

UNIVERSITIES AND COMMUNITY SCHOOLS



STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Universities and Community Schools will not duplicate the work of any existing publication or association. Its unique purpose is to help establish an international informal “visible college”—or network of—academics and practitioners working, in different places and ways, to increase the contributions universities make to the development and effectiveness of community schools. Establishing such a systematic, sustained network is mandatory, we believe, for the university-school connection to function positively and significantly. (“University” is broadly conceived, i.e., all “post-secondary” institutions of “higher education.”)

We envision *Universities and Community Schools* as helping to spark a worldwide informal movement which aims to overcome major community and societal problems by developing mutually beneficial, innovative partnerships between universities and schools.

There is no subscription price for receiving *Universities and Community Schools*. We would like all those interested in the focus and purpose of this journal to receive copies. We, therefore, encourage those on our mailing list to suggest additional names.

We also encourage interested readers who are not on our mailing list to contact us. Please write or call us at the following address and phone number:

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2001 AS TURNING POINT: THE COMMUNITY-HIGHER EDUCATION- SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP IDEA BECOMES A NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL MOVEMENT

Lee Benson & Ira Harkavy
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When the first four-page issue of *Universities and Community Schools* was published in 1989, the idea of genuinely collaborative, mutually beneficial, partnerships among communities, higher education institutions (“higher-eds” for short), and public schools was in its visionary, experimental stage. To mix metaphors shamelessly, this 141 page issue of the journal demonstrates that by 2001 that visionary idea had taken firm root, spread widely, and flourished in an impressive variety of innovative forms. Developed in the United States, it is now radiating out to such distant countries as South Africa and Australia.

Though subsequent issues of *Universities and Communities Schools* will contain reports from other countries, this issue limits itself to American examples. But as the paper by the two of us which follows this introduction demonstrates, American higher eds are now closely collaborating with higher eds in other countries to develop “The Role of Community-Higher Education-School Partnerships in Educational and Societal Development and Democratization.” That lengthy title was specified by The Joint Education Trust, which commissioned the paper for presentation to the Department of Education, South Africa. It specified that title in order to make clear the tripartite nature as the foundation of its comprehensive long-term plan to help overcome severe post-apartheid problems and significantly improve the democratic quality of life in South Africa.

Before commissioning us to write the paper, delegations from South Africa had made several visits to the University of Pennsylvania, and had been impressed by the positive results achieved by the higher education-assisted community schools it had helped develop in West Philadelphia. They had also become convinced that the partnerships model which Penn had developed with its local community and public schools was relevant enough and flexible enough to be highly effective in South Africa. Copies of the paper were widely circulated in advance of a three-week visit to South Africa by one of us, Ira Harkavy, in the summer of 2000 and served as the basis of stimulating, fruitful discussion with high-ranking South African academics and government officials. Those discussions lead to the conclusion that the community-higher ed-school partnership idea could indeed be creatively adapted to the needs and resources of societies other than the United States. Subsequently, similar collaborative relationships have been developed between Penn and Australian universities and the Australians are now in the process of adapting the basic community-higher ed-school partnership model to their own particular needs and resources.

The second paper in this issue is by Francis E. Johnston and Amelia Rosenberg Weinreb of the University of Pennsylvania, "Linking Intellectual Resources and Community Needs at the University of Pennsylvania." As that title suggests, it presents a systematic, intensive candid evaluation of how well Penn's resources have been used to meet the needs of its local community, West Philadelphia, with particular attention to the community's public schools. The third paper by Eric M. Anderman, of the University of Kentucky, "Motivation During the Middle School Years: The Case of Community Schools," reports on another evaluation study of university-school partnerships. In this instance, the study focused on the results of a partnership between the University of Kentucky and a middle school with which it worked to test the utility of the higher ed-assisted community school model.

The next paper by Stephen L. Percy and Mary Jane Brukardt of the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, "To Change a University, Start With the Community," focuses on the changes produced in a university when it reorganizes itself to use its resources to help improve the quality of life in its local community, in this case the entire city of Milwaukee. Appropriately enough, the paper which follows it by Jilaine W. Fewell, Christine G. Overtoom, and Oliver P. Jones, "Organizing the Campus To Be In Partnership With Schools and the Community: Ohio State's Campus Collaborative," also reports the results of collaboration between a university, Ohio State, and its neighboring communities in Columbus, Ohio.

The next paper by Hal Lawson of the State University of New York at Albany, "Beyond Community Involvement and Service Learning to Engaged Universities," doesn't report on specific university-community relationships; instead it examines the general problems universities confront when they try to transform themselves into "engaged universities." It is followed by a paper authored by a quintet of faculty at Virginia Commonwealth University, "Integrating Services and Training," that examines the specific problems a university confronts when it develops and implements an "interdisciplinary training experience for professional students in nursing, social work, and child clinical psychology" working to provide health services for a local elementary school. This issue concludes with a paper by Nick Cutforth of the University of Denver and Don Hellison, of the University of Illinois at Chicago, whose title is virtually self-explanatory, "Capitalizing on the Popularity of Sport and Physical Activity Among University Youth: Breaking New Ground in University/Community Cultures."

Taken together, we believe that the papers in this issue strongly support our introductory proposition that by 2001 the visionary community-higher education-school partnership idea "had taken firm root, spread widely, and flourished in an impressive variety of innovative forms."

THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY- HIGHER EDUCATION-SCHOOL PARTNERSHIPS IN EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIETAL DEVELOPMENT AND DEMOCRATIZATION

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It is not possible to run a course aright when the goal itself is not rightly placed.
—Francis Bacon, *Novum Organum* (1620)

Democracy has been given a mission to the world, and it is of no uncertain character. I wish to show that the university is the prophet of this democracy, as well as its priest and its philosopher; that in other words the university is the Messiah of the democracy, its to-be-expected deliverer.

—William Rainey Harper, *The University and Democracy* (1899)

The truth of a scientific proposition, finding, or an abstract ethical principle is not a static property inherent in it. Truth happens as the result of the management of human affairs. It becomes true, is discovered and made true by actions [original emphasis]... Knowledge cannot be separated from the process of its implementation... Truth is knowledge that is gained through the process of implementation. Truth is thereby not only equated with implementation, but it is only said to have occurred, or resulted when implementation has occurred.

—C. West Churchman and Ian I. Mitroff, *The Management of Science and the Mismanagement of the World* (1998)

To be a great university we must be a great local university [emphasis added].
—Shirley Strum Kenny, President, State University of New York, Stony Brook, *New York Times* (August 18, 1999)

To begin this action-oriented, real-world problem-solving paper, we sketch a classic good news/bad news scenario. In our scenario's optimistic version, the 21st century becomes the global Democratic Century—the century which witnesses practical fulfillment of the democratic promise long heralded by progressive prophets and visionaries. In its pessimistic version, a radically different outcome materializes: the 21st century world becomes so divided by such “savage inequalities” that anything like democratic practice becomes unimaginable. What will actually happen in the 21st century, of course, probably will fall somewhere between those opposite poles. They are best conceived, therefore, as ideal-type “fields of force” pulling societies, indeed the world, in opposite directions.

Which “field” will prove most “forceful”? That depends. Depends on what? Depends on what individuals and institutions do—and fail to do. Higher education, we believe (hope), will function as the most powerful agent of change in the 21st century, *the Agent* most likely to have the most profound, most far-reaching, effects. How can we justify that proposition? Before trying to do so, we sketch a few more details of our possible 21st century scenarios.

First the good news: At the dawn of the new millennium, democracy is both the primary mode of societal organization and the prevailing concept of how a good society should work. As the distinguished political scientist Robert Dahl observed in his magisterial book, *On Democracy* (1998): “During the last half of the twentieth century the world witnessed an extraordinary and unprecedented political change. All of the main alternatives to democracy either disappeared, turned into eccentric survivals, or retreated from the field to hunker down in their last strongholds.”¹ But Dahl then went on to emphasize that little reason exists to indulge in democratic triumphalism: less than half the world's population now actually lives in even nominally democratic societies and, even in long-established democracies, crises of participation and confidence in government continually manifest themselves. Nonetheless, it seems clear that the democratic *idea* now functions as *the* most powerful animating idea inspiring and motivating individuals and institutions throughout the world. Metaphorically speaking, new communication and information technologies increasingly provide the “wings” which, directly and indirectly, carry the democratic idea across the globe. Authoritarian leaders and governments, for

example, cannot effectively seal off information and ideas transmitted in nanoseconds through cyberspace. It also seems clear, however, the irrepressible communication and information revolutions which spread the “democratic word” can simultaneously put democracy in great jeopardy.

Global democracy is not the inevitable outcome of the rapidly accelerating communication/information revolution. On the contrary. Taking history as our guide—particularly the horrendous history of the past century (e.g., Holocaust, Hiroshima, Chernobyl)—it becomes obvious that extraordinary advances in science and technology can produce unspeakable horrors rather than human progress. Unless controlled by an international movement powerful enough to develop science and technology for democratic humane purposes, the accelerating global information revolution may forcefully exemplify the “law of unintended consequences” and create “digital divides” and “savage inequalities” which, in turn, produce a self-aggrandizing plutocracy of, by, and for the very highly educated and the very, very rich.

As philosopher William Sullivan has emphasized, creating the necessary conditions to realize the humane use of science and technology is anything but a new problem. To a significant extent it constituted the fundamental problem of the 18th century Enlightenment, the fundamental problem of human existence to which Francis Bacon had directed attention as early as the 17th century, namely: *How can human beings organize, produce, advance, and practically use knowledge so that the “advancement of learning” contributes optimally to “the relief of man’s estate?”*² For brevity's sake, we identify that extraordinarily complex problem as *Bacon's Problem*.

A great admirer of Bacon, John Dewey's work is best viewed as focused on solving an updated democratic version of *Bacon's Problem*. In Dewey's version, it takes this form: How can science and technology be conducted and controlled to help bring about the Humane Democratic Age (again our term) of human evolution and thereby justify the Enlightenment's faith in the progress of human reason? In his major political work on the *Public and Its Problems* (1927), Dewey argued, optimum development of human beings' biological capacity for intelligent, imaginative thought and behavior required modern democratic societies to base themselves on a radically new type

of local community. Transcending the old parochial local community, the new local community Dewey envisioned would be characterized by humanistic, progressive, universalistic values, as well as deep, trusting, personal relationships. Only by constructing such historically unprecedented face-to-face “democratic cosmopolitan neighborly communities” (our term for Dewey's creative concept and theory) could a democratic Public find itself, practice participatory democracy, function as a rational, collaborative, cohesive body to realize the full societal benefits of modern science and technology, and thereby solve Bacon's Problem.³

Given Dewey's fundamentally “bookish” temperament, however, by “nature” and training he was ill-suited and ill-prepared to engage in the systematic analysis of conflict and power in social organizations and societies. Understandably but unfortunately, therefore, he evaded the hard, practical problems involved in specifying the agents (individuals or institutions) and strategies likely to construct, develop, and maintain the cosmopolitan neighborly communities he envisioned as mandatory for democratic progress. He subsequently changed his mind but in his early writings Dewey tended to identify the schooling system as the strategic subsystem in modern society.⁴ In effect, he essentially argued, only a democratic, integrated (pre-K through 16+), real-world problem-solving, schooling system would, on balance, enable human beings to benefit from the profound changes resulting from a rapidly industrializing society. Alas, as was true of Dewey's lifelong body of work, though he advocated a radically changed American schooling system, he characteristically evaded grappling with fundamental problems of conflict and power. Since he evaded grappling with the hard problems of conflict and power entailed by his proposed changes, he failed to specify the agent(s) and strategy that could actually bring about the democratic schooling system and society he advocated. Very bluntly stated, Dewey essentially wished for radical changes, he didn't do the hard thinking needed to realize them.

Having praised Dewey's democratic visions and sharply criticized his intellectual evasions, we are obligated to try to do what we criticized him for not doing: we have to specify the agent(s) and strategy likely to realize his—and our—democratic visions. To begin that process, we assert this general proposition: In the 21st century, American

higher educational institutions, particularly research universities, will have both the capacity *and* the motivation to function as the strategic agents powerful enough, determined enough, to create integrated real-world problem-solving schooling systems and democratic cosmopolitan neighborly communities. Later in the paper, we sketch our reasons for believing that they can be realized in practice. Here we simply note that our overall strategy derives from this basic assumption: In the global era of an irrepressible, accelerating communication/information revolution where *great capacity for knowledge-production and use really is power*, American universities (broadly conceived) can be persuaded that their primary mission should be to help bring about the participatory democratic society John Dewey envisioned as the optimally intelligent, optimally moral, form of human social organization. To justify the Neo-Deweyan priority we give to universities and schooling systems as agents of progressive societal change, we turn to the “Dewey-Plato debate.”

1. Education and Society: John Dewey vs. Plato

Plato was the philosopher John Dewey most liked to read. Though he admired Plato, their worldviews differed radically. For our purposes, we need note only two basic differences: Plato’s worldview was aristocratic and contemplative, Dewey’s was democratic and activist. Despite their many differences, in certain crucial respects Dewey shared Plato’s views about the relationships between education and society. To make the point economically, we quote Steven M. Cahn, a leading philosopher of education. According to Dewey:

...philosophy of education was the most significant phase of philosophy...[F]or Dewey “all social philosophy was at bottom philosophy of education implicitly or explicitly.” As he put it, “it would be difficult to find a single important problem of general philosophic inquiry that does not come to a burning focus in matters of the determination of the proper subject matter of studies, the choice of methods of teaching, and the problem of the social organization and administration of the schools.”⁵

Noting that other philosophers also emphasized the importance of education, Cahn quoted Kant’s proposition that “the greatest and most

difficult problem to which man can devote himself is the problem of education.” Cahn then observed that he knew of:

...only two major philosophers who exemplified this principle in their philosophical work, one was Dewey, the other was Plato. He too found it difficult to discuss any important philosophic problem without reference to the appropriateness of various subjects of study, methods of teaching, strategies of learning. But while Dewey’s philosophy of education rested on his belief in democracy and the power of scientific method, Plato’s philosophy of education rested on his belief in aristocracy and the power of pure reason. Plato proposed a planned society, Dewey a society engaged in continuous planning. Plato considered dialectical speculation to be the means toward the attainment of truth; Dewey maintained that knowledge is only acquired through intelligent action...Suffice it to say that John Dewey is the only thinker ever to construct a philosophy of education comparable in scope and depth to that of Plato.⁶

Summarized even more starkly: Plato’s philosophy of education aimed to achieve aristocratic order, Dewey’s to achieve democratic community.

Like the ancient Greek philosopher, Dewey theorized that education and society were dynamically interactive and interdependent. It followed, then, that if human beings hope to develop and maintain the particular type social order or society they regard as the optimum form of human social organization, they must develop and maintain the particular type of education system conducive to it. Stated in negative propositional form: No participatory democratic schooling system, no participatory democratic society. Stated positively: To develop and maintain a participatory democratic society—Dewey’s optimally intelligent, optimally moral, form of society—human beings must develop and maintain a participatory democratic schooling system.

Dewey strongly affirmed the truth of that theoretical proposition. As noted above, however, he was temperamentally “bookish” by “nature” and training. Since he was ill-suited and ill-prepared for the systematic analysis of conflict and power, let alone the effective use of power, he failed to develop and implement any concrete plan to apply that proposition in practice. After leaving the University of Chicago in 1904 and becoming an academic “superstar,” Dewey continued to preach the necessity of pragmatic action. But for some

complex set of reasons that we can only guess at, he essentially evaded his responsibility to practice actively what he preached eloquently—a scholastic evasion which, given Dewey’s prestige and influence, helped rationalize, legitimate, and perpetuate the strong tendency of “American Scholars” to “wimp out” and leave the action-oriented, purposive integration of theory and practice much “more honor’d in the breach than the observance.”

Ironically, in direct contrast to the philosophically contemplative Plato who pragmatically created a remarkably influential Academy to implement his aristocratic philosophy of education and society, the philosophical activist Dewey failed to even try to institutionalize his democratic philosophy of education and society, except by “lay preaching” (to quote our colleague, Murray Murphey). That is, despite the powerful example of Plato’s Academy—an Academy whose elitist, idealist, philosophy continues to dominate Western schooling systems to this day—Dewey flagrantly violated his own powerful general theory of “how to think” intelligently. Essentially relying on rhetoric, he failed to work instrumentally to institute the inquiry-based, action-oriented, experimental, democratic schooling system logically required by his participatory democratic philosophy of society. Put another way, he took no action to institute the democratic “American Academy” necessary to overthrow Plato and bring about the participatory democratic society he deeply believed in and passionately wanted to help construct the type of society based upon the “belief that democracy as an ethical ideal calls upon men and women to build communities in which the necessary opportunities and resources are available for every individual to realize fully his or her particular capacities and powers through participation in political, social and cultural life.”

In our judgment, democratic American academics should stop indulging in never-ending, hermeneutic disputes over what Dewey “really” said or meant to say. Stated more forcefully, they should shut down the Dewey-interpretation industry. They should shut it down because it is “fruitful of controversies but barren of works,” to invoke Francis Bacon’s characterization of the unproductive “childish chatter” of the dogmatically disputatious ancient Greek philosophers who admired clever idealist arguments but disdained practical action in the “inferior material world.”

Breaking free from scholastic deconstruction and disputation, democratic American academics should constructively pay homage to Dewey by acting to progress beyond him and practically solve the problems he evaded. *Theory is not enough; theory-guided, theory-testing, theory-developing, experimental action is vital.*

Specifically, how do we transform the overall American schooling system so that it actively functions as the “democratic public work” which Dewey, in effect, called for? How do we best overthrow Plato and successfully *implement* Dewey’s democratic schooling theory so that it becomes true in real-world practice, not simply in abstract principle? Most critically, how do we develop and *implement* democratic pedagogy and democratic schools for democratic citizenship? Those are terribly hard problems. They require terribly hard thought and work. To focus attention on them and stimulate sustained, integrated theoretical debate and experimental action, we sketch our “solutions”.

2. Democracy, Democratic Schooling and the American Research University

The path toward democratic schooling begins with and runs through the American research university. Moreover, as suggested above, we view the American research university as the primary Agent to advance societal democratization by means of democratic schooling. In 1990, while president of Harvard, Derek Bok, highlighted the growth in importance of universities since World War II:

...all advanced nations depend increasingly on three critical elements: new discoveries, highly trained personnel, and expert knowledge. In America, universities are primarily responsible for supplying two of these three ingredients and are a major source of the third. That is why observers ranging from Harvard sociologist Daniel Bell to editorial writers from the Washington Post have described the modern university as the central institution in post-industrial society...⁸

Bok did not explicitly emphasize, however, what we regard as the most critical reason for higher education’s leadership role. We think it axiomatic that the schooling system functions as the core subsystem—the strategic subsystem—of modern information societies. More than any other subsystem, it now influences the functioning of the societal system as a whole; the

subsystem, which, on balance, has the greatest “multiplier” effects, direct and indirect, short and long-term. We think it equally axiomatic that universities—particularly elite research universities with highly selective arts and science colleges—function as the primary shapers of the overall American schooling system. The powerful role of research universities stems not only from their enormous prestige and power—they serve, in effect, as the reference group that defines and shapes the entire schooling hierarchy—but from their far-reaching role in educating teachers.

At the turn of the twentieth century, William Rainey Harper, the first president of the University of Chicago (1892-1906), identified the urban “Great University” (his term) as the most strategic organizational innovation of modern society. To build a great university and help realize in practice the democratic promise of America, Harper argued that the University of Chicago must take serious responsibility for developing and implementing solutions to active engagement with the severe problems confronting its dynamically growing city, particularly its public school system. Criticized by a university trustee for sponsoring a journal focused on pedagogy in *precollegiate* schools, for example, Harper emphatically proclaimed: “As a university we are interested *above all else in pedagogy*” [emphasis added]. Harper’s devotion to pedagogy logically derived from two propositions central to his truly Messianic vision for the University of Chicago in particular, for American universities in general, and (eventually) for universities throughout the world.

1. “Education is the basis of all democratic progress. The problems of education are, therefore, the problems of democracy.”
2. More than any other institution, the university determines the character of the schooling system. To quote him: “Through the school system, the character of which, in spite of itself, the university determines and in a larger measure controls...through the school system every family in this entire broad land of ours is brought into touch with the university; for from it proceeds the teachers or the teachers’ teachers.”⁹

Has Harper’s vision been realized? *On balance*, has the American higher educational system positively contributed to the successful functioning of the American schooling system? To answer

that question, we obviously must first determine how best to conceive and measure “successful functioning.” Do scores on standardized tests, for example, really tell us much about the state of American schooling? Does the widening chasm in the educational achievement of urban, largely minority (primarily African-American and Latino) youth and their largely white suburban counterparts tell us much more? To answer such very hard questions requires us to think very hard and to specify explicitly the aim(s) and methods of schooling.

Once again, Dewey’s work, with its strong emphasis on education for democracy, provides a good *theoretical* beginning. In a recent article on “Democracy and Inquiry,” Charles Anderson perceptively summarized Dewey’s position:

Dewey thought that democratic citizenship could be understood as the unifying aim of education [emphasis added]. But Dewey thought of democracy as but one manifestation of a power that was vested in and distinctive in humanity. That power was inquiry...

Inquiry, Dewey taught, was the method of democracy. It was also the method of science. And as the century wore on, it in fact became the method of management, of the law, of education itself.

*Here then is a theme that can unify education as it unifies the spheres of everyday life [emphasis added]. Citizenship now carries enhanced meaning. It pertains not just to public affairs but to our performance in every realm of life [original emphasis].*¹⁰

Informed by Dewey’s theory of “inquiry-based, real-world action-oriented, participatory democratic schooling for participatory democratic citizenship” (our lengthy term for Dewey’s powerful set of concepts), we are convinced that, *on balance*, American universities have had, and continue to have, harmful effects on the American public school system. Rhetorically proclaiming democratic purposes, American higher education has strongly tended to function in practice as an essentially Platonic, elitist, anti-democratic system. Put another way, Plato (updated by Vilfredo Pareto and his modern Machiavellian theory of circulating elites) still dominates the American university and helps ensure the inability of public schools to perform their roles well, particularly their critical role of effectively providing

democratic schooling and democratic pedagogy for a democratic society. To “prove” (sic) that complex theoretical proposition would require a long paper. Here we simply call attention to the direct and indirect harmful effects resulting from: (1) the powerful university pressures to produce high school graduates suitable for admission to essentially Platonic prestigious colleges; (2) the “deliberate choice” of leading Graduate Schools of Education to largely ape the much more prestigious Schools of Arts and Sciences, thereby “distancing themselves from both the task of training teachers for elementary and secondary schools and that of addressing the problems and needs of those schools.”¹¹

Our position is simple, unequivocal: no democratic radical reform of American higher education, no successful democratic schooling reform, no truly democratic society. Summarized succinctly: Participatory democratic societies require the development of participatory democratic universities. The radical reform of higher education will most likely occur, we hypothesize, in the crucible of significant, serious, sustained, active engagement with public schools and their local communities. Scholastic, abstract, contemplative, ivory tower isolation neither sheds intellectual light nor produces societal fruit. Fortunately, a rapidly growing and deepening University Civic Responsibility Movement is now emerging and working to create a new “engaged,” democratic American university with major intellectual and societal promise.¹²

During the 1960s, it will be recalled, angry rebellious students demanding “relevance,” “participation,” and “community,” fought unsuccessfully to get universities to take appropriate responsibility for the quality of life in their local communities. Dormant for more than a decade, the movement for university civic responsibility revived during the 1980s and 1990s. This time, however, *it was primarily led by university presidents and administrators*. What seems to bode particularly well for the durability and future strength of the revived movement is this unprecedented development: In remarkable contrast to the 1960s, *university presidents, faculty, and students are now beginning to work together, enthusiastically and collaboratively*, to improve the quality of life in their local communities. (History sometimes does “teach lessons” that some human beings sometimes do learn.)

Following Donald Kennedy’s stimulating lead in a recent book, *Academic Duty*, we view American higher education as now in the early stages of its third “revolution.”¹³ The first revolution, of course, occurred in the late 19th century. Beginning at Johns Hopkins in 1876, the accelerating adoption and uniquely American *adaptation* of the German model revolutionized American higher education. By the turn of the century, the uniquely American research university had essentially been created. The second revolution began in 1945 with Vannevar Bush’s “endless [research] frontier” Manifesto and rapidly produced the Big Science, Cold War, Entrepreneurial University.¹⁴ The third revolution, we believe, can be dated (somewhat arbitrarily) as beginning in 1989. The fall of the Berlin Wall, the crack-up of the Soviet Union, and the end of the Cold War provided the necessary condition for the “revolutionary” emergence of the Democratic Cosmopolitan Civic University—the radically new type of “Great University” which William Rainey Harper prophesied would be capable of advancing democratic schooling and practical realization of the democratic promise of America *for all Americans*.

How can we credibly explain the emergence of the Democratic Cosmopolitan Civic University a century after Harper first envisioned it? Largely (though oversimply), as a *defensive response* to the increasingly obvious, increasingly embarrassing, increasingly immoral, contradiction between the increasing status, wealth, power, and dominant role of American higher education in American society—particularly its elite research university component—and the increasingly pathological state of American cities.

To paraphrase Oliver Goldsmith’s late 18th century lament for *The Deserted Village*, while American research universities flourished in the late 20th century as never before, “ill-fared the American city, to hastening ills a prey.” If American research universities really were so great, why were American cities so pathological? After the Cold War ended, the contradiction became increasingly obvious, troubling, indefensible, immoral.

Put another way, the manifest contradiction between the *power* and the *performance* of American higher education sparked the emergence of the Democratic Cosmopolitan Civic University. Knowledge is Power. Power means—or *power based on great capacity for knowledge-production*

and use should mean—Responsible Performance. Accelerating external and internal pressures forced research universities, therefore, to recognize (very, very reluctantly) that they must function as moral/intellectual institutions *simultaneously, symbiotically engaged in the advancement of universal knowledge and the improvement of local well being*. Put still another way, after 1989, the combination of external pressure and enlightened self-interest increasingly spurred American research universities to recognize that they would benefit greatly if they functioned simultaneously as *universal* and as *local* institutions of higher education, i.e., democratic cosmopolitan civic institutions not only *in* but *of* and *for* their local communities.

To reduce (if not avoid) misunderstanding, we emphasize that we view the “third revolution” as still in its early—very early—stages. As the old academic joke has it, American universities constitute such remarkably self-contradictory, internally-competitive and conflictual, institutions that they tend to move with all the speed of a runaway glacier. But things *are* changing, in the right direction. One indicator of positive change is the accelerating number and variety of “higher eds”—a less cumbersome term than “higher educational institutions”—which now *publicly proclaim* their desire to collaborate actively with their neighboring public schools and local communities. Predictably, to-date, public proclamations of collaboration far surpass tangible, interactive, mutually respectful and mutually beneficial, collaboration. Nevertheless, progress is being made.

To help accelerate progress to the point where major changes become firmly institutionalized and produce really significant results, we call for acceptance of this radical proposition: *All higher eds should explicitly make solving the problem of the American schooling system their highest institutional priority; their contributions to its solution should count heavily both in assessing their institutional performance and in responding to their requests for renewed or increased financial support*. Actively helping to develop an effective, integrated, optimally democratic, pre-K through higher ed schooling system, we contend, should become the collaborative primary mission of, and *primary performance test for*, American universities and colleges.

Primary mission, of course, doesn't mean *sole* mission. Obviously, American higher eds now have—and will continue to have—important mis-

sions other than collaboratively helping to solve the problem of the American schooling system. If space permitted, we would try to show in detail how those other missions would benefit greatly from successful collaborative work on the schooling problem. Here we restrict ourselves to bare-bones statement of three corollary propositions: (1) Given the radically disruptive, complex consequences (e.g., political, economic) of the extraordinarily rapid development of information societies throughout the world, given the critical role schooling must play in such societies, solving the schooling system problem should now constitute American society's highest priority. (2) Solving the overall problem of the schooling system must begin with changes at the higher ed level. (3) If higher eds genuinely take responsibility for solving the overall schooling system problem, in the long run, directly and indirectly, they will secure *much greater resources than they now have to carry out all their important missions*.

In the short run, we concede, our proposed mission change would require higher eds to experience the trauma entailed by any attempt to change academic priorities and cultures radically. In effect, we are calling on higher eds to reallocate the largest share of their intellectual (and other) resources to the immediate improvement of their neighboring public schools and communities. Given their present ferociously competitive, “pure research” orientation (fixation?), how in the world can we possibly expect higher eds to answer our call positively rather than derisively, dismissively, contemptuously? Is our proposal to change academic priorities so lacking in good sense, so “revolutionary,” so anachronistically ultra-leftist, that readers will angrily reject it as irresponsible, self-defeating, delusionary utopianism? To pun a phrase: Are we nuts?

We can pose the question less colloquially, more academically: Since they themselves are not experiencing any crisis, why should self-congratulatory, self-aggrandizing, increasingly rich, prestigious, powerful, “successful,” American universities take on the terribly hard job of trying to transform themselves into civic institutions which actively, wholeheartedly, accept collaboration with their local schools and communities as their categorical imperative for the new millennium? They should try to do that, we contend, for good (in several senses) institutional reasons: If they succeed, they will be much better able than they

are now to achieve their morally-inspired, devoutly-believed, self-professed, loudly-trumpeted, missions; namely, to advance, preserve, and transmit the knowledge, as well as help produce the highly-skilled, well-educated, cultured, truly moral citizens, necessary to develop and maintain an optimally democratic society.¹⁵ At bottom, we are convinced, American universities and academics do not primarily want to do well, *they primarily want to do good*. In a sense, how best to satisfy that desire is the principal—and principled—problem American universities and academics must solve in the 21st century.

To understate the case extravagantly, the radical transformation sketched above will be extraordinarily hard to achieve. But it is not impossible, we contend, provided that universities and academics really embrace it as their categorical imperative and work creatively to develop and implement a strategy in which community-higher education-school partnerships function as the core means to realize an effective, compassionate, “democratic devolution revolution.” To delineate that strategy, we (very oversimply) recite the recent history of our own university.

3. Penn's Engagement with Local Public Schools as a Practical Example of “Democratic Devolution Revolution”

Since 1985, Penn has increasingly engaged itself with its local public schools in a comprehensive school-community-university partnership, the West Philadelphia Improvement Corps (WEPIC). In its fifteen years of operation, the project, has evolved significantly. Moreover, it has helped spawn a variety of related projects which also engage Penn with public schools in its local community, West Philadelphia. From its inception, we conceptualized Penn's work with WEPIC as designed to forge *mutually beneficial and mutually respectful* university-school-community partnerships. In recent years, we have begun to conceptualize that work in much broader terms; namely, as part of a (literally) radical attempt to advance a “democratic devolution revolution.”¹⁶ It is from that “lofty perch,” we believe, that an overview of Penn's work (and the work of many other higher educational institutions increasingly engaged with their local public schools and communities) is best comprehended.

For nearly a generation, John Gardner, arguably the leading spokesperson for what we

lengthily call the “New American Democratic, Cosmopolitan, Civic University,” has been thinking and writing about organizational devolution and the university's potential role in it. For Gardner, the effective functioning of organizations requires the planned and deliberate rather than *ad hoc* and haphazard devolution of functions:

We have in recent decades discovered some important characteristics of the large-scale organized systems—government, private sector, whatever, under which so much of contemporary life is organized. One such characteristic, perhaps the most important, is that the tendency of such systems to centralize must be countered by deliberate dispersion of initiative downward and outward through the system. The corporations have been trying to deal with this reality for almost 15 years and government is now pursuing it...

What this means for government is a substantially greater role for the states and cities. And none of them are entirely ready for that role...Local government must enter into collaborative relations with nongovernmental elements.

So how can colleges and universities be of help?¹⁷

In effect, Gardner proposes a multisided involvement in “contemporary life” for “higher eds,” including building community, convening public discussions, educating public-spirited leaders, offering continuing civic and leadership seminars, and providing a wide range of technical assistance (broadly conceived). An effective, compassionate, democratic devolution revolution, he emphasizes, requires much more than practicing new forms of interaction among federal, state, and local governments and among agencies at each level of government. For Gardner, government integration by itself does not meaningful change make. New forms of interaction among the public, for-profit, and non-profit sectors are also mandatory. Government must function as a collaborating partner, effectively *facilitating* rather than imposing cooperation among all sectors of society, including higher educational institutions, to support and strengthen individuals, families, and communities.¹⁸

To extend Gardner's observations about universities (and similar observations by such highly influential thinkers as Ernest Boyer, Derek Bok, Lee Shulman, Alexander Astin), we propose a

democratic devolution revolution.¹⁹ In our proposed “revolution,” government serves as a powerful catalyst and largely provides the funds needed to create stable, ongoing, effective partnerships. But government would function only as a second-tier deliverer of services, with universities, community-based organizations, unions, churches, other voluntary associations, school children and their parents, and community members functioning as the first-tier operational partners. That is, various levels and departments of government would guarantee aid and significantly finance welfare services (broadly conceived as “promoting the general welfare”). Local, personalized, caring services, however, would actually be delivered by the Third (private, non-profit, voluntary associations) and Fourth (personal, i.e., family, kin, neighbors, friends) Sectors of society. Put another way, government would not be primarily responsible for the delivery of services; it primarily would have macro fiscal responsibilities, including fully adequate provision of funds.

The strategy we propose requires adapting the work of local institutions (e.g., universities, hospitals, faith-based organizations) creatively and intelligently to the particular needs and resources of local communities. It assumes that colleges and universities, which simultaneously constitute pre-eminent international, national, and local institutions, *potentially* constitute very powerful partners, “anchors,” and creative catalysts for change and improvement in the quality of life in American cities and communities. (That assumption, it seems worth emphasizing, served as the intellectual inspiration and foundation for William Rainey Harper’s conception of the urban “Great University” he worked so passionately to construct in Chicago at the turn of the 20th century.)

For colleges and universities to fulfill their potential and really contribute to a democratic devolution revolution, however, will require them to do things very differently than they do now. To begin with, changes in “doing” will require higher eds to recognize that, *as they now function*, they constitute a major part of the problem, not a significant part of the solution. To become part of the solution, higher eds must give full-hearted, full-minded devotion to the hard task of transforming themselves and becoming socially responsible civic universities. To do that well, they will have to change their institutional cultures and structures and develop a comprehensive, realistic strategy.

A major component of the strategy being developed by Penn (as well as by an increasing number of other urban higher educational institutions) focuses on the development of *university-assisted community schools* designed to help educate, engage, activate, and serve *all* members of the community in which the school is located. The strategy assumes that universities can help develop and maintain community schools which function as focal points to help create healthy urban environments and that universities find that worth doing because, among other reasons, they function best in such environments.

Somewhat more specifically, the strategy assumes that, like higher eds, public schools can function as environment-changing institutions and become the strategic centers of broad-based partnerships that genuinely engage a wide variety of community organizations and institutions. Public schools “belong” to all members of the community. They are particularly well suited, therefore, to function as neighborhood “hubs” or “nodes” around which local partnerships can be generated and formed. When they play that role, schools function as community institutions *par excellence*; they then provide a decentralized, democratic, community-based response to significant community problems and help develop the democratic, cosmopolitan, neighborly communities Dewey envisioned.

The university-assisted community school reinvents and updates an old American idea, namely that the neighborhood school can effectively serve as the core neighborhood institution—the core institution that provides comprehensive services and galvanizes other community institutions and groups. That idea inspired the early settlement house workers; they recognized the centrality of the neighborhood school in community life and hailed its potential as the strategic site for community stabilization and improvement. At the turn of the 20th century, it is worth noting, deeply-motivated, socially-concerned, brilliantly-creative settlement house workers such as Jane Addams and Lillian Wald pioneered the transfer of social, health, cultural, and recreational services to the public schools of major American cities.²⁰ In effect, theoretically-guided, caring, socially engaged, feminist settlement leaders recognized that though there were very few settlement houses, there were very many public schools. Not surprisingly, Dewey’s ideas about “The School As

Social Centre” (1902) had been strongly, directly shaped by his enlightening experiences and inspiring discussions with Jane Addams and others at Hull House. In a highly influential, theoretically creative, address, Dewey explicitly paid homage to them:

I suppose, whenever we are framing our ideals of the school as a social Centre, what we think of is particularly the better class of social settlement. What we want is to see the school, every public school, doing something of the same sort of work that is now done by a settlement or two scattered at wide distances through the city.²¹

Dewey failed to note, however, two critically important functions that community schools could perform: (1) the school as the core community institution actively engaged in the solution of basic community problems; (2) the school as a community institution that educates young children, both intellectually and morally, by engaging them in real-world, community problem-solving. He did recognize that if the neighborhood school were to function as a genuine community center, it needed additional human resources and support. But, to our knowledge, Dewey never identified universities as a key source of broadly based, sustained, comprehensive support for community schools.

