant writing and committee work were considered service. When asked if specific guidelines were made available she stated, “It is supposed to be mapped out for us.” Her tenured colleague neither agreed nor disagreed with these statements.

There were similar perceptions regarding the articulation of service expectations at another large institution. The tenured faculty member at this institution stated that you learn what service is “from osmosis – nobody sits you down and says ‘these are your service responsibilities’.”

At a small institution a non-tenured faculty felt that service expectations related to the institution’s primary focus on teaching. He stated that “research and teaching is secondary, and I would say so is service. But if you do research and service it is supposed to be linked to your teaching mission.”

The relative value of service was a second common theme that emerged from the focus group interviews. A non-tenured faculty member at a small institution perceived that “the school can devalue service by the emphasis it places on it...and in some cases a university might say 60 percent is teaching, 30 percent is research, and 10 percent is service. That means that people are not going to be that quick to do service.” This person also stated that evaluation “boils down to a quantity piece.” This person’s tenured colleague felt that service ought to be given a high priority due to the nature of their particular institution. However, he lamented “when we go to promotion and tenure procedures, almost always service is ranked number three. And we are talking about somewhere around 10 or 20 percent at most. I think that it is kind of ironic.”

A tenured faculty from a small institution stated that “service is a major issue” for the university as a whole and that the administration places “value on the service part.” However, no specific examples were provided to illustrate how the administration supported this emphasis beyond rhetoric, and this person’s non-tenured colleague later suggested later that there was increasing pressure to publish at their institution. This non-tenured faculty stated that “there is nothing that says you have to [publish], but it is becoming obvious.”

The discussion that follows was in response to the question, “How is service evaluated?” This is part of the interview that took place at a large institution. The thesis referred to by the non-tenured faculty was inferred – at this point in the discussion the interviewer had made no such comments or put forward any hypotheses.

Non-tenured: I think I would probably agree with your thesis that service should be a stronger component of tenure and promotion.

Tenured: Well, [teaching, research and service] are not looked upon as equals. Quite frankly I think you get tenured on research.

Non-tenured: I think you get tenured on publications.

Tenured: Research and publication is all they are really interested in as the marker.

The non-tenured faculty member at this institution later stated that she believed that she was primarily paid for teaching and research, and that “service is probably not what we get paid for.”

At a different large institution, a tenured faculty member pointed out that within the discipline of education there is an ethical expectation that you provide professional

service to the community. However, she stated that this particular form of service was “probably not going to weigh very much for tenure, promotion, pay, or anything else.”

Faculty perceptions about the relative value of service at their institution varied. It is noteworthy, though not particularly surprising, that this element was never cited as the primary function or highest valued role of faculty.

Faculty perceptions of how service was defined also emerged as an important element of the focus groups. At a small institution, a tenured faculty member felt that the “thing that drives our understanding is, some time ago the faculty development committee was commissioned and given an edict to develop a list of activities and things that faculty are to do” within teaching, research and service. A tenured faculty member at a large institution stated that “if I am reviewing grant proposals and it does not result in something being published, that will end up as service.”

Both the non-tenured and tenured faculty member at a large institution agreed, “We really don’t have a definition of [service].” Similarly, the tenured faculty member at a small institution stated that “[service] is not defined. All [the administration] says is that we are to provide service. They actually leave it to us.”

At a small institution, a tenured faculty member perceived service as a concept that is defined informally. “Generally you have five people sitting around the table and over a period of time they stake out in their mind what is service and what is not. The promotion and tenure guidelines may not be that clear, but in their minds and the results of the discussion around the table it comes out fairly clear.”

Both non-tenured and tenured faculty members at a large institution conceded that service was in large part defined by the visibility of a particular activity. Service was

viewed as activity within the institution, particularly committee work, due to the visibility of this work. A tenured faculty member stated that colleagues “understand it, they see it, they know it already, you don’t have to point it out to them. You don’t have to explain it.” A non-tenured colleague followed up on this comment, stating that there is an “expectation that you serve on university committees, departmental committees...Whereas nobody really is held to that same type of expectation, in my opinion, when it comes to providing service to the community at large.”

Survey results. Five questions were designed to provide information about faculty perceptions of service. Survey data for these questions was analyzed to determine if the independent variables of academic rank, tenure status, gender, institution, institution size and type of institution contributed to variation in responses to these questions. Responses were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U test of significance when the grouping variable consisted of two independent samples. The Kruskal-Wallis test for significance was used when the grouping variable consisted of more than two independent samples. The results are reported in Table 8.

Table 8

Results of Tests of Significance (p values) for Survey Elements Related to FacultyPerceptions and Service

Grouping Variable	Service is considered a mode of scholarship at this institution.	Service is important in faculty evaluation at this institution.	Question Service expectations are clearly articulated in institutional and departmental tenure/promotion policies.	How important is service within the university community for granting tenure and promotion in your department?	How important is service within your discipline for granting tenure and promotion in your department?
Tenure Status ^a (Kruskal-Wallis)	.782	.731	.224	.912	.973
Academic Rank ^b (Kruskal-Wallis)	.226	.336	.142	.229	.227
Gender ^c (Mann-Whitely U)	.322	.910	.162	.801	.413
Institution ^d (Kruskal-Wallis)	.000***	.000***	.029*	.002**	.000***
Institution Size ^e (Mann-Whitely U)	.000***	.000***	.048*	.002**	.000***
Institution Type ^f (Mann-Whitely U)	.588	.062	.343	.221	.371

^aTenure status variables were tenured, non-tenured, non-tenure track. ^bAcademic rank variables were instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, professor, and emeritus.

^cGender variables were male and female. ^dInstitution variables included all eight public universities. ^eInstitution size variables included small (less than 10,000 full-time equivalent students) and large (10,000 or more full-time equivalent students). ^fInstitution type variables were historically black institutions or historically white institutions.

The analysis of the variation in mean responses revealed that tenure status, academic rank, gender and the historical racial composition of an institution were not significant factors in perception-related survey elements. However, the analysis suggests that institution and institution size have an impact on perceptions of service. The variation between the mean values of responses to survey elements related to faculty perceptions are shown by institution in Figures 13 and 14.

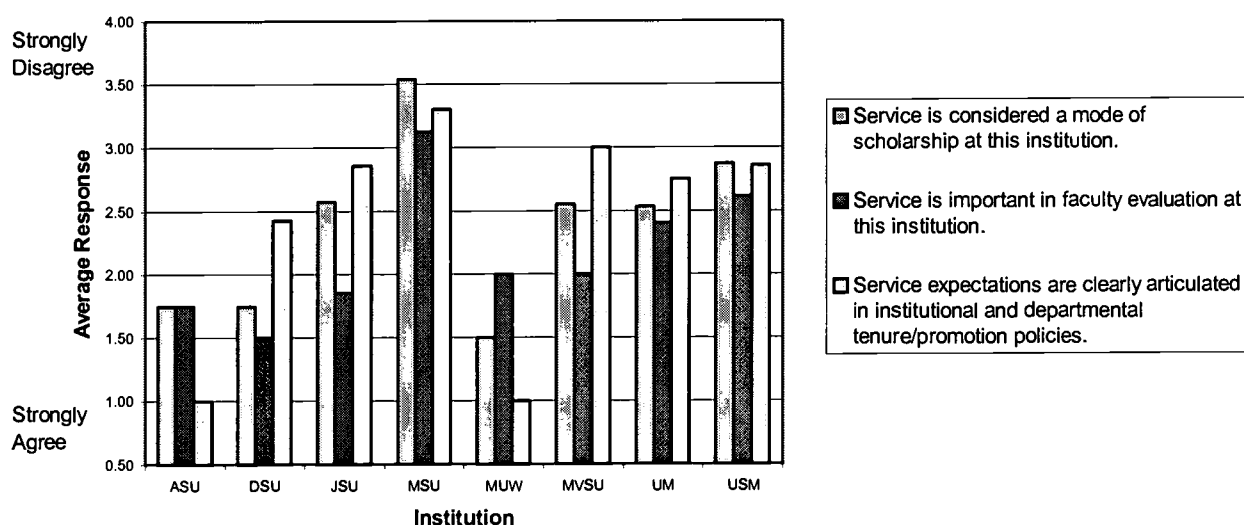


Figure 13. Variation by institution in mean responses for the first three survey elements related to faculty perceptions of service.

Faculty at Alcorn State University and Mississippi University for Women generally agreed with the three statements. In fact, every respondent from these two institutions strongly agreed with the statement regarding the clarity of service expectations. Conversely, faculty at Mississippi State University demonstrated the strongest disagreement with all three of these statements. In fact, 71 percent of faculty

strongly disagreed with the statement, “Service is considered a mode of scholarship at this institution” and no one from that institution responded that they strongly agreed with this statement.

Figure 14 illustrates a similar pattern of response to the last two perception-related questions. Faculty at Alcorn State University and Mississippi University for Women again responded most positively, and every participant from Mississippi University for Women responded that service within their discipline was very important. Mississippi State University faculty again responded most negatively to these two questions. Not a single faculty member from Mississippi State University responded very important to either of the two questions illustrated in Figure 14, and 75 percent of faculty reported that service within the university community was either fairly unimportant or very unimportant in granting tenure and promotion.

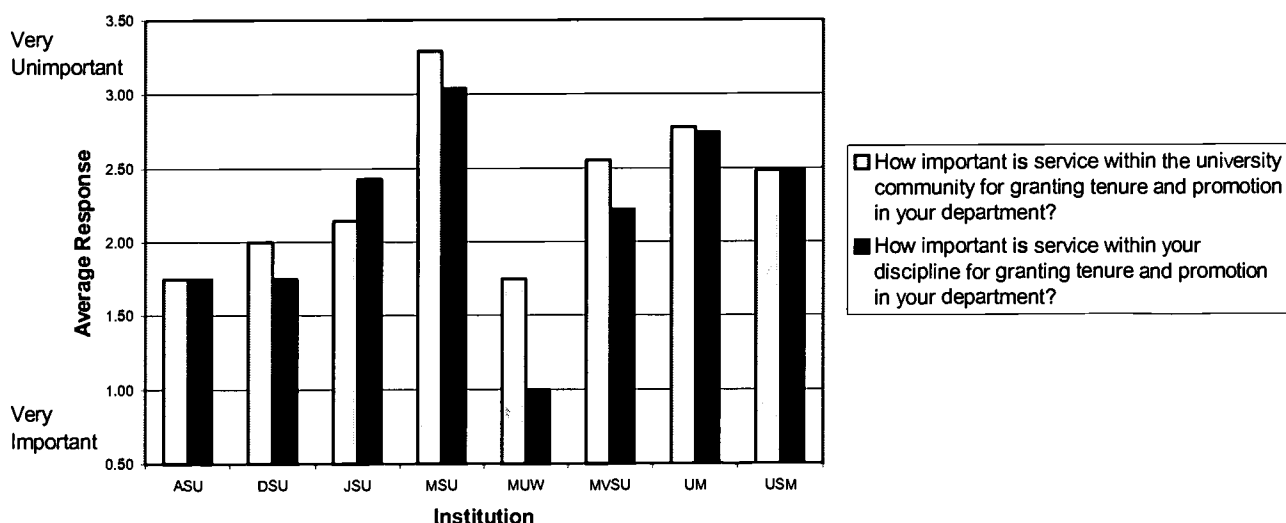


Figure 14. Variation by institution in the mean responses for the second two survey elements related to faculty perceptions of service.

Further analysis of this data revealed that the size of institution was also a significant factor. The chi-squared analysis of the survey data reported in Table 8 illustrates that size was a significant factor for each of the survey elements relating to perceptions of service. Figures 15 and 16 graphically illustrate this variation.

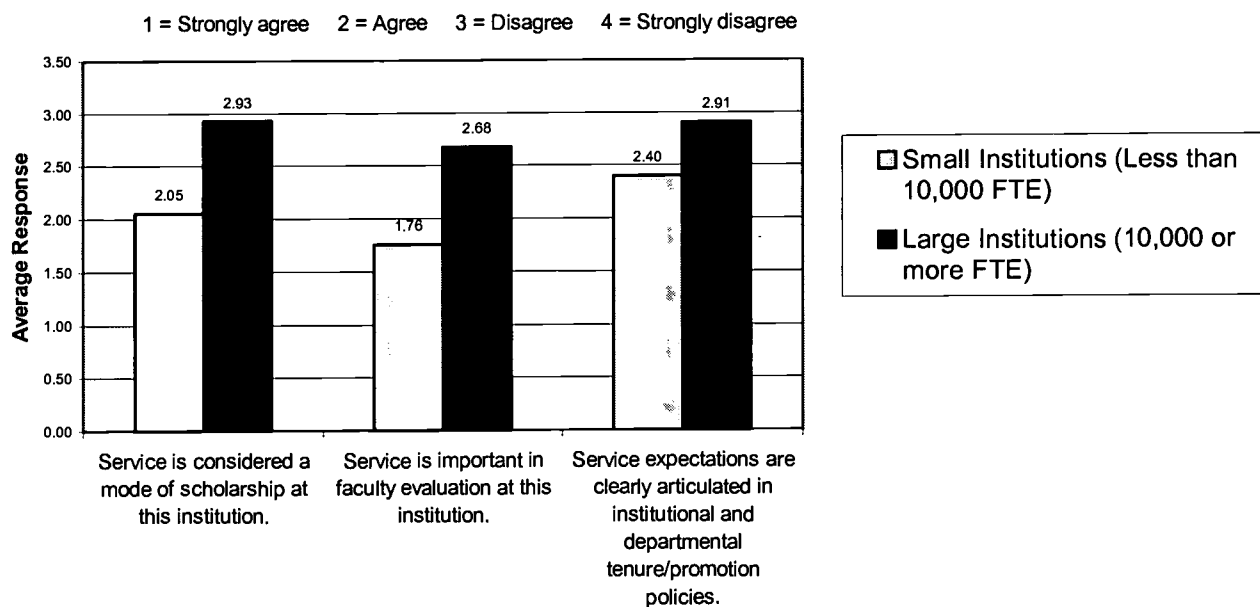


Figure 15. Variation by size of institution in the mean responses for the first three survey elements related to faculty perceptions of service.