To suggest the contributions that university-assisted community schools can make to an effective, compassionate, democratic devolution revolution capable of achieving Dewey’s utopian goal of democratic cosmopolitan neighborly communities,²² we summarily cite some results of the “community school-creating” efforts presently being undertaken by higher eds across the country: Undergraduates, as well as dental, medical, social work, education, and nursing students, are learning as they serve; public school students are also connecting their education to real-world problem solving and providing service to other students and community members; adults are participating in locally-based job training, skill enhancement, and ongoing education; effective integration (as distinct from co-location) of services for school children and their families is now significantly under way in many communities.

It is critical to emphasize, however, that the university-assisted community schools now being developed have a very long way to go before they can effectively help mobilize the potentially pow-

erful, untapped resources of their communities and thereby enable individuals and families to function both as deliverers and as recipients of caring, compassionate local services. To make the point concretely, we briefly recite the “narrative history” of our experience at Penn; it suggests how far we have come *and how far we have to go*.

4. Penn and West Philadelphia Public Schools: Learning By Reflective Doing

Following the brilliant lead provided by Gardner, we believe that, as is true of all American universities, Penn’s highest—most basic, most enduring—responsibility is to help America implement in practice the democratic promise of the Declaration of Independence; to become an optimally democratic society, a pathbreaking democratic society in an increasingly interdependent world, an exemplary democratic “City on the Hill.” Granted that proposition. The hard operational question then becomes: How can Penn best fulfill its democratic responsibility? For reasons sketched below, we believe it can best do that by effectively integrating and radically improving the entire West Philadelphia schooling system, *beginning with Penn but comprehending all schools within its local geographic community, West Philadelphia, i.e., all schools, including itself, within the complex urban ecological system in which it functions as the strategic component*. Stated more generally, and at the risk of sounding sanctimonious; true democratic responsibility, like true patriotism, begins at home.

The history of Penn’s work with West Philadelphia public schools has been a process of painful organizational learning; we cannot overemphasize that our understanding and activities have continually changed over time.²³ For example Penn has recently embarked on two new, highly ambitious, ventures: (1) leading a coalition of higher educational institutions, medical and other nonprofit institutions, for-profit firms, and community groups, to improve 25 West Philadelphia public schools; (2) developing a university-assisted public school adjacent to campus, in partnership with the School District of Philadelphia and the Philadelphia Federation of Teachers.

Reaching that level of activity has been neither an easy nor a straight path. Moreover, Penn is only now *beginning* to tap its extraordinary

resources in ways which eventually will *mutually benefit Penn and its neighbors* and result in substantial school, community, and university change. Significantly, we have come to see our work as a concrete example of a general theory of democratic, action-oriented, integrated, real-world problem-solving teaching, learning, research, and service. Our real-world strategic problem, we have come to see, has been, and continues to be, radically improving the quality of the entire West Philadelphia schooling system, beginning with Penn. Coming to see our work in terms of what we now conceive as the strategic schooling component of a remarkably *complex urban ecological system*, we are convinced, constituted a major conceptual and theoretical advance for us.

Ironically, and instructively, when we first began working to change university-community relationships in 1985, we did not envision it in terms of schools, problem-solving teaching and learning, or universities as highly strategic components of urban ecological systems. What immediately concerned us and gave us some reason to think that Penn's traditionally indifferent (hostile?) attitude towards its local community might change for the better, was that West Philadelphia was rapidly and visibly deteriorating, with devastating consequences for the University. West Philadelphia's deterioration, therefore, might be used to spur Penn to creative action to overcome it. But what specifically could Penn do and how could it be induced to do it? (Necessity *sometimes* is the mother of invention.)

Committed to undergraduate teaching, convinced by our experiences during the 1960s that undergraduates might function as catalytic agents to help bring about university change, we designed an Honors Seminar which aimed to stimulate undergraduates to think critically about what Penn should do to remedy its "environmental situation" (broadly conceived). For a variety of reasons, the president of the university, Sheldon Hackney, himself a former professor of American history deeply interested in and strongly moved by the 1960s, agreed to join us in giving that seminar in the spring 1985 semester. The seminar's title suggests its general concerns: "Urban University-Community Relationships: Penn-West Philadelphia, Past, Present, and Future, As a Case Study."

When the seminar began, we didn't know anything about Dewey's community school ideas. We

literally knew nothing about the history of community school experiments and had not given *any thought* to Penn working with public schools in West Philadelphia. For present purposes, we need not recite the complex, painful processes of trial, error, and failure which led us, President Hackney, and our students to see that Penn's best strategy to remedy its rapidly deteriorating "environmental situation" was to use its enormous internal and external resources to help radically improve West Philadelphia public schools and the neighborhoods in which they are located. Most unwittingly, during the course of the seminar's work, we reinvented the community school idea!

Public schools, we came to realize (more or less accidentally), could effectively function as core community centers for the organization, education, and transformation of entire neighborhoods. They could do that by functioning as neighborhood sites for a West Philadelphia Improvement Corps (WEPIC) consisting of school personnel and neighborhood residents who would receive strategic assistance from Penn students, faculty, and staff. Put another way, the seminar helped invent WEPIC to help transform the traditional West Philadelphia public school system into a "revolutionary" new system of university-assisted, community-developing, community-centered, community resource-mobilizing, community problem-solving, schools.

5. Translating the University-Assisted Community School Idea into Practical Action

Given Penn's long, deep-rooted, institutional resistance to serious involvement with West Philadelphia's problems, the limited resources available to us, and the intrinsic difficulty of transforming conventional, inner-city public schools into community schools, we decided that our best strategy was to try to achieve a visible, dramatic success in one school rather than marginal, incremental changes in a number of schools. While continuing the WEPIC program at other schools, therefore, we decided to concentrate initially on the John P. Turner Middle School, largely because of the interest and leadership of its principal.

Previous experiments in community schools and community education throughout the country had depended primarily on a single university unit, namely, the School of Education, one major reason for the failure, or at best limited success, of

those experiments. The WEPIC concept of university assistance was far more comprehensive. From the start of the Turner experiment, we understood the concept to mean both assistance from, and mutually beneficial collaboration with, *the entire range of Penn's schools, departments, and administrative offices*. For a variety of reasons, however, it soon became apparent that the best way to develop and sustain the Turner project would be to initiate a school-based *community health program*.

Given the development of a community health program at Turner in the summer of 1990, Professor Francis Johnston, Chair of the Anthropology Department, and a world leader in nutritional anthropology, decided to participate in the project. To do that effectively, for the Fall 1990 semester, he revised Anthropology 210 to make it what we have come to call a strategic, academically-based, community service seminar.²⁴ Anthropology 210 has a long history at Penn and focuses on the relationship between anthropology and biomedical science. An undergraduate course, it was developed to link pre-medical training at Penn with the Department of Anthropology's major program in medical anthropology. Premed students are highly important in Penn undergraduate education and the Department's program in medical anthropology is world-renowned. Professor Johnston's decision to convert Anthro 210 into a strategic, academically-based community service seminar, therefore, constituted a major milestone in the development of the Turner community school project, in Penn's relation to the Turner School, and in our overall work with West Philadelphia public schools.

Since 1990, students in Anthro 210 have carried out a variety of activities at Turner focused on the interactive relationships among diet, nutrition, growth, and health. Designed to contribute to the moral as well as the intellectual development of undergraduates, the seminar is explicitly, and increasingly, organized around strategic, academically-based community service. After Professor Johnston began to focus his own research and publications on his work with Turner students and community residents, he increasingly came to function as a noteworthy example for other anthropology professors and graduate students; they are now integrating their teaching and research with the Turner program, or with other WEPIC programs in West Philadelphia public

schools. Even more significantly, Anthro 210 not only affected the anthropology department (which has recently developed an academic track in Public Interest Anthropology);²⁵ its success has radiated out to other departments and schools. Undoubtedly, it—and Professor Johnston—have played major roles in the increasingly successful campaign to expand strategic, academically-based, community service at Penn.²⁶

At present, 100 such courses, working with schools and community organizations, have been developed and are "on the books" at Penn, with 43 being offered during the 1999-2000 academic year. Moreover, an increasing number of faculty members, from an increasingly wide range of Penn schools and departments, are now seriously considering how they might revise existing courses, or develop new courses, which would enable their students to benefit from innovative curricular opportunities to become active learners, creative real-world problem solvers, and producers, not simply consumers, of knowledge.

6. The Center for Community Partnerships and Presidential and Faculty Leadership

Encouraged by the success of the university's increasing engagement with West Philadelphia, in July 1992, President Hackney created the Center for Community Partnerships. To highlight the importance he attached to the Center, he located it in the Office of the President and appointed one of us (Ira Harkavy) to be its director (while continuing to serve as director of the Penn Program for Public Service created in 1988).

Symbolically and practically, creation of the Center constituted a major change in Penn's relationship to West Philadelphia/Philadelphia. The university as a corporate entity now formally committed itself to finding ways to use its truly enormous resources (broadly conceived) to help improve the quality of life in its local community—not only in respect to public schools but to economic and community development in general.

Very broadly conceived, the Center is based on the assumption that one efficient way for Penn to carry out its academic missions of advancing universal knowledge and effectively educating students is to function as a "cosmopolitan community school of higher education." Stated somewhat more specifically, Penn's research and teaching would focus on universal problems, e.g.,

schooling, health care, economic development, as those universal problems *manifest themselves locally in West Philadelphia/Philadelphia*. By efficiently integrating general theory and concrete practice, Penn would symbiotically improve both the quality of life in its local ecological community and the quality of its academic research and teaching. Put another way, the Center assumes that when Penn is creatively conceived as a “cosmopolitan community school,” it constitutes in the best sense both a *universal* and a *local* institution of higher education.

The emphasis on *partnerships* in the Center’s name was deliberate; it acknowledged, in effect, that Penn could not try to go it alone, as it had long been (arrogantly) accustomed to do. The creation of the Center was also significantly internally. It meant that, *at least in principle*, the president of the University would now strongly encourage all components of the University to seriously consider the roles they could appropriately play in Penn’s efforts to improve the quality of its off-campus environment. Implementation of that strategy accelerated after Judith Rodin became president of Penn in 1994. A native West Philadelphian and Penn graduate, Rodin was appointed in part because of her deeply felt commitment to improving Penn’s local environment and to transforming Penn into the leading American urban university.

Rodin made radical reform of undergraduate education her first priority. To achieve that far-reaching goal, she established the Provost’s Council on Undergraduate Education and charged it with designing a model for Penn’s undergraduate experience in the 21st century. Following the lead of Penn’s patron saint, Benjamin Franklin, the Provost’s Council emphasized the action-oriented union of theory and practice and “engagement with the material, ethical, and moral concerns of society and community defined broadly, globally, and also locally within Philadelphia.” The Provost’s Council defined the 21st century undergraduate experience as:

... provid[ing] opportunities for students to understand what it means to be active learners and active citizens. It will be an experience of learning, knowing, and doing that will lead to the active involvement of students in the process of their education.²⁷

To apply this Franklinian-inspired orientation in practice, the Provost’s Council designated academically-based community service as a core component of Penn undergraduate education during the next century.

Building upon themes identified by the Provost’s Council, Penn’s 1994-95 annual report was entitled, *The Unity of Theory and Practice: Penn’s Distinctive Character*. Describing the university’s efforts to integrate theory and practice, President Rodin observed that:

...there are ways in which the complex interrelationships between theory and practice transcend any effort at neat conceptualization. One of those is the application of theory in service to our community and the use of community service as an academic research activity for students. *Nowhere else is the interactive dimension of theory and practice so clearly captured* [emphasis added].

For more than 250 years, Philadelphia has rooted Penn in a sense of the “practical,” reminded us that service to humanity, to our community is, as [Benjamin] Franklin put it, “the great aim and end of all learning.” Today, thousands of Penn faculty and students realize the unity of theory and practice by engaging West Philadelphia elementary and secondary school students as part of their own academic course work in disciplines as diverse as history, anthropology, classical studies, education, and mathematics.

For example, anthropology professor Frank Johnston and his undergraduate students educate students at West Philadelphia’s Turner Middle School about nutrition. Classical studies professor Ralph Rosen uses modern Philadelphia and fifth century Athens to explore the interrelations between community, neighborhood, and family. And history professor Michael Zuckerman’s students engage West Philadelphia elementary and secondary school students to help them understand together the nature—and discontinuities—of American national identity and national character.²⁸

The 1994-95 annual report illustrated and advanced a fundamental, far-reaching cultural shift that had *begun* to take place across the university. By the end of her first year in office, Penn’s president had significantly increased the prominence of undergraduate education, defined the integration of theory and practice (including theory and practice derived from and applied

within the local community) as the hallmark of Ben Franklin’s University, and identified academically-based community service focused on West Philadelphia and its public schools as a *powerfully-integrative* strategy to advance university-wide research, teaching, and service.

Presidents can provide leadership. But it is faculty members who develop and sustain the courses and research projects which durably link a university to its local schools and community. More specifically, it is through faculty teaching and research that the connection to local schools and communities is ultimately—and durably—made. We gave high priority, therefore, to increasing the number and variety of academically-based community service courses. Thanks in large measure to President Rodin’s strong support, the number of academically-based community service courses has grown exponentially; from 11 when the Center was founded in 1992 to 100 in the Fall of 2000.

As a result of the highly positive reaction to those courses, the long term process of radically changing Penn’s undergraduate curriculum has gained accelerating momentum. In addition to the development of the Public Interest Anthropology track cited above, after years of complex negotiations, a new interdisciplinary minor in Urban Education has recently been created and hailed by undergraduates. A joint program of the School of Arts and Science (SAS) and the Graduate School of Education (GSE), the new minor includes faculty advisors from Anthropology, Classical Studies, Earth and Environmental Science, Education, English, History, Linguistics, Mathematics, Sociology and Urban Studies. Appropriately enough, in the Fall 1998 issue of the School of Arts and Sciences alumni publication which focused on the urban crisis, Dean Samuel Preston voiced his strong support for the Urban Ed minor, as well as for increasing the number of academically-based community service courses:

Together with the Graduate School of Education, SAS is offering a new interdisciplinary minor in Urban Education. The minor explores the crisis in public education in course work, in field research, and in hands-on study that uses the network of neighborhood schools the University has developed. SAS has been closely involved with the West Philadelphia community through Penn’s Center for Community Partnerships. A number of our faculty focus their research on Philadelphia communities and regularly teach courses that put our

students in touch with students at local schools. Penn students join with the students from surrounding neighborhoods to gather data, conduct interviews, and explore community problems such as inadequate nutrition or the presence of lead and other toxins in homes. These service learning courses are one way that Penn mobilizes its academic resources in mutually beneficial partnerships with its neighbors. *Surveys have shown that students are enthusiastic about how community service experiences enrich their Penn undergraduate education. Arts and Sciences aims to develop more of these service learning approaches to education because of their value to students and their benefits to the community* [emphasis added].²⁹

The Dean of the College, Richard Beeman, enthusiastically echoes Dean Preston’s support. Until recently, Beeman, an early American historian and a long-time friend and colleague of ours, had been openly skeptical of the value of academically-based community service at a *major research university*. But in a Spring 1998 speech to faculty and students, “Academically-Based Community Service: From Skeptic to Convert,” he publicly “confessed” (sic) that he had undergone something like a mind-and-spirit “conversion” experience. Translating his “personal conversion” into “institutional action,” Dean Beeman is now leading the development of an experimental college within the College of Arts and Sciences in which problem-solving learning and academically-based community service will function as central components. To quote his statement in the SAS alumni publication cited above:

I really cannot tell you how much I believe in the value of what is being done in those courses. They give our students a problem-oriented experience in learning, and all the research literature shows that the best learning takes place, not in studying theories and abstract forms, but in solving concrete problems. *I am committed to getting first rate faculty involved in that effort as an important definition of their contribution to undergraduate education at Penn* [emphasis added].³⁰

The School of Arts and Sciences is one of several Penn schools which, in recent years, have strengthened their connection with West Philadelphia public schools. Penn’s institutional commitment has also dramatically increased. Increasingly, President Rodin has made the Urban Agenda a centerpiece of her administration and

emphasized five major areas of activity for Penn's work in West Philadelphia: physically attractive, safe, socially and culturally diverse and exciting neighborhoods; retail improvement; improved housing; enhanced economic development; and, most centrally, excellent public schools.

Practicing what she preached, in June 1998, President Rodin announced that Penn would accept the leadership of two Cluster Resource boards which serve the public schools in West Philadelphia and had also entered into an innovative partnership with the School District of Philadelphia and the Philadelphia Federation of Teachers to establish a new preK-8, university-assisted, public school in West Philadelphia. Leadership of the Cluster Resource boards involves Penn working closely with the School District, nonprofit institutions, for-profit firms, and community groups, to coordinate, leverage, and advocate for needed services and supports for children and their families from 25 West Philadelphia public schools. Each cluster includes one comprehensive high school and its "feeder" elementary and middle schools.

7. Democratic Partnerships and Communal Participatory Action Research

The significant development of academically-based community service learning and research courses at Penn in and of itself does not necessarily denote an ongoing democratic partnership with West Philadelphia schools and communities. The WEPIC project, however, has provided the integrative, community-focused organizational vehicle that helps these courses make a practical difference in West Philadelphia schools and their communities. The courses, therefore, are a key component (probably the key component) of a wider university-school-community partnership that has as its *primary* focus providing neighborly assistance and, in the process, improving undergraduate and graduate education.

Over time, we have come to conceptualize the Center for Community Partnerships work through and with WEPIC as an ongoing *communal participatory action research* project designed to contribute simultaneously to the improvement of West Philadelphia and Penn and the advancement of knowledge. As an institutional strategy, communal participatory action research differs significantly from traditional participatory action

research. Both research processes are directed toward problems in the real world, are concerned with application, and are participatory. They differ in the degree to which they are continuous, comprehensive, and beneficial to the organization or community studied *and to the university*.

For example, traditional participatory action research is exemplified in the efforts of William Foote Whyte and his associates at Cornell University in Ithaca, New York, to advance industrial democracy in the worker cooperative of Mondragón, Spain.³¹ Its considerable utility and theoretical significance notwithstanding, the research at Mondragón is not an institutional necessity for Cornell. By contrast, the University of Pennsylvania's enlightened self-interest is directly tied to the success of its research efforts in West Philadelphia; hence its emphasis on, and continuing support for, communal participatory action research. In short, geographic proximity and a focus on community problems that are institutionally significant to the university encourage sustained, continuous research involvement. Put another way, community problem-focused research tends strongly to develop sustained, continuous research partnerships between the university and its local community.

Given its fundamentally democratic orientation, the Center's participatory action research project has worked toward increasingly higher levels of participation by community members in problem identification and planning as well as implementation. To put it mildly, this has not been easy to do. Decades of community distrust of Penn, based on decades of community-destructive actions and inactions on the part of Penn, take significant effort and time to reduce.³² The Center's work with WEPIC has focused on health and nutrition, the environment, conflict resolution/peer mediation, community performance and visual arts, school/community publications, technology, school-to-career programs, and reading improvement. Each of these projects varies in the extent to which they engage public school students, teachers, parents, and other community members in each stage of the research process. The Center's *overall* effort, however, has been *consciously* democratic and participatory.

As WEPIC and related projects have grown and developed, and as concrete, positive outcomes for schools and neighborhoods have occurred and have continued to occur, community trust and

participation have increased. Nonetheless, different kinds of projects, involving different disciplines, skills, and material, and led by different faculty members with different students, necessarily involve different levels and kinds of participation. Two very different faculty-led research projects (one in health and nutrition, the other in sociolinguistics) exemplify how the Center has connected the university with the community, to their mutual benefit. Although these projects initially focused on different public schools and neighborhoods in West Philadelphia, they both have now developed a major concentration in the Drew School, a K-8 school bordering the university.³³

7.1. Anthropology 210

Francis Johnston's health nutrition project that emerged from Anthropology 210 has already been briefly described. It is the Center's most developed and comprehensive example of communal participatory action research. Because it began at the Turner Middle School (it is now in three other West Philadelphia public schools), it is known as the Turner Nutritional Awareness Project (TNAP). Given its nine-year history at Turner, we will describe the program at that location.

TNAP attempts to bridge the gap that separates the three major components of the mission of a research university: (1) teaching, (2) research, and (3) service. The project is based firmly on the principle that each of these components can be carried out more effectively when integrated with the other two: the result is a holistic experience which engages students, faculty, and staff, bringing them to a common and unified focus on the problems of the university's local community.

The project has three major purposes: (1) to instruct students in the relationship between food, nutrition, and health in urban America, using an anthropological perspective; (2) to describe and analyze the nutritional status of the middle school-age population of West Philadelphia, and to monitor changes in that status over time; (3) to help alleviate nutrition problems by providing Turner students with informed choices about their food and nutritional habits. Although three service learning courses in the Penn Anthropology Department focus on TNAP, the primary mechanism for carrying out the program is the course entitled "Anthropology and Biomedical Science" (Anthropology 210). This course is offered to

undergraduates typically in the third and fourth years of their four-year course of study, and it largely draws students whose majors are in the social and biological sciences, as well as those interested in community service. The enrollment for the class is kept to about 25, which is optimal for the range of activities to be conducted.

The academic/theoretical component of the course takes place during two weekly seminar sessions. Students discuss their reading of materials dealing with health, nutrition and nutritional status; with issues related to urban life; and with action research strategies for solving problems. All their work is conducted within the context of the analysis of complex biosocial systems. The readings are chosen to present a mixture of theory and case studies and provide the major stimulus for class discussions.

Early in the course, the Penn students are introduced to the Turner Nutritional Awareness Project, its purpose and design, and to the research carried out by earlier classes. They are made aware of the serious nature of the project and of their role as part of a continuing effort. They visit the school and receive a brief on-site orientation by Turner staff and students.

For their work at Turner, the Penn students are divided into four groups. One group—about half the class—is responsible for teaching nutrition to Turner students on a weekly basis throughout the semester. Under the guidance of a graduate teaching assistant, lesson plans are discussed and formulated. This group of Penn students uses the lesson plans to teach about nutrition, food, and the health outcomes of the Turner students' dietary choices. A second group of Penn students is charged with carrying out the collection and analysis of dietary data at Turner; in this activity they interview individual students, collect 24 hour-recalls of food intake, and enter the data into computers for analysis using appropriate software. A third group carries out an anthropometric determination of nutritional status, focusing on physical growth, body fatness, and the prevalence of obesity, which is a major problem among the urban poor. The fourth group (the smallest) involves students in related research on a range of topics, including observational studies of the local school lunchroom, type and distribution of restaurants and grocery stores in the area, children's attitudes about food, and other issues important in a nutritional ecosystem. Data collection and

analysis are presented as an ongoing research project subject to the principles of research design, reliability and validity, and both quantitative and qualitative analysis.

Rather than being separated from the activities of the Penn students, Turner students are incorporated as fully as is practicable into those activities. A basic proposition of the TNAP holds that participant involvement in a program is essential to changing behavior. The traditional quasi-experimental model of research—"experts" using experimental and control groups—is replaced by a participatory model in which the research process itself is a "democratic" intervention. Turner students are brought into close contact with Penn researchers and learn that the daily problems they face can be better understood by the methods of formal analysis rather than anecdotal observation and discussion.

The interaction of theory and *easily accessible on-site empirical research* is developed throughout the semester. Penn students regularly report to the seminar on their group projects; results are written up and presented at the end of the semester. The Penn students also present their findings to Turner staff and students.

The course has thus far succeeded in its goals. From the standpoint of faculty-directed, collaborative research, it has produced basic descriptive data presented at university seminars and scholarly meetings, and published in the scientific literature.³⁴ The data focus on aspects of the quality of the diets of the Turner students, and the high prevalence of obesity—among the highest yet reported for American youth of any ethnic group. The data have also stimulated at least one doctoral dissertation which seeks to identify and disentangle other dietary and cultural correlates of obesity.

From an instructional standpoint, the course now plays a significant role in the undergraduate Anthropology major: it is increasingly over-subscribed as students respond to its unique approach to learning. Moreover, it has provided a springboard for two additional courses; one focuses on enhancing nutritional behavior, the other involves the longitudinal evaluation of the TNAP.

From a service standpoint, the TNAP involves all three grades of the Turner School (grades 6-8). A nutrition center is being established at the school which will enable the students to learn principles of nutrition at their own pace and to monitor their own dietary intake and nutritional

status. Increased participation of Turner students as research assistants will help them make informed choices about their diets and the health consequences of their diets; it will also increase their sense of efficacy as they learn to bring ideas and principles of participatory action research to bear on problems they confront in their daily lives.

7.2. Linguistics 161

Functioning in quite a different way than the TNAP is a collaborative action research project led by Bill Labov, a Professor of Linguistics and Director of the Linguistics Laboratory at Penn. Professor Labov is intensely troubled by the low reading achievement of African-American youth in poor urban school districts. To help solve that problem, he has worked to develop a comprehensive research program which analyzes reading deficiencies and then designs interventions to overcome those deficiencies.

A highly distinguished sociolinguist, Professor Labov, has long had a theoretical and empirical interest in African-American linguistic patterns. His decision to focus on solving "the reading problem" of West Philadelphia teachers and school children was spurred by two Penn undergraduates who were members of our seminars. They proposed to Professor Labov that he offer an academically-based community service course that would go beyond the Ebonics controversy and make positive use of African-American cultural and linguistic patterns to improve reading performance. Impressed by the students' ideas, interest, and passionate engagement with the problem, Labov hired one of them as an undergraduate teaching assistant (with support provided by the Center for Community Partnerships) and offered the course in the spring of 1998.

One main goal of Linguistics 161, "The Socio-Linguistics of Reading," is to make an action-oriented, detailed study of reading difficulties among African-American children in a nearby public school, the Wilson Elementary School. Undergraduates in the course meet with children experiencing reading problems and try to diagnose the source of their difficulties. Using sophisticated measurement techniques, the Penn students obtain samples of reading errors committed by the children; this enables them to compare their performance against other children having fewer reading problems. Having analyzed his students' findings, Professor Labov is now developing a reading

program to overcome the difficulties observed in the Wilson school children.

Encouraged by the work of the of the Spring 1998 semester, Professor Labov decided to expand the project considerably during the 1998-1999 academic year. To do that, he taught (and continues to teach) four linguistic courses (undergraduate and graduate) around the reading improvement program and extended it to another public school in West Philadelphia, the Charles Drew School. One course focuses on Penn undergraduates developing linguistically and culturally appropriate narrative texts and illustrations to teach reading to inner-city African-American children. Another course trains Penn students to work as tutors in the Wilson and Drew schools. To help develop linguistically and culturally appropriate materials, an innovative goal of Linguistics 161 is to understand the role that Hip-Hop music plays as a socializing influence on African-American youth. In current and future seminars, undergraduates will study in detail how elementary school children actually acquire and use Hip-Hop language. The undergraduates and Professor Labov will then try to design a more effective program to teach standard English by developing new curricula which use Hip-Hop materials as a culturally valuable learning tool.

Professor Labov's courses are connected to after-school programs at both the Wilson and Drew schools. Initially, undergraduates had designed the after-school program at Wilson in one of our seminars as a peer-tutoring program. Among other things, it involved Penn undergraduates who supervised students from West Philadelphia High School, who, in turn, tutored Wilson students. Begun in the spring of 1996, the potentially promising program was, according to teachers and Penn students, at best only a modest success. In January 1997, however, with the addition of a graduate student coordinator, Bettina Baker, whose field of academic interest is Early Education, the program significantly improved. Moreover, Baker introduced Labov to the Wilson after-school program as a possible empirical site for his theoretical work. As a result, the theoretically derived reading techniques Labov had been developing came to be used with an initial group of 40 students. Baker also recruited a number of Penn undergraduates supported by President Clinton's America Reads program to work with the Wilson students from 3:00 to 4:30 p.m., four days

a week. The early results proved to be impressive. Baker has described the findings as follows:

The program assessed the pre-and post-intervention Jerry Jons Informal Reading Inventory (IRI) scores of 40 randomly selected subjects and a matched control group. The subjects were in grades 2 through 5, and were one to two years behind in reading grade level before participating in...[the] extended day program...at Wilson...All of the 40 subjects' IRI scores increased by one grade level after 3.5 month's enrollment in the program, which met 4 days per week for 1.5 hours per day. Thirty-three of the 40 subjects were caught up to their classroom reading grade level (approximately 2 grade reading levels). Three of the seven subjects who were not caught up to their grade levels were recently from Ethiopia (ESL students) and one was in a learning support (IEP) program. There was a statistically significant increase in average IRI reading scores of special education participants. The 4th grade participants had statistically significant gains in SAT-9 reading scores. The student's average SAT-9 achievement test scores increased from "below basic" to "basic" levels on the test.³⁵

We hesitate to make too much of "early round" statistical successes—work of this kind can only be carefully evaluated over the very long haul. But the impressive results cited above help explain the program's rapid expansion. As of 1998-1999, the extended day program enrolled 40 students at Wilson and 40 students at Drew. Staffing the programs (and illustrating the resources potentially available for such programs) are 76 Penn America Reads work-study students, 13 Penn volunteers, and 9 elementary school teachers. Activities include literacy tutoring, help with homework, and literacy-based enrichment.

A school-day program has recently been added. Approximately 70 Penn students, supported by the America Reads funds, are placed with classroom teachers from grades pre-K through 8 at both schools, at least one day a week. With America Reads tutors, high school students, and staff, as well as students from Professor Labov's seminar, the program has helped significantly to reduce class size during literacy instruction and after-school activities. Not surprisingly, we have found in practice that reducing class size enables teachers to provide more attention to individual students and constitutes one of the most significant benefits made possible by an effective university/school partnership.

We think it important to note that Professor Labov's reading improvement project is extraordinarily comprehensive. It has effectively integrated a faculty-led, theoretically-based, major action research project, a series of Penn undergraduate and graduate seminars, and a volunteer program to develop a highly creative and innovative model. Combining the skill, expertise, and cutting-edge theoretical work of a senior faculty member and the intensive training of graduate and undergraduate students, the program exemplifies in practice the valuable results that can be achieved when university academically-based community service projects work with local public schools. Given the importance of ending the "minority differential" in reading, the findings from this project have major national significance. So much so, in fact, that the Oakland School Board—the focal point of the Ebonics controversy—California State University-Hayward, and Penn have been generously funded by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Educational Research Innovation (OERI) to further develop and extend Professor Labov's reading improvement project.

8. Three Higher Ed-Public School Partnerships as Good Empirical Indicators of the Accelerating University Civic Responsibility Movement in the United States

We cannot overemphasize the point that the accelerating changes in Penn's relationship to its local schools are not atypical, not unique to Penn. More or less similar changes throughout the country testify to the emergence of a "University Civic Responsibility Movement"—a national movement designed to construct an optimally democratic schooling system as the strategic means to American democracy. To illustrate the point, we turn to three examples of significant higher ed-public school partnerships.

Since we know it best, we begin with an example derived from our national effort to create university-assisted community schools in which public schools, with significant help from their local higher eds, function as centers for community building, community learning and community improvement. Late in 1992, the DeWitt Wallace-Reader's Digest Fund awarded Penn a planning grant to study the feasibility of other universities and colleges replicating its work with local

schools. The planning grant achieved its purpose; by 1994 more than 50 institutions expressed interest in the project and 17 submitted requests for funds to replicate the Penn model, as appropriately adapted to their particular institution and geographic community. Convinced of the project's feasibility, in November 1994, the Fund awarded the Center for Community Partnerships a three year \$1,000,000 grant to replicate its university-assisted community school model at three universities: University of Kentucky-Lexington (UK), University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB), and Miami University of Ohio (working in Cincinnati). The grant was also to be used to strengthen development of a national network of academic and public school personnel interested in university-school partnerships.

The project succeeded so well that it received renewed funding from the DeWitt Wallace Reader's Digest Fund and additional support from the Corporation for National Service—Learn and Serve America. In Spring 1998, two of the three initial sites were selected to receive continued funding (UK and UAB) and seven colleges and universities were selected as new sites for adoption and adaptation of the WEPIC approach: Bates College, Clark Atlanta University, Community College of Aurora, University of Dayton, University of Denver, University of New Mexico at Albuquerque, and University of Rhode Island. It is still early days but initial returns from this highly diverse group of institutions (a small college, a historically black university, a community college, a Catholic university, a metropolitan university, and two land grant institutions) are highly encouraging. Moreover, we continue to—indeed, increasingly—learn from the creative approaches to university-assisted community schools being developed by our colleagues at UK and UAB. Finally, additional support has recently been provided by the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation to work each year with eight different universities and their school and community partners to develop university-assisted community schools.

Numerous other significant higher education-school partnerships developed during the 1990s could be cited. Given space restrictions, we can only briefly describe Clark University's partnership with University Park Campus School and the University of Texas at El Paso's work with the El Paso Collaborative. We chose them for inclusion because they closely resemble Penn's two most

recent initiatives, i.e., construction and development of a preK-8 university-assisted public school and leadership of a coalition of institutions and community organizations working with West Philadelphia public schools. We trust that our choice of examples which resonate with what we know best, namely our own university, will not be perceived as self-centered and self-aggrandizing. On-the-ground knowledge of similar projects at Penn, we assume, helps us better understand and delineate complex partnerships involving different kinds of higher eds, in very different localities.

In 1997, Clark University and the Worcester, Massachusetts Public School system began collaborating on efforts to develop an exemplary grade 7-12 neighborhood school, the University Park Campus School (UPCS) designed to function as the centerpiece of Clark's comprehensive effort to renew its deteriorating local community. Proceeding with "all deliberate speed," UPCS opened with a seventh grade class. Each year a new class will be added until the full complement of about 200 secondary school students is reached.

Conceptualized by Clark's President Richard Traina as a grade 7-16+ learning community, UPCS is closely integrated with the university. Students who graduate from UPCS will be eligible for full tuition scholarships to Clark. Moreover, Clark faculty and approximately 100 students work at the school, teaching, tutoring and volunteering. For example, during the Spring 1999 semester, Clark courses in sociology, Shakespeare, physics, and writing, as well as a Geographic Information System [GIS] project, are being linked to the public school, and will provide active learning opportunities for both UPCS and Clark students. Not surprisingly, Clark's partnership with UPCS has received significant national attention, including praise from President Clinton and U.S. Secretary of Education Richard Riley.³⁶

Another program which has gained national attention is the El Paso Collaborative for academic excellence; the Collaborative constitutes a coalition of university, school district officials, local business leaders, and community organizations. It works with three local school districts, El Paso, Ysleta, and Sorocco, with a combined student enrollment of 135,000. It is one of six similar partnerships supported by the Pew Charitable Trusts "to bolster communitywide cooperation to improve educational opportunity, especially for minority students."³⁷

Led by the President of the University of Texas at El Paso, Diana Natalicio, the Collaborative functions as an impressively broad-gauged effort to improve teaching and learning, from elementary school through college. The University, El Paso Community College, and the public schools have worked together to align college admission standards with high school graduation requirements, as well as improve teacher training. Demonstrating the practical benefits of collaboration, student teachers enrolled in the University of Texas at El Paso now spend significantly more time in public school classrooms than they did before the Collaborative began. The university's College of Education has also involved arts and sciences faculty members in educating candidates for teaching degrees in academic subjects. The program's success includes a decrease in the number of low performing schools in the Collaborative's three districts from 15 to zero, and an increase from 2 in 1992-93 to 76 in 1997-1998 in the number of El Paso schools recognized as exemplary by the Texas Education Agency.³⁸ As a result, the Collaborative has attracted attention from higher educational leaders in other states. It is highly significant and illuminating that Donald N. Langenberg, chancellor of the University System of Maryland, has emphasized this key lesson from the El Paso experience: Successful reform requires collaboratively connecting the overall schooling system from elementary to higher education:

We have come to believe strongly, and elementary and secondary schools have come to believe, that they cannot reform without us...

*This is not telling them how to do it, but both of us working together to fix what's wrong with our education systems [emphasis added]...We prepare teachers for the public schools, and we admit their students. So its our problem just as much as theirs [emphasis added].*³⁹

9. Summing Up and Looking Forward

Chancellor Langenberg's observation neatly returns us to the central component of the Harper, Dewey, Gardner, Bok vision sketched above: To educate young people so that they function as highly-skilled, active, informed, intelligent, moral citizens in an optimally democratic society,

requires a highly interactive, collaborative, effectively integrated, optimally democratic schooling system, from preschool through the university and beyond. Alas, American society is a long way from having realized the radically improved schooling system which Harper, Dewey, Gardner, Bok, (and many others) envisioned and, in different ways, worked to achieve. Times *are* changing, however; signs of progress *can* be found across the educational landscape. Among other reasons for the change, we suggest, is the emerging revolution in American higher education and society now transforming the Big Science, Cold War University into the Democratic Cosmopolitan Civic University—a “new type” of university dedicated to the construction of an optimally democratic schooling system and the development of an optimally democratic society.⁴⁰

To succeed, revolutions require Agents determined enough, wise enough, powerful enough, to *implement* radical plans for action. Inspired by Harper, Dewey, Gardner, and Bok (and many others), we propose that American universities play that role. Our “revolutionary” proposal calls on research universities to take the lead in revolutionizing the overall American schooling system. Somewhat more specifically, the “schooling revolution” we propose calls on each higher ed to make its highest priority the radical integration and improvement of the overall schooling system in its “home community,” i.e., the community in which is located, the schooling system and community ecological system which it can most directly, most powerfully, affect and which directly, powerfully, now affects its own “health” and functioning.