Figure 15 reveals that faculty at small institutions generally responded more positively than faculty at large institutions when asked if service was considered a mode of scholarship, if service was important in evaluation, or if service expectations were clear. The largest variation in perceptions related to faculty perceptions of service as a mode of scholarship. While 75 percent of faculty from small institutions either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement “service is considered a mode of scholarship,” only

41 percent of faculty from large institutions responded this way. Similarly, 88 percent of faculty from small institutions agreed or strongly agreed that service was important in faculty evaluation, whereas a minority (47 percent) of faculty from large institutions responded similarly. Finally, 56 percent of faculty from small institutions agreed or strongly agreed that service expectations were clearly articulated, while only 39 percent of faculty from large institutions responded this way.

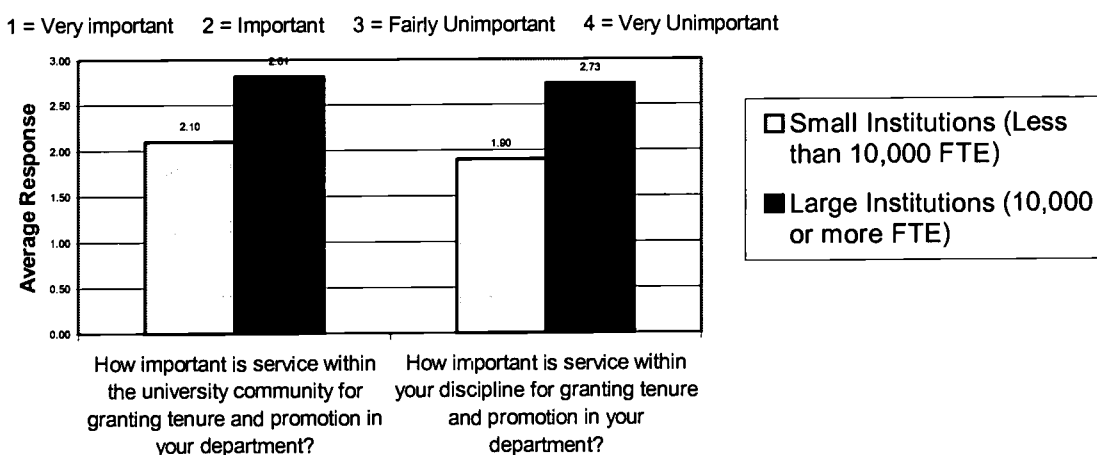


Figure 16. Variation by size of institution in the mean responses for the second two survey elements related to faculty perceptions of service.

Further analysis of the survey data reveals that 77 percent of faculty from small institutions felt that service within their university community was either important or very important in making tenure and promotion decisions. At large institutions a majority (51 percent) of faculty felt that service within their university community was either unimportant or very unimportant. Similar variation was found when reviewing faculty perceptions of the importance of service within their academic discipline when making tenure and promotion decisions. Eighty-three percent of faculty from small

institutions responded that service within their discipline was important or very important, while only 52 percent of faculty from large institutions felt this way.

Research Question Five: Performance Benchmarks, Attitudes and Perceptions of Service

Institutional mission statements, faculty handbooks and departmental tenure and promotion documents were analyzed. The factors described in Table 1 in Chapter Three were used to assign each institution a level of relevance. Institutions that were identified as level one (low relevance) had only vague operational definitions of service, did not specify performance benchmarks and priorities for service activities, and had no guidelines for how service was to be documented. Conversely, institutions rated as level three (high relevance) had specific operational definitions of service, had specific performance benchmarks and priorities for service activities, and had established guidelines for documenting service. No institution was rated as a level four (full integration). Table 9 provides the individual assignments of institutional relevance based on this analysis.

Table 9

Relevance of Institutional Mission Statements and Tenure and Promotion Policies to

Professional Service

Level of Relevance	Institution
Level One: Low Relevance	Mississippi State University Mississippi University for Women
Level Two: Medium Relevance	Delta State University Jackson State University Mississippi Valley State University University of Mississippi
Level Three: High Relevance	Alcorn State University University of Southern Mississippi
Level Four: Full Integration	No institution was identified as having achieved full integration.

Perception and attitude related survey elements were analyzed using the three levels of relevance as an independent variable. Figure 17 provides the average responses to survey questions related to attitudes by relevance of institutional documents. Faculty at the two institutions rated as having little relevance (Mississippi State University and Mississippi University for Women) registered the strongest disagreement with the idea that pressure to publish detracted from the quality of teaching. Differences for the other two attitude-related survey elements do not appear to be significant.

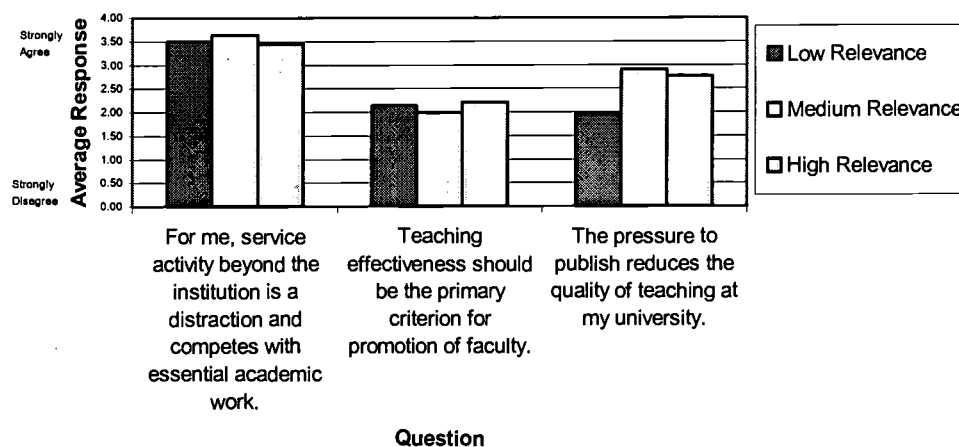


Figure 17. Variation by relevance of institutional documents to service in the mean responses for the three survey elements relating to attitudes.

Figure 18 reveals that faculty at institutions with low relevance ratings had more negative perceptions about service than faculty at institutions with higher relevance ratings. Not surprisingly, faculty at institutions rated as high relevance perceived service expectations as being most clearly articulated, while faculty with low relevance ratings perceived service expectations as being least clearly articulated. Figure 13 illustrates that faculty members at Alcorn State University and the University of Southern Mississippi had the most positive perceptions regarding the clarity of their service expectations when compared with faculty from institutions of similar size. However, faculty from institutions rated as medium relevance had the most positive perceptions of service as a mode of scholarship and the importance of service during evaluation.

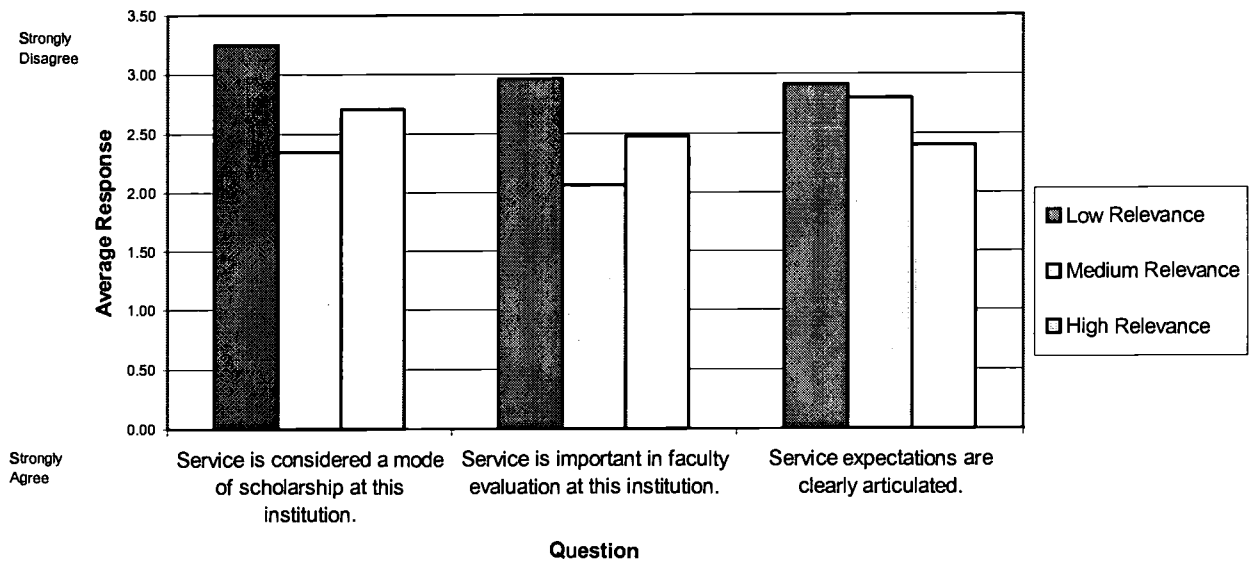


Figure 18. Variation by relevance of institutional documents to service in the mean responses for the first three survey elements related to faculty perceptions.

Figure 19 provides the graphic results of the analysis of survey data with respect to the relevance of institutional documents. Although there appears to be little difference between responses from faculty from institutions rated as medium and high relevance, faculty from institutions rated as low relevance generally responded more negatively to questions relating service to the university and within a discipline to the tenure and promotion process.

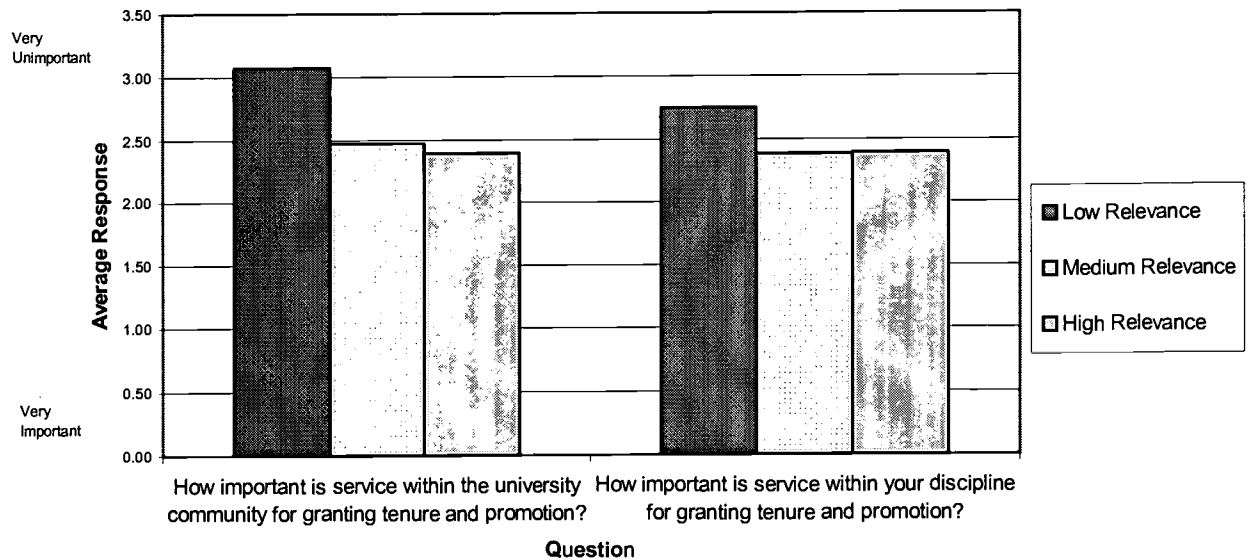


Figure 19. Variation by relevance of institutional documents to service in the mean responses for the second set of survey elements related to faculty perceptions.

Research Question Six: Performance Benchmarks and Service Activity

Faculty members were asked to estimate and report the average amount of time spent in each of the following areas: teaching/instructional support, research/creative work, internal service, external service, administration, and other activities. Faculty were asked to indicate how much time was spent per week by checking range (1-5 hours, 6-10 hours, etc.). In order to provide a numerical comparison of how faculty reported spending their time, each range was assigned a point value (see Table 10).

Table 10

Assignment of Point Value to Hourly Ranges for Comparison of Faculty Activity

Range	Assigned Point Value
0 hours	1
1-5 hours	2
6-10 hours	3
11-15 hours	4
16-20 hours	5
21-25 hours	6
26-30 hours	7
31-35 hours	8
36-40 hours	9
Over 40 hours	10

The median was calculated for each of the activity categories (see Table 11). As expected, faculty reported spending most of their time on teaching and instructional support. The average faculty member reported spending 16-20 hours per week teaching and six to ten hours per week conducting research or involved in creative work. Faculty reported spending six to ten hours a week on administrative work, six to ten hours a week on internal service, one to five hours per week on other activities and one to five hours per week engaged in public service.

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Table 11

Self-Reported Frequency of Faculty Activity

Activity	Median
Teaching/Instructional Support	5
Research/Creative Work	3
Internal Service	3
Administration	2
Other	2
Public Service	2

Faculty activity was examined by compiling the data according to institutional relevance. For example, the activity reported by faculty from institutions whose institutional documents revealed low relevance to service (Mississippi State University and Mississippi University for Women) was compiled and the average response was calculated. Table 12 illustrates the average response concerning the amount of time spent engaged in internal and public service activities according to the relevance of institutional documents and tenure and promotion guidelines.

Table 12

Median Self-Reported Internal and Public Service Activity by Relevance of Institutional Documents and Tenure and Promotion Policies

Activity	Median Response		
	Low Relevance	Medium Relevance	High Relevance
Internal Service	3	3	2
Public Service	2	2	2

Faculty at institutions whose mission statements and tenure and promotions were rated as either low relevance or medium relevance actually reported spending more time (between 6-10 hours per week) engaged in internal service activities than faculty at institutions that received a high relevance rating. Faculty at institutions that received a high relevance rating reported being engaged in an average of 1-5 hours of internal service per week. Faculty at institutions whose mission statements and tenure and promotions were rated as either low relevance or medium relevance reported spending more time engaged in public service activities than faculty at institutions that received a high relevance rating. However, the difference in the average self-report of time spent on public service activities was not as pronounced as the difference in self-reports of time spent on internal service activities.

Faculty reported being involved in more administrative activities than internal service or public service activities. Also, faculty from low or medium relevance institutions reported being more involved in other activities than in public service.

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Research Question Seven: Correlation with National Data

Several questions on the survey were taken directly from the 1989 Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching national survey of faculty. For both the Mississippi survey and the 1989 Carnegie survey, frequency of responses to the survey elements was converted to percentages for comparative purposes. The data for survey elements that were identical on both these surveys are presented graphically for comparison. For comparative purposes, the Carnegie data shown below refers only to responses given by education faculty during the 1989 survey.

Figure 20 reveals that Mississippi education faculty perceived the number of publications produced as important for tenure and promotion. Fifty-six percent of Mississippi's education faculty viewed the number of publications as very important for tenure and promotions, while only 34 percent of faculty across the country perceived publications as very important.

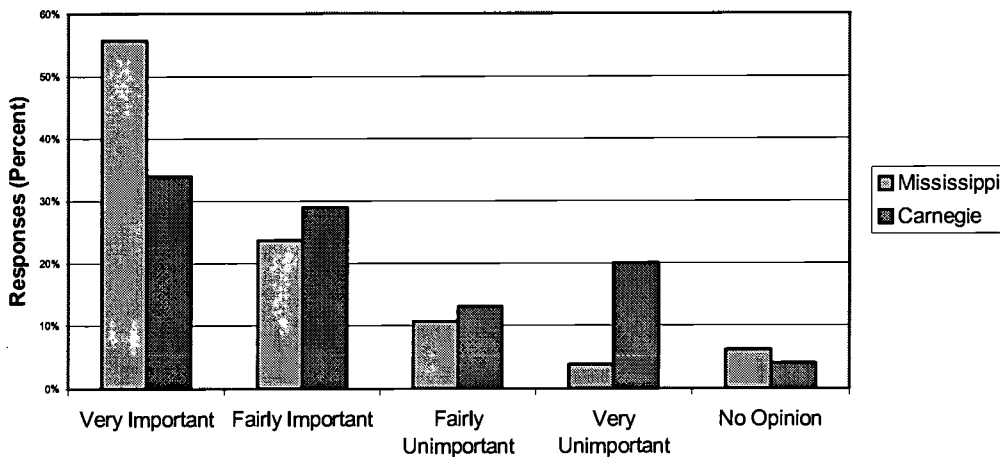


Figure 20. Comparative responses to the question “How important is the number of publications for granting tenure and promotions in your department?”

Responses to the 1989 Carnegie survey and the 2000 Mississippi survey reveal that faculty generally perceive student evaluations of teaching as an important factor for tenure and promotion. Seventy-four percent of Mississippi education faculty and 76 percent of the Carnegie education faculty respondents felt that student evaluations were either very important or fairly important. Figure 21 graphically illustrates this comparison.

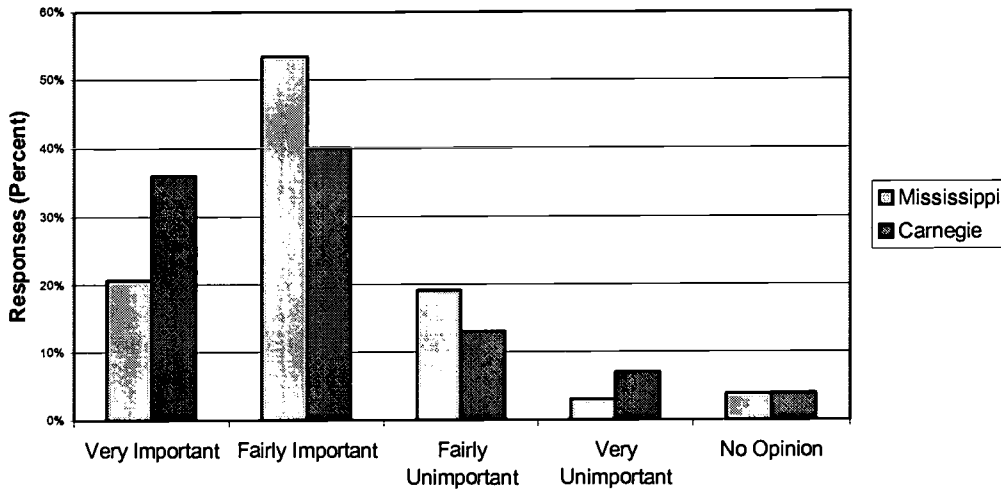


Figure 21. Comparative responses to the question “How important are student evaluations of courses taught for granting tenure and promotions in your department?”

The question regarding the importance of observations by colleagues and administrators produced some interesting comparisons. In general, Mississippi education faculty perceived colleague observations of teaching as less important to tenure and promotion than did education faculty across the country. Fifty-two percent of education faculty across the country responded that the observations were either very important or fairly important, whereas only 34 percent of Mississippi education faculty responded this

way. Although similar ratios of respondents felt that these observations were either fairly important or very unimportant, there was dramatic variation in those responding very important or fairly unimportant. Figure 22 shows that education faculty across the nation are much more likely to perceive these observations as very important and that education faculty in Mississippi are more likely to perceive them as fairly unimportant.

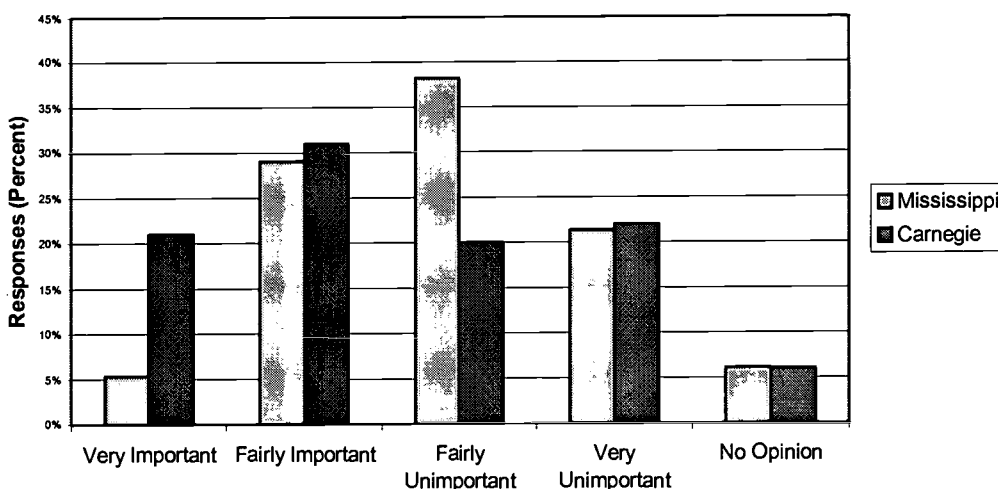


Figure 22. Comparative responses to the question “How important are observations of teaching by colleagues and/or administrators for granting tenure and promotions in your department?”

Mississippi education faculty appear to perceive the importance of recommendations of outside scholars in making tenure and promotion decisions as slightly less important than education faculty across the country. Thirty-four percent of Mississippi faculty responded that these recommendations were either very important or fairly important, while 45 percent of the education faculty respondents to the Carnegie survey felt this way. Figure 23 graphically illustrates the comparison.

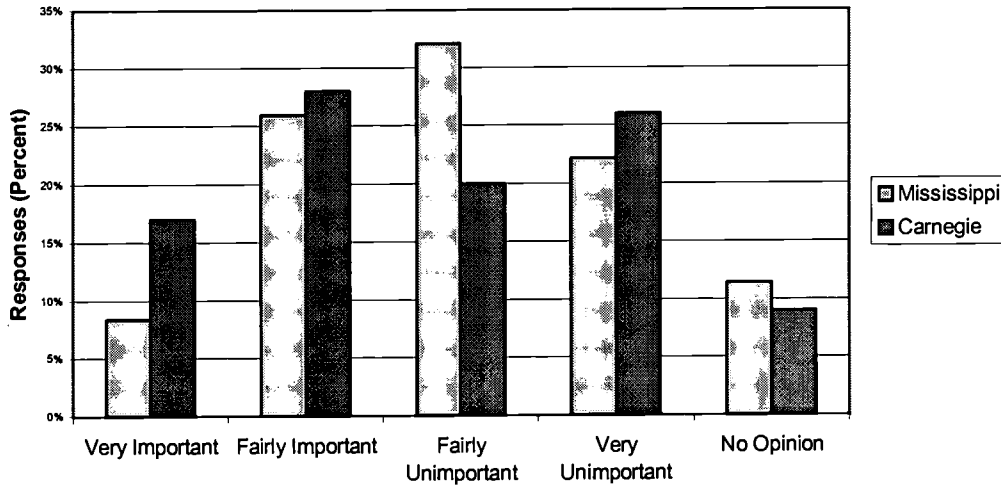


Figure 23. Comparative responses to the question “How important are recommendations from outside scholars for granting tenure and promotions in your department?”

The next survey element asked faculty members about the importance of obtaining research grants. The majority of Mississippi education faculty (70 percent) felt that obtaining research grants was either very important or fairly important. Likewise, the majority of education faculty (61 percent) across the country felt that this was very important or fairly important. The results of this comparison are shown in Figure 24.

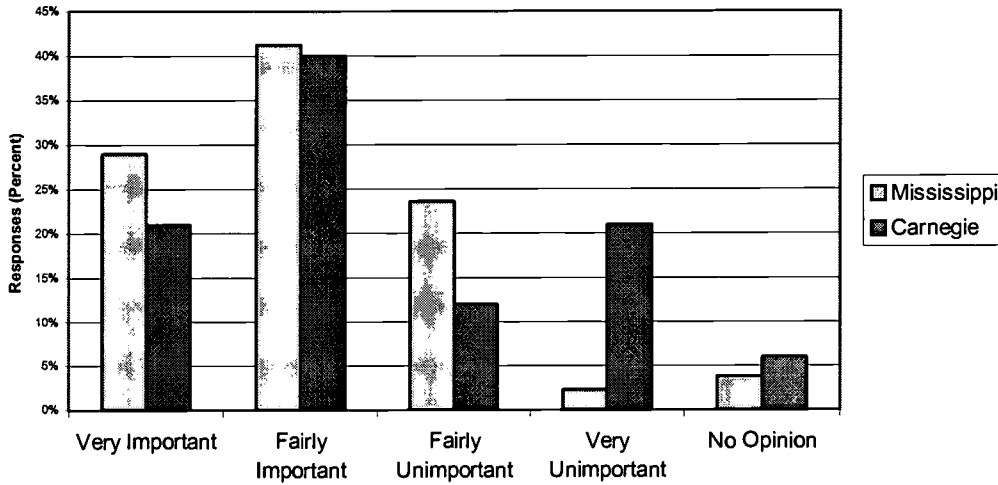


Figure 24. Comparative responses to the question “How important are research grants received by the scholar for granting tenure and promotions in your department?”