In this paper, we have focused on the example we know best, Penn’s relationship to the West Philadelphia public schools and community. We did so to share some of the things we have done, still need to do, and (painfully) learned. Building mutually respectful, mutually beneficial, democratic relationships among communities, higher educational institutions, and schools cannot be accomplished by following a standard blueprint or road map. There is no such blueprint or road map to follow. But the Penn example, we trust, can serve as a useful case study from which other institutions might learn as they carefully, painstakingly, work to develop their own appropriate practice. Our fervent hope is that, working together, Penn and the Community Higher Education

Service Partnership (CHESP) will help both the United States and South Africa increase their capacity to fulfill their democratic promise and function as fair, decent, and just societies for *all* their citizens.

Endnotes

- 1 Robert A. Dahl, *On Democracy* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1998), p.1.
- 2 For the citation to Bacon and a discussion of his work, see Lee Benson, “Changing Social Science to Change the World: A Discussion Paper,” *Social Science History* 2 (1978): 427-441. Accelerating worldwide concern with what we have termed *Bacon’s Problem* helps account for the remarkable renaissance of Bacon studies in recent decades. Among the studies from which we have considerably benefited, see Perez Zagorin, *Francis Bacon* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1998); and Ian Box, *The Social Thought of Francis Bacon* (Lewiston, ME: Edward Mellen Press, 1989). For Professor Sullivan’s succinct, perceptive analysis, see his *Work and Integrity* (New York: Harper Business, 1995).
- 3 John Dewey, *The Public and its Problems* (Denver, CO: Allan Swallow, 1927/1954). Particularly as historians conscious of the critical need to view the present and (possible) future in long term perspective, we think it important to note that Dewey’s argument essentially reflected the lament for the “lost local community” increasingly dominant in European and America social thought after the emergence of the Communication Revolution in the late 19th century. Once that is recognized, Robert Putnam’s recent lament for lost communal “bowling leagues” and the emergence of “lonely bowlers” falls into place as essentially a contemporary variant of the theory first formally advanced in 1887 by Ferdinand Toennies in his Marxian-inspired, extraordinarily influential, book on *Community and Society*. For the widespread concern over the loss of community in modern society, see the comprehensive study by Jean B. Quandt, *From the Small Town to the Great Community* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1970).
- 4 See Dewey’s *The School and Society* (1899), *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902), and “The School as Social Centre” (1902), as reprinted in *John Dewey: The Middle Works, 1899-1924*, vol. 1 and 2, ed. Jo Ann Boydston (Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press, 1976).
- 5 Steven M. Cahn, “Introduction,” in *John Dewey: The Later Works, 1925-1953* vol. 13, 1938-1939 ed. Jo Ann Boydston (Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press, 1981), pp. xvi-xviii.
- 6 *Ibid.* The quotation below summarizing what Dewey meant by “participatory democracy” is from the highly important and illuminating biography by Robert Westbrook, *John Dewey and American Democracy* (Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 1991), pp. XIV-XV.
- 7 For incisive discussion of the illuminating concept of democratic public work, see Harry C. Boyte and Nancy N. Kari,

Building America: The Democratic Promise of Public Work (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1996).

- 8 Derek C. Bok, *Universities and the Future of America* (Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1990), p. 3.
- 9 The quotations are from William Rainey Harper’s 1899 Charter Day Address at the University of California, “The University and Democracy,” reprinted in Harper, *The Trend in Higher Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1905), p. 25.
- 10 Charles W. Anderson, “Democracy and Inquiry,” *The Good Society*, 7, no. 2 (1997): 16.
- 11 Harry Judge, *American Graduate Schools of Education: A View from Abroad* (New York: Ford Foundation, 1992), p.6.
- 12 In our judgment, Campus Compact, a coalition of college and university presidents which has grown from a membership of 3 founding members in 1985 to over 670 members in 2000, has been central to advancing the University Civic Responsibility Movement.
- 13 Donald Kennedy, *Academic Duty* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1997), pp. 265-288, 299.
- 14 For a highly perceptive, devastatingly critical, analysis of Vannevar Bush’s report, *Science and the Endless Frontier*, see Donald E. Stokes, *Pasteur’s Quadrant: Basic Science and Technological Innovation* (Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution Press, 1997).
- 15 For an illuminating discussion of the American university’s democratic mission, see Charles W. Anderson, *Prescribing the Life of the Mind* (Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press, 1993); and his essay, “Pragmatism, Idealism, and the Aims of Liberal Education,” in Robert Orrill, ed., *Education and Democracy* (New York: College Board Press, 1997), 111-130. See also Ira Harkavy, “School-Community-University Partnerships: Effectively Integrating Community Building and Education Reform,” *Universities and Community Schools*, 6, no. 1-2 (1999): 7-24.
- 16 Discussion of the concept of a democratic devolution revolution is found in testimony by Ira Harkavy before the Subcommittee on Housing and Community Opportunity of the Committee on Banking and Financial Services of the House of Representatives, 105 Cong. 1 sess. (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1997).
- 17 John W. Gardner, “Remarks to the Campus Compact Strategic Planning Committee,” San Francisco, 10 February 1998.
- 18 *Ibid.*
- 19 See Ernest L. Boyer, “Creating the New American College,” *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 9 March 1994, p. A48; Bok, *Universities and the Future of America*; Lee Schulman, “Professing the Liberal Arts,” in *Education and Democracy: Re-imagining Liberal Learning in America*, ed. Robert Orrill (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1997), 151-173; Alexander W. Astin, “Liberal Education and Democracy: The Case for Pragmatism,” in *Education and Democracy*, Orrill, ed., pp. 207-223.
- 20 For a fuller discussion, see Ira Harkavy and John L. Puckett, “Lessons from Hull House for the Contemporary Urban University,” *Social Service Review*, 68, no. 3 (1994): 299-321.
- 21 From John Dewey’s 1902 essay, “The School as Social Centre,” as reprinted in *John Dewey: The Middle Works, 1899-1924*, vol. 2, 1902-1903, Boydston, ed., pp. 90-91.
- 22 For a fuller discussion of Dewey’s utopian goal of cosmopolitan democratic communities and our proposal for university-assisted community schools, see Lee Benson and Ira Harkavy “Progressing Beyond the Welfare State,” *Universities and Community Schools*, 2, no. 1-2 (1991): 2-28; and Benson and Harkavy, “School and Community in the Global Society,” *Universities and Community Schools*, 5, no. 1-2 (1997): 16-71. We created *Universities and Community Schools* in 1989 as a means to advance mutually beneficial, innovative partnerships between universities and local schools in general, and university-assisted community schools in particular.
- 23 For an illuminating discussion of the concept of organizational learning, see William F. Whyte, ed., *Participatory Action Research* (Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, 1991), pp. 237-241.
- 24 For more complete accounts of Professor Johnston’s work, see Lee Benson and Ira Harkavy, “Anthropology 210, Academically-Based Community Service and the Advancement of Knowledge, Teaching, and Learning: An Experiment in Progress,” *Universities and Community Schools*, 2, no. 1-2 (1994): 66-69; and Ira Harkavy, Francis E. Johnston, and John L. Puckett, “The University of Pennsylvania’s Center for Community Partnerships as an Organizational Innovation for Advancing Action Research,” *Concepts and Transformations*, 1, no. 1 (1996): 15-29.
- 25 A fuller definition of Public Interest Anthropology can be found in Peggy Reeves Sanday’s “Opening Statement: Defining Public Interest Anthropology,” presented at Symposium on Defining Public Interest Anthropology, 97th Annual Meeting of the American Anthropological Association, Philadelphia, December 3, 1998. Sanday’s statement is located at <http://www.sas.upenn.edu/~psanday/pia.99.html>.
- 26 We define strategic academically-based community service as service rooted in and intrinsically tied to teaching and research. It aims to bring about structural community improvement (e.g., effective public schools, neighborhood economic development, strong community organizations) rather than simply to alleviate individual misery (e.g., feeding the hungry, sheltering the homeless, tutoring the “slow learner”).
- 27 Provost’s Council on Undergraduate Education, “The 21st Century Penn Undergraduate Experience: Phase I,” in University of Pennsylvania, Almanac (May 1995): S-1.
- 28 University of Pennsylvania, *Annual Report, 1994-1995* (President’s Report), Philadelphia, 1996.

- 29 Samuel H. Preston, "Dean's Column," *Penn Arts and Sciences*, Philadelphia, Fall 1998, p 2.
- 30 *Penn Arts and Sciences*, p. 9.
- 31 William F. Whyte and Kathleen K. Whyte, *Making Modragón: The Growth and Dynamics of the Worker Cooperative Complex* (Ithaca, NY: ILR, 1988); Davydd J. Greenwood and José Luis Gonzalez Santos, *Industrial Democracy as Process: Participatory Action Research in the Fagor Cooperative Group of Modragón* (Assen/Maastricht: Van Gorcum, 1992).
- 32 Ira Harkavy and John L. Puckett, "The Role of Mediating Structures in University Community Revitalization: The University of Pennsylvania and West Philadelphia as a Case Study," *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 25, no. 1 (1991): 10-25.
- 33 An article in the 22 October 1999 *Philadelphia Inquirer* entitled "Philadelphia Schools Awarded \$3.5 Million for Improvements" reported: "Charles Drew School in Philadelphia, showed more improvement on the state's standardized reading and math than any other school in the state, 1999 results show." Although there are many reasons for this extraordinarily impressive performance, Penn's concentrated efforts at Drew, including the projects in health and nutrition and sociolinguistics, would appear to be a significant contributing factor.
- 34 Francis E. Johnston, Robert J. Hallock, "Physical Growth, Nutritional Status, and Dietary Intake of African-American Middle School Children in Philadelphia," *American Journal of Human Biology*, 16, no. 3 (1994): 299-321.
- 35 Bettina Baker, "Effects of a University-Assisted Community School Based Extended Day Program in Literacy Acquisition Rates of Inner City Children," (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, in progress).
- 36 We are grateful to Jack Foley, Executive Assistant to the President of Clark University, for providing us with material on the University Park Campus School.
- 37 Meg Sumerfeld, "Alliance for Learning: El Paso: Crossing the Border," *Education Week*, URL <http://www.edweek.org/ew/1994/29aaeelp.h13>.
- 38 Much of the discussion on the El Paso Collaborative is based on a packet of material provided by Diane Natalicio, President of the University of Texas at El Paso. We are grateful for her assistance.
- 39 *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 20 November 1998, p. A20.
- 40 For a passionate, robust, and stimulating discussion of America's democratic promise, see Harry C. Boyte, "Off the Playground of Civil Society," *The Good Society* 9, no. 2 (1999): 1-7.

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LINKING INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES AND COMMUNITY NEEDS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

AN EVALUATION OF THE KELLOGG PROGRAM, 1996-1999

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Introduction

Evaluation is an essential component of the design and implementation of any program. An evaluation is a process that develops information about the program that allows those who have a stake in it (the stakeholders) to make judgments about its effectiveness in meeting its goals. The procedures by which the process is carried out will vary from one program to the next, but in all cases is guided by the intent of the stakeholders.

McNamara (1998) list three bases for program evaluations:

1. Goals-based (to that extent did the program achieve its goals?)
2. Process-based (how can the process by which the program worked to meet its goals be understood?)
3. Outcome-based (what results were achieved by the program?)

There is a growing consensus among professional evaluators that both qualitative and quantitative methods have a place in the performance of effective evaluations. Such approaches are called mixed method evaluations because they involve the integration of quantitative and qualitative methods. For example, a mixed method model might involve the application of questionnaires, focus groups, and interviews, all aimed at understanding how a program acted to bring about – or fail to bring about – a particular outcome (Frechtling and Westat, 1997).

This report presents the evaluation of a three-year initiative designed to enhance the relationships between the University of Pennsylvania and those schools in the community of which it is a part, by deepening and expanding partnerships that have been developed since the late 1980's. because of the nature of these partnerships, the evaluation, while focusing on that part funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, covered aspects of the relationships that extended beyond those specifically funded by the Foundation.

Background

The W. K. Kellogg Foundation Program to Link Intellectual Resources and Community Needs was funded by a grant of \$500,000 from the Kellogg Foundation to the University of Pennsylvania for the three-year period from

September 1996 through August 1999. The "Kellogg Program," as it came to be known, sought to address concerns of the Foundation regarding the academic experience of undergraduate students in larger, research-oriented institutions. In a letter dated August 29, 1996, to then-Provost of the University, Stanley Chodorow, John Burkhardt noted the Foundation's "...concern for the coherence of the curriculum, the poor integration between classroom experiences and the social and community experiences of students, and the lack of any meaningful relationship between faculty members and their students."

These issues and concerns are not new ones and have been at the forefront of discussions over the past two decades regarding the changing nature of higher education and in particular the role of the research university in enhancing its missions of education and service to the community. Any number of writers have spoken to these matters. For example, Cuban (1999) has described the rise in the 20th century of the research-dominant university, in which teaching has lost much of its value and a reward system has emerged that is based on criteria external to the institution. Boyer (1990) redefined persuasively the concept of scholarship, taking it beyond the relatively recent and restrictive notion of basic research and its publication to a more comprehensive set of components: discovery, integration, practice, and teaching. And still others, such as Nyden et al(1997), Checkoway (1997), Harkavy (1998), Silka (1999), have discussed the difficulties in bringing universities and communities together into effective partnerships.

The University of Pennsylvania has been a national leader in this area for well over a decade, and its Center For Community Partnerships, founded in 1992, has as its mission building university/community partnerships in ways that are mutually beneficial to both. More specifically the Center seeks to:

- Improve the internal coordination and collaboration of all University-wide community service programs
- Create new and effective partnerships between the University and the community
- Encourage new and creative initiatives linking Penn and the community
- Strengthen regional, national and international networks of higher education

institutions committed to engagement with their local communities

While not the only, the primary approach of the Center For Community Partnerships (CCP) to fulfilling its mission is through academically based community service (hereafter referred to as ABCS): service intrinsically tied to teaching and research. With curriculum as the focal point, students, undergraduate and graduate, participate in problem based learning in courses that emphasize the generation of knowledge and theory through active learning and the provision of community service through participatory action research (Harkavy and Benson, 1998). The CCP has been an active and visible entity on the Penn campus since its formation by then-President Hackney.

It is upon this base of activities that the Kellogg Program was instituted in 1996. The program was built on three pre-existing ABCS initiatives – or program areas – that were administered jointly by the School of Arts and Sciences and the Center For Community Partnerships:

1. Culture and Community Studies
2. Environment and Health
3. Nutrition and Health

This report presents the evaluation of the Kellogg Program. Given the range of activities of the CCP within the University in general – and the School of Arts & Sciences in particular – as well as the interrelationships among the various programs in which the Center is involved, it is impossible to restrict the evaluation to the three program areas. The Kellogg Program was not a stand-alone project independent of other Penn initiatives but instead acted an infusion of ideas, energy and personnel into an existing set of activities so as to accomplish two broad goals:

1. to strengthen ABCS at Penn through three existing program areas;
2. to deepen and diversify ABCS and related activities more broadly at Penn.

As a consequence, this evaluation will focus on efforts made possible by the grant from the Kellogg Foundation. But it will also from time to time move into the broader and more complex area of academically based community service at the University of Pennsylvania.

Structure of the Evaluation

The Stakeholders

In an evaluation the stakeholders are "...people who have a stake – a vested interest – in evaluation findings" (Patton, 1997:41). It is the stakeholders for whom the evaluation is conducted, who will judge the effectiveness of the program, and who will make use of the findings, both positive and negative. The list of potential stakeholders may be very short or it can be quite long, depending on the scope of the program but ultimately it is the interests of those on the list that shape the evaluation.

Since the aims of the Kellogg Program were broad ones, encompassing the mission of the university and the educational programs of the West Philadelphia schools, the list of potential stakeholders is long. For example parents both of university and school students have an interest in any program that affects the education of their children. And since the program speaks to basic issues in education and social change, the results are certainly of interest to professionals in higher education, public policy, and social science. At the same time, to speak to the interests of all who have a stake in education – and especially academically based community service – at the University of Pennsylvania would be beyond the scope of evaluating specifically the Kellogg Program. Therefore the final list of groups to whom this evaluation is directed consists of the following:

- University of Pennsylvania
 - Students
 - Faculty and Administration
- West Philadelphia Schools
 - Students
 - Faculty and staff

The Evaluation Questions

The most useful evaluation is the one that tells the stakeholders three things about the program:

1. Did it work?
2. Why did it work or why didn't it work?
3. How can it be modified for future applications?

Following the recommendations of the Kellogg Foundation (1998), these broad questions were framed more specifically as:

- What has worked or not worked?
- For whom and in what circumstances?
- What was the process of development and implementation?
- What stumbling blocks were faced along the way?
- What do the experiences mean to the people involved?
- How do these meanings relate to intended outcomes?
- What lessons have we learned about developing and implementing this program?
- How have contextual factors impacted the development, implementation, success and stumbling blocks of the program?
- What are the hard-to-measure impacts of this program (ones that cannot be easily quantified)? How can we begin to effectively document these impacts?

Methods

The evaluation utilized both quantitative and qualitative methods so as to produce the best picture possible of the way the Kellogg Program carried out its aims. Quantitative methods involved surveys of students that had and had not participated in ABCS courses. Qualitative methods included both interviews and focus groups. The surveys were designed, administered, and analyzed as part of an undergraduate seminar in Anthropology: *Monitoring and Evaluating Social Programs*. Two participants in this seminar also conducted a small number of focus groups with Penn students designed to clarify the results of the surveys. The interviews and the focus groups with school teachers and students and with Penn faculty and administrators were conducted by an advanced doctoral student in anthropology, trained and experienced in the range of qualitative methods.

Description of the Kellogg Program

Historical Overview of Penn's Kellogg Program: University and Community Context

The foundation upon which the Kellogg Program to Link Intellectual Resources and Community Needs is typified by the following statement:

Building upon the principles of Benjamin Franklin, the University of Pennsylvania has made a serious commitment to integrate theory

and practice in academic coursework and research by working to solve real-world problems in West Philadelphia. This effort is largely being achieved through service learning courses that actively engage our local communities. These academically based community service courses, part of ongoing participatory action research projects, bring University of Pennsylvania students and faculty together with local public school teachers and students to work in partnerships to solve genuine dilemmas such as environmental lead hazards, childhood obesity, and educational challenges faced by urban public schools.

This statement typifies the program as conceptualized by the university. It also served as the template for the design and operationalization of its specific components. However, Kellogg was not only a curricular initiative, it also aimed specifically at contributing to the solution of the problems of the West Philadelphia community through a process of mutual engagement and participation. For this reason not only is the community context important, it is vital to understanding the implementation of the program as well as evaluating its success. This is not just a description. The community context becomes more complicated and subjective as time progresses, as more hours are spent in community settings and as deeper relationships are developed with community members.

Community Context: Overview of the Economic, Social and Political Environment of the Community and Program Setting

In purely geographic terms, the border separating Penn from the rest of West Philadelphia is ambiguous. Nominally, "University City" has become the way to identify the area immediately surrounding the campus, demarcating it on maps, street signs, and informal conversation. Socially and politically, however, the boundary between Penn and the West Philadelphia community is clearer. The stereotype has been that the Penn community considers West Philadelphia poor, black, dangerous, and disadvantaged, whether or not Penn students, faculty, and staff actually spent any time there or had personal contact with anyone from the community. On the other hand, to West Philadelphia public school students, Penn has been perceived either as an elite fortress, or more often remained an unknown entity. Even though it may be less than a mile away from their schools, some West Philadelphia students are

unaware of where Penn is, or exactly what happens there. Those adult community members who were familiar with Penn sometimes had hostile feelings about it as an institution. In particular this was because of the way it had disrupted their neighborhood and displaced families during Penn-funded "urban renewal" and development projects in the 1960s and early 1970s, when Penn bought up and cleared land in what is considered an effort to create a "buffer zone" between the University and community.

With this often-tense history serving as a foundation, successfully designing and implementing projects that rely on community engagement and involvement were seen as dubious, at best. Nevertheless, over time, Penn has worked to reduce tensions. Often these efforts involved individuals or small groups acting unofficially or in a volunteer capacity. However in the past 10-15 years there have been more formal, large scale partnerships with the community, e.g., The West Philadelphia Partnership, the Penn Program for Public Service, Volunteers in Public Service, the West Philadelphia Improvement Corps, and the Center for Community Partnerships. This chronological, admittedly partial, list provides an important context for the evaluation that follows, because one of the most frequently mentioned reasons for Kellogg's success on Penn's campus was that there was already a solid underpinning on which to build a program linking "intellectual resources and community needs" as the Kellogg program was named to do.

The Structure of the Kellogg Program

The Kellogg Program utilized academically based community service to improve the quality of the undergraduate (and graduate) experience at Penn, and to enhance the effectiveness of the university's engagement with the local community to the benefit of all. While a more complete description of activities may be seen in the annual reports (Appendix 1), the program may be summarized briefly through the following initiatives:

- The development of new ABCS courses that combined collaborative community projects with academic courses. These courses were part of the regular university curriculum, located within appropriate academic departments, and with few exceptions taught by members of the standing faculty. Course development was stimulated by small (up to

\$5,000) grants to assist faculty in planning courses, organizing community projects, and in presenting the course itself. In the majority of cases, funds were used to support graduate students doing background library research and in developing syllabi.

- The establishment of Kellogg Fellows, undergraduates selected on the basis of their standing in the university and their commitment to learning through service. Fellows worked within the three program areas and were engaged in various activities, e.g., working on community projects, acting as undergraduate Teaching Assistants in ABCS courses.
- Summer Institutes, held at local schools, in which undergraduates, funded by the Kellogg grant, joined with interns funded by other sources in a summer-long program built around an intensive seminar on the relationship of the urban university and the local community and various kinds of curricular and planning activities with the staffs of local schools.
- An annual university-wide Kellogg Conference that focused on a relevant topic, with presentations by student teams. The conferences were held in local schools and involved the participation of middle and senior high students and faculty.

Program areas

As noted above there were three program areas around which the Kellogg Program was built. While many of the ABCS courses developed during this time fell outside of these areas, and while a range of community projects were carried out, these three represented the major thrust in linking Penn's resources to community needs.

Environment and Health; The Environment and Health program area seeks to enhance the understanding of the urban environment and its interaction with the humans who inhabit it. One component of this area deals with the risks to health and behavior associated with the ingestion of environmental lead, and the design and implementation of measures to reduce lead exposure. The second component deals with the local history of a neighborhood located within the West Philadelphia community located along what was Mill Creek, a stream that was diverted to an

underground storm sewer in the 19th century. These courses were taught jointly on the Penn campus and at local middle schools and involved the participation of university and middle school students. Also involved in this area were courses ranging in areas such as the development of an outdoor art project and a study of Brownfields in aging, once-industrialized areas of Philadelphia.

Culture and Community Studies; This program area was begun with Teaching American Studies a course given in the English department that combines the study of American culture with high school teaching. It has since grown through bringing together faculty from a variety of disciplines, all with the common interest of increasing the access of local school students to the humanities and humanistic concerns so as to include courses taught by faculty in history, anthropology, linguistics, social work, and classics. One significant research project that developed within this program has grown out of a course taught by Professor William Labov of the Linguistics department on African-American vernacular English. Penn and local school students work together to understand the relationships between this particular vernacular and reading achievement.

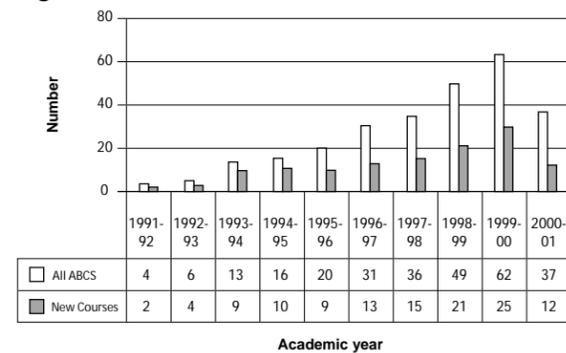
Nutrition and Health; The program area in Nutrition and Health is linked to courses in nutrition, health, and disease taught primarily in the Department of Anthropology. The research component of this area began as the Turner Nutritional Awareness Project. Since renamed the Urban Nutrition Initiative, UNI has been expanded to include two additional schools. The core course is Anthropology 310, *Nutrition, Health, and Community Schools*, that involves a service component that seeks to enhance diet and nutritional status of elementary, middle, and secondary school children through the development of urban gardening, school stores, child and adult exercise programs, and nutritional knowledge.

Results of the Evaluation

The Curriculum

The effects of the Kellogg Program on the curriculum of the university may be assessed through ABCS initiatives as seen in courses, departments, and faculty. Figure 1 presents the number of new ABCS courses, undergraduate and graduate, along with the total number of ABCS courses offered each academic year from 1991-92 through 2000-01. The asterisks illustrate the data for the years that reflect the impact of the Kellogg grant. (Since the development of new courses resulting from enhanced activities associated with the newly available funds lagged by one year, course development monies available for the 1996-97 academic year funded courses offered during the 1997-98 academic years.)

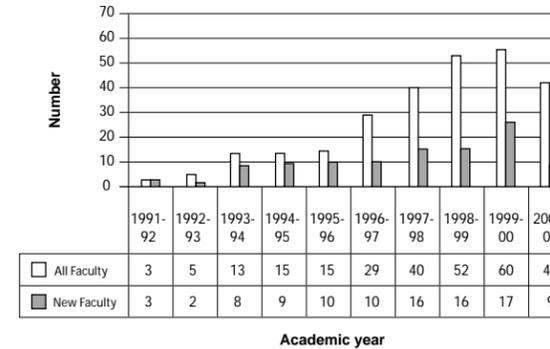
Figure 1



The impact of the Kellogg Program on ABCS courses is readily apparent in the figure. In the three years attributable to Kellogg funding, 61 new courses were developed, while in the six prior years the total was 47. For the 10 years presented here, 51% of the ABCS courses at Penn (61 of 120) were developed during the years attributed to Kellogg

Another measure of the impact of the Kellogg Program on the ABCS component of the curriculum may be seen in the number of faculty that have opted to teach such courses. These data are given in Figure 2, which shows the number of new faculty, as well as the cumulative numbers, teaching ABCS courses each year. As before, the years attributable to Kellogg funding are starred. As with the number of courses, the number of faculty involved in service learning courses increased significantly during these years. From 1991-96, 80 faculty taught ABCS courses, while in academic years 1997, 1998, and 1999, 152 did so.

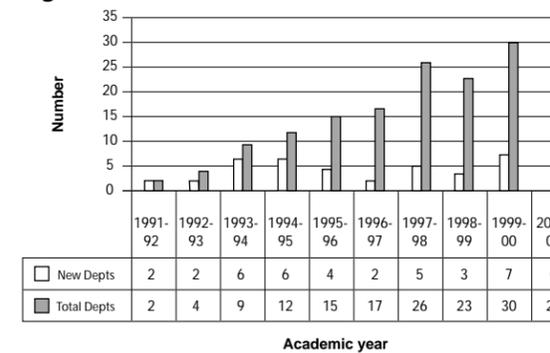
Figure 2



A final measure of the impact of the Kellogg Program on the curriculum is the number of Schools and Departments of the University that offer ABCS courses. In particular, if academically based community service is to become entrenched within the core mission of the university, then it is imperative that courses be located in as many departments as possible, and especially those whose mission is not so closely identified with social issues.

Figure 3 presents the number of new departments in which ABCS courses were taught each academic year as well as the cumulative number. Prior to the period attributed to the Kellogg Program, 22 departments across the university offered ABCS. During the Kellogg period 15 new departments were added.

Figure 3

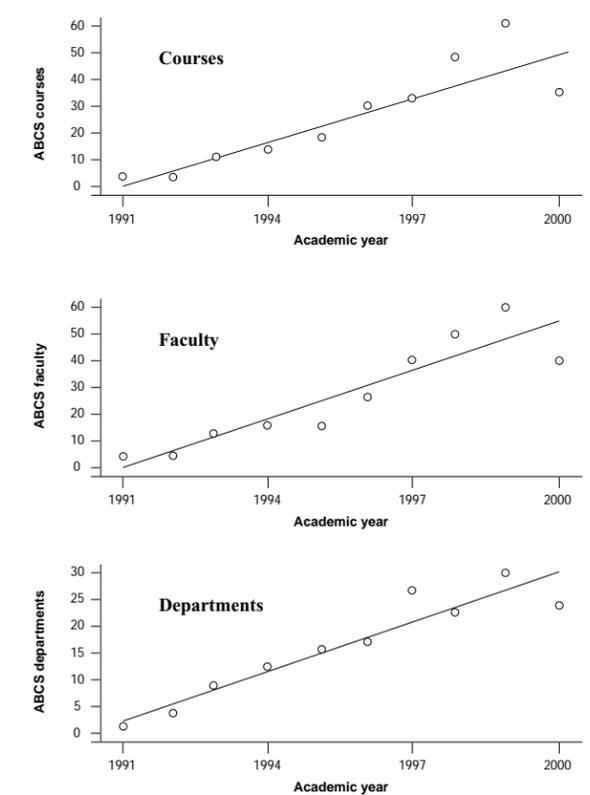


Clearly the three-year period covered by the Kellogg Program was one which saw a significant addition to the number of courses along with increases in the number of faculty teaching them, and the number of departments in which they were offered. As of the 2000-01 academic year, 100 members of the standing and adjunct faculties

have taught 120 different academically based community service courses in 37 different departments. Because of the structure of the Penn curriculum the majority of these courses are offered in the 24 departments of the School of Arts and in the Sciences. However courses are also offered in the Schools or Graduate Schools of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Nursing, Communications, Fine Arts, Social Work, Dental Medicine, Medicine, Law, and Education.

The impact of the Kellogg Program on the three curriculum indicators may also be seen in Figure 4. The cumulative values of each indicator were regressed on the academic year and based on the overall relationships, a predicted – or expected – value generated. The straight, or trend, lines indicate the expected values and the squares, the actual for that year. The arrows point to the three years attributable to the Kellogg Program.

Figure 4



The graph for the number of ABCS courses shows the impact of Kellogg Funding on the number of courses. Relative to the overall trend, there is a clear upswing in courses in the three years attributable to Kellogg. The same trend is apparent

for the number of faculty involved in ABCS courses, though the effect due to the Kellogg Program is less. Insofar as academic departments are concerned, no inflection in departments due to Kellogg is apparent. While there is a steady upward trend in the number of departments involved from 1991-92 through 2000-01, efforts associated with the Kellogg Program are less clear.

Summarizing the impact of the Kellogg Program on ABCS courses at Penn, the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. The number of Academically Based Community Service Courses increased throughout the 10-year period surveyed. For the three-year period where an impact of Kellogg-funded programming would be expected, there was a significant increase in the number of courses. The number of new courses offered in the year following Kellogg funding dropped markedly from AY 1999-00 to 2000-01.
2. The number of faculty teaching ABCS courses increased throughout the 10-year period, with an inflection associated with Kellogg funding. While this inflection was not as marked as the inflection associated with courses, it was nonetheless significant and indicates that, while new faculty have been drawn steadily to service-learning courses at Penn, the Kellogg Program accelerated this trend. As with courses, the number of new faculty dropped between 1999-00 and 2000-01.
3. ABCS courses continue to be offered in more and more departments of the university, from 4 in 1992-93 to a total of 37 in 2000-01. This trend is steady and indicates a continued broadening and deepening of ABCS across the curriculum as courses are taught in increasingly more departments and more courses are taught in individual departments. In the case of departments, there was neither an acceleration nor a drop-off in the trend associated with the Kellogg Program.

The Curriculum and the Three Program Areas

The discussion on the curriculum has been centered on courses and departments. However, as noted above, the Kellogg Program was built upon

three cross-disciplinary and cross-departmental initiatives: Culture and Community Studies, Environment, Nutrition and Health. As described above, these areas provided for topical continuity that extended beyond individual ABCS courses and deepened the involvement of students and faculty. In some instances existing projects or study groups associated with each area could be enlarged and in others, new projects developed. Over the 3 years of the Kellogg Program, 41 one-year internships were awarded to undergraduate and 14 to graduate students.

There were some particularly noteworthy developments in these areas. Within the Cultural and Community Studies area, the Kellogg Program funded a semester-long faculty/graduate student seminar on anthropology and the public interest. This seminar provided the stimulus for a course—Anthropology 216, Public Interest Anthropology—that developed a core of interested graduate and undergraduate students and has led to the addition, effective in the Spring, 2001, semester, of Public Interest Anthropology as a formal area of concentration for the PhD in Anthropology at Penn.

Another example of how the Kellogg Program led to significant strengthening of ABCS activities is in the Nutrition and Health area. Since its formation in 1991, this area had based its activities at the Turner Middle School in West Philadelphia. The Turner Nutritional Awareness Program (TNAP) became a project that involved a number of ABCS courses, independent study projects, undergraduate theses, and one PhD dissertation. The Kellogg Program provided the resources for a significant expansion of TNAP into other schools and courses. There was a marked increase in the number of students involved, both in the local community and at Penn. And the increased scope of TNAP made possible by Kellogg helped it move to the next level and to secure external funding—public and private—to support the wider range of activities. Renamed the Urban Nutrition Initiative, UNI has now developed a long range plan, based on secure funding, that will expand its programs to 11 new schools and 9,000 more students as well as to create a demonstration site for national and international visitors seeking to replicate UNI in their schools and communities.

Curriculum Quality

An increase in the number of ABCS courses associated with the Kellogg Program is an indicator of its impact, an impact consistent with the university's goal of expanding and deepening the service-learning experiences of its students. But along with quantity goes quality. Are ABCS courses equal in quality to non-ABCS ones? How do education experiences of students in the two kinds of courses compare?

One of the most uniformly positive responses of interviewees regarding the Kellogg Program has been its impact on undergraduate education at Penn as perceived by Penn students, professors and public school teachers. Most interviewees cited Kellogg-funded courses as excellent examples of holistic, experiential learning, as life changing to the students who attend them, and as profoundly impacting the decisions student make about their careers. For many students, the personal experience permeating the boundary between Penn and the community is eye opening and gives them priceless insight into connections and commonalities between themselves and the students who they assumed would be so different from them. For example, as one Penn student in a focus group described:

I went in with the impression that these low-income kids would be skinny and wearing torn t-shirts. I was surprised to see that they were kids not unlike the one's I'd grown up with . . . A positive thing about the project is the individual connections formed with the kids and breaking down barriers between Penn and the community. Kids are interested in Penn and ask about college.

Elaborated a public high school teacher:

I know this has changed the lives of Penn students, many of whom, after this experience, have wanted to become urban teachers . . . although there is still a great divide between Penn and the high school 100% [sic] African American population, many barriers have been broken down through this project, especially myths and stereotypes.

Figure 5

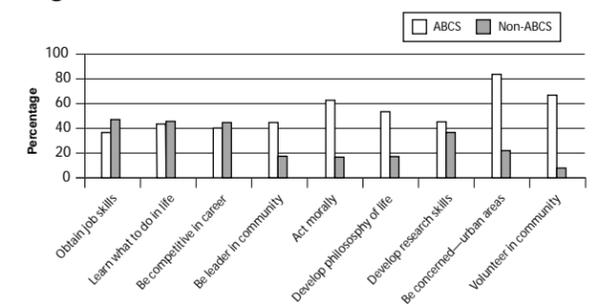


Figure 5 shows the responses of 59 students to the following question: "To what extent have your ABCS classes or, if you have not taken any, your Penn courses increased your ability to..." The figure gives the percentage of students who responded either Very Much or Extremely for each ability. Clear differences between ABCS and non-ABCS courses are seen. ABCS courses were seen by students more often as increasing their abilities to:

- Act morally
- Be a community leader
- Develop a philosophy of life
- Develop a concern about urban areas
- Be a volunteer in the community
- Develop research skills

Non-ABCS courses were judged more effective only in obtaining job skills. There were no differences between the courses in helping students be competitive in their careers or learn how to act in their lives.

These patterns are not necessarily surprising since one of the characteristics of ABCS courses is a focus on the local community and its problems. Hence one measure of their success would be increasing civic and moral awareness.

However, two responses are significant to this evaluation. First is the observation that non-ABCS courses were more likely to increase job skills than were ABCS courses (50% to 34%). Schools such as the University of Pennsylvania are highly discipline-centered, emphasizing a course of study that will lead to a degree in a tightly defined area of scholarship (see Cuban, 1999, for a discussion of the emergence of this emphasis in American higher education). ABCS courses, on the other hand, while they are located within departments and while they may count toward the major, are by their nature problem-centered and cross-disciplinary.