There was remarkable similarity in the proportion of responses to the two questions about perceptions of the importance of service. The first question asked faculty to rate the importance of service within the university community. In both surveys, 56 percent of faculty responded that it was either very important or fairly important. Figure 25 graphically illustrates the similarity of responses to both surveys.

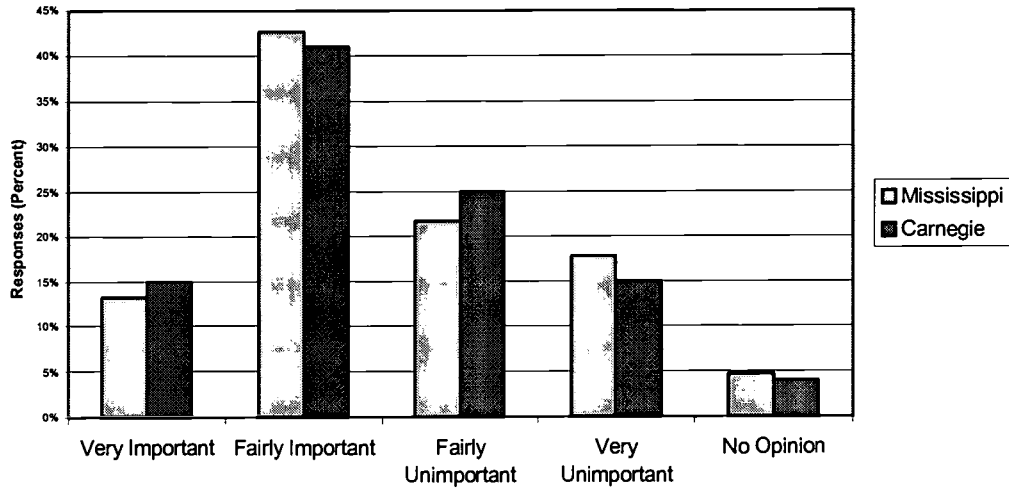


Figure 25. Comparative responses to the question “How important is service within the university community for granting tenure and promotion in your department?”

The final survey question asked faculty to rate the importance of service within a faculty member’s discipline. The responses from both surveys were nearly identical as illustrated in figure 26.

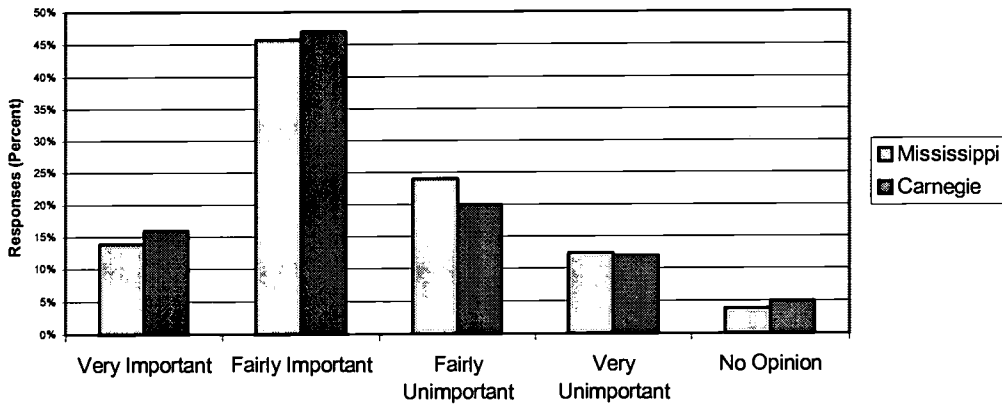


Figure 26. How important is service within your discipline for granting tenure and promotion in your department?

The majority of faculty that responded to the surveys felt that service within the discipline was either very important or fairly important. In Mississippi 60 percent of faculty felt this way, while 63 percent of faculty from across the country reported that service within the discipline was relatively important. It appears that service within the discipline was viewed as slightly more important to faculty than service within the university community.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents conclusions associated with each of the research questions in the order they were posed in Chapter Three. This chapter also provides discussion of results and recommendations for further research.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to examine the meaning and value of service in the scholarly work of education faculty at Mississippi public four-year institutions. The investigation involved a qualitative examination of the relationship between institutional mission, tenure and promotion documents, and the definitions provided by faculty. There does not appear to be a consistently strong or weak relationship between faculty definitions of service and how this responsibility is operationally defined in tenure and promotion policies. The relationship appeared to be weak at three institutions, strong at three institutions, and moderate at two institutions.

Examples of professional service were also examined for consistency with two typologies. Although many of the examples of service activities provided by faculty fit moderately well into categories developed by Lynton and the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, neither of these typologies were particularly useful. Many of the examples did not fit exclusively into one category and a large number of examples did not fit into any of the categories provided.

Faculty attitudes of the meaning and value of service were examined with respect to six independent variables: academic rank, tenure status, gender, institution, size of institution, and the historical racial composition of the institution. No relationship was

found between faculty attitudes toward service and these independent variables.

Although there was significant variation in responses to several other survey elements, faculty attitudes concerning the role of service were generally positive.

The same six independent variables were used to analyze faculty perceptions of the meaning and value of service. There were no significant variations in faculty perceptions of service that were attributable to gender, tenure status, academic rank, and historical racial composition of the institution. However, there was significant variation between Mississippi's eight public universities in each of the five survey elements related to faculty perceptions of service. There was also significant variation in faculty perceptions based on the size of institution. Faculty at small institutions had more positive perceptions of the meaning and value of service than faculty at large institutions.

The relationships between the relevance of institutional documents and the attitudes and perceptions related to service were explored. In general, there was little difference in the attitudes of faculty at institutions with medium and high relevance, and the largest difference in attitudes related to potential conflict between teaching and publishing. Faculty from low relevance institutions disagreed the most strongly that pressures to publish reduce the quality of teaching. The relationship between relevance of institutional documents and faculty perceptions is more pronounced than the relationship between the relevance of institutional documents and faculty attitudes. Faculty at institutions with low relevance ratings responded more negatively to each of the survey elements relating to perceptions of service. The service-related perceptions of faculty at institutions rated as medium or high relevance do not vary significantly.

The relationship between the relevance of institutional documents and self-reported service activity was explored. Interestingly, there appears to be an inverse relationship between the relevance of institutional documents and the amount of time spent on service activities. Faculty at institutions rated as low or medium relevance actually reported spending more time engaged in both internal and external service activities than faculty at institutions rated as having specific definitions of service and tenure and promotion policies that were highly relevant to service.

Finally, service-related perceptions expressed by Mississippi faculty were compared to perceptions of education faculty using national data. The responses by Mississippi education faculty were almost identical to the results of the national survey conducted by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1989. This is particularly true of the two questions relating to how faculty perceived the importance of service for tenure and promotion (see Figures 25 and 26). The survey responses that had the least common characteristics appear to be those relating to the importance of publication and observations by colleagues in making tenure and promotion decisions.

Discussion of Results

The Meaning of Service

Service appears to be neither a well defined nor a highly valued element of the scholarly work of education faculty in Mississippi. Although several institutions had adopted traditional definitions of service, these definitions are not sufficiently operational. Of the three relationships described in the literature review, “service as the summation of other faculty roles” and “service as a distinct academic role” best describe how Mississippi education faculty generally perceive service within their professional

lives. Most faculty (eighty-eight percent) reported that service activity does not interfere with essential academic work, and a majority (fifty-four percent) reported that expectations in this area are not clear. Focus group interviews revealed that many faculty defined service as something beyond scholarly work, and that service had not previously been thought of as a mode of scholarship. In fact, some faculty defined service as any duty that fell above and beyond their normal scholarly activities. In general, this investigation confirmed (a) Hawthorne's (1990) view that little attention is typically devoted to defining service as a scholarly endeavor, and (b) Sundre's (1989, 1990, 1992) observation that the construct of scholarship is incredibly complex.

Ernest Boyer's attempt to reconsider the construct of scholarship does not appear to have heavily influenced faculty at these institutions. Only slightly more than half of the survey respondents (fifty-three percent) felt that service was a mode of scholarship. However, it appears that several institutions, including Alcorn State University, Delta State University, Mississippi Valley State University, and the University of Southern Mississippi, have recently implemented or are in the process of modifying policies related to service. These changes may affect how service is defined and valued in the future.

Inconsistent Relationship Between Faculty Definitions and Institutional Operational Definitions

At most institutions, there did not appear to be a consistently strong relationship between how education faculty at Mississippi's public universities defined service in a scholarly context and how service was operationally defined in tenure and promotion policies. This appears to be related to several factors.

First, service is often not operationally defined within tenure and promotion documents to a level of specificity that would enable scholars to align their activities accordingly. Frequently the authority to define and communicate expectations was remanded by upper level administrators to the department level. However, most of the education units did not have documented policies or procedures, or did not make them available. Without any clear guidelines, one would not expect a consistent or strong relationship between definitions provided by the faculty and definitions provided by the institution.

Second, faculty members do not seem to be aware of service expectations. Some faculty members had not reviewed the written policies and procedures regarding service expectations. Other faculty had reviewed the documents and felt that expectations and definitions were unclear, or felt that the official documents had little influence on the actual process of tenure and promotion. A lack of awareness of service definitions and expectations may be related to perceptions of relative importance regarding tenure and promotion. Faculty may also have had little input when expectations were established or terms were defined.

Finally, it must be recognized that this was a highly subjective area. No general conclusions can be made about the universality of the responses given by faculty, and institutional ratings depended in large part on the author's interpretation of the documents and interviews.

Incongruity at Mississippi State University

The negative perceptions of Mississippi State University education faculty and the consistency between the definitions provided by faculty and the institution seems to be a

paradox. Two things may have contributed to this incongruity, although both the reasons provided are merely speculative. First, the Mississippi State University focus group was conducted via a telephone conference call. The participants were provided, upon request, with a list of the questions prior to the interview. Therefore, the Mississippi State University participants had more time to reflect upon service and could possibly have reviewed institutional guidelines prior to the interview. This might create an unusually strong relationship between faculty definitions and institutional documents.

Second, institution-wide policies were being established and implemented regarding faculty research productivity and tenure and promotion at Mississippi State University during the period of this investigation. A faculty member at Mississippi State University contacted the author and suggested that the timing of the study might negatively impact survey results, and that many education faculty were disturbed by the new policies. According to this faculty member the revised policies relied heavily on publication productivity and they had generated a large amount of controversy and concern within the education unit. These policies, combined with the low relevance of the institutional documents, might have created atypically negative service perceptions.

Consistency with Service Typologies

The classification schemes did not work well, and their ineffectiveness may have several causes. First, none of the institutions included in this investigation provided the level of clarity prescribed by Diamond (1999) and Lynton (1995) in their definitions of service as a faculty role. This is perhaps responsible for the large number of examples that did not fit within existing categories or, moreover, overlapped with other faculty roles. For example, “teaching coursework” and “publishing two textbooks” were both

cited as examples of service. Without additional information it seems obvious that these two examples should be categorized as teaching and publication rather than service.

In some cases the application of the typologies was hindered by the lack of information provided by the respondents. This was particularly true of examples collected from surveys. Without sufficient descriptive information it was difficult to categorize an example. It also made it difficult to determine whether an example fit exclusively into a category.

The typologies were also problematic due to the broad nature and ambiguity of the categories. For instance, “study a specific problem” is a particularly broad category included in the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign typology. It might be difficult to conceptualize a service activity that does not fit into this category. Conversely, the University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign also specified several things that were not to be considered service, and these parameters proved to be very helpful. In general, the lack of effectiveness of these typologies affirms Sundre’s (1989, 1990, 1992) assertion that service is often defined inductively.

Faculty Attitudes and Tenure, Rank, Gender and Institution

There was general disagreement with the statement, “For me, service activity beyond the institution is a distraction and competes with essential academic work.” This statement was the primary gauge of faculty attitudes toward service, and the near universal negative response (indicating positive attitudes toward service) may have several meanings. First, faculty may not be engaged in enough service activities to warrant calling it a distraction to other activities. This would be consistent with the

survey data regarding the relative amounts of time faculty reported being involved in service activities.

Second, the view that service is not a distraction to other roles is tangentially consistent with previous findings regarding the relationship between faculty roles. For instance, Milem, Berger, and Dey (1997) found little correlation between the amount of time spent on research and the amount of time spent on teaching. Romainville (1996), Noser, Monakyan and Tanner (1996), Feldman (1987) and Brew and Boud (1995) also found little relationship between teaching and research. This result suggests that there may also be little relationship between the amount of time spent on service activities and the amount of time spent engaged in other faculty roles.

Finally, these attitudes may have some historical connections. Positive attitudes may be an indication that faculty are receptive to connecting research to practice and outreach. This would be similar to the Wisconsin Idea as described by Hoeveler (1976) and Brubacher and Rudy (1976). Similarly, the rejection of this statement may also mean that faculty are more willing to accept Bacon's notion of the usefulness of knowledge and reject Newman's more Aristotlean view. Or perhaps Mississippi's education faculty are currently more inclined toward the broader Renaissance view regarding the scope of scholarship (as opposed to the Reformation view) described by Lucas (1994). Of course, this is speculation. There is also the possibility that these positive attitudes could simply be the result of a "halo effect." This survey element appeared first, and it is possible that participants responded more positively to this question than to others because of its relative position.

Faculty Perceptions and Tenure, Ranks, Gender and Institution

Although there were no discernable quantitative differences in perceptions between faculty with tenure and faculty without tenure, some discussion during the focus groups provided some evidence otherwise. For instance, at a large institution a tenured faculty member passionately described how his role had changed over time to be much more focused on service, and how a service-oriented role would be less acceptable for a new faculty member. The implication was that new faculty members need to focus on establishing themselves as a competent teacher and researcher. There was no disagreement from other participants. This inconsistency between the focus group results and the survey results suggests that more research is needed.

The results of this study also confirm what literature on the subject suggests: service is not as highly valued as teaching and research. Although rhetoric regarding service often suggests that this role has value, and although faculty had no difficulty citing a wide variety of activities that could be considered service, these activities were not viewed by faculty as being relatively important when applying for tenure and promotion. This is best illustrated by comparing responses to survey elements concerning the value placed on teaching, research and publication to the responses concerning the value placed on service. While 59 percent of faculty responded that service within the university community was important for tenure and promotion, 85 percent responded that the number of publications produced was important, 77 percent responded that student evaluation of teaching was important, and 73 percent responded that obtaining research grants was important.

The perceived small role of service in making faculty tenure and promotion decisions is consistent with most research and speculation regarding the dominance of the research paradigm in modern higher education. The results of this investigation support the conclusion that service is not as highly valued as other faculty roles. This has been asserted by numerous researchers and authors, including Bavaro (1995a; 1995b), Fairweather (1992; 1993a; 1993b; 1994), Boyer (1990), Lynton (1995; 1999), and Diamond (1994; 1995b).

Finally, the incongruity between faculty attitudes and perceptions of service poses interesting questions. Do faculty oppose Boyer's (1990) attempt to redefine scholarship to include activities currently classified as service in favor of viewing service as a distinct academic role? If so, are faculty concerns consistent with those outlined by Mitchell (1999)? For example, are faculty apprehensive due to the lack of effective means of evaluating service activities, or are they concerned that the adoption of service as a scholarly activity might limit time dedicated to the expansion of our knowledge base? A second possibility is perhaps more troubling: perhaps disparity exists between what faculty members want to do and what they perceive must be done to advance their career.

Performance Benchmarks, Attitudes and Perceptions, and Activity

Although one might initially expect faculty at institutions with specific performance benchmarks to display more positive attitudes and perceptions about service, and possibly engage in more service activity, the results do not confirm this hypothesis. As mentioned earlier, this result may be linked to the subjective nature of analyzing institutional documents. Additionally, faculty members were asked to self-report activity, which also introduces a wide margin of potential error. However, much

of the literature on professional service relies on an assumption that more specific benchmarks and definitions will lead to more service and better attitudes and perceptions. Our result may actually indicate that motivation lies in ambiguity. Quantity and quality are distinct concepts, and the argument that the quality of service improves as benchmarks and definitions improve is more central to the arguments made by Driscoll and Lynton (1999) and Diamond (1999).

The observed lack of specific benchmarks is incongruent with Glassick, Huber and Maeroff's conclusion that the most "most widely embraced goal was to redefine such traditional faculty roles as teaching, research and service" (1997, p. 12). This conclusion was based on a national survey of chief academic officers. The lack of specific benchmarks reveals that Mississippi public universities may lag behind the rest of the nation in terms of redefining, clarifying and articulating service expectations.

Faculty members were engaged in relatively little service work. Focus group interviews and survey data both reveal that research productivity is perceived as the dominant factor in determining reward; however, Mississippi education faculty spend most of their time engaged in teaching and instructional activities. The survey data suggests that, with respect to reward structures, service is tertiary, being subordinate to both teaching and research in the amount of time faculty spend engaged in these activities. This is again consistent with the results of the literature review, including research of Martin (1977), O'Brien (1998), Milem, Berger and Dey (1997), and Fairweather (1992, 1993a, 1993b, 1994, 1996). As Ewell (1998) points out, service will not become a priority until some incentive is attached or a market is created.

During the focus group interviews several faculty members questioned the efficacy of using tenure and promotion policies for shaping faculty behavior. These individuals argued that organizational culture and informal processes often impacted performance more than official university policies and guidelines.

Correlation with National Data.

Responses to the service-related survey elements were very similar to the results from the 1989 Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching national survey of faculty with this data. If Mississippi education faculty perceptions are representative of education faculty nationwide, this suggests that views of service have changed very little over the past 12 years, despite the work of Boyer and others to redefine and broaden the concept of scholarship.

Recommendations

Most of Mississippi's public universities need to more clearly define service and articulate institutional service priorities, both at the institutional level and at the departmental level. Colleges, departments and schools without specific documentation of service expectations should publish clear expectations and priorities in faculty handbooks. Faculty at the departmental level must operationally define service and, perhaps more importantly, limitations need to be made regarding what is treated as service. Faculty should be invited to participate in the process of defining priorities and clarifying expectations. The work of faculty at Indiana University and Purdue University at Indianapolis and at Alcorn State University serve as two good examples of this process.

Assessment and evaluation of faculty service is necessary. Although Lynton and Driscoll (1999) and Glassick, Huber, and Maeroff (1997) have initiated work in this area at the national level, and several institutions have recently reviewed the definition and documentation of service efforts, no Mississippi institution or education unit appears to be prepared to systematically evaluate the service role of faculty. Assessment and evaluation efforts should take place at the individual, departmental and institutional levels.

Further research is needed to clarify techniques for gauging the relevance of institutional documents, and to determine the impact of institutional policies on faculty attitudes, perceptions and behaviors. It is not clear if the inverse relationship detected between the relevance of institutional documents and the amount of internal service activity was due to the way relevance was determined or if there is little causal relationship between these policies and faculty behavior. The results of the focus group sessions suggest that the relationship between policies, perceptions, attitudes and action is extremely complex. Likewise, more work is needed to determine whether a relationship exists between perceptions and attitudes. This research may also be needed in other, non-service related areas, such as research, publication and teaching expectations.

Service currently suffers from being a nebulous concept. Service-related typologies need to be refined to provide more definition. In addition to the development of well-defined categories, typologies should describe activities that will not be considered service.

Faculty reward systems should be reconfigured to be more congruent with Ewell's (1998) concept of creating positive incentives. At present there are few

incentives, other than intrinsic interest, for faculty to be involved in service. Institutions and departments should consider how service can be rewarded and recognized. Also, Mississippi's state governing board should consider an institutional assessment and reward system that creates a market for and rewards service. Ewell (1996) noted that a redirection of higher education's research and service capacities toward public purposes "requires state governments to systematically create markets for specific research and service activity, much as the federal government did for basic research during the three decades after Sputnik, but on a far more local basis" (Ewell, 1998, p. 133). Blackburn (1991, 1995, 1996) also suggests that faculty work lives are more enriched, and that faculty members are more productive, when these rewards are focused on individual faculty goals.

The only significant connection discovered during this investigation was between faculty perceptions and the size of the institution. More research is needed concerning the effect of institution size on faculty perceptions. Additional research is also needed to determine whether faculty attitudes, perceptions and definitions vary between disciplines. Ideally, future investigations of the meaning and value of service within the scholarly lives of faculty would be longitudinal.

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APPENDICES

- A. Presidents' Fourth of July Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education
- B. Typology of Professional Service - Ernest Lynton (1995)
- C. Faculty Guide for Relating Public Service to the Promotion and Tenure Process – University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
- D. National Center for Higher Education Management Systems Service Outcome Measures
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Appendix A

Presidents' Fourth of July Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education

Preface

The following statement was drafted by Thomas Ehrlich, senior scholar, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and president emeritus, Indiana University, and Elizabeth Hollander, executive director of Campus Compact, with the advice and input of a distinguished Presidents' Leadership Colloquium Committee composed of: Derek Bok, president emeritus of Harvard University; Dolores Cross, president of Morris Brown College; John DiBiaggio, president of Tufts University; Claire Gaudiani, president of Connecticut College; Stanley Ikenberry, president of the American Council on Education; Donald Kennedy, president emeritus of Stanford University; Charles Knapp, recent past president of the Aspen Institute, Edward A. Malloy, president of the University of Notre Dame; Frank Newman, president of the Education Commission of the States; and Eduardo Padrón, president of Miami-Dade Community College.

The purpose of this statement is to articulate the commitment of all sectors of higher education, public and private, two- and four-year, to their civic purposes and to identify the behaviors that will make that commitment manifest. It was reviewed, refined and endorsed at a Presidents' Leadership Colloquium convened by Campus Compact and the American Council on Education at the Aspen Institute on June 29-July 1, 1999 (1).

Declaration

As presidents of colleges and universities, both private and public, large and small, two-year and four-year, we challenge higher education to reexamine its public purposes and its commitments to the democratic ideal. We also challenge higher education to become engaged, through actions and teaching, with its communities.

We have a fundamental task to renew our role as agents of our democracy. This task is both urgent and long-term. There is growing evidence of disengagement of many Americans from the communal life of our society, in general, and from the responsibilities of democracy in particular. We share a special concern about the disengagement of college students from democratic participation. A chorus of studies reveals that students are not connected to the larger purposes and aspirations of the American democracy. Voter turnout is low. Feelings that political participation will not make any difference are high. Added to this, there is a profound sense of cynicism and lack of trust in the political process.

We are encouraged that more and more students are volunteering and participating in public and community service, and we have all encouraged them to do so through curricular and co-curricular activity. However, this service is not leading students to embrace the duties of active citizenship and civic participation. We do not blame these college students for their attitudes toward the democracy, rather we take responsibility to help them realize the values and skills of our democratic society and their need to claim ownership of it.

This country cannot afford to educate a generation that acquires knowledge without ever understanding how that knowledge can benefit society or how to influence democratic decision-making. We must teach the skills and values of democracy, creating innumerable opportunities for our students to practice and reap the results of the real, hard work of citizenship.

Colleges and universities have long embraced a mission to educate students for citizenship. But now, with over two-thirds of recent high school graduates, and ever larger numbers of adults, enrolling in post secondary studies, higher education has an unprecedented opportunity to influence the democratic knowledge, dispositions, and habits of the heart that graduates carry with them into the public square.

Higher education is uniquely positioned to help Americans understand the histories and contours of our present challenges as a diverse democracy. It is also uniquely positioned to help both students and our communities to explore new ways of fulfilling the promise of justice and dignity for all, both in our own democracy and as part of the global community. We know that pluralism is a source of strength and vitality that will enrich our students' education and help them to learn both to respect difference and work together for the common good.

We live in a time when every sector—corporate, government and nonprofit—is being mobilized to address community needs and reinvigorate our democracy (Gardner, 1998). We cannot be complacent in the face of a country where one out of five children sleeps in poverty and one in six central cities has an unemployment rate 50% or more above the national average, even as our economy shows unprecedented strength. Higher education—its leaders, students, faculty, staff, trustees and alumni—remains a key institutional force in our culture that can respond, and can do so without a political agenda and with the intellectual and professional capacities today's challenges so desperately demand. Thus, for society's benefit and for the academy's, we need to do more. Only by demonstrating the democratic principles we espouse, can higher education effectively educate our students to be good citizens.

How can we realize this vision of institutional public engagement? It will, of course, take as many forms as there are types of colleges and universities. And it will require our hard work, as a whole, and within each of our institutions. We will know we are successful by the robust debate on our campuses, and by the civic behaviors of our students. We will know it by the civic engagement of our faculty. We will know it when our community partnerships improve the quality of community life and the quality of the education we provide.

To achieve these goals, our presidential leadership is essential but, by itself, it is not enough. Faculty, staff, trustees and students must help craft and act upon our civic missions and responsibilities. We must seek reciprocal partnerships with community leaders, such as those responsible for elementary and secondary education. To achieve our goals we must define them in ways that inspire our institutional missions and help

measure our success. We have suggested a Campus Assessment of Civic Responsibility that will help in this task. It is a work in progress. We ask you to review the draft and to ask yourself what aspects of this can work on your campus and also to share with others practices that are not on this list.

We ask other college presidents to join us in seeking recognition of civic responsibility in accreditation procedures, Carnegie classifications, and national rankings and to work with Governors, State Legislators, and State Higher Education Offices on state expectations for civic engagement in public systems.

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. We believe that now and through the next century, our institutions must be vital agents and architects of a flourishing democracy. We urge all of higher education to join us.