For example, History 443, American National Character, is an ABCS course that was taught 5 times between 1995 and 2000. The course examines the concept of national character in the USA and if such knowledge can help solve the problems of Philadelphia. Students serve as mentors for University City High School students in the development of recreation programs. Such a course might not be seen by History majors as increasing their job skills as historians. Though certainly a debatable point, the response to the questionnaire points to the problems of integrating traditional courses of study with those taught as ABCS courses.

Responses of students to the question of the development of research skills are also significant. ABCS courses were seen as increasing such skills by 47% of students, and in the case of non-ABCS courses, only 36%. The difference is not as great as in other questions but nonetheless indicates that the structure of ABCS courses, which consciously link learning with the production of knowledge, are seen as positive in areas beyond civic consciousness.

It needs to be emphasized that these are the subjective responses of students and are not based on objective measures of skills or other attributes. But they do point to fundamental differences in the ways that courses are perceived by the students that take them.

Still, some Penn students find the Kellogg program flawed because they see it as presenting oversimplified and exaggerated expectations of social change. As one student in a nutritional class put it:

The project seems too idealistic. It does not address widespread problems. Giving kids fruit everyday isn't going to save the world, solve problems or help people live long lives.

Furthermore, some students questioned the level of sustainability of some programs as social interventions and were critical of the design and validity of the data collected. Professors see their programs as extending beyond a single semester. They perceive this as sustainability and as a draw for students because it "alleviates ethical pangs Penn students experience about temporary intervention and the rich-getting-richer while the local students get nothing. That the program continues over time mitigates this." Clearly there is a need for a better communication to students of how ABCS-based programs extend through time even within the constraints of an academic semester. The lack of effective communication is responsible for the uncertainty voiced by some Penn students have about their role in an ongoing program. This can lead to questioning the results of work carried out in ABCS courses:

A semester's time feels half-assed. The project isn't really a longitudinal study, but a series of qualitative studies strung together. I am not so sure how valid or great the data will be. Time constraints of the sole semester create problems. For example, the survey based on attitudes couldn't be that accurate because you can't measure significant change in that time.

The rebuttal to this lack long-term perspective as explained by an administrator committed to Kellogg from its inception is:

Students only see a slice of what is going on—it looks imperfect, they want to see things work, but they can't be there for the long view, so they don't really know how projects develop.

The interviews and focus groups conducted indicate that Penn students see perhaps the major problem of academically based community service: integrating service, learning, and research. Though not always the case, the contemporary research university avoids facing this issue by segregating its components. This segregation is seen in the structure of courses, the conduct of research, and the provision of community service. If ABCS is to succeed then initiatives such as the Kellogg Program must do a better job of helping students to see the benefits of integration rather than segregation. While this task starts with the faculty and administration, ABCS can be a powerful learning tool for students, rooted in the theory and concepts of the problem

based learning that is becoming increasingly common in professional schools.

Graduate student teaching assistants describe ABCS courses in the following way:

Compared to other [traditional] classes, ABCS classes provide practical experience and contextualized reading. Applied projects that happen in these courses are the equivalent to an engineering student building a car. Graduating seniors have published articles. They change the undergraduate education experience by combining academic rigor, the intellectual, the practical, the theoretical. These courses are as rigorous as any others. Knowledge gain is easy, but these courses force students to consider their own behavior.

A classics professor, whose course involved Penn students teaching material in the high school classroom which they have first been taught in the University classroom, described how this process reinforces learning:

I think that students learn more and have a better command of the material even though we cover less volume. They get more out of half the classes in a situation where they are forced to articulate the material. When they rearticulate, their memory will be stronger. At a cocktail party speaking with other people who have studied the same material, they would be more engaged.

Another professor explained:

The students in this class have been writing brilliant things; they are going through a transformational experience. They will continue to be involved in community service. White kids from Scarsdale [upper-class suburb in New York] say for the first time, "I can see myself in these kids." It's stunning.

What kinds of students take ABCS courses?

Generally, University stakeholders agree that the growing number of ABCS courses, sustained and developed through Kellogg's support, have attracted students to Penn who are interested in community service. Furthermore, they have increased the number and depth of graduate and undergraduate research projects, and have created an ABCS "community" which some believe is serving as a prototype for other institutions as well as contributing to changing academic culture at large.

Figure 6

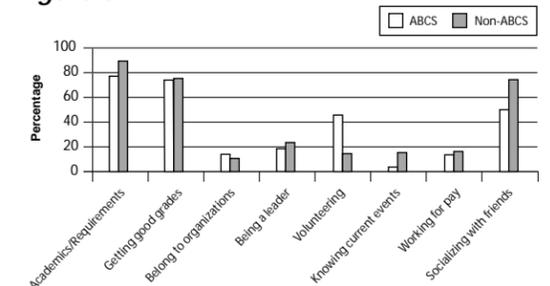
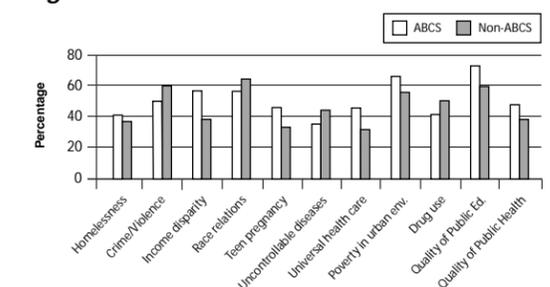


Figure 6 shows the responses of the students surveyed to a question about the importance to them of selected activities. The graph indicates the percentage ranking each activity among their top three, by whether or not they had had one or more ABCS courses. The basic patterns are similar in both groups. The students surveyed ranked academic issues at the top of their priorities, and membership in organizations, working for pay, and knowing current events at the bottom. Except for two activities, differences by ABCS experience were generally small. The two activities where a difference could be seen are in volunteering and socializing with friends. Students taking ABCS courses were three times more likely to see volunteering as important, while students not taking such courses were almost 50% more likely to identify socializing with friends as important. Interpretations are always difficult but this suggests that students who take ABCS courses are more likely to use their spare time volunteering while those who don't use their spare time in more social settings.

Figure 7



Further information as to the differences between ABCS and non-ABCS students is seen in Figure 7. Survey participants were asked to indicate how concerned they were about the 11 social

problems indicated along a 5-category scale: extremely, very much, somewhat, a little bit, not at all. The figure shows those students who ranked their concern about a particular problem as either extremely, very much, or somewhat.

There are clear differences between the ABCS and non-ABCS groups. The four problems about which ABCS students are most concerned were:

- quality of public educations 72%
- poverty in the urban environment 66%
- income disparity 56%
- race relations 56%

For non-ABCS students, the top four were:

- race relations 64%
- crime and violence 59%
- quality of public education 59%
- poverty in the urban environment 55%

Of greater interest is to compare the responses of the two groups relative to particular problems. Relative to non-ABCS students, those taking ABCS classes were more concerned about:

- homelessness
- income disparity
- teen pregnancy
- universal health care
- urban poverty
- quality of public education
- quality of public health

Non-ABCS students were more concerned about:

- crime and violence
- race relations
- uncontrollable diseases
- drug use

In short, students taking ABCS courses were more concerned about problems which impact on society as a whole (e.g., income disparity, urban poverty, homelessness), while non-ABCS students show greater concern about public safety issues that impact more on them as individuals (e.g., crime, violence, race relations). It is tempting to conclude that students taking ABCS courses exhibit a greater social awareness while those not taking such courses exhibit the fears of most persons living in an urban area characterized by high rates of crime and poverty.

The Public Schools—Students And Teachers

The impact of the Kellogg Program on the public schools was investigated by means of interviews, focus groups, and participant observation in school settings. In addition, questionnaires were distributed to 26 middle school and 30 high school students as a basis for focus groups and interviews.

In general public school students reported enjoying the presence of Penn students in their classrooms and in their lives and felt the programs helped them advance their skills. They get a lot out of working with Penn students, and their presence allows teachers to give more individualized attention to their students. Several students said that they considered Penn students to be their friends. However one teacher stressed that Penn students must work a minimum of 3 hours per week in the schools to make a positive impact on both school and Penn students.

The reason most cited by public school students for enjoying Kellogg programs was that it gave them the opportunity to engage in experiential education in a way they did not in their day-to-day classrooms and provided them with practical skills. For example, students involved in the fruit and vegetable stand through the nutrition program enjoyed the entrepreneurial elements of the project: selling produce and making profits and being in a position where they can give directions and be in charge. They also enjoyed the opportunity to work with other people and use other skills that they did not feel were always part of their normal classroom experience: being helpful, and communicating and sharing ideas while they are working. During a focus group sixth-graders explained:

It's like skipping class! TNAP is during classroom time, but it doesn't happen in the classroom. It's not like class because you don't use a pencil or a pen and it's fun.

High school student's described their experience in the greenhouse in the following way:

I enjoy working with agriculture, watching stuff grow, learning about plants and edible flowers, planning and seeing a garden grown from patches in the earth and getting rid of rodents and bugs. It gives me an opportunity to work with other students. I'm learning really useful skills now.

Another student reflected upon how she feels working in the greenhouse and an upcoming community plant sale:

Being in the greenhouse makes me feel relaxed and peaceful. I am not too worried about the money made during the sale. I like that the sale gives back to the community.

However the involvement of Penn students in the local schools is not problem-free. One teacher commented that Penn students are not always prepared to teach the classes and that they do much better when they work with students individually.

Teaching school is a challenging task under the best of circumstances. Most University of Pennsylvania students lack formal training in the theory and method of classroom instruction and consequently are not always ready to deal with middle and high school students in such a setting, let alone in an inner-city classroom where the social and ethnic differences may be marked.

Penn students are an elite group, chosen from the best applicants across the USA and frequently with little exposure to children and youth from less-advantaged settings. Some of them have made hasty judgments about the school and teachers without having been there long enough to understand the complex nature of the social problems that are attacked by ABCS. Some school faculty are suspicious of Penn's motives, accusing its faculty of using West Philadelphia to further their own research without caring about the school or the students. However other teachers point out that those who complain about Penn's involvement don't have Penn students working in their classrooms and at least one teacher stated that "negativity comes from a sense of jealousy."

Both critics and supporters of the Kellogg Program question the degree to which Kellogg programs impact either the long-term educational achievement or behavior of Philadelphia public school students. Even the children themselves are not sure if the program affects their actions. Nevertheless, there is a general consensus that the participatory structures of Kellogg-sponsored projects in the classroom engage students and make them feel more positive about learning and about school in general.

This uncertainty concerning the impact of programs does highlight a weakness Penn's implementation of Kellogg. Although there have been

scattered attempts at measuring and evaluating program impacts, mainly in the form of small studies conducted by Penn undergrads as final projects in their Kellogg courses in which they are enrolled, there has been a lack of cohesive, systematic, unified data collection on things like school profiles, graduation rates or long-term behavioral change of public school students involved, making it difficult for Penn to boast it's service or partnerships in any quantitative terms. Some people would argue that this is not the point, and instead of pouring energy into measurement, spending quality time with children and developing lasting relationships in the community should remain the focus. Even so, finding a balance between spending time on assessing outcomes in order to insure social change and working on community partnerships, could potentially be a strength of this program.

Teachers are crucial institutional stakeholders, primarily because University of Pennsylvania initiatives in the public schools are, for the most part, implemented through them. The majority expressed positive feelings concerning Kellogg Programs. In a focus group with teachers whose classrooms are involved in a Kellogg-funded gardening group through the Nutrition and Health cluster described:

We see improvement in our students' cooperation skills because they are motivated to go out to the garden, thus more willing to work together as a group. One boy, who has a tendency to act up in class, became really involved and excited about the gardening project and how much he has accomplished with it.

Communicating the impact of a Kellogg Program a high school teacher stated:

The course adds extra work, but it is a tremendous support to teachers and offers the kids a window into another world and role models. They become more interested in college, in computers...

While teachers' views are critical to understanding how Kellogg's implementation has functioned in the schools, public school administrators also play an important role because of their political power and potential hold on public relations. Among public school administrators, there has generally been a positive response Kellogg's

effort. One Middle School administrator, who had been collaborating with Penn on for nearly ten years, described the process of implementation:

It was a totally new concept, not driving a particular political agenda, but borne of the idea that the university would work with the public school, outside of the ivory tower, giving back, instead of continually taking. The project was presented as something that was going to work with you, for you not *on* you, educating community children and parents working with stepping-stone issues of prevention.

Furthermore, the projects are seen as a permanent fixture of schools:

The sustainability is because teachers realized there was a different way of teaching [experiential, hands-on participatory] and that kids learned. The kids had to demonstrate what they learned.

In many ways this statement represents the essence of Penn's hope that the use of Kellogg funds would inspire: collaboration, participation and creating change through tangibly linking "intellectual resources to community needs." As a high school teacher described a Penn professor with whom she worked over time "he treats urban teachers as intellectuals. He respects and engages them," also highlighting mutual respect and reciprocity.

However, not all those working in the public schools have the same "success story" attitudes concerning Penn's involvement, and not all projects have benefited from long-term collaborators. Here are some other comments from those who have experience with the public schools. As one Penn Program administrator who believes that short-term grants help but are limited without continual support explained:

The projects in schools have not come around as fast as we would like. The volume of resources—human, intellectual, monetary—is the single best way of bringing about change in K-12.

A Penn professor who has had long-term involvement in an academically based community service course working with a public high school knows that:

Some public school teachers are deeply supportive, the "usual suspects," but there are still a lot of burnt-out totally done teachers who will never innovate

Most stakeholders realize that change is slow to happen and recognize that long-term involvement is crucial for creating substantive change. Liaisons and links are crucial for working effectively with public schools. Described one Penn professor about his course:

The classroom teacher [in the Public School] didn't have the necessary degree of ownership in order for the project to be successful, and it was the essential that we had a liaison that knew the politics and mechanics of schools. I've spent my whole life in the academy, the Ivy League at that, and I'm not a good resource in that way.

Said another professor who has been involved in the same English literature academically-based community service course for ten years:

What I have learned from this experience is that everyone needs someone who is familiar with the system, who can do it without taking on the word, "liaison," who has contacts, who does an enormous amount of setting-up. This makes it so much easier for students to waltz into an ongoing program.

There lies a tension, however, between the benefits of having involved, informed people working on projects for an extended period of time on the one hand, and becoming reliant upon them as individuals rather than focusing on institutional change on the other. While liaisons have proven to be important in general, depending too heavily on specific liaisons whose presence is not permanent (as it is the case when a professor or teacher leaves the institution or retires, or a student graduates), as this can compromise the overall sustainability of the program. As a general rule, Kellogg courses are not considered foundational in their departments, for example. As one professor warned:

Kellogg courses have not become foundational. If the Shakespeare professor died, someone would be hired immediately to replace him. If a Kellogg instructor died, the Kellogg course would also wither away. The responsibility still lies too heavily on faculty. Is this about institutional transformation? No.

Reiterated a professor when discussing his Kellogg class while highlighting the academic climate of "publish-or-perish" at Penn, which is common to most elite institutions:

This class is not considered fundamental or essential to the department. With the downsizing of course-loads in order for professors to publish more, if I am not determined to keep it, it will go by the wayside.

The University of Pennsylvania—Faculty and Administrators

Some who have had experience with community interventions see Kellogg as different than the program that preceded it. One professor, who has conducted extensive archival work on University-community history, explained that compared to other efforts, immersion in the community, the consciousness it raised, and participation of community members themselves in program planning made the Kellogg program stand out:

Kellogg has created change where there has been a lack of moral and civic awareness in the University at large. It used to be white people sitting around talking about poor black folks, but they touched nothing. The disadvantaged themselves were not involved.

An administrator who has strong faith in the Penn's Kellogg Program explained Kellogg's succession in a lineage of projects in positive terms:

We are building on the precious University culture of the early Wharton School and our Franklinian heritage of making theory applied and useful, developing theory to apply it, and focusing on real problems. Kellogg, although following a tradition we already had, had a profound impact on advancing teaching, research and service...What Kellogg's has done is make sustainability institutionalized ... There has to be a whole change in the nature of Penn-community relationships. There have to be long-term relationships and Kellogg has helped.

On the other hand, it is clear that others consider Penn's efforts through Kellogg less successful. Another administrator, for example, whose Kellogg-funded program existed successfully prior to Kellogg, but who has been and involved with Kellogg since its start-up, is particularly skeptical of its real impact and sees its efforts as ineffectual, redundant, and not creating any notable change. He also believes that the programs actually cost very little to run, so does not see Kellogg as necessary:

The bottom line is that the [Kellogg] grant did not raise questions or solve problems categorically or qualitatively. The University had already been addressing the questions in order to initiate or support such projects. Kellogg didn't change the nature of the conversation... Kellogg provided nothing and didn't solve anything.

Reconciling these conflicting views of members of the university community renders difficult the task of making a cohesive assessment. In summary, while University stakeholders that had an interest in continuing to develop relationships with the community, and were thankful for funds that would allow them to do that, the majority do not see Kellogg's presence as providing a marked innovation in the area of community relations. Rather, Kellogg's contribution was an important supplement that helped sustain continuing efforts, perhaps with modest growth.

Communicating the Kellogg Program

Explained a project administrator who sees Kellogg programs' ability to thrive without explicit institutional direction as a positive attribute:

Kellogg has helped create faculty student research with legs of its own UNI, TNAP has become its own animal. There are examples of sustainable projects that you don't know if you should say "Kellogg," but the street tree and garden project are definitely Kellogg spinoffs. There is a cascading effect—something is Kellogg-inspired but runs on its own.

Not all stakeholders feel that such "cascading effects" and "spinoffs" are beneficial. For example, some interviewees were not entirely sure that Kellogg was even supporting them, and only knew that their money was dispensed through the Center for Community Partnerships. Other people involved in ABCS projects have been supported over the years by grants, and have trouble keeping track of where money is coming from. This is especially the case when funds from different sources are administered by the Center For Community Partnerships and not by the recipients home department.

Even explicit attempts to increase communication have been unsuccessful. A professor depicted these attempts:

One weakness of Kellogg has been some of the “star-gazing” conferences that happen on Campus. There is generally a lack of communication between parties involved. I still don’t know all who are involved or really what they are doing.

Another professor also expressed her disappointment that communication is a weak point and offered a basic suggestion to resolve this:

The coordination between Center and the departments has not always been adequate. I am disappointed that there is no web page coordinating or publicizing Kellogg Programs nor is there an updated web page for things the center does or offers. I think Kellogg should recommend to their grant recipients to that they put on the web the way funds are being used and maintain it throughout the semester as a way of publicizing philanthropy.

Parenthetically it is important to note that there are web pages for the CCP, the Kellogg Program, and many of the projects and courses that have been supported by it. The disappointment expressed reflects a failure of information flow rather than a lack of information itself.

Penn students involved with Kellogg as undergraduates who then sub-matriculated into graduate programs on the management and distribution of funds explained that:

It has been unclear and inconsistent what money has been available, and what has been spent where. Kellogg has been spread too thin. It would be better if stakeholders would help plan the budget, and if more people were involved in designing the budget... Teachers should have more input into the spending of grant money. Teachers have more insight into what is needed in terms of books, supplies and tools for their projects... There should be an advisory board that represents stakeholders. Funds should be focused, like on four classes, not as broad in scope.

Comments of this sort reflect a structural issue in graduate education generally. Students identify with their advisors, their committees, and their departments, which become the source of knowledge and training about their discipline and ultimately their profession. The Center For Community Partnerships is not an educational initiative but rather an entity that, through its programs and the grants that support them, provides

resources to departments and to their students. This problem is not unique to the CCP or to Penn, but reflects the interactions between departments, focusing on disciplines, and centers, focusing on topical problems.

Discussion

The Kellogg Program was a joint initiative of the University of Pennsylvania and the W.K. Kellogg Foundation. The university’s agenda was to improve the quality of education, to deepen the extent of its engagement with the surrounding community, and to bring the scholarly its resources to bear on the problems of the community. This was to be accomplished by the integration of these three aims into, if not a new, then a more highly refined academic endeavor titled Academically Based Community Service. The Foundation aim was to develop ways to help universities improve the coherence of their curriculum, integration better classroom and community experiences of students, and enhance relationships between faculty and students. These two sets of aims were highly congruent and led to the Foundation’s funding the Kellogg Program to Link Intellectual Resources and Community Needs.

The Kellogg Program was never seen as a new initiative, a stand-alone project with a specific beginning and end. Rather the program represented an addition to a set of activities varying considerably in structure and coherence that had been in operation for up to 10 years. Kellogg was to provide resources to develop new programs based on the university’s developing commitment to ABCS, to expand and rejuvenate existing programs, and to disseminate the results to appropriate groups. As a result, and as noted above, any evaluation must of necessity assess the success ABCS activities prior to the implementation of the Kellogg Program.

Impact of the Kellogg Program

The impact of the Kellogg Program is clear, significant, and likely to be sustained into the foreseeable future. Of these, the most striking are the effects on the curriculum. From its inception in 1990, and the first ABCS course offered in 1991, service learning programs consciously affiliated with ABCS has grown such that 139 separate ABCS courses have been offered a total of 304 times.

Also impressive is the involvement of faculty and the departments in which their appointments

rest. One hundred five faculty members from 37 academic departments have taught ABCS courses and the numbers have increased throughout the 10 years of ABCS at Penn.

What proportion of these changes in curriculum can be attributed to the Kellogg Program and what proportion to the enhancement of activities that is likely to have continued in the absence of Kellogg? This is difficult to judge since there has been a steady increase in the commitment to the ideals and practice of academically based community service through the 1990’s. However the analyses presented above provide evidence for significant impact on the number of courses and the number of faculty teaching them.

Case studies such as the development of the Urban Nutrition Initiative and the PhD focus in Public Interest Anthropology also provide evidence of significant enhancements to academic programming and to community partnerships that certainly wouldn’t have occurred as expeditiously – if at all – without the support given to ABCS by Kellogg. Admittedly these are success stories but they serve to demonstrate the impact that the Program has made upon the university.

With regard to academic departments, the Kellogg Program has helped significantly in continuing to introduce ABCS into more departments of the university. In these efforts, the program’s impact has been seen in fostering a trend that has existed since the early 1990’s rather than in accelerating the rate of increase of new departments.

Some departments have made a major commitment and offer a large number of courses. For example, in the School of Arts and Sciences, History: 15; Anthropology: 12; Urban Studies: 11. Others offer no courses, or perhaps only one. These latter instances tend to be associated with the sciences and include Chemistry and Physics (none) and Biology and Psychology (one). There are many reasons why certain departments and their faculty opt not to take part in ABCS at Penn. Cuban (1999) has discussed the tension between the loyalties of faculty to their university and its broader educational objectives, and their loyalties to their discipline, which involve narrower and more focused objectives frequently external to university objectives. This tension is not necessarily automatic for any type of institution or any particular department though it is found most often in disciplines that emphasize focused training of students in settings such as laboratories that

result in withdrawal from the surrounding community. And it is found where the educational process deals with theory and method as divorced from particular societies and communities.

The Kellogg Program has also made an impact on the quality of the curriculum through its role in accelerating the rate of increase in new ABCS courses from year to year. ABCS courses are seen as a asset by undergraduate and graduate students, not only promoting the ideals of democratic education, but in their careers. While ABCS courses do not necessarily help to “obtain job skills,” they do equally well as non-ABCS courses in helping students “be competitive” in their careers, and better in developing research skills.

It is impossible to know from the available data whether ABCS changes students or if there is self-selection among them in their choice of courses and majors. ABCS and on-ABCS students are different in the kinds of social problems about which they are most concerned and these differences are likely to be reflected in the courses seen on their academic transcripts. There is likely to be an impact of academically based community service on all but the most intransigent student, but the effect is also likely to be small for any single course. The more probable effect on students of initiatives like the Kellogg Program is by helping to diffuse ABCS and its ideals throughout a university, by attracting a different kind of student to the institution, and as a result of exposing the non-involved students to an educational process which is committed to the ideals of ABCS without any compromise on intellectual and research rigor. To the extent that it has been shown to have an impact on the curriculum, the Kellogg Project may be judged as successful.

The Process

The administration of the Kellogg Program was logical and adequate. The Directors of the program were Dean of the College (the undergraduate arm of the School of Arts and Sciences) and the Director of the Center For Community Partnerships, who headed a Committee composed of the heads of the three program areas and a representative of the School’s Office of Development. The CCP reported to the faculty through its Faculty Advisory Committee, which meets once each semester.

Proposals for new ABCS were sought each semester through an RFP published in *The Almanac*, and funding decisions made by the Kellogg Committee. Each year there was a one-day Kellogg Conference to which members of the university and participating schools were invited, held on campus and in University City High School. There was also a smaller meeting each year, less structured and largely student-run. The focus in both meetings was to report on the activities of various projects. Reports were usually presented by university students, and local school students frequently participated.

These conferences involved almost exclusively individuals who were part of the Kellogg Program and, while no formal records are available, attendance by others was uncommon. The format – one of student presentations – was selected consciously to involve them in the preparation and presentation of reports. Arguably, a more formal agenda with presentations that emphasized theory and method, might have drawn more non-Kellogg persons. However the structure of the conferences was a conscious one, intended to maximize student involvement as an integral part of their educational experience at Penn.

A more formal presentation of ABCS and the Kellogg Program is being actively planned. In addition to the University of Pennsylvania, the Kellogg Foundation made a parallel grant to the University of Michigan. While the overall purpose of this grant was the same, differences between the two educational institutions in existing structures and initiatives meant different approaches to a common problem: the improvement of undergraduate education through university/community partnerships. A joint Penn/Michigan conference will be held, one that will present jointly to a broader community the results of the Kellogg initiatives at these two research universities. This conference should be a major watershed in the continued development and diffusion of academically based service learning.

There were negative comments expressed by each stakeholder groups. Essentially these comments could be grouped into two categories: knowledge about the program and its goals; concern about its effectiveness bringing about change.

Among Penn students and faculty, as well as among schoolteachers, some interviewees participating in it expressed ignorance about the program

or its components. In some instances this reflected the individual's not being aware of the role of support provided by the program in some achievement, e.g., a course development grant, funding for a particular student, a piece of equipment. In other instances it reflected knowledge of the larger goals of the program, while in still others it meant that an individual didn't really know about the program itself. While these gaps in knowledge and understanding may be written off as being failure of individuals to be current, they also suggest that administrators of the program could have done a better job of publicizing it. Announcements were made and stories were published in various university outlets. But there was not a conscious effort to promulgate the program as an integrated attempt to change undergraduate education. For example a professionally done newsletter, aimed at the various communities that had an interest in the goals, could have helped, not just be making more persons aware of "the Kellogg Program," but by making them aware of its goals and its accomplishments.

Respondents and interviewees, especially Penn faculty, also expressed ambiguity about the program's effectiveness. To some, ABCS courses were an inappropriate way to change the social and economic setting of West Philadelphia; to others, families rather than schools were the best focus for ABCS activities; and to others, ABCS was not working because it was not yet embedded within the majors of departments. At least one respondent noted that ABCS at Penn had not carried out ongoing and systematic self-evaluation of its activities, especially with respect to the community, so that their efficacy had not been established.

These comments represent the concerns of individuals who are committed to the principles of service learning and community engagement, but who are less optimistic about how it is being carried out at Penn. These are issues beyond the scope of this evaluation for they call for a deeper discussion of the nature of higher education and the best practices for university/community engagement. Such discussions are being carried out actively across the country as well as internationally. Clearly there is a transition, if not a revolution, in higher education. Any debate over basic premises of the Kellogg Program at Penn is a microcosm of a much larger discussion.

What Makes the Kellogg Program Unique: Problems Particular To This Project

Despite some comments in the interviews about the similarities of the Kellogg initiatives to Penn's other community service efforts, most faculty and administrator stakeholders would agree that Kellogg's program at Penn does have individual qualities, distinct from the projects that precede it and co-exist with it. It is those special characteristics that we will describe here in order for both Penn and Kellogg to best understand Kellogg's special impacts.

Although Penn's Kellogg Program represented, and continues to represent the University's commitment to expand existing academically based community service at the university in general, one of the key elements that made this project unique is that its core consisted of three separate projects (Culture and Community Studies, Environment and Health, and Nutrition and Health) that have blossomed and overflowed into multiple, often interstitial pieces. The grant from the Kellogg Foundation was not to fund courses, departments, or majors but programs. As such it was overtly cross-disciplinary, cutting across departments and schools of the university. Individuals whose professional loyalties are to disciplines, departments, and other entities outside of the university tend to have seen the Kellogg program as a threat to the integrity of scholarship and the depth of knowledge. Those whose loyalties are more to the university in its particular setting, to the development of knowledge that can be applied to specific problems, and to the equal, if not greater, importance of education for democracy have seen the Kellogg program as an opportunity to renew higher education and the process of knowledge production. This disagreement is basic to much of the discourse seen in higher education about the role of large research university and cannot be resolved by a single program.

Conclusion

The Kellogg Program represented a major initiative at the University of Pennsylvania. It was built upon the existing initiatives of the School of Arts and Sciences and the Center for Community Partnerships and designed to enhance those initiatives by accelerating their effects and by providing a stimulus for new ones. The Program's impacts can be seen as significant and sustainable in two areas:

1. the curriculum, by increasing the breadth and depth of academically based community service across the university;
2. university/community engagement, by increasing the breadth and depth of existing partnerships.

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MOTIVATION DURING THE MIDDLE SCHOOL YEARS: THE CASE OF COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

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Abstract

Changes in achievement motivation were examined in a sample of early adolescents attending a school that was involved in a school-university partnership. Specifically, the school was carrying out reform efforts in order to become a community school. Longitudinal analyses of data indicated that changes in students' motivational orientations in this school often ran contrary to what is found in the general developmental literature. For example, whereas most early adolescents become more focused on performance and grades during the middle school years, students in this sample actually became less focused on performance and grades. Perceived school belonging increased over time. However, not all changes in motivation were atypical – for example, perceived mastery goals declined over time.

Many parents, teachers, and administrators have noticed that during early adolescence, academic motivation tends to decline. This shift in the motivational patterns of adolescents has become a great concern in the United States (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989). For many students, early adolescence is a critical life stage, in which identities are formed, and interests are pursued. However, for many students, negative shifts in academic motivation can have deleterious effects on students' future aspirations and plans.

There is a large body of research that documents the decline in motivation during the middle grade years (e.g., Anderman & Maehr, 1994; Anderman & Midgley, 1997; Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Midgley, Anderman, & Hicks, 1995; Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Whereas numerous professionals in the field of education had assumed for many years that this decline in motivation was associated with the physiological changes associated with puberty, these and other recent research studies have indicated that these shifts in motivation are associated with changes in social contexts, rather than with the physiological changes associated with adolescence. Specifically, many of the negative shifts in motivation have been linked to the transition from elementary school to middle school (Eccles et al., 1993a).

The present study examines longitudinal data from a school that was engaged in major reform practices. Specifically, the school, which could be characterized as a "traditional" middle school in many respects, made significant movement toward becoming a community school. The school transformed itself from a typical school in which students spent 7 hours per day (during the day), into a community center, that was open into the evenings and during the summer, in order to provide comprehensive educational experiences to early adolescents and their families. These changes were brought about because research clearly has indicated the influences that neighborhoods have on adolescents (Leventhal & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). The changes made by this school were brought about through a collaboration with a local university. This school-university partnership was based on previous work that has indicated that universities and public schools can effectively work together to bring about effective changes in education (e.g., Bogle & Harkavy, 1996).

It was hypothesized that the changes in school environment associated with this reform would lead to positive motivational outcomes for students. Indeed, it has been established that psychological variables are linked directly to the essential components of school reform (Tirozzi & Uro, 1997). When schools make meaningful changes, the results often are evident in psychological characteristics of the students. The present article does not review the specifics of the actual structural changes that occurred within the school. Rather, the article focuses on changes in student-level variables related specifically to academic motivation.

The Transition from Elementary School to Middle School

During early adolescence, students attend a variety of different types of schools, with various grade configurations. Nevertheless, one of the most common grade configurations is a 6th through 8th grade or a 7th through 9th grade configuration. Data from the base year of the United States Department of Education's National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS) indicated that 58.6% of the NELS sample attended schools with grade configurations of 6 - 8, 7 - 8, 7 - 9, or 8 - 9, whereas 22.7% attended schools with grade configurations of either P, K, or 1-8 schools or P, K, or 1-12 schools. The remaining students attended schools with various other grade configurations (e.g., 6th through 12th grade) (National Center for Education Statistics, 1994). These data indicate that many students make a transition into middle school during the early adolescent years (e.g., at grades 6 or 7).

This is cause for concern, because research indicates that academic motivation often declines dramatically at the point of this educational transition (Anderman & Maehr, 1994). Two parallel lines of research conducted by motivation researchers have linked this decline in motivation to the academic environments associated with many middle schools. These lines of research have emanated from two distinct perspectives on academic motivation: expectancy X value theory, and goal orientation theory.

The expectancy X value perspective on the middle school transition. Eccles, Midgley, and their colleagues conducted a series of important studies during the 1980s and early 1990s, using an expectancy X value framework. These studies

examined changes in motivation during early adolescence. The studies were particularly important and influential because they all linked the observed negative shifts in motivation to the transition from elementary schools to middle schools.

Eccles and Midgley argued that there is a "developmental mismatch" between the developmental needs of early adolescents, and the typical environments provided by most middle level (junior high) schools (Eccles & Midgley, 1989). Typical middle school learning environments are characterized by homogeneous ability-grouping practices, poor student-teacher relationships, few opportunities for students to make choices and feel autonomous, and an increased focus on grades, test scores, and ability differences (Anderman & Maehr, 1994; Blyth, Simmons, & Bush, 1978; Eccles et al., 1993a; Eccles & Midgley, 1989). Nevertheless, developmental research clearly indicates that during early adolescence, students need to be able to express choices, autonomy, self-determination, and to have ample social interaction with peers and with caring adults (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989; Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Consequently, the typical environment provided by most middle schools is basically antithetical to the developmental needs of early adolescents.

Eccles' expectancy X value model of motivation (Eccles, 1983; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992) is a well-tested model of academic motivation. The "expectancy" component refers to students' expectations of success or failure on academic tasks. The "value" component is actually broken down into four aspects of achievement values: attainment value (how important is the task?), intrinsic value (how interesting is the task?), utility value (how useful is the task?), and cost (what are the possible negative aspects of engaging in the task?). Research studies generally indicate that expectancies predict actual academic performance (e.g., grades), whereas values predict choices (e.g., enrollment in courses in the future) (Eccles, 1983; Meece, Wigfield, & Eccles, 1990; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992).

Eccles and Midgley (1989) demonstrated that differences in the classroom environment before and after the transition from elementary to middle school were related to changes in students' expectancies and values in mathematics (e.g., Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989). For exam-

ple, Midgley et al. (1989) found that students who moved from elementary school teachers who were perceived to be low in support to middle school teachers that were perceived to be high in support experienced an increase in intrinsic valuing of math. In contrast, students who moved from highly supportive elementary school teachers to middle school teachers who were lower in support experienced a decline in both the intrinsic valuing of math, the perceived usefulness of math, and the perceived importance of math. This is a matter of great concern, because other research (e.g., Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1988) indicates that middle school teachers, compared to elementary school teachers, trust students less, are more concerned with discipline and control, and are less efficacious.

The goal orientation theory perspective on the middle school transition. Goal orientation theory is a social-cognitive theory of academic motivation. Goal orientation theorists argue that students approach academic tasks with several different types of goals. These goals represent students' reasons for doing academic tasks. A mastery goal (also referred to as a learning goal or a task-orientation in the literature) is evident when a student's goal in doing an academic task is to truly learn, and "master" the task at hand. A performance goal (also referred to as an ability goal, a relative ability goal, or an ego-orientation) is evident when a student is primarily interested in demonstrating his or her ability. A performance-approach goal is the goal of appearing more competent than others, whereas a performance-avoid goal is the goal of avoiding appearing incompetent or "dumb" (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Middleton & Midgley, 1997).

There is general agreement that mastery goals are predictive of adaptive outcomes (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988; Anderman & Maehr, 1994). However, there has been debate regarding the effects of performance goals. Part of this is because prior to the mid 1990s, researchers did not distinguish between performance-approach and avoid goals. Therefore, some studies indicated that performance goals were helpful, whereas others indicated that performance goals were harmful to the learning process. Some recent research (e.g., Elliot, McGregor, & Gable, 1999) suggests that in some situations, performance-approach goals may be helpful to learning, whereas performance-avoid goals may be harmful to learning. However, other

research indicates that contexts that are perceived as emphasizing performance goals may result in other types of problematic outcomes, such as academic cheating (e.g., Anderman, Griesinger, & Westerfield, 1998), or a decline in achievement values over time (Anderman et al., in press).

Several studies have been conducted in recent years, examining the transition from elementary school to middle school, using a goal orientation theory perspective. In a cross-sectional study, Midgley, Anderman, & Hicks (1995) found that middle school teachers and students perceived the overall school culture as being more performance oriented and less mastery oriented than did elementary school teachers and students. They also found that elementary school teachers reported using instructional techniques that emphasized mastery goals more than did middle school teachers.

In a longitudinal study, Anderman and Midgley (1997) found that when students were in elementary school, they endorsed mastery goals more, reported a greater emphasis on mastery goals during academic instruction, and felt more academically competent than one year later, when they were in middle school. In addition, they found that students reported perceiving a greater emphasis on performance goals after the middle school transition than before.

Using another longitudinal sample, Anderman and Anderman (1999) found that endorsement of mastery goals declined over the middle school transition, whereas endorsement of performance goals increased over the transition. One important finding from this study was that increases in performance goals across the transition were associated positively with perceiving an emphasis on ability and performance in middle school, whereas an increase in mastery goals across the transition was associated with a perceived emphasis on both mastery and performance after the middle school transition. Results of this study also indicated that social variables play an important role in determining student motivation after the transition. Specifically, a high perceived sense of school belonging and the endorsement of responsibility goals were associated with an increase in mastery goals after the transition, whereas a low perceived sense of belonging and the endorsement of relationship and status (popularity) goals were associated with an increase in performance orientation after the transition.

Summarizing the Research on the Middle School Transition

In summary, the results of studies from both the expectancy X value perspective and from a goal orientation theory perspective converge on the unavoidable fact that motivation declines as students move into middle grades schools. After the middle school transition, student-teacher relationships generally deteriorate, there is an increased focus on ability and performance, and the academic tasks that students encounter often do not meet early adolescents' developmental needs. In addition, other research has demonstrated that these negative shifts in psychological variables do not tend to occur in schools with kindergarten through grade 8 configurations (e.g., Simmons & Blyth, 1987).

Although there have been many reform efforts aimed at middle schools in recent years, there is little evidence that these reforms are working (Clark & Clark, 1993). In the present study, we investigated changes in a number of indices of student motivation in a community school that was collaborating with a local university. Specifically, the teachers, parents, and students of this school were working collaboratively with university personnel to make organizational and substantive changes in the school environment, with the ultimate goal of helping early adolescents to become more invested in schooling and the learning process.

We examined five overall questions in this research, in order to see if the relations and changes observed in this school were similar to those observed for most early adolescents (e.g., Eccles & Midgley, 1989). The questions that were examined included the following:

1. Is perceived school belonging related to participation in community school activities?
2. Did general measures of motivation change between 1995 and 1997?
3. Did perceived school belonging change between 1995 and 1997?
4. Did motivation in the domain of science change between 1995 and 1997?
5. Did motivation to engage in risky behaviors change over time?

Method

In the following section, the methodology used in the evaluation of this community school

is discussed. The evaluation occurred in multiple stages. The various samples and measures are discussed below.

Overall Summary of Methodology and Subjects

The evaluation occurred between 1995 and 1999. Various survey data were collected from students throughout this period. Specifically, longitudinal surveys were administered during the 1995-1997 time period. Additional cross-sectional surveys were administered in 1998 and 1999. Student record data (grades and attendance records) were collected between 1997 and 1999. Data on participation in community school activities were collected in 1995 and 1996.

Measures

Various measures were collected using surveys. All surveys were administered in regular classroom settings. Trained graduate students administered all surveys, with the classroom teacher present in the room at the time of survey administration. Most measures assessed student motivation in three domains: (a) general motivation, (b) motivation in science, and (c) antisocial-related motivations.

Several measures of personal goal orientations were administered. Measures of personal goal orientations are indicative of how much students report personally endorsing various goals. In the present studies, these included measures of students' personal mastery goals, performance goals, and extrinsic goals. These measures have demonstrated excellent reliability and validity in numerous studies. For detailed information, see Midgley et al., 1995, and Midgley et al., 1998. We also asked students to complete measures of perceived school belonging (e.g., whether or not the student feels respected and well-treated in the school environment (Anderman & Anderman, 1999; Goodenow, 1993).

Finally, several measures of motivation toward risky behaviors were included in the present study. These measures assessed students' anger toward school, and students' willingness to participate in antisocial activities in order to be "cool." Both of these measures contained multiple items, and displayed high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$ for anger, $.95$ for antisocial behaviors to be "cool").

Results

Results are presented in terms of specific research questions that were asked throughout the evaluation.

Question #1: Is perceived school belonging related to participation in community school activities?

During the 1995 and 1996 school years, all students participating in the evaluation were asked to indicate their levels of participation in all community school activities. These included both activities that occurred during the school day, and activities that occurred during the afternoon and evening hours. It was hypothesized that participation in these activities would be related to a greater sense of school belonging.

Students indicated (a) whether or not they participated in each activity, and (b) the number of times that they participated in each activity. In 1995, there was a weak positive correlation between participation and school belonging ($r = .17$), whereas in 1996, the correlation was a bit stronger ($r = .27$). The correlation between perceived belonging in 1995 and activity participation in 1996 was stronger ($r = .32$), suggesting that a stronger perceived sense of belonging may have led to greater participation in the future; however, strong causal conclusions can't be drawn from these data.

Question #2: Did general measures of motivation change between 1995 and 1997?

Research has clearly indicated that as schools make changes in instructional practices, motivational variables often are affected in predictable ways (e.g., Ames, 1990; Anderman, Maehr, & Midgley, 1999). In the present research, we examine longitudinally changes in students' endorsement of performance goals (doing their school work to demonstrate their ability and to be competitive) and mastery goals (doing their school work to truly master and learn the material). Much research suggests that in traditional middle school environments, performance goals in particular increase during the middle school years (Anderman & Midgley, 1997; Eccles et al., 1993a; Eccles & Midgley, 1989).

For performance goals, results indicated that students' endorsement of performance goals remained stable between 1995 and 1996, and decreased during 1997, $F(1, 122) = 4.52, p < .05$. These motivational shifts are displayed in figure

1; means and standard deviations for all longitudinal analyses are presented in table 1. The decrease between 1996 and 1997 is an unusual and seemingly important change, since research clearly indicates that for most early adolescents, performance goals *increase* during early adolescence (see Anderman & Maehr, 1994, for a review). The decrease exhibited by students in this school is quite atypical.

We also examined changes in mastery goals. A student who is mastery oriented is particularly interested in learning new material for intrinsic reasons. Much research suggests that students become less intrinsically interested in learning during the middle school years (e.g., Eccles & Midgley, 1989).

In the present evaluation, endorsement of mastery goals changed in ways that are predictable for most adolescents. Specifically, there was an overall decline in mastery goals, $F(1, 122) = 53.44, p < .001$. Specifically, perceived mastery goals declined between 1995 and 1996, and remained at this level during 1997 (see table 1 for descriptive statistics).

Question #3: Did perceived school belonging change between 1995 and 1997?

A perceived sense of school belonging (connectedness) has been identified as an extremely important variable during adolescence (Resnick et al., 1997). Indeed, during the adolescent years, many youth become disengaged and disconnected with schools, and feel that they have little in common with the values of their schools. Consequently, as the school in the present evaluation made changes toward becoming more of a community school, we were interested to see if students' perceived sense of belonging changed.

Results indicated that students' perceived sense of belonging did increase over time, $F(1, 122) = 528.42, p < .001$. Specifically, there was a large increase in perceived belonging between 1995 and 1996 (see figure 2 and table 1).

Question #4: Did motivation in the domain of science change?

Because research indicates that motivation varies by subject domain (Eccles et al., 1993b; Stodolsky, Salk, & Glaessner, 1991), we also examined motivation specifically within one academic domain. For this evaluation, we chose the domain of science, since some of our previous research has indicated that adolescents' motivation

in science is sensitive to instructional practices of teachers (Anderman & Young, 1994).

First, we examined whether extrinsic motivation in science changed between 1995 and 1997. Results bordered on significance [$F(1, 122) = 3.25, p = .07$]. Specifically extrinsic motivation did not change between 1995 and 1996, but evidenced a decline between 1996 and 1997.

Second, we examined personal mastery goals in science. Overall, there was a decline in personal mastery goals in science over time, $F(1, 122) = 25.53, p < .001$ (see table 1). Nevertheless, it is important to note that mean levels of mastery goals in science were high (above 3.0) at all times.

Question #5: Did motivation to engage in risky behaviors change over time?

For the final question, we assessed several measures of antisocial behavior. These measures were assessed for the present samples in 1996 and 1997. Paired-sample t-tests were run to examine changes over time.

First, we assessed students' self-reported feelings of anger (e.g., toward teachers). Results indicated a significant decline in school-related anger between 1996 and 1997, $t(132) = 3.50, p < .001$. One of the measures assessed students' desire to participate in antisocial activities (e.g., smoking, fighting, etc.) to be "cool." Although the data displayed a declining trend, results were not statistically significant, $t(131) = 1.31, NS$.

Discussion

School change is a complex, often slow process. Whereas researchers and policy-makers would like for schools to change rapidly and effectively, the truth of the matter is that effective change takes time. Thus some of the change (and lack of change) observed in student motivation in the present evaluation may become more salient as the school continues to engage in the reform process.

In the present research, we found that some of the variables that we measured exhibited relations that were contrary to what is found in the general adolescent motivation literature. These atypical patterns may be related to the reform efforts that were occurring at this school. However, it is important to note that not all variables changed in unexpected ways.

First, we examined the relation between perceived school belonging, and participation in community school activities. Results indicated a weak

positive correlation during the first year of the evaluation, and a slightly stronger correlation during the second year. In addition, perceived belonging during the first year was correlated positively with activity participation during the second year.

Whereas causal inferences are not warranted from these data, the results do suggest that an important relation exists between activity participation and perceived school belonging. The important question that future research must address is the causal direction of this relation. Indeed, it may be that participation in activities leads to a greater sense of belonging; however, it also may be the case that a heightened sense of school belonging fosters participation in school activities. There probably is a somewhat reciprocal relation, where these variables constantly influence each other. Given recent research indicating that a perceived sense of school belonging serves as a buffer against many negative outcomes during adolescence (Resnick et al., 1997), it is important to continue to examine variables that are related to an increased sense of connectedness with the school.

Our second question addressed changes in general measures of student motivation. We assessed a number of different constructs, using a goal orientation theory perspective on achievement motivation (Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, Cobb, Wood, Yackel, & Patashnick, 1990). We found that students' endorsement of performance goals (doing academic work in order to demonstrate one's ability) remained stable during the first two years of the evaluation, and declined between the second and third year. These findings are extremely encouraging, considering the fact that much research has documented an *increase* in performance goals for most students after the middle school transition (Anderman & Anderman, 1999; Anderman & Midgley, 1997).

Students' endorsement of mastery goals (doing academic work in order to truly learn and master the material) declined between 1995 and 1996, and remained at this level during 1997. This is reflective of other research, which has demonstrated that early adolescents' intrinsic motivation to learn often declines during the middle school years (see Eccles & Midgley, 1989, for a review). Nevertheless, it is somewhat encouraging to see that perceived mastery goals leveled-off during the third year of the evaluation, and did not continue

to decline. Longitudinal studies that last longer than three years may provide additional insights into how such variables continue to change over time, as school implement reform efforts.

Our third question examined changes in perceived school belonging from 1995 through 1997. Results indicated that a perceived sense of belonging increased over time, particularly between 1995 and 1996. This is a very encouraging finding, because a heightened sense of school belonging can serve as a protective agent against many negative outcomes during adolescence, such as violence and suicidal ideation (Resnick et al., 1997). Although longitudinal studies of school belonging are lacking in the literature, reviews of the literature in the field of achievement motivation strongly suggest that early adolescents become disinterested in schooling, and perceive an increasing lack of a connection with school, during the middle grade years (Anderman & Maehr, 1994; Eccles et al., 1993; Eccles & Midgley, 1989). Therefore, the observed increase in perceived belonging is contrary to what would normally be expected. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the increase mainly occurred between 1995 and 1996. Again, additional research examining the trajectory after 1997 is warranted.

Our fourth question examined changes in motivation with the domain of science. Because research indicates that motivation varies by academic subject (Eccles et al., 1993b), we believed that it was very important to examine motivation within at least one specific academic domain.

Extrinsic motivation in science demonstrated an almost statistically significant decline, with the major decline occurring between 1996 and 1997. Perceived mastery goals decreased over time, although students in this school generally reported high levels of mastery goals at all three waves of data. The decline in mastery goals in science mirrors the decline in generally mastery goals that was found in our examination of our first question.

Our final question examined changes in variables related to n risky behaviors. In our sample, school-related anger declined between 1996 and 1997. Our measure of students' endorsement of antisocial activities to "be cool" displayed a declining trend between 1996 and 1997, although this trend was not statistically significant.

General Conclusions and Directions for Future Research

It is important to note that the observed changes and relations can not be linked directly to the changes that were made by the school. Indeed, it is possible that the observed changes were unrelated to the school's partnership with the university and the movement toward becoming a community school.

Nevertheless, it is extremely difficult to link such shifts in policies and practices to student outcomes in any program of research. Even when researchers can have "control" schools to serve as comparisons, it is difficult if not impossible in educational research to have a pure control. This is because teachers often implement new practices and strategies throughout the school year, particularly as they hear of innovations that are being made by other schools.

Whereas the observed changes can't be directly linked to changes that were implemented by the school, we are confident that these changes were at least somewhat related to the changes and relations observed in our data. Specifically, a number of the developmental shifts in motivation that we observed ran contrary to what the literature has found for most early adolescents (see Anderman, Austin, & Johnson, in press, for a review).

The types of activities and learning environments provided by middle schools have a dramatic impact on student learning and motivation (Eccles & Midgley, 1989). In addition, in order to truly understand how students are motivated and how they learn, it is important to carefully examine classroom and school contexts (Anderman & Anderman, 2000; Lee, 2000; Turner & Meyer, 2000). In the present study, our research design and budget limited our evaluation to one site. Nevertheless, by only using one site, we are able to interpret the observed changes in student motivation in terms of the context of this particular school. Future research combining qualitative and quantitative methods surely will yield additional insights into the relations between school reform and student outcomes.

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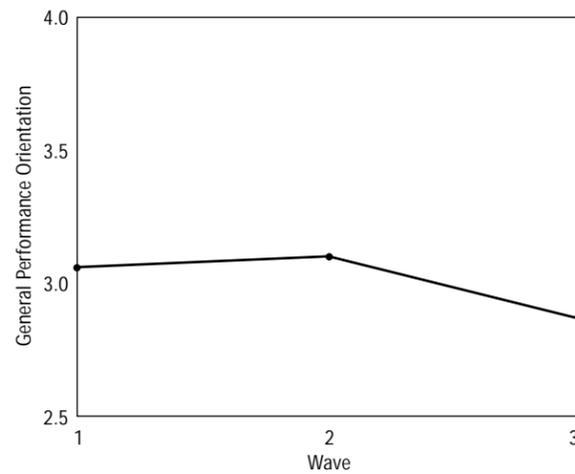
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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Longitudinal Analyses

Variable	t/F, df	1995	1996	1997
General Performance Orientation	4.52* (1, 122)	3.08 (1.06)	3.10 (0.99)	2.86 (1.01)
General Mastery Orientation	53.44*** (1, 122)	3.76 (0.85)	3.24 (1.03)	3.16 (0.98)
Perceived School Belonging	528.42*** (1, 122)	1.55 (0.50)	3.56 (0.82)	3.40 (0.92)
Extrinsic Motivation in Science	3.25t (1, 122)	2.91 (1.00)	2.92 (0.91)	2.74 (0.89)
Personal Mastery Goals in Science	28.53*** (1, 122)	3.79 (.89)	3.47 (.91)	3.29 (.97)
Anger	3.50*** (132)	—	2.22 (1.18)	1.84 (1.16)
Antisocial Behaviors to be "cool"	1.31 (131)	—	2.83 (1.09)	2.69 (1.12)

Note: * p<.05 ** p<.01 *** p<.001 † p = .07

Figure 1. Changes in General Performance Orientation

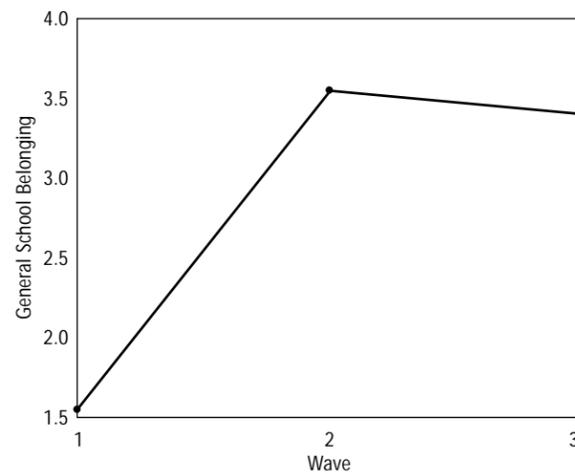


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Figure 2. Changes in Perceived School Belonging



TO CHANGE A UNIVERSITY, START WITH THE COMMUNITY

By Stephen L. Percy

Mary Jane Brukardt

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MILWAUKEE

Changing the direction of an institution of higher education is, as a former University of Wisconsin Regent once wrote, a lot like trying to move a battleship with your bare hands.¹ It takes strategic leadership ... and a lot of people willing to help push.

This is the story of that push, the continuing tale of how the idea of community-university engagement has become an invigorating—and transforming—vision for an entire institution.

Time for a Change

In 1998 the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee was ready to consider a change in course. The Chancellor of the University of Wisconsin System's largest urban public university was ending a seven-year term to return to the classroom. Student enrollment was back to more than 22,000 students for the first time in the decade and faculty numbers were stabilizing after years of cutbacks. New student housing and renovations to major buildings promised to highlight the university's enviable location near the shores of Lake Michigan, just minutes from downtown.

As the university looked to the future it was clear it needed a compelling vision, one that would help shape and define its mission as an urban, research university as well as its unique role within the UW-System which also includes the internationally recognized flagship campus in Madison and twelve other four-year comprehensive universities. Despite its ranking among the Carnegie's doctoral/research universities and strong undergraduate and graduate programs, UWM wanted to do better in attracting minority students, outside dollars and innovative faculty. The Search and Screen Committee for the new Chancellor, after many meetings with faculty, staff, alumni and students, determined that what the university needed was a visionary leader who could help UWM become a more responsive, innovative urban university.

UWM found that leader in Nancy L. Zimpher, who came on board in the summer of 1998 from the Ohio State University where she had been dean of the College of Education and Executive Dean of the Professional Colleges. While at Ohio State she had helped direct its Campus Collaborative, working with community groups to transform the university's neighborhoods. No stranger to the power of community-campus partnerships, Zimpher recognized in UWM its strong history of outreach and service and the potential for finding new purpose and mission in the principles of engagement. Shortly after her arrival, she challenged faculty, staff and students to imagine a future as a new kind of university, one inextricably linked to its community: "It's not just us serving the city. It's not just the city serving us," she said in her first campus speech. "It is the notion of *together* building a city and university that are the heart of metropolitan Milwaukee. This

is the essence of [what we will call] The Milwaukee Idea."²

An Old Idea Made New

Of course the idea of community engagement as an animating mission for the academy is not a new one. As Seth Low, president of Columbia from 1890 to 1901 said in his inaugural address, "...there is no such thing as the world of letters apart from the world of men."³ This progressive tradition was the fertile soil in which Wisconsin's university system was nurtured in the late nineteenth century. It was at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, that the notion of "The Wisconsin Idea" was first expressed: "the boundaries of the university are the boundaries of the state."⁴ From its earliest years to today, The Wisconsin Idea has embodied the university's mission of research and outreach—as well as teaching—to provide information, policy and service to the state and community.

When the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee was founded in 1956, it continued this philosophy, with the expressed purpose that it be "Milwaukee's university," a "powerful partner" with the city.⁵ UWM faculty, staff and students have taken that charge seriously, engaging in literally hundreds of projects and partnerships with neighborhood schools, small business, downtown development agencies, community activists and social service agencies.

In 1996, for example, UW-Milwaukee received a grant from the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development to form a Milwaukee Community Outreach Partnership Center (MCOPC) to pursue broad-scale neighborhood revitalization. Administered by UWM's Center for Urban Initiatives and Research, MCOPC brought together an interdisciplinary team from across campus that included The School of Architecture and Urban Planning, the Centers for Economic Development and Urban Community Development, the Employment and Training Institute, and the Department of Sociology.

Since MCOPC was formed, UWM faculty and staff have joined with a community partnership of educators, parents, neighbors, community organizations and businesses to create full-service community centers at three area schools. MCOPC staff and students from the School of Architecture and Urban Planning worked with residents of a

home for the chronically mentally ill to design suitable housing. UWM's Employment and Training Institute conducted regular job opening surveys to assist technical training organizations in matching openings to workforce skills, and produced school-to-work and career planning materials for middle and high-school students.⁶ Non-profit leaders participated in a year-long seminar called Community Action Scholars and learned "the value and power of shared experience."⁷ From community nursing to on-site tutoring, research for business start-ups to studies of welfare reform, UWM continues to demonstrate the effectiveness of "powerful partnerships" to enhance learning and strengthen community.

Integrating Engagement Into the Institutional Mission

But as the Kellogg Commission report on the future of state and land-grant universities notes, university engagement goes beyond conventional outreach and public service. Interdisciplinary coalitions and large numbers of community partnerships are important, but are only a prelude to the next step: "integrating engagement into the institutional mission" and "infusing engagement into curriculum and teaching."⁸ Such a vision for the "engaged institution" is, in the words of Chancellor Zimpher, "too ambitious to be the property of a single campus entity, like one department or one school." Equally important, engagement at the institutional level must include the community from the very beginning in its design and implementation.

And so, The Milwaukee Idea was born. Over the course of the past three years, students, faculty, staff, alumni and community members have met to create and implement "Big Ideas"—"new ways in which UWM can join hands with the people of metropolitan Milwaukee." According to Zimpher, the Milwaukee Idea of community engagement will be "woven into the fabric of the university and into the way in which we do our work, adding color and luster to our strong tradition of teaching excellence, research and scholarship, service and engagement."⁹ If, as Ira Harkavy contends, "the radical reform of higher education is most likely to occur in the crucible of significant, serious, sustained, active engagement,"¹⁰ UWM is testing that hypothesis where it counts: in the academy and on the street.

Step One: Imagine

How do you mobilize an entire university around community engagement? At UWM, it began with 100 people and one word: imagine. Imagine the shared future of Milwaukee and UWM. A "Committee of 100"—invited students, faculty, staff and community—met for the first time in October, 1998, and were tasked with fleshing out The Milwaukee Idea. What is it? What are the big ideas that will mobilize the university? How can community engagement improve student learning and research? Most important, what concrete *action* can be taken to make the ideas reality?

Over the course of only six months (a mere blink of an eye in traditional academic time!) the Committee of 100 (which soon grew to 200 as more people became excited about the process) organized into ten Affinity Groups to research and debate ways in which UWM could create bold new initiatives that would not only extend existing UWM strengths, but also encourage new partnerships. Groups, led by self-selected convenors, met on campus and by e-mail, shared ideas over the Web and came together to brainstorm concepts with the committee as a whole.

Early on, the leadership team for The Milwaukee Idea developed what came to be called "connectors:" a set of guiding principles that helped the Affinity Groups assess the validity of their proposals. First and foremost, the ideas had to be "big"—they had to result in significant and fundamental change to the campus and the community. In addition, the connectors included a commitment to fostering diversity and multiculturalism, nurturing new partnerships and collaborations, encouraging interdisciplinary relationships, enhancing student learning and campus culture, and supporting more open communication.

Communication has become a watchword for The Milwaukee Idea process. As James Carr, a senior vice president at the Fannie Mae Foundation reminds us, university efforts to engage the community must often first overcome well-earned and long-held skepticism and mistrust of institutions of higher education.¹¹ So Chancellor Zimpher took The Milwaukee Idea on the road. She spoke to community and campus groups, at luncheons and breakfast meetings, and to business and civic leaders about The Milwaukee Idea and UWM's desire for change. In addition, more than

a dozen meetings were held with community groups on campus and off, sharing details about the proposed ideas before they were finalized. Groups included business leaders, alumni, neighbors, even the media. The goal was three-fold: to get public reaction back; to signal to the community that UWM valued its input and partnership; and to make UWM accountable for results. “We’re working without a net,” said Zimpher. “What we are doing is public and must produce action.”

Moving to Action

At the end of six months, UWM’s Affinity Groups identified ten “First Ideas” that reflected the values of the connectors and offered visionary new directions for the future of the university. At the same time, a group of community foundations joined forces to begin their own “First Idea Planning Process,” and, working with UWM, developed an eleventh proposal for a Non-profit Management Education center. The Ideas also included major initiatives in education, the economy and the environment:

- a proposed alternative general education requirement celebrating the city’s multicultural assets and involving community members in the learning process;
- a consortium for economic opportunity, linking university expertise with the community’s small businesses and entrepreneurs;
- a global program for international education;
- new partnerships to study and implement programs addressing urban health issues;
- a “healthy choices” program targeting issues of substance use on campus and in the community; and
- an international center for freshwater research.

The ideas were announced by Zimpher at her inauguration as the sixth Chancellor of UWM and applauded by the mayor, county executive and governor. The more important announcement, however, was not the ideas (they’d been publicly discussed for months) but the next step. As Zimpher stated at the very first Milwaukee Idea plenary session, “ideas without action are meaningless.” The real challenge of change is implementation and so Zimpher assembled Action Teams of faculty,

students, staff and community to create concrete action plans—complete with detailed budgets and staffing proposals—to implement the First Ideas. Eighteen months after the first Affinity group meeting, the first Idea was ready to launch.

Since that time, ten of the original eleven Ideas have been implemented and three more ideas have joined the ranks. All are making significant contributions to the life of the university and our region. The Consortium for Economic Opportunity is based in the city core and has partnered with neighborhood development groups and small business. A campus-wide survey on student drinking habits has been completed and a new course on Healthy Choices developed. The Milwaukee Partnership Academy, a collaboration with Milwaukee’s Public Schools, has brought the school board, administration, the union, business and higher education to the table to improve teacher training and retention. The Helen Bader Institute for Nonprofit Management has opened its doors and Cultures and Community, the curriculum component of The Milwaukee Idea, has sponsored faculty fellowships to create new courses that connect student learning to the urban community. More than thirty have already been offered.

Taking Stock

It is, of course, too early to assess success of The Milwaukee Idea. By no means has engagement been embraced campus-wide, nor have the many and varied opportunities for enhanced student learning, community participation and faculty research been fully realized. There are, however, signs that the “battleship” is changing direction.

Early on in the Milwaukee Idea process, the leadership team identified “Eight Steps to Success”¹²—measures to help assess accomplishments. They are:

1. Establish a sense of urgency
2. Create a guiding coalition
3. Empower people for broad-based action.
4. Develop vision and strategy
5. Communicate the change vision
6. Generate short-term wins
7. Consolidate gains and produce more change
8. Anchor changes in the culture

The sense of urgency for change at UWM was real. The “guiding coalition” included not only the

Chancellor and Milwaukee Idea director, but the hundreds of people involved during the past three years. The secret to the success of The Milwaukee Idea, however, can be found in Step 3: “Empower people for broad-based action.” Chancellor Zimpher recalls the reactions she got as the process unfolded. “People would send me e-mails and say, ‘We know you have all these people working on ideas, but surely you have a plan, Nancy.’ I had to tell them, the plan is not mine. It belongs to UWM and to the people who create it and then make it happen.” Thanks to the work of hundreds of people, the university has new goals and specific strategies to reach them.

The process has brought together individuals from across campus and the community, creating new networks and relationships. Almost one hundred new faculty have been hired in the past year, with an additional seventy-five slated for 2002—many of them attracted to UWM because of the opportunities for engagement being offered. This has resulted in a cohort of enthusiastic students, faculty, staff and community people who are committed to implementing the ideas and to sharing the vision more broadly. As one participant said, “The most meaningful result of this process is that it was so open.

It allowed anyone who wanted to join in. This enabled people from across disciplines to talk to each other—it hasn’t happened before!”

Thanks to The Milwaukee Idea, UWM has a new profile in the neighborhood and new ways to communicate with the community. According to Timothy Sheehy, the president of the Metropolitan Milwaukee Association of Commerce, Chancellor Zimpher and The Milwaukee Idea “opened the door to the university as a resource.” The Milwaukee Idea office fields calls daily from organizations and individuals eager to explore potential partnerships and projects. A new Institute for Service Learning and a revived student volunteer center provide additional support.

The sixth step to success—“create short-term wins”—can be measured in the Milwaukee Idea banners that dot the campus, the 100-fold increase in column inches generated in local media, and also in dollars. Research funding has increased by almost 50 percent over the past two years. And, for the first time in its history, the university was awarded almost \$20 million in addition dollars from the state of Wisconsin in support of The Milwaukee Idea.

Finally, is The Milwaukee Idea anchored in the culture of the university? That will take time, of course, but three important administrative mechanisms have been put in place to signal that community-university partnerships are the inspiration and the driver behind UWM’s aspirations to be a premier urban research university. The Milwaukee Idea office functions within the Chancellor’s office, headed by the Chancellor’s Deputy. Chancellor Zimpher has also appointed an Assistant Chancellor for Partnerships and Innovation, selected from the community and charged with directing community participation with the university. And new governance structures have evolved, as faculty and academic staff have worked to create systems that support interdisciplinary work. A Trustee Council—a brand new entity—made up of faculty, staff, deans and Milwaukee Idea administration, work together to oversee implementation of The Milwaukee Idea.

So Far...

Chancellor Zimpher likes to tell the story of an encounter she had with a student, early in her tenure at UWM. It was a beautiful fall day and as the Chancellor walked across the plaza to the Student Union, he stopped her, introduced himself and told her how pleased he was with everything she was doing. Then he paused ... and added: “So far!”

The challenge for change never ends.

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For more information

To learn more about The Milwaukee Idea, see the website at www.uwm.edu/MilwaukeeIdea. Contact the office at 414-229-6913 or e-mail mke-idea@uwm.edu for more details.

Endnotes

- 1 Laurence A. Weinstein, *Moving a Battleship with Your Bare Hands: Governing a University System* (Madison, WI: Magna Publications, 1993).
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- 4 Jack Stark, "The Wisconsin Idea: The University's Service to the State," reprinted from the 1995-96 *Wisconsin Blue Book*, Legislative Reference Bureau.
- 5 Frank Cassell, J. Martin Klotsche and Frederick Olson, with the assistance of Donald Shea and Bea Bourgeois, *The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee: a historical profile, 1995-1992*, (Milwaukee: UWM Foundation, 1992).
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ORGANIZING THE CAMPUS TO
BE IN PARTNERSHIP WITH
SCHOOLS AND THE
COMMUNITY:
OHIO STATE'S CAMPUS COLLABORATIVE

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THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

*A dillar, a dollar,
A ten o'clock scholar,
What makes you come so soon?
You used to come at ten o'clock,
But now you come at noon.
—Mother Goose*

The quaint old nursery rhyme begs us to ask some questions about our communities and their schools. What are the characteristics of a school system that would produce a student so reluctant to arrive in a timely fashion? What are the characteristics of a family that produces such a student? Is the child working late into the evening to help provide the basic family necessities and, therefore, unable to get out of bed early enough to arrive at school on time? Is it a single parent household, and is our scholar assuming the responsibility of getting other siblings off to school so the parent can go to work? Does a family illness require the student to be home in the morning? Is there a total lack of parental supervision? What are the characteristics of the community in which our scholar attends school? Is it a poor urban community whose school suffers from the same battle fatigue as many of the homes and families within its boundaries? Is it an affluent middle-class community where everyone is so busy pursuing the American dream that schools and children go unnoticed?

While these questions are neither exhaustive nor relevant to every situation, they do demonstrate the complexity of the world in which our ten o'clock scholar lives and grows. It can be argued that one of the most important issues facing our nation is the adequate education of our children. Lawson and Hooper-Briar¹ suggest that only through collaboration among a variety of concerned partners can this issue and all of society's complex problems be adequately or successfully addressed. Benson, Harkavy, and Puckett² challenge our institutions of higher education by stating that collaboration with communities to solve

society's most complex issues is the university's civic responsibility. Harkavy³ suggests that the university should no longer be rewarded for the lofty rhetoric it produces; it should be rewarded for its ability to collaborate in solving America's most serious problems, especially those of the city.

The Campus Collaborative at The Ohio State University is built upon a foundation very much in accord with the assertions of Lawson, Hooper-Briar, Benson, Harkavy, and Puckett. Simply stated, the foundation is this: The university has a responsibility to support the community; it must learn from and build on community assets; it cannot support the community without supporting schools and families; and university support, if it is to be effective, must be collaborative.

This article highlights the work of the Campus Collaborative (Collaborative) especially as it relates to the communities (University District) that surround the campus of The Ohio State University (OSU) in Columbus, Ohio. It begins with a brief look at the birth of the Collaborative and an overview of its activities. The remainder of the paper concentrates on three specific initiatives of the Collaborative especially regarding the ways in which these initiatives impact the university schools and neighborhoods, the ways the Collaborative strives to facilitate campus efforts to respond to school and neighborhood needs, and lessons learned. These three initiatives are the University Neighborhood Faculty Seed Grant Program, the Community Outreach Partnership Center, and the University District Education Committee.

The Collaborative grew out of the work of two organizations: The Interprofessional Commission of Ohio (Commission) and Campus Partners for Community Urban Redevelopment, Inc. (Campus Partners). The Commission is a cooperative program of human service professions whose goal is to improve services through collaboration for the children, adults, and families of Ohio and our nation. Founded in 1973, the Commission serves as a bridge between the academic and professional communities by facilitating interprofessional dialogue and problem solving throughout the state and nation. The Commission provides interprofessional opportunities for persons in the helping professions to address complex social, ethical, clinical, and public policy issues.

Housed at Ohio State, the Commission provides technical assistance in collaboration that

includes interprofessional planning and evaluation; training and education for communities and agencies; community collaboration; and staff development. It offers interprofessional credit courses to graduate and professional students at OSU and three seminaries which comprise the Theological Consortium of Greater Columbus. Other activities of the Commission involve public policy analysis of emerging social issues that impact professional practice; continuing professional education conferences, workshops, and staff development programs; program development and research from an interprofessional perspective; and publications on interprofessional collaboration. For more information visit the Commission's web site at <http://www.osu.edu/ico/>.

In 1994, Dr. E. Gordon Gee, then president of OSU, and Columbus mayor, Greg Lashutka⁴ announced that the university and the city had entered into a joint commitment to work toward the improvement of specific neighborhoods bordering OSU's Columbus campus. The commitment's impetus grew from a growing concern regarding the quality of life in these neighborhoods. A task force representing the Ohio State faculty, staff, and students; the City of Columbus; and community organizations was formed. Included in the task force's recommendations was the suggested formation of a non-profit 501(c)(3) organization. Thus, Campus Partners was formed and charged with two priorities: "To develop a comprehensive neighborhood Revitalization Plan...accompanied by an Implementation Strategy; and to actively promote projects and programs that can have an immediate, positive impact on the neighborhoods" (p E-1). For more information on Campus Partners visit their web site at <http://www.osu.edu/org/osucp/>.

With extensive community input and the assistance of a team of consultants, Campus Partners published its *University Neighborhoods Revitalization Plan: Concept Document*⁵ Columbus City Council and the university's Board of Trustees formally adopted the plan in mid-1997. The document contained six "Core Values" around which Campus Partners' projects would be developed. Through the leadership of Nancy Zimpher, then Dean of the College of Education, the Commission was invited to take leadership in developing initiatives for addressing the human services issues of the revitalization plan. The Campus Collaborative evolved from this invitation. The Collaborative is an interprofessional

group that now has over 40 university offices and several community organizations, including resident and neighborhood collaboratives, religious organizations, and government and human services agencies.

The Collaborative developed recommendations in five areas intended to foster the goal of creating a model for university/community relationships characterized by educational excellence. The recommendations centered on three of the six core values articulated in the *University Neighborhoods Revitalization Plan: Concept Document*⁶.

Core Value: The university district shall be a model for university/community relationships. The Collaborative suggested two initiatives to implement its first recommendation:

Faculty participation:

1. Establish Community-Based Courses in partnership with existing neighborhood agencies, schools, and families to prepare students for human service and other professions.
2. Establish the University Neighborhoods Faculty Seed Grant Program to encourage teaching and inquiry by faculty and students in the university neighborhoods which will benefit the community, its families, and residents.