Campus Assessment of Civic Responsibility
July 15, 1999 [draft]

The next important step for each president endorsing the Fourth of July Declaration is to conduct an assessment on your own campus of your current activities to promote civic responsibility. Each of us is urged to gather a diverse group of trustees, faculty, staff, students, alumni, and community partners on your campus to develop measures of successful civic engagement that are consistent with the mission of your particular institution. To assist you, we have compiled this list of questions for your use in framing your discussions.

We know that every campus will fulfill its civic mission in its own unique way. In fact, each campus will make a unique contribution to refining what it means to be an engaged campus. The following questions are designed to inspire you in that enterprise. We look forward to learning in a year what you have done and will circulate a document summarizing various campus efforts.

I. PRESIDENTIAL LEADERSHIP

- a. In what ways am I leading my campus in articulating and implementing a civic mission that calls upon us to prepare our students for engaged citizenship? Is that mission widely known and understood by our trustees, faculty, administration, alumni, students and our larger community?
- b. How well have I, as president, personally and actively engaged in community or public policy development? How well do I articulate the philosophical and intellectual meaning of higher education as an agent of democracy? Do I help to

highlight the specific and unique quality and character of my particular institution, and make visible the public work and contributions of faculty, staff, and students?

II. CAMPUS CONSTITUENCIES

A. STUDENTS

Curriculum

- a. How well does our curriculum help students develop civic competencies and civic habits? These habits include the arts of civil public argument, civic imagination, and the ability to critically evaluate arguments and information. They also include the capacities and curiosity to listen, interest in and knowledge of public affairs, and the ability to work with others different from themselves on public problems in ways that deepen appreciation of others' talents.
- b. Are our students given multiple opportunities to do the work of citizenship through real projects of impact and relevance, linked to their academic learning?
- c. Do we seek to measure student' knowledge of American democratic institutions at matriculation and/or at graduation?
- d. How well have we worked to increase opportunities for community-based learning, including community-based research and curricular-based community engagement (service-learning)?
- e. How well do we prepare our future teachers — for K-12 and higher education—to integrate civic learning into their teaching?

Co-Curricular Activities

- f. How well do our campus's co-curricular activities provide opportunities for civic engagement? Do these activities include participation in political campaigns and/or other change-oriented activities?
- g. To what extent do our co-curricular activities include a regular time and place for reflection about how such experiences might shape students' view of the world and their future careers and life work?

Campus Culture

- h. How well does our campus's culture support students' participation in genuine, vigorous, open dialogue about the critical issues of their education and the democracy?

- i. To what extent are students on campus able to help build and sustain genuinely public cultures full of conversation, civil argument, and discussion about the meaning of their learning, their work, and their institutions as a whole?
- j. How well does our campus promote voter registration and participation? Do we regularly invite elected officials to campus to speak, and support public forums on critical issues of the day?

Campus Diversity

- k. How diverse is our student body? Do our financial aid and admissions policies reflect our desire for a diverse student body?
- l. How do we enable students to encounter and learn from others different from themselves in experience, culture, racial background, gender, sexual orientation, ideologies and views?

Student Careers

- m. To what extent do our career offices provide opportunities for public and nonprofit career choices?
- n. At what stage is our campus in preparing students for, and providing financial aid programs to support career choices in the public and nonprofit sectors?

B. FACULTY

Faculty Culture

- a. How well does our campus provide opportunity for faculty to create, participate in, and take responsibility for a vibrant public culture on campus, which values faculty and students moral and civic imagination, judgment, and insight?
- b. Is our faculty encouraged to participate in genuine civic partnerships based on respect and recognition of different ways of knowing and different kinds of contributions in which expertise is "on tap, not on top"?
- c. Is our faculty encouraged to discuss the need to develop student citizenship skills and debate what those skills and habits are and how they might be developed?

Faculty Development and Rewards

- d. Do faculty hiring, development opportunities, promotion and tenure policies encourage and support teaching that includes community-based learning and

undergraduate action research? Do these systems support and reward faculty who link their research and service to community needs and concern?

- e. How well are faculty members prepared to pursue "public scholarship" relating their work to the pressing problems of society, providing consultations and expertise, and creating opportunities to work with community and civic partners in co-creating initiatives of public value?
- f. How well do we orient new faculty members to the community of which the campus is a part, developed in collaboration with community leaders? Do we have an ongoing programs to introduce faculty to community issues and community perspectives on those issues?
- g. Do faculty, deans, and the chief academic officer have knowledge of and access to discipline-based development materials regarding engaged scholarship and teaching?

C. ADMINISTRATORS AND STAFF

- a. How well do our administrators create and improve structures that sustain civic engagement and public contributions in many forms?
- b. Do our administrators seek to find their own ways to be publicly engaged?
- c. To what extent are our hiring practices driven by a desire to achieve broad representation and social diversity, not simply out of moral imperative but out of full recognition that a diversity of backgrounds, cultures, and views is essential to a vital public culture?
- d. To what extent does our staff receive recognition for the often extensive ties that many have with the local community?
- e. To what extent are those ties seen as a resource for community-university partnerships, for student learning, for engaged scholarship, and for the broad intellectual life of the institution?
- f. To what extent do our administration and faculty view the staff as an integral part of the process to educate students for democracy?
- g. To what extent is our staff encouraged to work with faculty to examine and change the campus culture to support engagement?

D. TRUSTEES AND ALUMNI

- a. Are trustees engaged in discussing the importance of the civic responsibility of the institution in all its dimensions?

- b. Are alumni educated about the institutions' civic engagement and encouraged to support those activities through their own actions and their financial support?

III. The Institutional Role in Civic Responsibility

Democratic Practice on our Campus

- a. Does our campus model democratic behavior? Do we engage all of our campus constituencies in our governance, our promotion of robust debate, in the ways in which we use tensions and controversies as teachable moments to demonstrate the value of rigorous, not rancorous discourse?

Campus/Community Partnerships

- b. How well does our institution create and sustain long-term partnerships with communities and civic bodies? Do we share resources with our partners? Do we allocate resources to support these activities? Can our civic partners point to long-term, positive experiences with our campus?
- c. Are our partnerships framed in ways which reflect the campus' commitments to community building and civic vitality, that integrate community experience into the learning of students and the professional service opportunities for staff, and that fully understand and appreciate the public dimensions of scholarly work?

Communications with our Community

- d. How well does our campus promote awareness that civic engagement is an essential part of our mission?
- e. How well does our campus create structures that generate a more porous and interactive flow of knowledge between campus and communities?

Community Improvement

- f. To what extent have we improved the condition of the communities surrounding our campuses?
- g. To what extent is a public measure of campus success the condition of the surrounding community and the measurable difference the campus has made in improving the physical and human condition of neighborhood residents?
- h. How well do we think about procurement and employment practice and use of physical plant as opportunities to enhance our local communities?

Campus Engagement

- i. How well do we make sustained efforts to track civic engagement activity by students, staff, or faculty and make an effort to deploy these activities in strategic ways that make maximum impact on the community's improvement agenda?

Appendix B

Lynton, Ernest. (1995). Making the case for professional service. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.

Typology for categorizing different types of institutional service activities: NOTE: Lynton points out that this typology is not exhaustive and somewhat arbitrary. His intention was to illustrate the many ways which professional service can be performed. He cites UI-Champaign-Urbana as having a much more inclusive list.

1. Technology transfer
2. Technical Assistance
3. Policy analysis
4. Program evaluation
5. Organizational development
6. Community development
7. Program development
8. Professional development
9. Expert testimony
10. Public information

Appendix C

Faculty Guide for Relating Public Service to the Promotion and Tenure Process University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

1. Provide services for the public through a University clinic, hospital, or laboratory
2. Make research understandable and usable in specific professional and applied settings such as in technology transfer activities
3. Provide public policy analysis for local, state, national, or international governmental agencies.
4. Test concepts and processes in real-world situations.
5. Act as expert witnesses.
6. Give presentations or performances for the public.
7. Provide extension education.
8. Conduct applied research.
9. Evaluate programs, policies, or personnel for agencies.
10. Engage in informational activities (seminars, conferences, institutes) that address public-interest problems, issues, and concerns and that are aimed at either general or specialized audiences such as commodity, trade, practitioner, or occupational groups.
11. Participate in governmental meetings or on federal review panels.
12. Engage in economic and community development activities.
13. Participate in collaborative endeavors with schools, industry, or civic agencies.
14. Testify before legislative or congressional committees.
15. Consult with town, city or county governments; schools, museums, parks, and other public institutions; companies; groups; or individuals.
16. Assist neighborhood organizations.
17. Conduct studies on specific problems brought to one's attention by individuals, agencies, or businesses.
18. Serve as experts for the press or other media.
19. Write for popular and nonacademic publications, including newsletters and magazines directed to agencies, professionals, or other specialized audiences.

Such activities require (1) a background of significant scholarship, (2) adequate diagnostic skills, (3) use or development of creative and focused methodologies, (4) strong information organization and media skills, and (5) written and oral skills in interpreting as well as presenting information.

Potential sources of confusion include the following items. [NOTE: this section has been paraphrased and shortened from the original document.].

1. Location is not a distinguishing characteristic.
2. Public service typically entails the application of faculty members' areas of expertise. Such service may be performed as part of their University responsibilities or in addition to their stated responsibilities – it may be uncompensated or compensated. In terms of compensation, the nature and extent of all public service work should be in keeping with University regulations...Activities that are engaged in mainly to make

money, such as running a business or a consulting firm on the side, are clearly not part of faculty members' University public service activities.

3. Activities directed primarily to regularly enrolled students would not normally be considered public service.
4. Clinical teaching is clearly a blend of teaching and public service. Although arising from a primary teaching need, the primary obligation during its performance is to patients or clients, and only secondarily to the students. The welfare of the patients or clients must be kept foremost. Experimentation for instructional purpose would be unethical.
5. Faculty members can provide service to the University; in an administrative capacity; as members of the senate; or as committee members at the University, campus, college or departmental levels. Such service, however, is not public service and is referred to as institutional service or internal service; nor is service to professional organizations and scholarly societies, which is typically referred to as disciplinary service.
6. Not all activities engaged in by faculty members in settings external to the University are undertaken to help or fulfill the university's or unit's public service mission. (Jurors, youth leaders, coaches, PTA). This is private service. Public service fulfills the mission of the unit and institution and utilize faculty members' academic or professional expertise.

Appendix D

National Center for Higher Education Management Systems Service Outcome Measures

Oscar T. Lenning, Micak, Sidney S., Patrick, Cathleen, Service, Alan L., and Lee, Yong S. (1979). Postsecondary education outcome measures and procedures: A sourcebook for administrative research. Boulder, CO: National Center for Higher Education Management Systems.

The authors worked with over 800 institutions and developed measures and procedures for evaluating higher education. The two most relevant are Service Provision outcome measures and Research and Scholarship outcome measures. The authors defined Community Services as the “subprogram consist[ing] of resources, services, and expertise made available to persons outside the context of the institution’s regular Instructional, Research and support programs...and are generally sponsored and controlled by the institution.”

Faculty and staff community services are “those activities designed to make faculty/staff/student knowledge and skills available to the community or to groups external to the institution. The activities that should be classified in this category involve the use of the institution’s own staff for purposes that are not part of the regular instructional, research or support programs. This category includes institutionally sponsored consulting services and those institutional activities that represent the provision of faculty/staff resources outside the context of the instruction program.”

Service Provision Outcome Measures:

1. Enrollment of regular degree seeking student from the community.
2. Enrollment of non-degree or non-certification seeking students from the community.
3. Community participation in community education programs.
4. Community participation in education extension programs.
5. Educational goals achieved by community participants.
6. Community awareness and use of, and satisfaction with, instructional programs.
7. Community awareness and use of, and satisfaction with, assistance services.
8. Community unmet educational needs.
9. Amount of advising and analytic assistance provided by the institution to community agencies and citizens.
10. Amount of advisory, referral and analytic assistance provided by institutional staff and students outside.
11. Amount of treatment and care service provided to the citizens of the community.
12. Number of enrolled students employed by community firms during the time they were still students.
13. Institutional goal attainment.
14. Students enrolled in organized educational activities for no credit.

Research and Scholarship Outcome Measures:

1. Research proposals funded.
2. Research restricted revenues.
3. Books authored or co-authored by faculty and former students.
4. Books edited by faculty and former students.
5. Chapters or readings in books by faculty and former students.
6. Journal articles authored or co-authored by faculty and former students.
7. Citation index applied to faculty and former students.
8. Periodicals edited by faculty and former students.
9. Selections to editorial boards of faculty and former students.
10. Papers published in professional association proceedings by faculty and former students.
11. Papers presented at professional meetings by faculty and former students.
12. Informal or unpublished papers by faculty and former students.
13. Number of patents and copyrights granted.
14. Number of dissertations supervised.
15. Awards to faculty and former students by professional associations.
16. Offices held in professional associations.
17. Number of visiting scholars or researchers.
18. Honorary degrees awarded to faculty and former students.
19. Number of fellowships awarded to faculty and former students.
20. Number of endowed chairs.
21. Number of faculty and former students invited to make presentations to professional and other meetings.