Core Value: The university district shall be culturally and socio-economically diverse. The Collaborative suggested three initiatives designed to implement the second recommendation: **Strengthen health and well-being in the university district:**

1. Establish a Collaborative Neighborhood Healthy Community Initiative to provide residents and university faculty and students community-based integrated approach to education, employment, health, recreation, and human services.
2. Develop Housing for Student Mothers and Children: A Co-Housing Model to provide housing, child-care, parenting education, and other support to single-mothers while they pursue higher education and to prepare students and faculty to respond to this population.
3. Create a Dialogue Bridge (This evolved into a Community Outreach Partnership Center.) to enhance and sustain partner-

ships between community residents, university faculty, students and staff, Campus Partners, and human service providers, and to develop a community-based mechanism for goal setting and accountability.

Three Collaborative programs were designed to implement the third recommendation: **Strengthen the economic environment in the university neighborhoods:**

1. In conjunction with OSU Extension, develop a Comprehensive Employment Program, including job development and employment readiness with special emphasis on substance abuse prevention to enhance employment prospects for residents and to equip university students and faculty to comprehensively respond to employment readiness issues.
2. Develop a network of campus area employers, including Ohio State, for Local Employment Advocacy, which will give hiring preference to residents of the university neighborhood.
3. Establish a Business Incubator to assist in the development of new businesses in the community and to provide site-based opportunities for student and faculty teaching, learning, and inquiry.

Student quality of life, the fourth recommendation, was accompanied by six suggested initiatives:

1. Move the Off-Campus Student Services Center into the university neighborhood to provide an integrated approach to housing needs, health education, counseling, and academic learning assistance.
2. Develop Expanded Community Service Opportunities for all university students, faculty, and staff, including required community service credit for graduation.
3. Develop additional Human Services available to students in the university neighborhood as needs are identified.
4. Develop expanded on-campus Student Activities to increase options available to students.
5. Implement the recommendations of the University Alcohol and Drug Advisory Committee.

6. Develop a Resident Manager's program for off-campus housing.

Core Value: The university district shall be a neighborhood of choice. The Collaborative made its fifth recommendation relating to this core value: **Strengthen the schools in the university neighborhood.** This recommendation stresses the assertion that schools of choice foster neighborhoods of choice. The University District Education Committee (UDEC) was formed to implement the following five initiatives:

1. Create additional Professional Development School Sites and Placements to better prepare teachers and other school professionals to address the needs of urban students.
2. Provide Off-Campus Seminars for Teachers to benefit teachers in university area schools and university faculty and students in urban curriculum development and instructional strategies.
3. Develop a Partnership for Technology in Education to link the 13 university area schools and the university, to provide access to information systems for all residents and teachers, and to strengthen university faculty and students resources in the use of technology in urban areas.
4. In cooperation with the Columbus Public Schools' 5-year Strategic Plan, support Family Focus Centers in developing and planning to strengthen families in the community and to prepare university faculty and students to work effectively with families.
5. Assist university area schools to become Centers for Community Learning, open evenings and weekends to offer life-long learning opportunities to all area residents and to equip university students and faculty to respond to individual life-long learning goals.

The recommended projects briefly described above are intended to enable the University District to become a teaching community that can serve as a model for other urban college and university communities, as well as an opportunity for teaching, learning, and inquiry by residents, professionals, and university faculty, students, and staff. The initiatives were developed through collaboration with the community and are currently in various stages of planning and implementation.

Space limitations do not permit a review of each initiative and its current status. The remainder of the paper offers a more in-depth look into three of them: the University Neighborhood Faculty Seed Grant Program, the Community Outreach Partnership Center, and the University District Education Committee. To learn more about the Collaborative and its other initiatives, visit our web site at <http://www.osu.edu/campus-collab/>.

University Neighborhood Faculty Seed Grant Program

Partners in the revitalization of the University District Neighborhoods developed six core values to guide their work. One of these core values for which the Collaborative offered recommendations said, "The university district shall be a model for university/community relationships." A vital step in reaching this goal is the participation of university faculty. The idea of stimulating faculty participation through a seed grant program to encourage teaching and research in the neighborhoods follows naturally. Through funding from OSU's Office of Academic Affairs, the University Neighborhood Faculty Seed Grant Program became a reality, and the first grants were awarded in 1996. Funding began with \$50,000 annually and has risen to a yearly investment of \$80,000. Since 1996, forty grants of \$2,500-\$32,000 have been awarded. Funded projects are interdisciplinary whenever possible, must include significant collaboration with community agencies, schools, organizations, and/or residents, and most include neighborhood-based credit teaching. Faculty members from all disciplines of the university are urged to apply via an RFP in the spring of each year. Projects from 12 of OSU's 19 colleges have been funded to date. A list of the colleges and/or units involved and the various community partners offers a glimpse of the increase in faculty participation and potential impact upon the University District.

OSU Colleges/Units

College of the Arts
College of Dentistry
College of Education
College of Engineering
College Food, Agricultural, and
Environmental Sciences
College of Human Ecology
College of the Humanities

College of Law
College of Medicine
College of Nursing
College of Social Work
College of Veterinary Medicine
Office of Academic Affairs
University College

Community Partners

All 13 Columbus Public Schools Serving University District residents
BalletMet Columbus
The Columbus Symphony
The Family Center
Family Focus Center at Second Ave.
Elementary School
Godman Guild
Neighborhood Services, Inc.
Project OpenHand

The scope of the projects funded affirms the Collaborative's dedication to its premise: The university has a responsibility to support the community; it must learn from and build on community assets; it cannot support the community without supporting schools and families; and university support, if it is to be effective, must be collaborative.

Grants Focusing on Community

A variety of seed grant projects focused on one or more aspects of the University District communities.

- A geriatric dentistry clinic operates a half-day session each week and provides a range of dental services for under-served, homebound, elderly patients.
- An assessment of animal-related contamination of public areas in the university neighborhoods has senior veterinary students assess certain disease risks to neighborhood residents that arise from domestic, stray, and wild animal contamination in the district.
- The service-learning cooperative has as its goal to develop an innovative, collaborative partnership between the College of Education and three community nonprofit organizations: Godman Guild, Neighborhood Services, and Project OpenHand.
- Community commitment introduces new students, faculty, and staff to thoughtful

community service in the University District.

- A project called Developing Community/University Partnerships: A Model for Exemplary Theory and Practice engaged faculty and students with a neighborhood agency in the assessment of community strengths and needs. The project built a stronger sense of community among the residents, provided data for the agency, taught students techniques involved in such data collection.
- A School of Natural Resources project provides students with practical experience in evaluating trees in the University District neighborhoods for structural stability and other associated hazards.
- Urban public health action and education for the university neighborhoods involves 10-12 senior veterinary students in identifying public health problems in the community and devising and implementing solutions to those problems.
- The use of the arts to engender a positive community spirit takes OSU Arts personnel into schools and other neighborhood settings and encourages residents to attend arts events on campus.
- Iuka Ravine: Resident and User Surveys conducted a study of the Iuka Ravine and prepared design and management proposals for the rehabilitation and long-term sustainability of this unique green space in the University District.
- A home ownership survey analyzed deed transfer data for the University District (1984-95) to provide a longitudinal look at property values in the area.
- A College of the Arts project is developing a portable graphic information display of community activities initiated by Campus Collaborative/Campus Partners including an interactive component for presenting videotaped material and feedback from community and other viewers.

Grants Focusing on Schools

A number of seed grants are directed at supporting the University District schools.

- Cultural diversity as practice: introducing somatic education facilitates community understanding and appreciation of cultural

diversity through cross-cultural movement experiences for teachers and students at two University District schools.

- A College of Education project is developing an interactive website for the 13 public schools which serves the district and their neighborhoods that will service civic and educational purposes.
- The neighborhood literacy tutoring exchange brings together first-year OSU honors students and public school students from the neighborhoods in a literacy tutoring exchange.
- The Department of Spanish and Portuguese is building a community of Hispanics and Spanish speakers in the University District through mentoring, tutoring, internships, activities on and off campus, partnerships with public schools, and field research.
- Students at two University District schools are engaged in neighborhood studies and needs assessments as the foundation for service-learning.
- A project called Music and Dance created a unique partnership among OSU faculty and students, professional musicians in the Columbus Symphony and BalletMet Columbus, and three University District schools.
- University District public schools in context constructed a database profiling the area's public schools and their neighborhoods as a tool to promote teaching, inquiry, and service.
- Honors at Indianola is a project matching students from the University Honors Program to work with 8th grade students at Indianola Middle School.
- The College of Law designed Street Law in the Public Schools that used 36 law students to teach basic legal concepts to students in 10 of the University District schools.
- Two service-learning initiatives are funded. They will result in at least six new service-learning courses in the University District.

A team from the College of Education is currently conducting two major school studies.

- The contexts of learning study is a comprehensive analysis of the family, community, and school contexts affecting school

improvement efforts across the University District.

- The study of best practices across the country in three areas: university/school partnerships, successful school restructuring models, and effective coordinated services models. The studies will result in recommendations for the partnership between OSU and the schools in the University District.

For further information on these College of Education projects see www.coe.ohiostate.edu/tlb/.

Grants Focusing on Families

A third group of funded initiatives emphasizes families.

- A project out of the School of Allied Medical Professions, *Hands Across High*, provides resident health screening and a referral network, collects health risk and demographic data; and develops credit courses for graduate and professional students.
- *Strengthening Bridges that Link Schools, Families, and Communities* developed an upper level undergraduate course and web site on developmental issues faced by adolescents and families in the transition from middle to high school.
- *Neighborhood Learning Circles* provide adult learning opportunities for University District residents on topics chosen by them. A unified physical activity program provided a weekly program at OSU (gymnasium, pool, and playing field) for persons 3-21 years of age with or without disabilities.
- A project from the School of Nursing *analyzed the increased use of emergency food services in the University District* and the characteristics of users of this service.
- The Senior Housing Outreach Program assisted older homeowners with referrals to appropriate service agencies and with volunteer student service projects.
- Determining the feasibility of providing a model of transitional housing for *college students who are single mothers at risk for homelessness* was a joint project with the College of Social Work and the School of Architecture.

- *The Family/Community Literacy Partnership* conducted home and community visits to learn about existing literacy events in three school communities and shared models for improving reading with children and their families.
- A grant to the College of Human Ecology *provided software for students to study housing needs in the university neighborhoods*.
- A group representing several OSU colleges and units is gathering to begin a study on the *impact on low income housing in the neighborhoods brought on by the revitalization project*.

As a result of the seed grant program, numerous faculty, staff, and students were, are, and will continue to be involved with the residents, families, schools, organizations, and agencies of the communities in the University District. Many of the projects seeded by the Collaborative are in second stages with funding from other sources. The impact on the University District is only beginning to be understood. However, the impact on the university is evidenced by the continuing interest in the seed grant program and in its increased funding. For further information on the seed grant program see <http://www.osu.edu/campuscollab/seed.htm>.

Lessons Learned

1. Focusing the basic academic mission of the university in community-based teaching and inquiry is the most effective way to engage faculty in an on-going partnership with the community.
2. Seed grants promote this engagement and attract interest from across the university.
3. Sustainability of projects is critical and needs more attention because offering the community programs that are temporary does not build partnerships and may do more harm than good in terms of building trust.
4. Interdisciplinary approaches are essential for success in community partnership but still difficult to achieve given the departmental structure of the university.

Specific outcomes of individual seed grants are available on the Collaborative web site at <http://www.osu.edu/campuscollab/>.

Community Outreach Partnership Center

In the evolution of partnership development between The Ohio State University and its surrounding neighborhoods, a Community Outreach Partnership Center (COPC) was a logical outgrowth of the Collaborative's recommendation to "strengthen health and well-being in the university district." A 1996 application for federal funding from the U. S. Department of Housing and Urban Development was submitted to unite the resources of collaborative partners and create an interprofessional program of outreach and research. The original and continuing goal of COPC is to strengthen and stabilize the citizens of Weinland Park, a University District neighborhood where 92% of the working families earn less than \$10,000/year. Efforts are aimed at "whole family" stability as an essential underlayment of support for the neighborhood schools. Four areas of most pressing concern were identified through a series of focus groups conducted by the Collaborative, the Godman Guild Association, a long-time neighborhood social service agency, and the Weinland Park Community Collaborative, a neighborhood residents' organization. They are

- communication,
- job training,
- entrepreneurship training, and
- family housing/stability.

Communication

Concerns of the residents in the Weinland Park neighborhood are vital to the development and implementation of COPC programs. The language of the 1996 grant articulated quarterly meetings of a Community Advisory Committee as a continuous improvement process for the neighborhood. Meaningful dialog and communication including regular goal setting, feedback and evaluation serve to encourage mid-course program adjustments that respond in a timely fashion to community assessment of all COPC initiatives. Such interaction positively impacts neighborhood residents' perception of their own efficacy in furthering the change process within the community.

To highlight the importance of communication skills for youthful residents of the Weinland Park Neighborhood, the idea of Read All About It, a community newspaper written, published, and distributed by middle school-age youth (ages 11 to 13), was conceived in 1998. Adult advisors from the Weinland Park Community

Collaborative, OSU Extension, and the Campus Collaborative planned and met for two hours weekly with the newspaper staff beginning in June 1998. In subsequent months students explored all aspects of newspaper production including reporting, photography, and desktop publishing. From the beginning, the student group demonstrated ownership of the newspaper by naming the publication, deciding what the layout would look like, and making editorial decisions about what information their publication would contain. COPC provided support in the form of a monthly stipend for the newspaper staff, which they earned by attendance at weekly meetings and contributions of articles to the monthly newspaper.

The young people took on the additional responsibility of advertising and marketing the paper, contacting local business owners to ask if they would help with distribution by making the publication available in their stores. Enthusiasm grew as students' communication skills improved with each venture into the community. They wrote scripts, practiced them during mock interviewing sessions, and honed their presentation skills as well as their self-esteem in the process.

Adult advisors forged partnerships with local newspapers such as *The Columbus Dispatch*, which provided a tour of their facility and sent reporters to *Read All About It* monthly meetings to work with the students. A representative from Fifth Third Bank facilitated a workshop about money management, and agreed to set up savings accounts so students can watch their money grow.

The newspaper is printed free of charge by the staff at the Ohio Youth Advocacy Program (OYAP) graphics facility, which is housed in the same building as the weekly newspaper staff meetings. Additional experiences are being planned for the students in graphics, in cooperation with OYAP. The Department of Journalism at OSU has expressed interest in developing a mentorship program with university students and the newspaper staff. OYAP envisions a comprehensive after-school program for youth in the neighborhood, of which the newspaper and graphics connection will be components. At this time, coordinators are meeting with principals from the schools in the area to receive their input and suggestions.

Job Training

Reversing the public assistance and high rates of unemployment of Weinland Park residents requires job training. In February of 1998 the

COPC Job Training Advisory Committee, composed of partners from OSU, OSU Extension, and two community outreach centers, the Weinland Park Community Collaborative and the Godman Guild Association, hosted an open house for residents titled "Want a Good Job? Help Us Help You." The results provided residents' input on their own needs related to employment. Two major initiatives are designed to increase the abilities of residents of the University District to obtain and retain employment, and to increase the capacity of the neighborhood to support employability through job training. They are (1) work maturity and job search skills; and (2) competency-based building construction skills integrated with employability skills.

Work Maturity and Job Search Skills: Job Success Course

Curriculum for a Job Success training program was developed and is shared by a team of representatives from the Center on Education and Training for Employment at The Ohio State University, the Godman Guild Association, the OSU Cares Project, and the College of Education School-to-Work Campus Partners Project. Built around an employability skill framework, its objective is to equip unemployed adults in the neighborhood with the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities (SCANS Competencies*) to secure and successfully perform in temporary and permanent jobs. Specific topics in the 55-hour course are:

- personal attitudes crucial to successful job performance
- self-knowledge in identifying realistic job options
- time management and goal-setting
- personal short- and long-term goal-setting
- job application process
- resume building
- successful job interviewing techniques and role plays
- employer expectations
- teamwork and team behavior
- computer basics

Since March 1998, five Job Success Courses have been offered through the Godman Guild Association, serving more than 75 Weinland Park Neighborhood residents. Merging course content with targeted counseling and the outreach support

of Godman Guild staff members has proven to be a winning combination. When participants complete the course and become employed, relationships with Godman Guild staff do not end. Ongoing support in the form of mentoring relationships that continue as long as needed is a critical element of successful employment experiences for Job Success graduates.

*SCANS is an acronym for Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, representatives from education, business, labor, and government who identified "workplace know-how" – five competencies, skills and personal qualities needed for solid job performance by entry-level workers.

Competency-based Building Construction Skills Integrated with Employability Skills:

Project Build

PROJECT BUILD was envisioned as an expanded, six-week, double-stranded Job Success course for neighborhood residents. Customized to the construction industry, it focused on highly integrated training in employability skills and technical construction skills in seven areas of the industry:

- landscaping
- plumbing
- electrical
- masonry
- carpentry
- roofing
- heavy highway and utility construction

The first PROJECT BUILD was held as a pilot program in the spring of 1999. Training was conducted at the Godman Guild Settlement House, in a number of local trade apprenticeship training facilities, and in local Habitat for Humanity homes. Experts from the construction industry taught job-specific skills in basic home and building maintenance, and heavy highway and utility construction. Two adult educators facilitated the application of employability skills to each area of the industry. Tools that were purchased have become part of a toolbank, which will be run like a lending library for neighborhood residents as needed.

Ten residents graduated from the pilot program, and nine are employed in the construction industry at this time (one woman delivered a baby

after completing the course). The hands-on activities, networking opportunities with people from the industry who were in a position to hire course participants, ongoing mentoring from the Godman Guild staff, and bonding support from each other created an empowering growth experience for each participant. Additional funding has been awarded the Godman Guild Association for three more offerings of PROJECT BUILD. Continued collaboration of all the COPC partners – OSU, Weinland Park Community Collaborative, and Godman Guild – will enhance these future courses. In addition, COPC will assist Godman Guild financially in phasing in a Job Developer position.

Due to the demand for qualified workers the next phase will add HVAC (heating, ventilation, and air conditioning) and lengthen the program to eight weeks. Curriculum is being enhanced to reflect specific industry competencies, and will be certified by the Building Industry Association as a competency-based curriculum. Phase II will include graduates of the pilot program in the planning stages, and it is hoped that their employers, in allowing them released time to work in some capacity with students during the second course, will become partners as well.

Entrepreneurship Training

The Weinland Park Business and Entrepreneurship Center (BEC) began with a program for acquiring competence in entrepreneurship. The training was coordinated with accompanying services to assist neighborhood residents in small business with start-up and operation. The BEC is designed to support the birth, growth, and development of small businesses in the Weinland Park area.

A community garden was planted and micro entrepreneurial activities for youth and adults were held. The BEC Team held three major community service events which brought together community and university students.

The next phase of the entrepreneurship activities was to identify programs and organizational aspects of existing business incubators. Results of the research into business retention and expansion programs and business incubators have been used to develop a working plan for the center. This plan was developed through a BEC Advisory Committee made up of representatives from city government, the business community, the University Community Business Association, and

OSU faculty and students. The plan calls for BEC to offer the following kinds of services:

- small business start-up and consultation services (including assistance with marketing plan development, limited access to technological services, phone answering service, business mailing address);
- formation of a Weinland Park Business Association;
- a growers cooperative and farmers market; and
- seminars on How to Start Your Own Business (e.g., child care, painting, landscaping, construction, How to Contract with OSU and the City, and the Small Business Excel Program.

Family Housing Stability

The purpose of the family/housing stability outreach program is to increase family stability and to prevent eviction and homelessness. Among the barriers to stability are lack of family life skills, confidence in individual ability, and access to resources needed to acquire skills. The program builds on and complements existing programs at Godman Guild and goals of the Weinland Park Community Collaborative, and focuses on development of skills that enable families to increase the probability of obtaining and maintaining a secure housing situation, and to reduce the chances of eviction or foreclosure. Emphasis is placed on goal setting, planning and decision-making skills, within a train-the-trainer context of budgeting, tenant rights/responsibilities, consequences of non-payment of rent, community and consumer skills and resources, home management and care, nutrition and meal planning and awareness of community resources.

Counselors from Godman Guild assisted the start-up of the first activity by recommending community residents for training as peer mentors for at-risk families in the Weinland Park neighborhood. They participated in five weeks of training to learn how to teach family life skills, to learn methods of mentoring, and to increase familiarity with community resources. Upon completion of the training each peer mentor was matched with a family.

A Block Leader program was initiated in support of the Eyes on Weinland Park community

program. Information binders were created and distributed to all block leaders including topics such as telephone circles, block leader duties, and procedures to follow for various code violations within the neighborhood. Each topic had been identified by neighbors as problems, and the procedural steps for dealing with such problems equip the block leaders to inform their neighbors about appropriate actions to take.

Two community residents were hired as community liaisons to promote these programs with their neighbors and to keep the lines of communication continually open between residents and COPC. An Information Exchange was also conducted, involving residents and OSU students taking information about community resources door-to-door and at the same time encouraging and recruiting residents to become involved in community building activities. Other community empowering events have been held as part of a program called "Dare to Care about Weinland Park, including neighborhood meetings with police and government officials to discuss neighborhood concerns, neighborhood clean up and beautification projects, and several community festivals featuring arts and crafts, music, and food.

Lessons Learned

1. Community partnerships require long-term commitment to build and maintain. All partners bring a history of previous relationships that need to be understood and may need time for healing and/or rebuilding working relationships. Flexibility and a willingness to listen and learn from all parties are essential for this type of work.
2. Cultural diversity and expectations must be respected. University representatives in particular need to be sensitive to styles of management and organization in community groups, expectations for practical results from projects, and scheduling meetings and events when community partners can participate.
3. Taking as much time as necessary to communicate effectively and achieve consensus from all partners before decisions are made is essential and time well spent. Without that process conflicts and misunderstandings interfere and make successful programs impossible.

4. Adopting an asset-based approach, rather than over-emphasis on community needs, is a critical decision in building a genuine partnership.⁷

University District Education Committee

The University District Education Committee (UDEC) is a collaboration of educators, parents, and citizens. It grew from the Collaborative's recommendation to "strengthen the schools in the University Neighborhood" so that the university district becomes a neighborhood of choice. This partnership has been working since 1996 to improve the education of children and youth in the six elementary schools, two middle schools and five high schools that serve families living in the neighborhoods around the Columbus campus of The Ohio State University. Formed under the auspices of the University District Organization and the Campus Collaborative, UDEC is composed of principals and teacher representatives from the above 13 schools of the University District, and of representatives of Columbus Public Schools, the Columbus Education Association, Ohio State, and the University District neighborhoods.

In December 1997 four key principles and goals for UDEC's work emerged from the committee's discussions, two public forums, and a series of neighborhood potluck dinner meetings:

- Educational excellence and success in student performance,
- Community-based involvement and collaboration,
- Linking community resources through the schools, and
- Learning for a lifetime.

UDEC has become known as the Learning Bridge, a place where the university, the community, and the schools can enjoy in-depth discussion of issues and share insights. It connects the schools of the University District with statewide sources of ideas and funding to develop programs suited to the needs of the students and teachers.

UDEC has focused its efforts on specific issues related to its goals, namely technology, English as a Second Language (ESL), and internships – all areas identified by the UDEC schools as important to improving the quality of education for their students. UDEC and the Campus Collaborative have been able to identify resources

at OSU and in the larger community to fund a community computer center, to assist with assessment and tuition of ESL students, to recruit tutors from OSU students, faculty, and staff for literacy initiatives, and to attract funding for the two major initiatives described below. UDEC is currently exploring ways to publicize the assets of the UDEC schools to the community through the studies of the UDEC schools described above (in the section on Seed Grants). These studies will provide recommendations for the direction UDEC's work will take in the next five years.

Building a School-to-Work System: Walking the Walk

Addressing the concern of "community involvement and collaboration," Ohio school-to-work grant activities were carefully conceptualized for consistency within the Campus Partners for Community Urban Redevelopment initiative, and within the OSU College of Education's School-to-Work Program. Grant activities brought together a diverse partnership of representatives from Columbus Public Schools, business and industry, labor, community-based organizations, and Ohio State. They joined the 13 University District schools in 1997 to provide educators and students with experiences in businesses as learning laboratory extensions of the classroom. Using the "common language" of employability skills – the SCANS competencies – a graduate-level professional development course offered by OSU's College of Education helped teams of University District School teachers to facilitate the integration of career awareness and job readiness into the curriculum. Course participants earned three hours of graduate credit by attending a two-day externship in business and industry, by attending the course sessions housed in one of the University District schools, and by developing and implementing integrated action plans. Resources developed during the course included:

- Student internship planning guide
- Intern provider planning guide
- SCANS teacher externship logbook
- K-12 school-to-work thematic curriculum units.

The following year, 1998-99, *Continuing to Walk the Walk* was funded to build upon the foundation by emphasizing work-based learning. The

new superintendent of Columbus Public Schools, Dr. Rosa Smith, had determined that every graduating senior would experience 140 hours of meaningful internship – work-based learning – before graduation. OSU is a major employer in its own neighborhood, and campus jobs encompass all six of the Columbus Public Schools Career Pathway clusters:

- mechanical and industrial technologies,
- arts and communication,
- healthcare services,
- business and management,
- construction and technical, and
- services and retail marketing.

Because of this, the University was in a unique position to assist the schools to reach Dr. Smith's vision. *Continuing to Walk the Walk* highlighted employment opportunities within OSU, as well as the many diverse educational programs available on campus. Therefore, in addition to being supportive of the Columbus Public School students' goals, OSU was able to demonstrate its benefits, either as a prospective employer, a college destination, or both.

One highlight of this effort occurred in the spring of 1999. Nineteen students from a middle school visited the OSU campus on a weekly basis to complete a ten-hour mentorship with OSU faculty/staff. Participating students worked alongside OSU research staff and observed and participated in current research in areas including plant biology, aquatic science, genetics, and architectural history. Many mentorships were so successful that students extended their visits beyond the required ten hours.

Another highlight provided high school students the opportunity to participate in the OSU Department of Neurosurgery "Neurosurgeon for a Day program" (NSFAD). The goal of NSFAD is not to create doctors, but to motivate students to stay in school and encourage them to prepare for future careers. This dynamic program was conducted on four separate occasions for thirty-two students. Students worked alongside physicians and used the same high-speed drills and tools used by neurosurgeons in the operating room. They etched chicken eggshells, reconnected skull tissue, dissected cow brains, and sutured pigskin. They also learned about the potential consequences of risky behaviors, and the cruel realities of brain or spinal chord injuries.

Finally, 160 sophomores were brought to campus to visit with OSU faculty and staff to learn about specific academic requirements of professional careers in the arts and humanities. Students toured campus departments, attended undergraduate courses, met with OSU admissions and financial aid representatives, and interacted with faculty and staff members.⁸

Elementary teachers utilized the free Campus Area Bus Service to bring their students for career exploration. The list below demonstrates the teachers' enthusiasm for visiting campus:

<i>Sites Visited</i>	<i>Career Observed</i>
OSU Police Station	law enforcement, criminal justice
Ohio Union	hospitality, food services, business administration
Housing and Food Services	food services, maintenance, housekeeping
Bookstore	purchasing, customer service
Lantern Newspaper	journalism, publishing, printing
Reprographics/ Print Shop	computers, printing, customer service

As a result of these activities, from September 30, 1998 through September 30, 1999:

- 645 K-12 students participated in career experiences on the OSU campus.
- 88 University District Columbus Public School teachers and administrators worked to provide K-12 students with OSU career experiences.
- 103 OSU faculty/staff members agreed to serve as STW career hosts to University District students and schools.
- 7 STW teaching units were created and printed. Each grade appropriate teaching unit is correlated with the Columbus Public Schools teaching objectives. Additionally, each unit integrates STW, contextual teaching and the ITAC (Instructional Technology & Academic Computing) principles.
- 38 teachers and school administrators attended a professional development STW

workshop on the OSU campus. This workshop provided teachers and administrators with STW information, teaching resources, and opportunities to involve their students in future STW activities on campus.

Urban Schools Initiative

Under the leadership of the College of Education at Ohio State University, four urban school districts, Columbus, Mansfield, South-Western, and Springfield, have joined as partners with the Ohio Department of Education and the Martha Holden Jennings Foundation in a five-year project to study and improve urban education. Here in Columbus, OSU and the Columbus Public Schools agreed to work with the elementary and middle schools serving the University District. With a grant from the Martha Holden Jennings Foundation, the OSU/Urban Schools Initiative aims to promote much-needed research and develop training programs to support the work of teachers and educators in Central Ohio schools.

Local Needs, Statewide Issues

The issues facing the thirteen schools serving the University District are similar to those of other urban schools across the state. Thus, the OSU/USI partnership is an opportunity for University District schools in Columbus to join in a statewide effort to reform urban education. OSU/USI in Central Ohio builds on earlier work of the Ohio Department of Education's Urban Schools Initiative. Since 1996, ODE has met regularly with representatives of Ohio's twenty-one urban school districts to study common issues such as literacy, mobility, and community collaboration.

These urban school districts face enormous challenges to improve student performance: large student populations, higher concentrations of minority and special needs students, and a history of past economic and social barriers. In 1997, the statewide Urban Schools Initiative, with funding from the Jennings Foundation, produced a vision statement, *Through the Eyes of Children*, calling for systemic change in Ohio's urban schools. While each of the University District schools must create its own continuous improvement plan, to guide its work at the building level, the vision statement in *Through the Eyes of Children* gives depth and broader context to what each school defines as its agenda for change.

Tackling the Issues

In December 1998, with direction from the statewide USI project and Jennings, the OSU/USI staff interviewed administrators and educators in the four districts to identify areas of greatest need. Priorities with the strongest response included: student mobility, proficiency tests, curriculum alignment, teacher turnover, and the role of families and mentors in student learning. In March, 1999, OSU faculty in Columbus and Mansfield were encouraged to join the OSU/USI collaborative and to identify action research projects on these and related issues. From the start, the public schools accepted responsibility for defining and developing projects in their districts. In August, 1999, they began making decisions about the selection of proposals from OSU faculty and about which schools within the four districts to include. Overall, there was little difficulty in reaching agreement about areas of greatest need or where to locate the projects.

In the first half year, the OSU/USI responded to the critical need for literacy programs, both in the short-term and the long-term. For instance, the first OSU/USI project, a workshop held in Columbus on May 22, 1999, was designed for teachers who were to work with third grade students in summer school. The program focused on reading and writing activities to help students prepare for the fourth grade proficiency test. A second project, addressing long-term needs, focused on training literacy teams, through five sessions held during the 1999-2000 school year. Both these projects included teachers from schools inside the University District. With a nationally recognized faculty in language and early childhood instruction, OSU met the challenge of getting these projects up quickly and effectively.

Context for Change

Six months into the project, the OSU/USI staff has begun to focus more sharply on the schools within the University District. The greatest challenge so far springs from the size of the Columbus school system and The Ohio State University. Nevertheless, each has discovered how to make innovative changes to their usual way of doing business. For example, the OSU College of Education delegated decision making on faculty proposals to a steering committee with members from each of the four urban school districts. The Columbus Public Schools, for its part, was willing to focus

resources from USI on the University area schools as a subset within the larger CPS system. Since many of the schools in the University District had some of the lowest test scores citywide, concentrating resources here made sense, and the lessons learned here will benefit other urban schools in Columbus and elsewhere.

As the OSU/USI project moves into its second year, the Learning Bridge of UDEC offers hope and vision for the work ahead, and a way to tackle tough issues together.

Lessons Learned

1. There are resources available internal to the university and external, e.g. the Jennings Fund, to support serious education reform initiatives.
2. Having existing, on-going partnerships in place between universities, schools, and communities facilitates the process of securing additional resources for extending those partnerships.
3. Research projects and other training programs undertaken by university/school partnerships work best when the urban school districts define their needs/interests and when they are fully involved in the decision making of the partnership.

Concluding Remarks

During its five-year history, the Campus Collaborative at The Ohio State University worked to support the core values of the Campus Partners' mission. We will continue in the work toward building a model of university/community relationships so that the University District will be a culturally and socio-economically diverse neighborhood of choice. Progress made and lessons learned are continually analyzed and as a result program, plans, and initiatives are adjusted and revamped. Each step taken affirms the Collaborative foundational concept: The university has a responsibility to support the community and learn from and build on community assets; it cannot support the community without supporting schools and families; and university support, if it is to be effective, must be collaborative.

Notes

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BEYOND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND SERVICE LEARNING TO ENGAGED UNIVERSITIES*

Hal A. Lawson

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As a new century dawns, a growing number of universities are revisiting the land grant ideal. This part of their planning takes them "back to the future." All seek increasing community involvement, often through service learning initiatives. A few universities, notably ones supported by the Kellogg Foundation, are not merely going back to the future by revisiting the land grant ideal. They are pioneering new approaches to community engagement. Indeed, some call themselves "engaged universities."

How does community involvement differ from engagement? Are engaged universities any different from those that are involved? Or, is engagement merely a new label for customary kinds of involvement? What kinds of involvement and engagement activities should universities prioritize? How might involvement pave the way for engagement? Questions like these highlight needs for a working vocabulary, one that identifies alternatives and facilitates strategic planning. This paper has been structured in response to these needs.

Community involvement and engagement are defined, and their differences are identified. Planning alternatives are defined briefly. Their relationships and differences also are identified. For example, some of these alternatives are associated with the arts and sciences disciplines. Others are associated with the professional schools and colleges. Some are associated with both. In other words, these alternatives are not mutually exclusive, and all analyses need to guard against dichotomous thinking. Planning alternatives should be viewed on a continuum, which has involvement at one end and engagement at the other. "An involvement alternative" may pave the way for community engagement, and vice versa.

Three limitations must be acknowledged at the outset. First, all strategic planning frameworks and working vocabularies are normative. That is, they are value-committed, not value-neutral or free. Value frameworks need to be made explicit and then assessed against the character, aspirations, and accountability structures of each university.

Second, planning frameworks and vocabularies are limited in two senses. It is impossible to envision every possibility for involvement and engagement. Moreover, there is growing diversity among universities in the programs they offer and the faculty they support. State and local contexts also weigh heavily in strategic planning, suggesting that some involvement and engagement alternatives will be more appropriate for some universities than for others. One size does not fit all.

The third caution: All planning frameworks and working vocabularies are selective. They emphasize some priorities, external constituencies, societal needs, and internal university constituencies more than others. This selectivity brings an obligation, an invitation, and an opportunity. Analysts are obliged to identify their preferences and priorities.

For example, in the ensuing analysis academic administrators and university faculty are the primary audience. Selected professional schools, colleges, and departments are prioritized—namely, the helping fields of education, social work, health, juvenile justice, the individual, child, and family services fields (e.g., family and consumer sciences, clinical psychology), and public administration and policy. This selectivity serves as an invitation for other planning frameworks and vocabularies. Presented with these alternatives, leaders have the opportunity to make informed choices and good decisions, which allow them to build on the strengths and aspirations of their university and respond to local contexts, priorities, and needs.

Contrasting Involvement and Engagement

Although involvement and engagement are related, they offer different alternatives. A clear distinction needs to be made, mindful that any such distinction reflects the values of the person offering it. Because this distinction frames the ensuing analysis, it needs to be introduced at the outset so that readers to evaluate it.

Community involvement describes the voluntary, extramural activities of academic administrators, faculty, and students as individuals and groups. The degree and kind of involvement varies because the interests and commitments of individuals and groups also vary. In other words, involvement is optional. It entails adding new activities and programs, and involvement activities often occur at the margins. They are called special projects, and they may depend on grants and contracts. They may not be sustainable. Typically they lack “sticking power” and “staying power.”

To be sure, involvement activities may be innovative. But they last only as long as individuals’ and groups’ interests and commitments are maintained. For example, special courses and community experiences are added, but little struc-

tural and cultural change occurs in departments, schools, and colleges. The university’s mission does not change. Nor does the dominant faculty career pattern change. It remains individualistic, perhaps altruistic or entrepreneurial, in a *laissez faire* university environment.

In brief, the “real university” does not change (Lawson, 1999b). That is, there are no visible changes in its missions, fundamental structures, cultures, accountabilities, reward systems, roles, and responsibilities. Simply stated, community involvement activities and programs are things universities *might* do.

In contrast, community engagement is a social responsibility. It is something the university *must* do. Engagement is selective and strategic. It focuses strategic planning. It reaffirms and strengthens the essential responsibilities of universities for knowledge-related work and the preparation of knowledge workers. Because universities have finite resources and limited capacities, their engagement priorities must be selected carefully and strategically. Engaged universities seek to advantage themselves at the same time that they respond to important needs and challenges.

For example, the needs of vulnerable children, families, and their neighborhood communities are an important engagement priority. They are vulnerable, in part, because they evidence multiple, co-occurring needs associated with poverty and its close companions (e.g., geographic isolation, social marginalization, learned hopelessness), along with racial, ethnic, and cultural diversity. They are vulnerable for another reason—namely, local universities may not have made firm commitments to their improvement.

New century, engaged universities will form firm, sustainable partnerships with school community demonstration sites in these vulnerable communities. Engaged universities are responsive to local leadership, and they know the limits of their influence, power, and authority. In other words, these demonstration sites are not university colonies because leaders in vulnerable communities and engaged universities alike know the limitations of colonialism. Enlightened self-interest on both sides propels the engagement agenda and engagement-related innovations. Engaged universities benefit themselves at the same time that they honor their social responsibilities by addressing significant human and societal needs.

They bring their knowledge and knowledge workers to bear on important problems related with human well-being and social welfare. They will renew, reform, and transform themselves in concert with practice innovations in local school communities.

Engagement changes the missions of the university (Holland, 1999; National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges, 1999), along with some of its organizational structures, faculty and student cultures, core programs, reward systems, roles, responsibilities, and accountabilities. Engaged universities are thus unique in some fundamental ways.

However, engaged universities are not wholly transformed. They retain important traditions, especially ones associated with the arts, sciences, and humanities. For example, the “ivory tower” image, which depends on social distancing and academic freedom, should not be lost as engaged universities are created. Faculty and students must be free to inquire, criticize, and imagine apart from vocational requirements and practical necessity. Their freedom to choose, including the decision as to whether they wish to contribute to the engagement agenda, remains paramount. In fact, engaged universities will succeed to the extent that academic administrators, faculty, and students make firm, voluntary commitments to this part of the university’s strategic planning agenda. Only then will this agenda have sticking power and staying power. Only then will the university’s strategic planning agenda be an inclusive one. The tension between these two images—the engaged university and the university-as ivory tower—is a healthy one. It animates dialogue and action planning around the need to strike an appropriate and effective balance.

Thus, engaged universities make strategic, selective changes. They provide new opportunity structures, resources and pathways for faculty and students. Said another way, they develop an infrastructure for engagement-related priorities, programs, organizational structures, and cultures (Walshok, 1999).

Community Involvement Alternatives

Some engaged universities have started with involvement activities, suggesting that this discussion also should start with them. There are four involvement alternatives, and each may lead to engagement. These are: Service learning; out-

reach research and scholarship; interprofessional education and training programs; and, interdisciplinary research and scholarship.

Service Learning

Service learning is commonplace in public secondary schools, community colleges, and four-year colleges and universities. The literature on service learning is growing (e.g., Astin, 1999; Harkavy & Benson, 1999; Zlotkowski, 1999). It provides a comprehensive rationale and documents the institutional and personal benefits that may accompany it.

Typically, service learning is described as a form of citizenship education. Its premise is that students learn while serving and serve while learning. Experience is both learning process and content, and students learn how to reflect on it to gain educational benefits. They reflect on its meaning, purpose, and value, considering how their identities and commitments may change as a result of their experience. In higher education, service learning typically is an undergraduate experience, and it is organized in two ways.

1. Undergraduate students elect a specialized service learning course and receive academic credit for their volunteer work. Typically students work with a special population (e.g., children and youth; the elderly; the mentally ill), or they work on a special project (e.g., addressing environmental problems, facilitating voter registration and participation, promoting historical preservation). Supervision may be provided by a faculty member, or it may be provided by a student affairs professional who is employed to develop and supervise service learning experiences. A seminar often accompanies the service learning experience. There is no final examination because the educational experience is self-justifying. Students must satisfy attendance and involvement requirements, and they usually are required to keep a personal journal. They record their impressions, experiences, learning, and development. They learn how to reflect on their experience, often in concert with other students. Limits tend to be imposed on the number of service learning credits students may apply toward graduation requirements.

2. Professors provide in their respective courses opportunities for undergraduate students to receive additional academic credit in exchange for community service. Typically the service learning experience affords students opportunities to apply and use the course content. In some cases, the professor is the service learning supervisor and may accompany groups of students as they complete their work. In other cases, service learning supervisors assume responsibility for supervision. In addition to its contribution to citizenship education, this second kind of service learning opportunity may be viewed as powerful, experientially-based learning that enables students to gain greater mastery over the course content. In other words, the process of providing service enhances student learning. For example, students in a mathematics course may tutor children and youth. Students in a psychology course apply their knowledge to meet a personal, family, or community need. In both cases, students acquire more understanding of the subject matter (math, psychology) through service. They also gain career-related experiences and job readiness competencies. Customarily students complete a special paper or keep a journal. An examination is not required, nor do exams for the course address the service learning experience.

Both ways to organize service learning are effective. They also can be combined. Ideally, service learning provides a timely and powerful way to integrate academic affairs and student affairs, improving the quality and impact of undergraduate education. On the other hand, service learning's growth and success give rise to two issues and an important need.

The first issue derives from the increasing use of service learning in public secondary schools. The first issue is, what is unique and appropriate about service learning in higher education? The second, related issue is, what are the limits to growth and, in turn, to the allocation of limited economic resources for service learning? As resource challenges grow, these twin issues gain importance, and they suggest an important need.

Unfortunately, service learning has become a "catch-all" descriptor for many different kinds of community involvement and engagement. There

is need for more precise descriptors for these other, important kinds of engagement and involvement. Together these descriptors comprise the foundation for an improved planning vocabulary. This vocabulary may guide decision-making, resource allocations, and evaluations of the benefits to students, faculty, the university, and society. Outreach research and scholarship is an essential component in this improved working vocabulary.

Outreach Research and Scholarship

Outreach research and scholarship, like the idea of "outreach universities," can be traced back to the land grant ideal for American universities. These concepts are regaining popularity, thanks to the work of Richard Lerner and Lou Anna Simon (Lerner, 1995; Lerner & Simon, 1998).

Outreach research and scholarship is different from basic research and applied research. Both basic and applied research are conducted in controlled, safe environments provided by university laboratories, libraries, and offices. With outreach research and scholarship researchers and scholars move from university environments to extramural environments. These extramural environments demonstrate high levels of individual, family, and societal need.²

Two popular examples are the needs of "at risk" youth and the needs of vulnerable families manifesting multiple, co-occurring needs (e.g., Lawson, 1997; Lerner, 1995). In order for these needs to be met and accompanying problems to be solved, new knowledge and understanding are required. Outreach research and scholarship is designed to provide this new knowledge and understanding. University faculty and students locate themselves strategically to gain it. They then make genuine contributions to meeting today's needs and solving problems.

Like the original vision for agriculture in the original land institutions, research, development, diffusion, and dissemination models help define outreach. The language of "applied research and technology development" is commonplace. The idea is to bring the considerable talents of university faculty and students, as knowledge experts, to bear on the problems, needs, and issues of the day. The dominant view of outreach research and scholarship is that "knowledge" and "theories" are restricted to the formal scholarly and scientific activities of university faculty and students. They develop knowledge that community users need, or

should need and want. The knowledge system thus is essentially one-way; it flows from researchers to external audiences.

Such a one-way relationship includes the conventional status hierarchy in universities. Researchers and scholars are at the top rung because their methodological rigor allows them to know what others cannot know in quite the same way without help. So, outreach scholarship structures a special kind of relationship between universities and their faculty and leaders in their surrounding communities. Unfortunately, it may be associated with "kiss and run scholarship," i.e., once the individual researchers get their data and write their publications, local community leaders and practitioners may never see them, or hear from them again.

When individuals and groups volunteer, or are commissioned, outreach research and scholarship is a form of involvement. When outreach scholarship is embedded in a firm community partnership agenda, it is a form of engagement. Initial involvement can lead to permanent engagement; indeed the two can co-exist. Involvement in some settings by faculty in one or more disciplines may be accompanied by firm engagement in other settings by faculty and students in other disciplines

Interprofessional Education and Training

Interprofessional education and training programs (IPET) are structured to prepare helping professionals (e.g., social workers, educators, nurses) to collaborate effectively.³ Collaboration may occur at several related levels: Among professionals (interprofessional collaboration); among professionals and families in need (family-centered, or family-led collaboration); and, among professionals and all residents of a local neighborhood community (community collaboration). IPET programs and courses are structured to facilitate one or more kinds of collaboration. Typically, these programs and courses involve clinical instructors and field placements, placements where collaboration is being practiced. Expert practitioners may serve as faculty associates. Where involvement is concerned, the relationships between practitioners and faculty are voluntary and consensual.

Although a growing number of academic administrators, faculty, students, and practitioners suggest that IPET programs are essential and help define best practices, and as many as eighty colleges and universities are involved in some form

of IPET, the fact remains that these programs presently tend to operate at the margins. They are voluntary. They tend to be grant-dependent. They often are called projects.⁴ And, they do not change "real university."

IPET programs are sometimes called interdisciplinary programs. Upon closer inspection, however, the two kinds of programs are different, but complementary. Interdisciplinary programs typically involve bridge-building practices across the arts and sciences disciplines; they involve fields known as "the ologies" (e.g., Klein, 1996). Basic knowledge and understanding gained through boundary spanning and relationship-building is the goal.

By contrast, IPET programs are action-oriented. They are tailored specifically for people who want to make a living by working with people and their communities, striving to improve individual, family, organizational, and community well-being. IPET programs disseminate theories of action, which are grounded in both disciplinary and interdisciplinary understanding.⁵

For example, interdisciplinary programs often provide the liberal education base for both undergraduate and graduate education. Similarly, interdisciplinary programs can provide the foundation for IPET programs. The linkages developed between and among these programs provide important ways to unite liberal and professional learning.

Figure 1 (next page) illustrates this relationship, along with accompanying needs for professional development programs for experienced practitioners. Entry level competence and advanced, interprofessional leadership can be planned as part of the articulation between undergraduate and graduate programs. Specialization remains, but it is grounded in an interdisciplinary and interprofessional foundation. Interprofessional core content refers to the knowledge, skills, sensitivities, and values, which comprise this foundation. Cluster content refers to what groups of professions need to know and do in order to collaborate effectively. Specialty refers to the content that defines the unique roles, responsibilities, and accountabilities of each profession. Key planning questions for IPET programs are presented in Table 1 (next page).

Interdisciplinary research and scholarship is the umbrella concept that refers to all knowledge-generating activities that involve persons

Figure 1

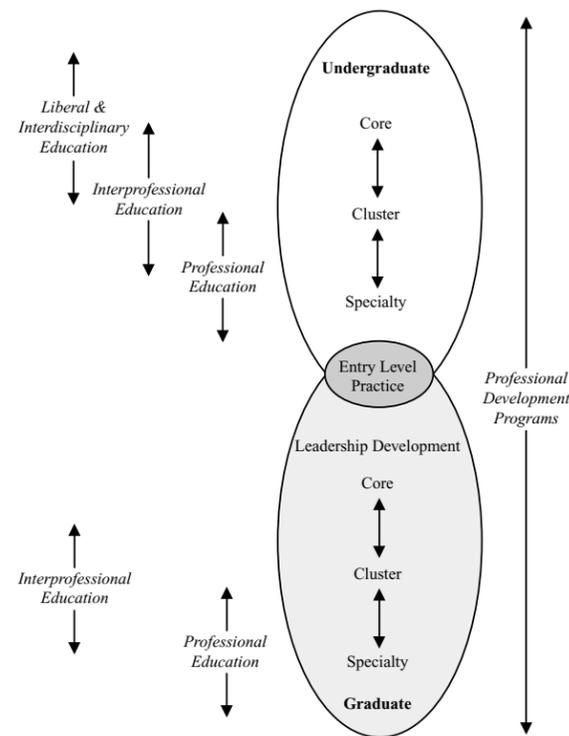


Table 1. Key Planning Questions Related to Interprofessional Education and Training Programs

<p>Are interprofessional education and training (IPET) programs developed in concert with permanent community practice demonstration sites?</p> <p>If so, are these university-community partnership initiatives viewed as central to the missions of the university?</p> <p>Is there a central organizing center or institute that mediates partnerships and helps mobilize and deploy faculty, practitioners in the field, and students?</p> <p>Are IPET programs special projects that depend on grants and contracts? Or, are they viewed as best practices, which need to be institutionalized?</p> <p>Are IPET programs, courses, and experiences offered in all preservice professional education? If so, how are they organized—as modules, courses, field experiences? If not, why not?</p> <p>Are IPET programs offered to undergraduate students? To graduate students? Where undergraduate students are concerned, have connections been made with the liberal or general education program?</p> <p>What is the balance between conventional professional specialization and interprofessional competence in IPET programs? Are students prepared for entry level competence, leadership, or both?</p> <p>How will department chairs, deans and directors, and the Vice President account for faculty time in IPET programs? How are their duties in home departments covered?</p> <p>Who receives credit for the student credit hours that are generated? Why? Is this formula satisfactory to all relevant stakeholders?</p> <p>When interdisciplinary teams of faculty secure grants and contracts, how are the indirect costs distributed?</p> <p>Does faculty involvement in IPET programs and community partnerships "pay off" in retention, promotion, tenure, and merit salary reviews? If so, what accommodations were made in faculty evaluation systems? If not, what changes are needed?</p> <p>How, and by whom, are IPET programs evaluated? How are the findings fed back and forward in the planning process?</p>	<p>Are interprofessional education and training (IPET) programs developed in concert with permanent community practice demonstration sites?</p> <p>If so, are these university-community partnership initiatives viewed as central to the missions of the university?</p> <p>Is there a central organizing center or institute that mediates partnerships and helps mobilize and deploy faculty, practitioners in the field, and students?</p> <p>Are IPET programs special projects that depend on grants and contracts? Or, are they viewed as best practices, which need to be institutionalized?</p> <p>Are IPET programs, courses, and experiences offered in all preservice professional education? If so, how are they organized—as modules, courses, field experiences? If not, why not?</p> <p>Are IPET programs offered to undergraduate students? To graduate students? Where undergraduate students are concerned, have connections been made with the liberal or general education program?</p> <p>What is the balance between conventional professional specialization and interprofessional competence in IPET programs? Are students prepared for entry level competence, leadership, or both?</p> <p>How will department chairs, deans and directors, and the Vice President account for faculty time in IPET programs? How are their duties in home departments covered?</p> <p>Who receives credit for the student credit hours that are generated? Why? Is this formula satisfactory to all relevant stakeholders?</p> <p>When interdisciplinary teams of faculty secure grants and contracts, how are the indirect costs distributed?</p> <p>Does faculty involvement in IPET programs and community partnerships "pay off" in retention, promotion, tenure, and merit salary reviews? If so, what accommodations were made in faculty evaluation systems? If not, what changes are needed?</p> <p>How, and by whom, are IPET programs evaluated? How are the findings fed back and forward in the planning process?</p>
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representing two or more disciplines and helping professions. Where research teams are concerned, differences between the arts and sciences disciplines (the “ologies”) and the professional schools and colleges are less significant than they are in relation professional education and practice.

There is emerging consensus on the requirements for critical mass and related infrastructure in support of IPET and interdisciplinary programs (after Klein, 1996, pp. 35-36):

- An adequate number of faculty who share common interests
- Faculty determine how much of their load is devoted to interprofessional education and interdisciplinary work.
- Faculty and students enjoy the ability to form hybrid communities of practice who work at the boundaries of existing disciplines and professions, building knowledge bridges in some instances and reconstructing disciplinary knowledge in others.
- Academic administrators support faculty engagement, and recommendations concerning merit, retention, tenure, and promotion weigh the quality and impacts of their engagement (e.g., Lawson, 1998; Rice & Richlin, 1993; Schön, 1995).
- Sufficient financial resources are provided, along with some autonomy over them
- Adequate mechanisms for continuous, effective communication are provided.
- Faculty and programs enjoy a secure, permanent organizational location
- Leaders and key faculty have the ability to develop courses, certification programs, and degree programs.

From Involvement to Engagement

It is one thing to claim that community engagement is a social responsibility. It is quite another to determine the parameters of social responsibility and their implications for engagement. The question is, How should planners weigh their social responsibilities and determine their engagement priorities? Planning dialogue focused on this question helps make the choices explicit. In turn, these choices embody different priorities, and they involve value conflicts.

Derek Bok, the former president of Harvard University, provided a useful frame of reference.

He cautioned against rushing into engagement activities absent a well-conceived agenda and appropriate supports and mobilization activities. He raised three important assessment questions, and implications for practice can be derived from them (e.g., Lawson, 1997).

1. How important is the social need and how likely is it that the university will succeed in doing something about it?

Guideline: *Avoid undertaking tasks that other organizations can perform equally well. Accept responsibilities for work that requires the special features that set universities apart—its inquiry-minded faculty (often without practical experience) and its ambitious, idealist students.*

2. Will the requested actions interfere with the freedom of individual professors and students, especially with their freedom to form their own beliefs and express their own opinions?

Guideline: *Ensure that every activity undertaken enhances the university’s teaching, research and scholarship, and service functions.*

3. What new burdens (e.g., resources, time, loss of autonomy) will the desired initiative have on the institution as a whole?

Guideline: *Do not embark upon a new project—even those with large sums of outside funding—without first making certain that this project commands the enthusiasm and support of faculty members because, without widespread faculty involvement, support, and ownership, these initiatives are destined to fail.* (Bok, 1982, pp. 77-79).

Bok’s three questions, accompanying criteria, and overall perspective provide an important frame for planning dialogue about engagement priorities. Identifiable values and priorities for the university are embedded in these questions and criteria. The same values and priorities are implicit in the discussion that follows.

First and Second Generation University-Community Partnerships

First and foremost, engagement is marked by two generations of permanent partnerships between the university helping fields such as education, health, and social work and school-community demonstration sites. This “generational metaphor” and accompanying language for

ties. At the same time, the aspirations, hopes, and dreams of people in these communities depend on university engagements. The university gains multiple benefits through the knowledge it gains by virtue of its engagement. Benefits multiply as success stories spread. Through education and training, research and scholarship, and the placement of their graduates, engaged universities facilitate social contagion effects, whereby good news travels quickly to other sites through formal and informal communication networks.

In contrast to first generation partnerships, in these second generation sites the challenge is not just to apply existing knowledge, technologies, and skill. Existing knowledge is limited. Best practices need to be invented and evaluated, and university faculty and students are on site to learn alongside others who work there. To revisit Bok's (1982) perspective: *Engagement is warranted because the priorities are significant and because university knowledge work and workers are essential.*

Engaged universities create supportive infrastructures for this kind of work involving second generation partnerships. For example, a special university center usually must be created to facilitate these second generation university-community partnerships, IPET programs, and interdisciplinary research and scholarship. The three most common names are: The Center for Collaboration for Children; the Center for School-Family-Community Partnerships; and, The Center for Prevention Research and Development (or simply, the Prevention Center).

Engaged universities may have both first and second generation partnerships. They may co-exist, just as specialized professional education programs co-exist with IPET programs. Both kinds of partnerships are by cemented by awareness of university and school-community interdependence and enlightened self-interest.

For example, consider what happens when university preparation programs are changed, and school-community practices remain the same. When novice professionals enter school-community practice settings their new knowledge, values, sensitivities, and skills will not be accommodated. In fact, experience in these settings may "wash out" the effects of university preparation. Similarly, when school community practice settings change and university preparation programs do not, every new graduate recruited to work in these settings must be re-trained.

This interdependence compels engagement. Knowledge must be developed at the same time that education and training and practice proceed. Second generation partnerships thus are practice innovation centers.

Once this knowledge work is prioritized, other priorities emerge. For example, it becomes evident that both generations of partnerships involve issues regarding how faculty spend their time, the expected products, and the meaning of productivity, especially the extent to which participation in these partnerships will facilitate promotion, tenure, and retention candidacies for faculty. Both generations of partnerships thus necessitate changes in "real university." They require a supportive infrastructure.

Second generation partnerships also implicate the missions, structures, and cultures of the university.⁹ They require firm resource commitments on the parts of the Chancellor or President, the Provost, other Vice-Presidents, Deans, and Department Chairs. Because the Presidents', Provosts' and other top leaders' terms of service in the same university may be limited, strategic planning for engaged universities must be participatory, eliciting commitments from a broad university constituency and ensuring that, when a president or provost retires or leaves, the engagement university ideal is sustainable. Academically-based community scholarship and its forerunner, academically-based community service, are key concepts in the working vocabulary for these engaged universities.

Academically-based Community Service

Academically-based community service was developed by Lee Benson and Ira Harkavy (Benson & Harkavy, 1994) at the University of Pennsylvania. It builds on service learning, but it also extends it. It is premised in John Dewey's ideas about powerful learning in, and through, experience; and about education for a democracy. Academically-based community service may involve undergraduate as well as graduate students. The logic is as follows.

Professors move their courses and seminars into permanent community schools, which serve as demonstration sites and hubs of community development. Professors adapt their roles, the course content, and the teaching-learning process to local characteristics and needs. In other words, professors join students in serving while learning

and learning while serving. Academically-based community service animates the idea of a community school because it may benefit a diverse group of community residents, especially children and youth in the school.

For example, a cultural anthropology class may be offered in a local community school. This course may address the diverse cultures in the local community, and it also may address needs for multi-cultural understanding. Students serve local residents as well as children in the school. Service learning experiences may be "tacked on" to the course experience or they may be embedded in it.

Faculty learn and work alongside the students. Some faculty may complete research and scholarship in the local setting. Indeed, for some faculty, academically-based community service is a vehicle for faculty development. It invites faculty from every discipline, especially arts and sciences disciplines, to respond to local needs while, at the same time, enhancing student learning and development. It offers exciting opportunities for faculty to integrate teaching-learning and community service, perhaps encouraging new directions and opportunities for their research and scholarship. For example, arts and sciences faculty may become interested in outreach research and scholarship as a result of their academically-based community service.

Academically-Based Community Scholarship

Academically-based community scholarship was developed by Hal Lawson (1997; 1998). It builds on the rationale for academically-based community service. This rationale is enriched and applied to the social responsibilities and engagement activities of the professional schools and colleges. Like academically-based community service, it is offered to both undergraduate and graduate students, and it involves moving faculty, students, courses and seminars into community settings. Academically-based community scholarship's distinguishing features may be summarized briefly as follows:

1. It is concept that is developed fields and programs that prepare helping professionals (e.g., education, social work, nursing, family studies, clinical psychology). It is applicable to profession-specific education and training as well as to interprofessional education and training.

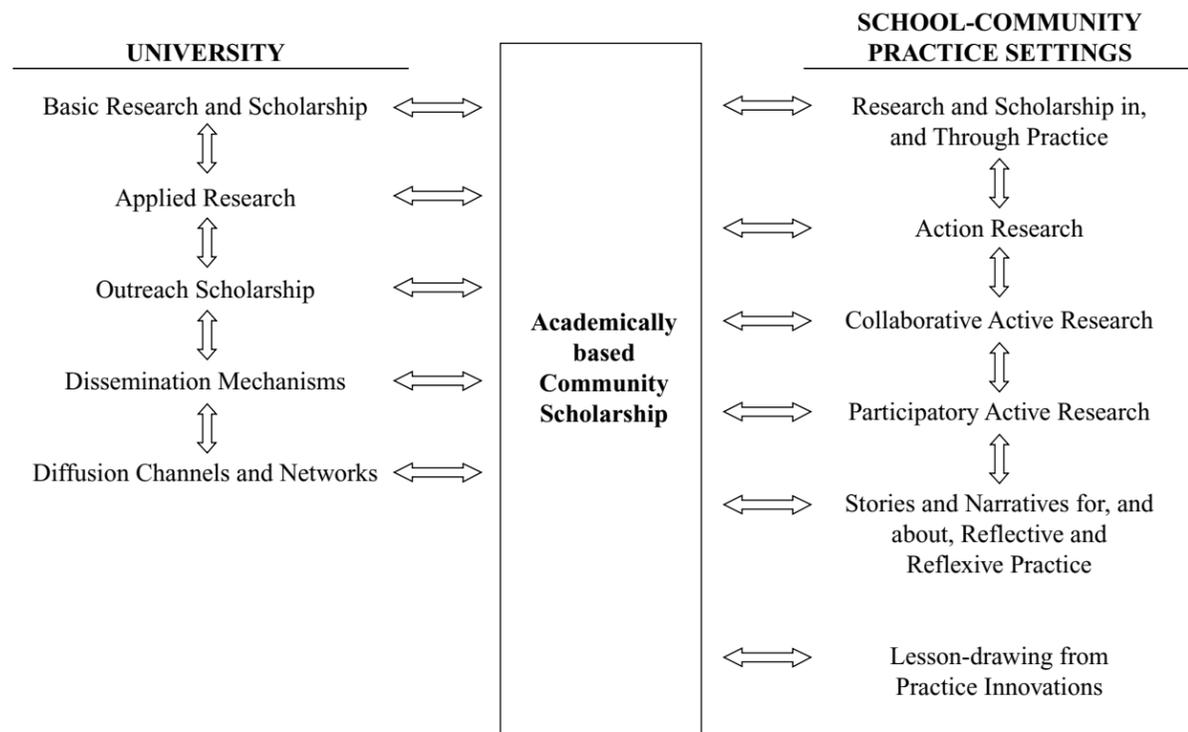
2. It is premised in both individual and social learning theories regarding how helping professionals best learn how to practice, especially through apprenticeships in practice settings and involving action learning and forms of action research. It accommodates the action research of individuals; collaborative action research and participatory action research involving teams; and within- and cross-site lesson drawing for model development and policy change (e.g., Rose, 1993; Lawson, 1999b).

3. It also is premised in a particular view of the relationship between knowledge and practice, including the relationship between university scientists and scholars and community practitioners and residents. In other words, it embodies and promotes an epistemology of practice. In this epistemology, practitioners and students also have knowledge and theories (theories of action), and they are provided action research, participatory action research, and collaborative action research methods to gain more knowledge.¹⁰

4. With academically-based community scholarship, learning and development are facilitated at the same time that knowledge is generated and used. Above all, local practice knowledge is weighed against institutionalized, scientific and scholarly, professional knowledge. Academically-based community scholarship thus describes the relationship between local knowledge generated in, and through practice, and institutionalized, scientific and scholarly, professional knowledge. Said another way, academically-based community scholarship describes a key knowledge interface, including how each informs and guides the other. Figure 3 (next page) depicts this interface.¹¹

5. Academically-based community scholarship also unites and integrates teaching-learning, research and scholarship, and professional community service. Faculty and students move into these community settings. These settings provide learning and development laboratories for apprenticeships, design experiments, and practice innovation development.

Figure 3



6. With academically-based community scholarship, publications are expected. Collaborative action research and participatory action research involving students, faculty, and practitioners are commonplace. Joint publications, involving varying combinations of authors, result. Experienced practitioners join university faculty as professional educators and as practice scholars. Knowledge for practice and professional education derives immediately from practice. It is both global and local, responding to local contexts and cultural diversity.
7. Academically-based community scholarship is a vehicle for both generations of partnerships. These partnership demonstration sites are, for the helping professions, the equivalent of the research and development parks scientific disciplines enjoy in their partnership with business and industry.

When academically-based community scholarship is completed in second generation partnership sites, the helping professions benefit, in turn benefiting the university. For example, all of these fields confront severe shortages in culturally-diverse professionals, especially professionals

who understand poverty and its correlates and who are prepared to work in high poverty communities. Academically-based community scholarship, completed in second generation sites, is an important recruitment and mobility mechanism. It provides a way for the professional schools and colleges to develop educational and occupational ladders for under-represented and culturally-diverse populations. In doing so, this kind of engagement also improves access and opportunity to higher education for under-served and -represented populations.

Furthermore, university faculty for the professional schools and colleges tend to be recruited from the ranks of practicing professionals. Engagement that develops occupational and educational ladders is, in this light, a long-term strategy for diversifying faculty in the professional schools and colleges.

Thus, academically-based community scholarship in second generation partnership sites enables the helping professions and, in turn, their engaged universities respond to local needs; improve research, scholarship, and professional education; help diversify the helping fields; assist vulnerable people by improving practices in local settings; and honor their social responsibilities. Engagement promotes their enlightened self inter-

est because of the new recruits it attracts and the tangible benefits it provides.

Toward Engaged Universities

Engaged universities honor their social responsibilities when they develop second generation partnership sites that incorporate the entire involvement and engagement continuum. Faculty, students, and staff unite teaching-learning, research-scholarship, and service in these sites. Their knowledge missions and activities are central and essential. The application of existing knowledge and skills is essential, but by itself insufficient. New knowledge, skills, and technologies are needed. Both theoretical and practical challenges are evident. For example, multi-level collaboration is required. School reform, youth development, family support, community economic and social development, articulations with higher education institutions, and other improvement initiatives must be synchronized and integrated. These second generation partnerships embody, develop, and evaluate complex change. Symbiotic relationships develop between these second generation partnership sites and universities. Site-based leadership is essential, and empowerment strategies are commonplace. Local leaders, vulnerable children and families, and their school communities are not in a supplicant role, nor are these sites university colonies. Faculty and students perform academically-based community service and scholarship in these sites because they provide invaluable, incomparable, and unique opportunities for doing good work, promoting policy and practice innovations, and gaining knowledge and understanding about them.

To summarize: Engagement is reserved for universities that meet the following requirements.

- These universities have formal missions regarding engagement, their strategic plan provides implementation and evaluation pathways, and their publications for external constituencies and prospective faculty and students emphasize their engagement agendas.
- They have created formal organizational structures (e.g., new centers, institutes, departments, schools and colleges, programs) for the expressed purpose of engagement in communities.
- They have established permanent, sustainable community partnership demonstration sites.

These sites serve harbor academically-based community service, academically-based community scholarship, and other activities that combine and integrate teaching-learning activities, research and scholarship, and the development of practice innovations. These community sites serve the professional schools and colleges in the same way that research and development parks serve faculty and programs in the biological, natural, computer, and health sciences.

- These universities have encouraged, supported, recruited, and rewarded faculty who develop these sites and whose work is focused on them. Retention, tenure, and promotion systems have accommodated their community work.
- They have encouraged, supported, and rewarded interdisciplinary research and education; and interprofessional education and training. Teamwork is valued as much as individual achievements.
- They send clear, firm messages to leaders in local communities regarding how, and why, universities need to learn with, and from, them and their sites.
- They develop special recruitment systems and admissions policies to ensure that residents in partnership demonstration sites enjoy special access to its degree programs and its financial assistance programs.
- Recruitment for university job vacancies and job assistance programs prioritizes community residents.
- They have dedicated some of their own funds to their engagement agenda; identified faculty leaders for it; and, they have granted these leaders some budgetary autonomy.

This list is a composite derived from several engaged universities. Each feature contributes to the “sticking power” and “staying power” of the engagement mission.

However, all engaged universities are still evolving. All remain “works in progress.” Expect more features that define engaged universities as their work continues.

For example, it is possible to imagine new, flexible and adaptive academic networks in substitution for the boundaries of departments and disciplines. Ultimately, these networks may gain the kind of power, authority, and resources now

granted only to departments. These new networks may, in time, be able to recruit, promote, and tenure faculty at the same time they develop new programs. In this fashion, engaged universities may transform some of their operations and structures. If university presidents and provosts are serious about the engagement agenda, and find only resistance in conventional units, then one of their choices is to create alternative units, starting to transform their universities in the process.¹²

Universities aspiring to become engaged universities will promote and support second generation partnerships that harbor the entire involvement-engagement continuum: Academically-based community service and scholarship; interprofessional education and training; interdisciplinary education; interdisciplinary research; outreach research and scholarship; and, service learning. Many will start with involvement. With time, experience, and success, they then will use forms of involvement to become engaged universities. The planning continuum and working vocabulary provided here may help them achieve their aspirations, focusing on enlightened self-interest.

Clearly, engaged universities advantage themselves at the same time they serve others. Beyond the specific benefits identified earlier, universities benefit because their engagement initiatives serve as important social marketing and development efforts. Engaged universities, as defined in the preceding analysis, send a clear, important message to their diverse constituencies, a message that responds to external mandates, political realities, and social imperatives. Resources allocated to the university are not resources taken away from some of the most important societal challenges of the day.

In other words, permanent partnerships with public schools, health and social service agencies, neighborhood organizations, and community development institutions may change policy and resource-allocation frames. Absent the engaged university, politicians and policy analysts could treat the universities as just another competing funding category, yet another priority among others. Engaged universities, which demonstrate their interdependence with urgent political priorities and social needs, are an indispensable part of the solution.

With academically-based community service and scholarship, engaged universities also respond to the "profscam" imagery (Sykes, 1988). This

collection of myths and stereotypes continues to erode the public trust, stimulate external controls of teaching loads, trigger other external accountability requirements, and reduce public funding supports. Academically-based activities in second generation partnership sites help counteract the "profscam" image. Faculty and student activities portray different, more accurate, and flattering images of university faculty as researchers, scholars, and teachers as a result of their face-to-face interactions with students and community residents. Faculty and student work is public and visible; it is open to inspection and evaluation. Their expertise is viewed as a significant community asset, a public good.

This engagement also staves off ill-conceived plans that substitute technology for faculty. Their merits notwithstanding, distance learning, computer-assisted technologies, and "canned" courses and curriculum packages will not substitute for the integrated, complex, powerful learning and development experiences that accompany academically-based community service and scholarship.

Finally, engagement does not compete with traditional ideas and criteria for a prestigious university. It enriches and extends them. In other words, since prestige, like beauty, often lies in the eyes of the beholder, engagement activities that expand the number and kind of "beholders" and the criteria for "beauty" benefit the university. In fact, its prestige-enhancing and -expanding properties make engagement an important evaluation category. Engagement indices can be added to the evaluative criteria for assessing faculty, program, and disciplinary quality, including their centrality to the university's engagement mission, goals, and aspirations.

Engaged universities are new century institutions, which respond to the growing complexity, shifting priorities, and multiplying needs of their times. Because engagement helps restore the public trust, and it responds to societal needs, it is a good thing for universities to do. Because it honors their social and moral responsibilities, engagement also is the right thing to do. Thus, community engagement, which incorporates, builds on, and changes involvement, is a strategic planning concept whose time has come. Institutions can build on their involvement activities such as service learning and become engaged universities.

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INTEGRATING SERVICES AND TRAINING

THE CARVER HEALTH PROJECT: LESSONS FROM AN INTERDISCIPLINARY PROFESSIONAL TRAINING MODEL

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Abstract

Building on the framework of a developing partnership between Virginia Commonwealth University and its adjacent neighbor, the Carver community, a group of university faculty have developed and implemented an interdisciplinary training experience for professional students in nursing, social work, and child clinical psychology. The Carver Health Project works to provide access to and support for a range of health services including screening and assessment, care coordination and follow-up to the children and families served by Carver School, a large inner-city elementary school. The project is designed to offer students and faculty the opportunity for interdisciplinary service provision and care coordination and training. Lessons from the first two years of the training experience are presented.

Children and families in many urban communities face considerable challenges accessing adequate health and social service resources. Fractured and unitary service delivery models require families to negotiate multiple systems and settings to access basic medical, dental, mental health, and other human service needs. Integrated service delivery models are being increasingly proposed as a remedy to this problem, however, current professional training models have not generally been revised, augmented or coordinated to provide medical and other human service students with training experiences to work effectively and efficiently in an integrated service setting. Training programs that do not address integrated service delivery models may continue to reinforce disciplinary boundaries and support professional isolation. Consequently, continuing these delivery models will present resource-limited families with considerable difficulty. Relatedly, faculty within human and health service fields may also have limited experience and knowledge in supporting professional students to work effectively across disciplinary boundaries beyond traditional models of consultation. If health and human service provision models increasingly move toward the provision of integrated services, professional development and training programs and their faculty must increasingly support the development of a knowledge base, skills sets, and professional practice models or worldviews that support nurses, doctors, psychologists, social workers, dentists, and others in working together effectively.

The current paper presents the example of a professional interdisciplinary training experience involving the Schools of Nursing, Social Work and Dentistry and the Doctoral Training program in Child Clinical Psychology at Virginia Commonwealth University. The Carver Health Project is a model of interdisciplinary training in which teams of faculty and students work to improve the health and well-being of an urban community which neighbors VCU, the Carver community. This interdisciplinary training experience developed out of a broader university-community collaboration between the Carver Community and Virginia Commonwealth University. We will begin by setting the context of the health training project by providing some background on the Carver-VCU Partnership, including a description of the Carver community and the Carver Health Project. In addition, we will

share lessons we have learned from this experience.

Background

During the summer of 1996, Ms. Barbara Abernathy, President of the Carver Area Civic Improvement League (CACIL), and Dr. Eugene Trani, President of Virginia Commonwealth University, pledged to create a partnership between the Carver community and the university that would pursue the goal of creating a safe and nurturing community for everyone who lives, works, and studies in the area. Dr. Trani stated that, "it is critical that we build partnerships, not fences, between the University and our neighbors." Rather than viewing the shared physical boundary between VCU and Carver as a dividing line between an academic community and an inner-city neighborhood, they agreed that a collaboration could be established that would have far reaching positive outcomes for the neighborhood, the University and the City of Richmond. For VCU, the partnership would provide opportunities for faculty and students to become involved in the real challenges of urban communities and to apply their professional skills to the creation of solutions. For the Carver Community and Carver Elementary School, the partnership would provide new resources to address problems and concerns, and in so doing, create a stimulating learning environment for all participants. For the City of Richmond, the partnership represented a new model of collaboration committed to improve the quality of life for a segment of the City.