22. Number of faculty and former students invited elsewhere as visiting professors and scholars.
23. Number of faculty and former students serving on special invitation commissions, councils, study teams, or committees of experts.
24. Number of faculty and former students listed in American Men of Science, Who's Who, and similar publications.
25. Amount or use of application received by technological products developed.
26. Assessed economic valuation of the technological products developed.
27. Assessed social impact of technological products developed.

Appendix E

The Templeton Guide: Colleges that Encourage Character Development

Selection Criteria

1. A clear vision and statement of purpose
2. Significant and stable institutional resources
3. Strong character development dimension
4. Active involvement of institutional leaders, including faculty
5. Evidence of positive impact (for students, faculty, campus, community)
6. Impacts a significant percentage of students
7. Integration of program into the core curriculum or areas of academic study
8. A campus-based office or center that provides program information, recruitment and publicity, training, and coordination
9. Longevity of program
10. External recognition or honors
11. Assessment procedures

Table 13

Templeton Guide to College and University Programs

Type of Program	Description
First-Year Programs	60 college programs that offer students the tools to develop a "moral compass" to navigate between increased personal freedom and new responsibilities
Academic Honesty Programs	35 college programs that effectively communicate the values of honesty, trust, respect, responsibility, integrity, and fairness in the classroom
Faculty and Curriculum Programs	45 college programs that offer opportunities in the classroom for students to examine, reflect on, and articulate a set of moral ideals and commitments
Volunteer Service Programs	60 college programs that provide opportunities for students to learn through serving others in their communities and in the world
Substance-Abuse Prevention Programs	35 college programs that place character development at the heart of their alcohol- and drug-abuse prevention efforts
Student Leadership Programs	40 college programs that help students develop the competencies, conscience, and compassion required of leaders in a civil society
Spiritual Growth Programs	40 college programs, not all faith-related, that provide opportunities for students to develop a coherent vision of moral integrity that connects belief to behavior
Civic Education Programs	40 college programs that encourage students to develop the skills and habits of mind to become active, well-informed, responsible citizens in a democratic society
Character and Sexuality Programs	20 college programs that help students to learn, appreciate, and apply the core virtues of self-control, respect, responsibility, and integrity in their relationships
Senior-Year Programs	30 college programs that help seniors reflect on, connect, and attach meaning to their undergraduate experience

Appendix F

National Education Association Statement on Faculty Reward Structures Approved September 2000

(Available online: <http://www.nea.org/he/policy11.html>)

Preamble: The NEA believes that faculty reward structures should reflect the mission of the institution. The proper balance between teaching, service, and research is contingent on faculty and administration agreement upon the institutional mission of the particular campus. If that mission focuses on teaching, then the institution should reward good teaching. Institutions whose mission focuses on community outreach should reward service. The same principle is valid for research.

Faculty reward systems must have variety and reflect the realities of faculty work. Teaching is often the most difficult aspect of faculty work to assess. Faculty and administrators should use mutually agreed upon methods to document effective teaching. These methods might include such elements as teaching portfolios, videotaped classes, websites, peer and student evaluation, review of course outlines, reading lists, exams, effective use of instructional technology, and reliable indicators of student success.

Therefore, NEA has adopted the following principles to complement its Resolution on Evaluation and Promotion in Higher Education (D-22):

1. Reward structures should be flexible, should allow faculty to pursue and seek advancement in a variety of ways, and should allow faculty to pursue different interests at different times in their careers. Evaluation should be linked to performance of assigned responsibilities, career growth and development, as well as the pursuit of tenure, promotion and renewal, if applicable. The evaluations should be formative to encourage risk-taking and growth.
2. Disciplines may vary in their approach to the mix of teaching, research, and service. Attention should be paid to the criteria developed by the discipline associations.
3. Campuses need to recognize good teaching through appropriate, mutually agreed upon evaluation systems that include student, faculty and administrator input. Peer review should be the foundation of a higher education faculty evaluation system. The scope of teaching should take into consideration all aspects where faculty work with students in a learning situation.
4. The nature of the reward structure and the criteria for evaluation should be jointly developed through the traditional faculty governance processes and codified by the collective bargaining process where applicable. (See the NEA "Statement on Evaluation of Faculty" in *Quality and Higher Education: Defining Our Stance*.)

5. Campuses should promote effective teaching techniques through professional development opportunities for graduate assistants, adjuncts, and permanent faculty and develop appropriate documentation and evaluation procedures to evaluate teaching techniques for all classroom instructors.
6. New faculty should be given a comprehensive orientation to the institution, its mission and goals and the role of faculty. This orientation should provide them with the understanding of how the criteria for evaluation and reward will be applied. Mentoring programs should be in place on all campuses to assist new faculty in advancing teaching and research opportunities.
7. Faculty development and access to current instructional technology must be adequately funded.
8. Any reward system must take into consideration the principles of affirmative action.

Appendix G

Focus Group Session Overview

Institutional Review Board Statement

- the purpose of this investigation is to explore the meaning and value of professional service within the scholarly endeavors of education faculty in Mississippi;
- there are no foreseeable risks to the subject;
- subjects may benefit by being given the opportunity to explore and reflect upon the meaning and value of their chosen career;
- this focus group session will be recorded and transcribed (does anyone object?). Although information may be quoted in subsequent publication, participant names will not be used in connection with any information collected during the focus group interviews unless explicit permission is granted by the subject at a later time. Records will be kept confidential and will be maintained in a locked storage container at Mr. Schnaubelt's residence;
- participants should contact Mr. Schnaubelt at 601/982-0994 with pertinent questions about the research and research subjects' rights, or in the event of research-related injury to the subject;
- participation is voluntary, and refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled, and the subject may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled.

Overview/Opening Statement [begin to tape record session]

This focus group interview session is designed as part of a larger investigation of the meaning and value of service at schools, colleges and departments of education at Mississippi's public four-year universities. During this first phase, faculty from across the state will be asked to participate in small focus group sessions. These sessions will explore how faculty define service within the context of their scholarly work. Because our conversation will pertain to service within your professional lives, it is important to distinguish between the service one might engage in as a *citizen* and the service one might engage in as a *faculty member* (i.e., as part of their commitment to the field of education and/or to the college or university). Although these two types of service are not necessarily mutually exclusive, there is an important difference.

EXAMPLE: An education faculty member coordinating a local canned food drive (citizen) *versus* coordinating a local tutoring program (faculty member). **NOTE:** There may be ways in which the canned food drive is related to education as a discipline, but they are less apparent.

Two authors have recently written extensively on the subject of scholarship and service:

- Ernest Boyer's Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate; and,
- Ernest Lynton's Making the Case for Professional Service.

Both works focus on paying more respect and attention to the higher education mission of service through the work of college and university faculty. Boyer's work outlines a new way of defining the work of faculty that is a radical departure from the traditional concepts of teaching, research and service. Boyer's framework includes the following four modes of scholarship (Boyer, 1990, Chapter Two):

- Application – The process of simultaneously applying and contributing to human knowledge via professional activity. Application asks the questions, “How can knowledge be responsibly applied to consequential problems? How can it be helpful to individuals as well as institutions?”
- Discovery – Free and disciplined inquiry that contributes to a) the stock of human knowledge and b) to the intellectual climate of the college or university.
- Integration – Making connections across disciplines, placing specialties in larger context, illuminating data in a revealing way, educating non-specialists. Serious disciplined work that seeks to interpret, draw together, and bring new insight to bear on original research.
- Teaching – The work of educating and enticing future scholars. Teaching is a dynamic endeavor that recognizes that the work of a professor becomes consequential only when it is understood by others, and that it involves analogies, metaphors, and images that build bridges between the teacher's understanding and the student's learning.

The format of this focus group session will be of the general interview guide approach. Several questions have been drafted that outline a set of topics that are to be explored (not necessarily sequentially), and participants should feel free to expand on a subject or ask additional questions for clarification.

Focus Group Interview Discussion Questions

1. How does your university provide a service to the community?
2. In the past year, what work have you done that you believe qualifies as professional service?
3. What qualitative differences exist between service *within* the university and service to the community at large?
4. How does your department define service within the context of scholarship or professional work?
5. How do your colleagues define service within the context of scholarship or professional work?
6. How do you define service as it relates to your role as a faculty member?

Closing Remarks

Thank you for participating in this focus group session. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions, concerns or additional information relating to this topic.

Appendix H

Survey of Education Faculty at Public Universities in Mississippi

Institutional Review Board Informed Consent Statement

Thank you for taking time to complete the following survey. This survey takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. By signing and returning the following document, I acknowledge that:

- the purpose of this survey is to explore the meaning and value of professional service within the scholarly endeavors of education faculty in Mississippi;
- there are no foreseeable risks to the subject;
- subjects may benefit by being given the opportunity to explore and reflect upon the meaning and value of their chosen career;
- although information may be quoted in subsequent publication, individual participant names will not be used in connection with any information collected unless the subject grants explicit permission at a later time. Individual records will be kept confidential, paper records will be maintained in a locked storage container at Mr. Schnaubelt's residence and electronic records will be maintained on Mr. Schnaubelt's personal computer;
- participants should contact Mr. Schnaubelt at 601/264-3452 with pertinent questions about the research and research subjects' rights, or in the event of research-related injury to the subject;
- participation is voluntary, and refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled, and the subject may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled.
- this project has been reviewed by the Human Subjects Protection or Institution Review Board committee at each of the eight public universities, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the subject's campus committee or the principal investigator.

Alcorn State University Dr. Josephine Posey 1000 ASU Drive #989 Alcorn State, MS 39096-7500 Phone: 601-877-6149	Delta State University Dr. Reid Jones Academic Research Coordinator P.O. Box 3115 Cleveland, MS 38733 Phone: 662-846-4168 E-mail: rjones@dsu.delta.st.edu
Jackson State University Dr. Felix Okojie Vice President of Research and Development Office of Sponsored Programs P.O. Box 17129 Jackson, Mississippi 39217-0195 Phone: 601-979-2859	Mississippi State University Ms. Tracy Smart Arwood Regulatory Compliance Administrator 304 Bowen Hall, Mailstop 9564 P.O. Box 6156 Mississippi State, MS 39762 Phone: 662-325-3994
Mississippi University for Women Mr. Jim Davidson P.O. Box 981 Columbus, MS 39703 Phone: 662-329-7155	Mississippi Valley State University Dr. S.L. Ansah Department of Education 14000 Highway 82 West Itta Bena, MS 38941 Phone: 662-254-3618
University of Mississippi Dr. Diane W. Lindley Office of Research University, MS 38677 Phone: 662-915-7482	University of Southern Mississippi Dr. Gregory Eells, HSPRC Co-Chair Office of Research and Sponsored Programs USM Box 5157 Hattiesburg, MS 39406-5157 Phone: 601-266-4119

Participant Name (please print) _____

Participant Signature: _____

Date: _____

I. SURVEY OF EDUCATION FACULTY AT MISSISSIPPI'S PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

Please complete and return the following survey using the envelope provided (NOTE: Participants must also complete and return the informed consent form, which will be disaggregated from the surveys).

SECTION I: PERSONAL INFORMATION

In this section we are seeking information about you and your personal background which will in no way be identified with you.

1. GENDER Male Female

2. AGE (in years): _____

3. HIGHEST EARNED DEGREE (please check one): Bachelor's Degree
 Master's Degree
 Doctorate

4. FOR HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED IN HIGHER EDUCATION? _____

6. AT WHICH INSTITUTION ARE YOU CURRENTLY EMPLOYED?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Alcorn State University | <input type="checkbox"/> Mississippi University for Women |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Delta State University | <input type="checkbox"/> Mississippi Valley State University |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Jackson State University | <input type="checkbox"/> University of Mississippi |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mississippi State University | <input type="checkbox"/> University of Southern Mississippi |

6. FOR HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED AT THIS INSTITUTION? _____

7. WHAT IS YOUR CURRENT ACADEMIC RANK AT THIS INSTITUTION?

- Instructor
 Assistant Professor
 Associate Professor
 Full Professor
 Emeritus

8. WHAT IS YOUR CURRENT TENURE STATUS AT THIS INSTITUTION?

- Tenured
 Non-tenured – in tenure track
 Non-tenured – not in tenure track

SECTION TWO: PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY

Please indicate the approximate average amount of time (in hours) per week spent in each of the following areas by placing a “✓” in the appropriate box.

	Average Hours Per Week									
	0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	Over 40
Teaching/Instructional Support Preparation, classroom instruction, advising students, reading and evaluating student work.										
Research/Creative Work Reading literature; writing books, proposals or articles; conducting experiments or fieldwork.										
Internal Service Hours spent on committees providing service to the department, college, university or professional association.										
Public Service Hours spent providing non-instructional services to groups external to the university.										
Administration Hours spent coordinating a program and/or administering a department.										
Other Any other activity not included above.										

Publication Activity

	None	One to Five	Six to Ten	Eleven or more
Approximately how many articles have you ever published in academic or professional journals?				
Approximately how many books or monographs have you ever published or edited, alone or in collaboration?				

Please provide ONE example of a service activity that you have engaged in within the past year as part of your role as a faculty member (i.e., the activity will be cited as service during tenure/promotion review).

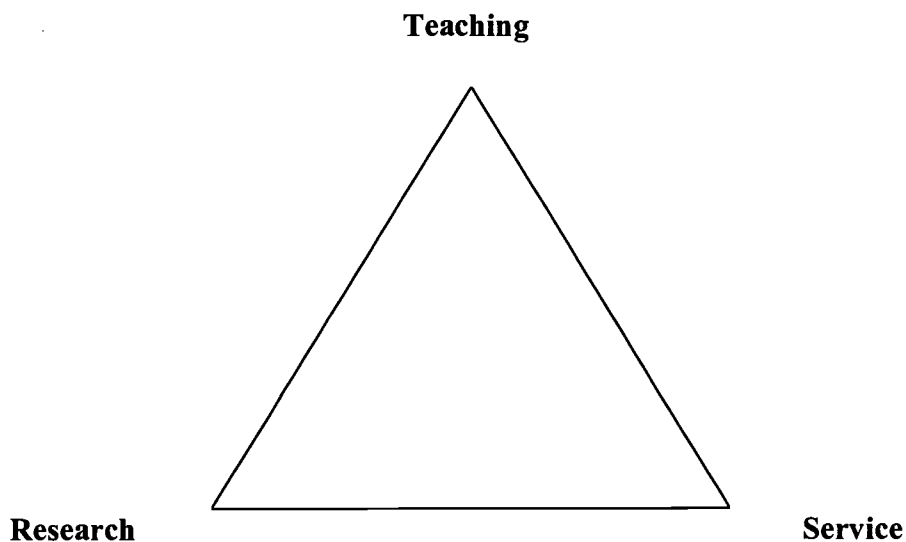
SECTION THREE: PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES

Please place an "X" in the box that corresponds to your response to the following statements.

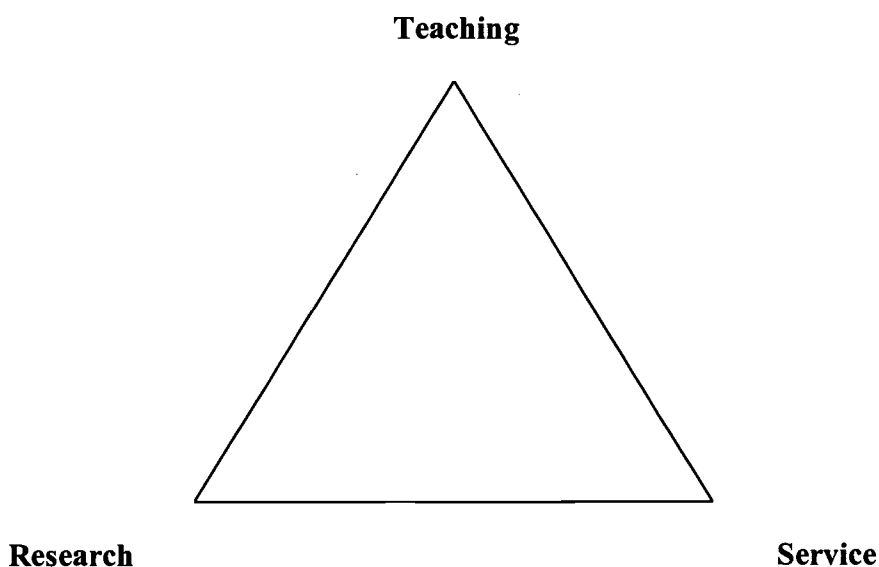
	Strongly Agree	Agree with reservations	Disagree with reservations	Strongly disagree	Not applicable
1. For me, service activity beyond the institution is a distraction and competes with essential academic work.					
2. Service is considered a mode of scholarship at this institution.					
3. Service is important in faculty evaluation at this institution.					
4. Teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for promotion of faculty.					
5. At my institution publications used for tenure and promotion are just counted, not qualitatively measured.					
6. At my institution we need better ways, besides publications, to evaluate scholarly performance of the faculty.					
7. The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at my university.					
8. Service expectations are clearly articulated in institutional and departmental tenure/promotion policies.					
	Very important	Fairly important	Fairly unimportant	Very unimportant	No opinion
9. How important is the number of publications for granting tenure and promotions in your department?					
10. How important are student evaluations of courses taught for granting tenure and promotions in your department?					
11. How important are observations of teaching by colleagues and/or administrators for granting tenure and promotions in your department?					
12. How important are recommendations from outside scholars for granting tenure and promotions in your department?					
13. How important are research grants received by the scholar for granting tenure and promotions in your department?					
14. How important are the reputations of the presses or journals publishing the books or articles for granting tenure and promotions in your department?					
15. How important are recommendations from other faculty within the institution for granting tenure and promotions in your department?					
16. How important is service within the university community for granting tenure and promotion in your department?					
17. How important is service within your discipline for granting tenure and promotion in your department?					

In the following section we would like you to consider the relative value of teaching, research and service. Please answer the questions graphically by placing a small dot within the triangle to represent the relative importance of the concepts with respect to the question.

What aspect of university life drew you to an academic career in education?



What aspect of your work is rewarded by the school, division, department or college of education?



Appendix I

Definitions from Faculty Focus Groups and Institutional Documents

Institution	Faculty Definition(s)	Institutional Definition(s)
Alcorn State University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “interactions that I provide by collaborating with people in other disciplines or other community-based agencies - interaction that provides those services that are needed based upon expertise, experience or strategies to improve learning or living.” “the ‘catch phrases’ like enhancement activities, empowerment activities, any activity that has as its primary objective to enable people to do better what they do or to provide resources to help them do better what they do” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “those [functions] performed for the university or those making faculty expertise available for public service, including faculty consultation within or outside the university. Service may include such activities as delivery of professional services, participation in departmental as well as university-wide committee work, fulfillment of administrative assignments, and contributions to the improvement of student and faculty life. Service may involve the ASU community, State of Mississippi or be at the national or international levels.”
Delta State University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “a demonstration of the values and the standards that drive your professionalism, providing services that would not otherwise be available and are needed in the population that the university serves (the students, the community, or any other agencies like the State Department or public schools in the area)” “a willingness and a desire to share your knowledge” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “The service component is based on performance in three areas: service to the faculty member’s academic profession, service to the University, and public service to the community which is related to the faculty member’s academic discipline.” (DSU Supplemental document)
Jackson State University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “activities where you utilize your professional expertise outside of class and outside of investigative research....to benefit any other outside group” A second faculty member agreed with the above definition, but stated that “I think that [it should also be] uncompensated” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “service” is defined as “academic citizenship,” which is “advising students, serving on committees, serving as faculty advisor to student organizations, participating actively in professional associations, and engaging in other university and community activities where faculty participation is required or expected”
Mississippi State University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “finding a way to make a difference in the life of children, or in the life of a child, in the lives of children and the life of child” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “Service activities include any which (1) enhance the excellence of the education and scholarly life of the University or its programs, (2) improve the

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “the commitment to our students and their future students, our immediate community at the university and of course the community at large... [a] dedication to the university and the community, and the state, and of course the world” • “Service is using one’s leadership potential to help others” 	<p>quality of life of society, or (3) promote the general welfare of the institution, the community and the state or nation”</p>
<p>Mississippi University for Women</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “acts above and beyond the activities that are stated in your job description...service, in my definition is something that is provided gratis” • “service is everything you do outside of your salaried job” <p>[NOTE: the “paid versus pro-bono” issue was brought up by the interviewees during this question.]</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “contributions to total university development and growth; participation in and performance on committee assignments; performance on administrative assignments; and contributions to the improvement of student life” • “provision of valuable professional and material resources to the community ranging from the individual involvement of faculty and staff to structured programs in continuing education, social awareness, and recreation” • “Service to the institution is (a) committee work, (b) special projects and assignments, (c) support of student activities and organizations, (d) community service in accordance with the purpose and objectives of the University, (e) fulfilling administrative assignment, (f) consultation and delivery of professional services within or outside of the University.”
<p>Mississippi Valley State University</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “giving time, energy, expertise” • “anything that is not teaching and research” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “the application of professional expertise which contributes to the solution of problems faced by modern society and enriches the life of the larger community served by the University. Service is related to the faculty member’s academic discipline and includes such varied activities as consultancies, clinical activities, editorial work for professional journals, service to professional organizations, and other forms of funded and unfunded public service. Faculty contributions to University, school or departmental governance shall also be considered in evaluating service” • “Service on national commissions, on governmental
<p>University of Mississippi</p>		

<p>University of Southern Mississippi</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [my] “intention to be a provider of service. To be providing something” • “sharing professional knowledge and expertise above and beyond your actual job description... service [is] just a sort of an add on” • “the things that you want to do that are a benefit to the people in addition to you – that they meet needs in some fashion or another” 	<p>agencies and boards, on grating agency peer-group review panels, on visiting committees or advisory groups to other universities, and on analogous bodies. The fundamental distinction between these activities and consulting is that they are public and University service. Although an honorarium or equivalent sometimes is forthcoming, these professional service activities are not undertaken for personal financial gain.”</p>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “nominally priced or gratuitous cultural, educational, medical, psychological, recreational and social services” • College of Education and Psychology document outlines three forms of service and provides guidelines (examples) of (1) community service, (2) university service, and (3) professional service

Appendix J

Examples of Service Activities Given During Focus Group Sessions

Institution	Responses/Examples
Alcorn State University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “worked with a school system to help them improve their test scores” • “we helped the civil defense team to put together a proposal to develop training activities that would better enable the employees” • “in-service and pre-service training for Head Start” • “work with the Barksdale Reading Initiative” (providing training) • “I teach courses at [a nearby community college] in the area of early childhood education”
Delta State University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “we worked with the State Department of Education on the Teacher Induction Program” • “workshops for teachers throughout the state” • “I have done a good bit of crisis intervention in schools” • “use my counseling a lot for Delta State students and for some students that come in from the community. Especially with things like ADD and stress management”
Jackson State University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “I probably serve on about a half dozen college committees..., about three university committees and the graduate council” • “serve on the board of a community health organization and I serve on the board of the Black Caucus for the American Association for Higher Education” • “work with Poindexter Elementary School...do the role model thing and...unpaid consultant services to the elementary school – writing grants and that kind of stuff” • “helping the Yazoo City Public Schools draw ideas and promotional kind of things to get a school bond issue past and build a new school” • “work on the faculty senate” • “helping several day care centers to write grants that would help provide playground equipment and available lunch” • “providing expert witness testimony as part of the Ayers higher education case”

<p>Mississippi State University</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • writing a “grant to work with probably 20 public school math teachers, in terms of strategies, effective strategies, or effective methods for teaching mathematics to middle and high school students” • coordinating a “children’s reading conference” • “recruiting activities for the Discovery Day” • hosting the annual “teacher’s reading conference”
<p>Mississippi Valley State University</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “writing syllabi for other departments, or editing other departments syllabi. In some cases actually writing up their NCATE folio for them” • “go into the schools and show regular and special education teachers how they might bring kids with disabilities in the classroom” • “the Institute for Effective Teaching Practices [reaches] to the community in terms of computer assistance, providing workshops, and to make sure that those effective teaching practices known” • “we had summer academy that was hosted to provide science and technology activities for school children here on campus”
<p>Mississippi University for Women</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • hosting an online magazine (ISTIE) • working with the Greater Columbus Learning Center, gifted students, Plymouth Bluff Environmental Education Center and the Hearon Leadership Center • Hosting Welty Weekend (a writers conference/symposium) • Assistant editor of an electronic journal • National and statewide professional presentations • Publishing two textbooks • Work with a local PTA and school district (training) • School-to-careers grant writing • Webpage development

<p>University of Mississippi</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “review software for science magazine, the professional journal of science teachers” • “serve on a committee of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics to review math folios for NCATE accreditation” • “I carried on pen-pal correspondence (Science by mail) with children in different schools across the country” • “worked as a consultant for the museums, [and] I’ve worked as a consultant for the Biological Field Station” • “served as the Secretary/Treasurer for the state organization under – it’s the MS Counselors, Educators and Supervisors” • “serve on several community advisory boards...One is the Exchange Club Family Center for the Prevention of Child Abuse” • “I work for Allied Enterprises which works with people with disabilities” • “I teach off campus every semester and I do a lot of extra speaking to promote our program”
<p>University of Southern Mississippi</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • advising • serving as a reading fair judge at a local middle school • review proposals for AERA • Working on NCATE folio committee • Administrative work for the department, committee work • Director of English education • Article reviews for a journal • Work as an early childhood advocate • Restructuring a new licensure program • Field experiences coordinator • Committee member for International Reading Association standing committee • Service-learning grant with Jones Elementary school • Collaborating with school districts and teachers

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