One of the first steps in this partnership was the establishment of a Carver-VCU Partnership Steering Committee. Dr. Grace Harris, then Provost, identified VCU representatives, which included faculty and staff from the Schools of Education, Social Work, Business, Nursing, Pharmacy, the Departments of Urban Studies and Planning, Psychology, Student Affairs and the VCU Police. CACIL identified community residents who represent the racial and economic diversity of the community. The Committee also includes the principal, a teacher, and guidance counselor of Carver Elementary School and representatives from the Richmond Redevelopment and Housing Authority (RRHA), the Department of Social Services, and the Department of Community Development. This group worked together in sponsoring a series of community

forums and meetings in which issues of community concern were raised, discussed, clarified and prioritized. These discussions shaped the focus of the partnership activities. The Steering Committee continues to be a vital force in directing the partnership and its agenda.

Carver Community

The Carver community is home to approximately 1,350 residents. Based on 1990 census data, the area's residents are almost exclusively minority—94% black, 5% white, and 1% other. The median household income is \$18,438 and 18% of families fall below the poverty level. The unemployment rate is 12.4%, approximately twice that of the City of Richmond. Single mothers head 48% of families with children.

The community is served by the largest elementary school in the City of Richmond and at the initiation of the partnership, the school served close to 1,000 students in pre-kindergarten through fifth grades. The original building was constructed in 1887 and is over 100 years old. The 1995 test scores from the Iowa Test of Basic Skills indicate that 4th grade students from Carver Elementary School are performing as much as 50% below the national average. Out of 31 Richmond Public Schools, Carver students ranked 30th in vocabulary and reading comprehension, 29th in language and social studies, and 26th in math and science. More recently, the test scores from the 1998 State of Virginia Standards of Learning examinations reveal that the students of Carver fall below the average recommended score in most subjects and below the average scores for schools in Richmond in all subjects.

Ninety-seven percent of all Carver students qualify for free or reduced lunch. The 1990 census reports that the average level of education among adults living in the Carver community is 9th grade. Fifty-three percent of persons over the age of 25 do not have a high school education, and only 6.9% have earned a bachelor's degree or higher. Carver Elementary School also serves children from Gilpin Court, the largest public housing community in the City of Richmond. The Gilpin Court community houses 2,326 residents, 1,331 of whom are school age children. The median household income in this area is \$7,036. Ninety-four percent of the households in Gilpin are headed by single women.

Partnership Mission and Focus

During the first year of the Carver-VCU Partnership, the Steering Committee developed the mission to, ". . . create a shared urban community with a commitment to improving the community's quality of life including its health, community development, youth development, safety, and community school; and with a commitment to extending the experience of the community into the classroom and the university."

In September, 1997, the partnership received a \$400,000 grant from the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development to develop a Community Outreach Partnership Center (COPC). With support from the grant, the partnership focused on two sets of activities. The first, Networking and Neighboring, Leadership and Community Training, and Assessment and Evaluation, addressed building the core structure of the partnership. The second set targeted the specific priorities, challenges and concerns expressed by Carver community residents. These include a focus on (1) Community Safety, (2) Community and Economic Development, (3) Youth, (4) Community School, and (5) Health Promotion and Services Integration. The fifth focal area, Health Promotions and Services Integration, was based on a desire for improved access to and effective utilization of mental health, physical health and social services for Carver residents and the children and families served by Carver Elementary School. Each of these five focus areas was assigned to a committee with shared leadership between a Carver community resident and a VCU faculty or staff member. The Health Promotion and Services Integration committee worked on a series of activities focused on achieving goals of improving community access to health and social service resources. As part of this effort, JoAnne Henry, Associate Professor from the School of Nursing, took leadership in pursuing funding to provide integrated health services at Carver School through an interdisciplinary training model, the Carver Health Project.

Carver Health Project

In 1998, VCU received a \$200,000 grant from the Jesse Ball duPont Foundation to support the provision of health, psychological and social work services for children and families of Carver Elementary School and to educate professional students in an interdisciplinary practice site

through the Carver Health Project. As suggested above, many Carver Elementary School children and families have limited access to resources. The majority of Carver Elementary School students are from single parent families, and have parents who are unemployed or underemployed. The financial difficulties and mobility of many members of the community cause unstable living arrangements. Eighty-five percent of parents have less than a high school education. These circumstances create considerable challenges for parents in providing resources and experiences that support and prepare their children for learning. Many Carver children have access to Medicaid, but those who do not have health insurance have even more limited access to health care.

School administrators report that families often use the school as their first resource for health care. Children frequently arrive at school and seek out the school nurse for an evaluation of dog bites, burns and sprains, as well as illness. Families see the school as an important resource for health. The Carver Health Project was designed to enhance the health services available to these children and to expand the health promotion services to adults in Carver as well. The Project brings together a multi-disciplinary team of faculty and students to learn together in the school setting.

Project Goal and Objectives

The Carver Health Project goals are based on the belief that accessible and efficiently coordinated health care, as well as relevant educational and counseling services, will positively impact children's overall health and school functioning. These support services are provided to "at-risk" children and their families through the Carver Health Project. The long-term goal is to improve the lifelong health of Carver children. Health is defined broadly including physical and mental health, as well as the community supports needed to sustain health. The project involves the Schools of Nursing, Social Work and Dentistry and the Department of Psychology at VCU who provide services in the Carver Community. Linkages are provided to community health care providers who live and work within the Carver community and to VCU's medical school, the Medical College of Virginia (MCV), for services that are not provided in the community. These services include medicine, pharmacy and dentistry.

The project has three primary objectives. The first is to, "Provide health screening and assessment for the people of the Carver Community." Screening and assessment activities of the first year included the initiation of health screenings for the children of Carver School. To begin this process, the Carver Health Project Coordinator met with teachers and parents to explain the program and answered questions about the types of screening that would be available in the school. In coordination with the school nurse and school staff, children were screened for health risks and taught strategies for promoting health. Project staff, VCU students and other participating health care providers conducted health screenings, provided treatment, and made referral as needed for the children.

In 1998-99, there were 930 students enrolled in Carver School. The Richmond Public School policy requires screening of all new students and those in grades 1, 3, and 5. Working with the school nurse, 293 children were screened by VCU nursing student and faculty teams. Fifty percent of the children screened were referred for further visual and dental services.

An additional focus that developed during Year One of the project was to provide physical exams for new students who do not have primary care physicians. At the start of the school year, 45 physical exams were completed and an additional 27 exams were completed since then. Because the physicals are required by law before students can register for school, these physical exams assured that students were enrolled in a timely manner and that they did not have to wait to begin school.

The VCU Dental Van provided services at Carver School one day per week. The dental team, composed of dental faculty and students, has been able to meet the dental health needs of approximately one third of the children who were identified as needing dental care. All children who needed dental care received information about dental services in the community. A list of dentists who accept Medicaid was sent home with children as well as a description of the dental care that they needed. One of the major problems that Carver community residents face regarding dental care is an inadequate number of dentists who accept Medicaid. During the first year of the program, 287 children were screened by the VCU Dental School teams. Children who had minor cavities and who needed dental cleaning and

fluorides were treated at the van. Children who had major dental problems were referred to the clinic at VCU, however, some parents did not return the signed permission forms and their children were not able to be treated. All children who had needed dental care received referrals.

Screening and assessment objectives for 1998-99 also involved the assessment of adult health needs and adult interest in health activities. A needs assessment was conducted at neighborhood meetings and a community health fair to determine the needs of the adults in the community. Teachers at Carver Elementary School were the first group assessed. They indicated that they wanted a program on stress management, diet and exercise. In this first group, many individuals were found to have high blood pressure and many were overweight. In the Fall of the first year, a six-week program was offered on Wednesday afternoons to address these health concerns. The program was advertised in the Carver Newsletter. Fifteen teachers and one community member participated. Each session included an exercise session offered by the Richmond Public Health Department. The educational portion varied each week and covered the requested topics. Collaborators in this program included the Richmond Area High Blood Pressure Center and Retreat Hospital's Stress Management Unit. During the second year, the Walkers' Group was formed and a dozen teachers and staff participate weekly.

The Carver/VCU Partnership Health Committee and staff collected data from participants in the annual Carver Community Health Fair that is held every April. In 1999, seventy five respondents returned a health survey at the fair. The major health needs identified in the survey were health education and counseling, rather than direct health services. In 2000, survey results for adults were very similar to those of the previous year. The Health Fair remains a focal point for health promotion in the community. Residents see this as a community activity that brings neighbors together and offers an opportunity to connect with a wide variety of community resources. Based on feedback from last year, there will also be an increased emphasis on resources for youth.

The second major objective of the Health Project is to, "Develop an integrated service model for follow-up care and referral, including care coordination." An important component of improving health is assuring that follow-up treat-

ment is provided and that care is coordinated. The project worked with school staff and parents to see that treatment recommendations were implemented. Project staff and the school nurse notify teachers about children who have health problems. Teachers remind children to take the health referral information home and follow up in conversations with parents. Thirty-seven children received free glasses through a special program with LensCrafters.

Classes are also offered for children with asthma. These classes focus on teaching children to recognize early warning signs and manage their medications appropriately. Parents receive information about the classes so that they can reinforce the learning at home. This is a popular program that is offered annually. Children are linked to services through a variety of program initiatives.

Coordinating care is a major area of focus for Year Two of the project, the current year. During Year One, staff and students developed community contacts and visited agencies that serve children and their families. VCU students from the Schools of Nursing and Social Work and the Department of Psychology are establishing relationships with community agencies to assure appropriate follow up care for the children.

Students and faculty from Nursing, Social Work and Psychology participate in a wide range of Carver School activities to achieve the goal of becoming a contributing part of the school community. Regularly scheduled school events such as school opening sessions, Family Carnival, teacher retreats, in-service training, and a student sleep-over provide opportunities to meet parents and teachers. During these events project staff, faculty, and VCU students share information about new programs and provide individual support to parents and school staff. These activities are often not as well attended by parents as hoped but these opportunities provide the only structured means of working with parents. These events also provide an opportunity to meet with Carver teachers outside the classroom.

The third focal objective of the project is to, "Provide health education and counseling to students, parents, mentors, school personnel, and adults within the Carver community." A major focus of this project is to provide health promotion and disease prevention services that involve project staff, school personnel and VCU students. Social work and psychology staff, faculty, and

students provided counseling and educational services. Each program involved has integrated the Carver interdisciplinary experience into their professional training programs. A brief description of this integrated program follows.

The Structure of the Interdisciplinary Team

Faculty and students from the Schools of Nursing, Social Work, Dentistry and the Department of Psychology participate in the Carver Health Project. Project faculty meet with the school principal on a regular basis and all projects are discussed in the planning phase and approved before implementation.

A key role in the linkage of Project faculty and the program to the school is that of the coordinator. This faculty member joined the project at the end of the first year and has worked to develop trust and rapport with the key faculty and administrators in Carver School and at VCU. The coordinator is the consistent presence in Carver School. She is the person who hears about ideas and problems, who works most consistently with VCU students in the school and who is the bridge to the community.

The role of the health coordinator is to serve as the primary link between the elementary school and the university. The coordinator has an obligation to both the school and to the university. The obligation to the school involves providing direct services, i.e., health screening, physical exams and referrals for utilization of services in the community. The coordinator brings an understanding of health resources to the school. From this vantage point, the coordinator can assist students and teachers to utilize existing health services. The coordinator is in a unique position to determine the utility of the university student's projects for the elementary school.

The obligation of the university and its faculty within this project revolves around supervision of university students and providing linkages for student experiences. The supervision of university students involves coordinating students experiences within the parameters set forth by the elementary school while encouraging the university students to grow in their respective disciplines and in their ability to work effectively with other professions. Students participating in the Carver Health Project receive supervision organized within the traditional structure and parameters of their specific professional training programs, as well as in coordinated interdisciplinary team meetings.

Faculty Perspectives

The same faculty from each of the VCU schools and departments participating in the Carver Health Partnership have been involved with the project since its inception. This continuity has allowed faculty to develop rapport and a level of trust within the school. The positive outcomes of the Carver Health Project have resulted in large part due to a generally high level of acceptance of the project by school administration and staff. The stability of the school administrators and VCU faculty provided the base of understanding that is needed to move beyond multidisciplinary work. The biggest barrier to the interdisciplinary model has been the limited amount of time that faculty and students from across the disciplines have in the school at the same time.

The goal of our interdisciplinary model has been for all project members to work and see the perspective of the others, to accept the different professional norms and to adapt to the school environment. Each individual views professional experiences from the vantage point of their discipline as well as from their personal experiences. In a multidisciplinary approach, each team member can contribute a different perspective and we believe that any individual can utilize and gain from the knowledge of other approaches. Our experience of the results of these efforts suggest that the project is achieving the goal of interdisciplinary work. This has required continued attention and work by the faculty and school personnel since it is so much easier to work side by side instead of together.

Student Experiences

The schools of Nursing and Social Work and the Doctoral Program in Child Clinical Psychology have organized experiences at Carver School as a structured part of their professional training programs. Nursing students participate in the Carver Health Project through several nursing courses at VCU. For example, in the basic undergraduate nursing of children course, students and faculty provide basic health screening for Carver school children. In the undergraduate Community Health course, students conduct community assessments and offer health education programs for children through a service learning project. Graduate nurse practitioner students provide physical exams and work with teachers and parents of children with health problems. During the course

of the first year, fifteen nursing students had clinical experiences at Carver. Some experiences are short-term, to conduct health screenings, for example. Others extend throughout the semester. Students with extended experiences develop rapport with the children and Carver School staff. They participate in community development activities and strengthen the parent support in the PTA.

Two graduate social work students complete their foundation field practice across the two semesters of the academic year. The social work portion of the project contains three distinct learning experiences. These learning experiences include direct social work practice with individual Carver students and their families, the creation and implementation of a macro-level project, and the design and implementation of group interventions aimed at students, families, and Carver faculty.

Social work interns work with individual children that are identified by teachers, school counselors, or the school principal as being at-risk due to academic or behavioral problems. These Carver students receive weekly individual mentoring with one of the social work interns. The social work students mentor children and assist them with class assignments while modeling appropriate classroom and school behavior. The goal of these supportive relationships is to increase appropriate school behavior and enhance learning.

The second learning experience includes designing and implementing a macro-level project that targets a need at the school. Each social work student assesses the school community and identifies a need. The identified need becomes the focus of a project. In coordination with their social work faculty supervisor, the students research, design, and implement an intervention to meet that need. During Year One, one of the students created a policy and procedure resource manual for use in the social work field unit of the Carver Health Project. The other student, in formal consultation with the administrators of a community-based meals program, conducted an evaluation of the meals program. The results of this evaluation were presented in a formal report to the program administrators. During Year Two, one student continued the development of the policy and procedure resources manual begun the year before. The other student designed and implemented a classroom intervention to reduce the number of office referrals due to students with classroom disrup-

tive behaviors. This intervention was based on a social-learning and behavioral model. At the completion of the intervention the student wrote a report with the results and her observations and recommendation for further implementation of this program.

The third learning experience that social work students have, has to do with designing and implementing group interventions. During Year One of the project, social work students designed and implemented a parenting-skills group during the fall term for families of Carver students. The other project, during the spring term was a girls' group designed to enhance and support self-image and self-esteem. During Year Two, in coordination with graduate students in child clinical psychology, a brief survey of Carver School faculty needs was conducted. The results of this survey were then used to create a professional development in-service that was presented to the faculty at their annual retreat. The second group activity that was implemented during Year Two was another girls' group.

Similar to social work students, first year graduate students in child clinical psychology develop mentoring relationships with students identified as needing support, but relatively low levels of intervention. These relationships last for a year and are designed to allow graduate students to develop normative relationships with children and familiarity with the school environment. Second year psychology students work with the school psychologist to provide educational testing for students. Carver elementary school administration obtained permission from Richmond Public Schools for VCU's Center for Psychological Services and Development (the departmental training clinic) to provide free on-site individual and family therapy by third year child-clinical psychology students. This increases the availability of individual and family therapy for Carver students. Services are provided free at Carver School.

VCU students from these three professional training programs meet together both formally and informally to discuss their learning experiences. During the first year of the project, the student-faculty team met once each semester to evaluate learning experiences. The faculty team met monthly with the Carver Principal to assure that programs and student experiences are coordinated with other school activities. VCU students are

developing the community-based skills that are essential for practitioners in the changing health care system and the faculty are learning to work together to share student supervision. This year the seminars are more formal and faculty are continuing to refine these learning experiences.

Student Perspectives on Learning

Feedback from students has been consistent across the disciplines. They are surprised at the complexity and severity of problems that the children and their families have. They are frustrated that efforts to reach parents often have limited success. They evaluate their learning as positive and they gain a new appreciation for the complexities of the lives of low income families and for the richness in community informal support systems that families form for mutual aid.

Students describe the challenge of learning to negotiate the school environment and professional relationships with school personnel and each other. Many enter the experience feeling that they know about schools, after all they have recently been students. The school is a complex system with many programs to meet the needs of children. The major mission of the school, however, is to assure that children learn. The time that Carver children spend in class is carefully guarded. Although a VCU student may have an important and approved project for the child, the time to implement to project must be negotiated with the teacher to assure that the child is not missing any vital classroom time. A focus on health and social services needs are important but the unspoken question for many teachers seems to be, "Why can't this happen after school?" In addition, sometimes there are tensions with teachers and other school staff about the credibility of the interns' competence. Our experience suggests that as teachers experience the benefits of their work with project interns, and as they develop relationships with these interns, they increase the utilization of project interns, services and programs. This realization resulted in our focus to support relationship development among the interns and school staff. We believe that the underutilization of some services of the Carver Health Project will be decreased by our concerted efforts at relationship development. Students have been able to use these experience to support their understanding of the importance of interdisciplinary professional relationships.

The complexity of coordinating student and faculty time at Carver School has been a considerable challenge. Student clinical/field work experiences and requirements vary in length and time. Students were often not able to work together for project development since they were in the school on different days and had to be in their other VCU classes for their respective programs during other times of the week. Student-faculty seminars were one way that cross-disciplinary learning has been implemented. The project coordinator, a nursing faculty member, has been the link for students at Carver School. This individual supports the integration of student learning experiences by coordinating schedules, facilitating student collaboration on projects, and developing strategies to provide cooperative learning experiences. Effective integrated training is an area that project faculty want to improve as the project moves into its third year.

The Carver Health Project serves as a model of interdisciplinary community-based education to meet the learning needs of VCU students and the needs of Carver residents. We have modified experiences throughout the program to assure that the VCU students learning objectives could be met through their experiences in Carver School. One example is the parenting group. This service was initially offered at Carver school in late morning and few parents attended. Faculty, students and Carver staff discussed this problem and decided that although the school had identified this as a parent need, that parents did not agree. During the year, a community assessment was conducted and a parent education program was located in the community that is offered at night. Students have developed a new project as they work with the Parent-Teacher Organization.

Overall, the multidisciplinary approach involves exposing university students to other methods of working in the community. While this can be a boost for the elementary school by providing access to a new set of resources, it can also prove to be a difficult assignment for students who must learn to function outside of familiar methods. The role of the coordinator is to support the university students through this learning experience while ensuring that the needs of the elementary students are identified. A multidisciplinary approach by its very nature provokes change in both the university students and in the environment, which in this case is the elementary school.

Moving from Multi-Disciplinary to Interdisciplinary Training in Community Context: Lessons Learned

The goal to provide an interdisciplinary training experience in the school setting has resulted in the necessity to negotiate boundaries of multiple "cultures." This analogy would suggest our analysis include the culture of a public elementary school, the culture of the local urban community that the school serves, the culture of the university, and the cultures of each professional discipline (i.e., dentistry, nursing, psychology, and social work) working in the school setting. Each system has its own unique set of values, goals, belief systems, organized social structures and practices. When these different cultures come into contact, their coexistence can range from interactions characterized by cooperation and collaboration to interactions which are overtly hostile and destructive. Several models of inter-cultural contact have been proposed which can inform our analysis. Berry and associates (Berry, 1980; Berry & Kim, 1988) propose a model focusing on acculturation, the process by which intergroup contact resolves through a sequence of five phases. In the Precontact phase, prior to interactions between groups, each group has its own independently functioning culture and social systems. During the Contact phase, groups begin to interact with one another. This is followed by the Conflict phase, in which differences between groups become salient and result in pressure for one group or another to change or accommodate. During the Crisis Phase, this conflict comes to a head and during the Adaptation phase, the interaction between groups is stabilized into one of several potential outcomes.

These outcomes include Assimilation, where one group relinquishes its culture and assumes the dominant group's culture and identity. A second outcome is Integration, where a subordinate group maintains their identity, but also incorporates the culture and identity of the dominant group into their own. Separation and Segregation outcomes result where cultural group members do not interact with the majority culture, through self-imposed separation or externally forced segregation. Individuals may also be marginalized and unable to identify or utilize either culture. Several other resolutions have been suggested including cultural alternation, where individuals develop the ability to code switch, and move effectively and efficiently from one cultural contact to another.

Groups may decide to establish a multicultural context where individuals can maintain their group identity, accept, tolerate and interact with other groups, and learn each other's language. Cultures may also Fuse, resulting in the blending of the cultures and the creation of a new, integrated culture.

The experience of developing an interdisciplinary training model in a school context is very complex and requires the negotiation of intercultural contacts at multiple levels simultaneously. Berry's (1980) model may be useful in attempting to understand and inform the development of our training program. At one level, our interdisciplinary training model must resolve issues linked to the interaction of academic, professional and training cultures of nursing, psychology and social work. Should faculty work to increase their familiarity with the values, goals and practices of the other disciplines and become multicultural with respect to interdisciplinary work? What processes and educational experiences are important to facilitate this outcome? What are the barriers to interdisciplinary efforts exerted by the structures of each professional culture and what processes can address these barriers? In a cultural sense, what are the desired training outcomes for students?

At another level, training programs that work to provide integrated services in a community based setting, must negotiate the culture of that setting. For example, faculty and students have experienced various levels of overt and covert conflicts with and resistance from teachers and other school staff. An acculturation model suggests viewing conflicts and crisis as normative process. It also raises the question as to the desired outcome of the intercultural contact? Should students and faculty work to become acculturated to the school context and alternate between the cultural system of the school and their professions? Are these outcomes developmental in nature? That is, do community based training programs provide students with the expectation of first working with teachers within the frame of the school culture and subsequently, providing experiences for teachers to learn about the student's professional cultures? What are the expectations for cultural change on the part of the school and community context and to what extent is this expectation congruent with the culture of the school?

At yet another level, work in community-based settings requires negotiating the community

culture and context. For example, Carver Elementary School continues to negotiate its relationships with the local Carver community and works on its perception to be seen as belonging to the community or as a resource to the community. Parents, who are the clients for our trainees, may or may not find it easy to negotiate the cultural context of this educational setting. When conducting training in the school context, university students and faculty may variously be seen as agents of Carver School, of their particular disciplines, or of the university (which has its own unique relationship with the community). Faculty and students are required to resolve these identities when working in the community context.

Summary and Conclusions

The Carver Health Project has provided an important opportunity to offer a range of health and human services to children and adults in the Carver community, and is continuing to develop and implement an integrated service delivery and training model. Practical issues such as scheduling and coordination have proved to be the largest obstacle, while the role of a faculty coordinator who facilitates a supportive and inclusive environment has been an important contribution to the success of the experience. The program has provided an important and accessible health and social service resource to the school and community, and has provided training opportunities to a wide range of students in the health and human service fields.

These efforts take place within the context of the broader Carver-VCU Partnership that supports a range of related Carver school-based projects. For example, in 1998, VCU received an Eisenhower Professional Development grant for \$55,000 to provide training to Carver Elementary School teachers in the innovative practices of teaching experimental design during the 1999 Spring and Summer. VCU has also provided tutors to address the reading needs of first and second graders through the VCU America Reads program. The VCU AmeriCorps Program, provides full and part-time members who assist with tutoring, after-school programs, the Parent Resource Center, and Carver Promise. In addition, VCU students in service-learning courses serve as volunteers to assist with various projects, including tutoring.

Preliminary indicators at Carver School reveal significant improvements in academic improve-

ment and attendance, due in part to the large number of tutors and specialized support from VCU. In addition, VCU supplied the Parent Resource Center at Carver School with a computer lab using surplus computers that were upgraded with funds from the HUD grant. The grant also paid for the installation of Internet connections. The school contributed the computer tables. The lab is available to all parents of Carver School students and residents of the Carver community for computer classes and open hours for self-tutorials, Internet access, and use for resume writing. The Health Promotion and Services Integration Committee also sponsors an annual health fair that provides a range of screenings (e.g., mammograms, blood pressure, hearing, prostate) and provides opportunities for the dissemination of health & social service information from over 35 vendors.

While we do not have explicit data that tell us whether community residents and Carver Elementary School families are accessing health services more easily, feedback from our annual Town Meeting suggests increases in the perception that, "It is easy to get good health services in the Carver Community." Among respondents, agreement with this opinion increased from 23% in 1998 to 67% in 1999.

University-community collaborations that provide training opportunities for students in health and human service disciplines may be useful resources for communities lacking access to services. In turn, young professional may have valuable training experiences through their work in urban communities. Training programs may also benefit from increased opportunities to train, socialize, and produce professionals who are effective in interdisciplinary settings. Change in training programs and community settings where this training may take place forms out of the conflict or tension that arises when traditional methods of coping and functioning no longer work. In addressing the challenge to provide relevant and effective training experiences to support the ability of health care professionals to work in interdisciplinary settings, traditional methods of training will be called upon to change, and faculty and services settings will be asked to work together. However, when such groups are formed, with people that have different backgrounds and philosophies, conflict and change are inevitable. The dual goals of service to the elementary school and promoting professional student's learning must be kept focal throughout this process. The core

faculty for the university students must work with the coordinator to ensure that the inevitable conflicts result in positive change and learning for the university students. We believe that attention to the developmental processes relevant to contact between the cultures of different stakeholder groups will continue to inform our efforts to develop an effective interdisciplinary training program.

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CAPITALIZING ON THE POPULARITY OF SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AMONG UNDERSERVED YOUTH: BREAKING NEW GROUND IN UNIVERSITY/COMMUNITY CULTURES

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Introduction

This article describes the work of six university professors who are doing important collaborative work with social agencies and educational institutions in their surrounding communities to impact the social, emotional, and educational growth of underserved children and youth. In these universities, professors and students are working together to provide a rich array of physical activity programs for underserved youth.

This work takes place at different times (schooldays, evenings, and weekends during the school year, as well as summer vacations), in different venues (including elementary, middle, and high schools, alternative schools, detention centers, universities, and boys and girls clubs), and involves different ages (from third graders all the way through to high school seniors). Much of this work has been going on for several years at the same site, while other program sites are new and may not be there forever. However, these programs have several things in common: they capitalize on the popularity of physical activity among most underserved kids; they are taught or directed by people who are concerned about the plight of underserved youth and who are committed to developing programs that work; and last but certainly not least, Don Hellison's (1995) responsibility model is at the heart of each program's framework and focus.

The responsibility model occupies a central place in this work because it provides a common set of values, goals, and instructional strategies for all youth programs conducted in these university communities. Furthermore, the model extends far beyond physical activity instruction by focusing on the teaching of life skills and values and their subsequent transfer from the physical activity setting to the classroom, community, and home. Four life skills/values—respect for others' rights and feelings, effort, goal-setting, and helping and leadership—are learned and practiced as part of the physical activity lesson. Eventually, the fifth goal, outside the gym, is introduced and increasingly emphasized, along with activities such as cross-age teaching and one-on-one sessions to show kids how to apply these skills in the classroom. Empowerment, which simply refers to gradually shifting power from program leaders to kids, is interwoven throughout the program, so that students take more responsibility for their attitudes and behaviors, for solving their conflicts, for evaluating the program and themselves, and for teaching and coaching each other.

One of the reasons that this work is significant is because most faculty and students in departments of physical education (or kinesiology) in the United States have not been players in the university-community collaboration movement (Siedentop, 1998). At a recent HUD-sponsored COPC conference, one

of these professors was told, "I certainly didn't expect anyone from your field to be involved in this stuff."

Although the community programs run by the university students and professors began in Chicago, one of America's largest cities, it is no longer a secret that many of our youth—perhaps the majority—need more help than our institutions give them (Benson & Harkavy, 1997). Underserved neighborhoods and communities are everywhere. That's why the six professors' work takes place in a variety of locations, including Greeley, Colorado; Grand Forks, North Dakota; Greensboro, North Carolina; Los Angeles; Chicago; and Denver. Thus, the ideas being shared in this article have relevance for professors and students in all colleges and universities, not just those in major urban areas.

In the following sections, we detail the variety of experiences, courses, and programs physical educators in higher education can use to develop a community focus within the college, school, department, or division. We draw on our experiences as professors as well as the experiences of our students who have integrated serving underserved youth into their professional lives. We present several options that professors might consider as they consider how best to integrate experience in community programs into university course work and degree programs. We conclude with some thoughts that may guide professors and students as they strive to develop a community focus within larger physical education/kinesiology contexts.

Establishing a University Commitment towards Underserved Communities

In spite of periodic calls for reform and change, kinesiology and physical education programs have remained largely isolated from their surrounding communities (Lawson, 1997). Granted, teacher education programs place pre-service teachers in local schools to fulfill student teaching requirements, but in most cases, the attention of student teachers, university supervisors, and cooperating teachers is focused on children and youth who fit within the normal range of ability and attitude. This is hardly surprising when one considers that university course work is usually geared to this population as well as coaching elite performers or else students with clearly defined "special needs." With few exceptions, little regard is given to understanding the lives of young children and youth who live in underserved

communities, and even less attention is devoted to considering how their needs can be met through physical activity programs.

A Brief History: How a "Lone Ranger" Community-Oriented Professor was Joined by Kindred Souls

Until the late 1980s, Don Hellison was perhaps the only university professor in the United States who regularly taught physical activity programs to kids in underserved communities. After having been a "lone ranger" at Portland State University for almost 20 years, in 1987 he joined the University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC) attracted by the then Kinesiology Dean, Chuck Kristufek's promise to support his efforts in teaching urban kids. It wasn't long before a small group of faculty members and graduate students joined him and taught their own programs. Under Don's direction, this group was instrumental in creating a School of Kinesiology commitment to providing physical activity programs for underserved youth in the urban communities that surround the UIC campus. While students have graduated and faculty have moved on in their professional lives, the group is still in place, and in 1999 there are nine programs being run in Chicago schools and social agencies.

Today, Don's efforts have branched out into other locations around the US. Two of Don's former students—James Kallusky at Los Angeles State University and Nick Cutforth at the University of Denver—have used the knowledge and experience gained from a close working relationship with him to develop a community focus in their universities and implement their own physical activity programs. Two others—Tom Martinek at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro and Missy Parker (formerly at the University of North Dakota) now at the University of Northern Colorado—used their sabbatical leave to come to Chicago to observe and assist in the UIC programs run by Don and his students and on returning to their universities applied this new knowledge to develop community programs of their own. The other professor—Jim Stiehl from the University of Northern Colorado—has known Don for many years and has always maintained close contact with him by sharing ideas and writing. At the same time Jim has taught underserved kids in outdoor programs, taking along university students with him.

Thus each professor's journey toward a focus on university-community collaboration differs in

several ways. In addition, their present commitment to youth programming takes many forms. For example, their kids' programs differ in content focus and populations served (although all are underserved); the way they connect these programs to their universities varies; and their organizational styles reflect their different personalities and values. However, they are all connecting community programs in underserved communities to university structures, course work, and degree opportunities.

Options for Integrating Experience in Community Programs into University Course Work and Degree Programs

The university-community programs in the professors' university settings take several different forms. They are distinguishable by the kinds of experiences available to students and the accompanying degree of intellectual depth. They also reflect professors' and students' motives for participating in such programs and their desired levels of involvement.

The professors range from tenured full professors to untenured assistant professors. Their motivations vary from always having done this kind of work (Don and Jim), to an expanding interest in applying many years of success in their disciplinary field to the needs of underserved kids (Tom and Missy), to a desire to pursue the challenges of university-community collaboration for the rest of their careers (James and Nick).

The students range from freshmen undergraduates trying to find something worthwhile to do to doctoral students writing their dissertations. Their motivations range from the simple desire to have such an experience to an interest in pursuing a career in youth development work (including public school teaching). Their reasons for participation illustrate the variety of commitments one can make, ranging from a one semester experience to an entire career change.

In this section we will look at several options including:

- Visitations to existing programs
- Independent study
- Optional (or mandatory) service learning experiences in current courses
- Graduate concentrations
- Special programs
- Faculty and student collaboration on research and scholarship

Visitations to Existing Programs

These are opportunities to visit and observe an existing program taught by a professor, university student, community youth worker, or public school teacher. They could be voluntary or provide credit for students who show interest and promise. The student's role could be as an observer or, if sufficiently motivated or confident, he or she could assist the teacher by working with individual kids or small groups. While these visits need not be connected with course work, they could be one option for a course assignment (for example, Curriculum Issues in Physical Education or Psycho-Social Aspects of Physical Education and Sport) in which case they could be followed up by a written paper or class presentation.

Independent Study

An independent study involves a student and a professor having regular one-to-one exchanges on a project tailor-made to the students' needs and interests—for example, Effective Programming for Underserved Youth (Cutforth). The pair meets on a weekly, biweekly, or monthly basis to discuss readings or an issue or idea about underserved youth and effective programming. Often, the resulting more personal relationship enables the professor to be in a better position to make course readings, discussions, and perhaps visits to existing youth development programs meaningful. Sometimes, as a result of the course, the student may be motivated to become further involved with the professor's work by visiting existing programs or developing and teaching a program in the community. The drawback is that the professor has to budget time to meet with the student, read and respond to the student's journals or papers, and prepare for the next meeting, and often this work is "off-load" and therefore in addition to usual professorial duties. While new assistant professors, in particular, may be concerned about this drawback, independent study arrangements do provide them with a valuable opportunity to discuss readings and issues related to their academic interests.

Optional (or Mandatory) Service Learning Experiences in Current Courses

Service learning experiences involve students in community placements in which they assume helping roles with youth. Such experiences can be mandatory or optional. When mandatory, "service learning" may even be included in the course title or course description to reflect the focus of

the class. However, a service learning assignment can also be one of several options within a course. As a pedagogical process, service learning involves four elements: 1) planning, 2) implementation and project monitoring, 3) reflection and celebration, and 4) evaluation and reporting (Witmer & Anderson, 1994). University students are placed in community settings to "serve and learn" through various roles. These might include mentoring a child or a small group of children through physical activities, assisting teachers with a physical education class, athletic team, or after school program, or directing their own physical activity program.

The first step of the service learning experience involves planning. Here, the students work cooperatively with the professor and the community partner to describe and agree upon the major components of the service experience including tasks, schedule, outcomes, supervision, and assessment. This step also involves the preparation of the university students and the host site including knowing how to act, what to expect, identifying the needs of the placement population, and planning a series of activities to meet these needs.

The next major component to be considered in effective service learning experiences is project implementation and monitoring. During implementation, a good monitoring process is needed to ensure that the project is meeting the expectations of the professor, the student, and the community partner. It also allows modifications to be made during the implementation process as needed.

Reflection and celebration distinguish service learning from other community service activities. Through reflection, students analyze, synthesize, and make judgments about their service experiences while also learning youth development concepts. Reflection is an ongoing process and can include writing diaries, logs, or journals and oral reflections such as presentations and discussions with peers, site supervisors, or the professor. The written materials enable students to compile a record of what their experiences were about, thus creating a system for reflection and growth; they also enable students to reflect on the meaning of these experiences, thus increasing the power of their application of theory and research to their work with children. The oral medium offers contexts for sharing experiences, questioning particular activities or events they observed, probing new possibilities, discussing successful activities,

and exploring new solutions to problems. Students should be encouraged to develop their own culminating experiences which might integrate reflection with the celebration component of service learning. The final stage, evaluation and reporting, should be based on the objectives of the service learning activity and should be designed during the planning process. The students should learn how to use both qualitative and quantitative techniques to collect, analyze, and report the data. The evaluation should show the extent to which objectives were met, the degree to which the activities were carried out as planned, and the impact of the experience on the children's academic, social, and personal development. The reporting could be done through traditional class papers or oral presentations, or through more nontraditional approaches such as poster presentations, video-documentaries, or Web Pages.

Thus service learning is a complex process that involves careful planning, implementation, reflection, and evaluation to be successful. (Erickson & Anderson, 1997). The time spent on these elements will be reflected in the quality and impact of the experience on the community partners, the professor, and the students. The community partners benefit when the service experience is tailored to young people's needs (Cutforth, in press), and from the enhanced relationship with the university. Potential benefits accruing to the professor include increased student motivation, an increased knowledge of the community and the extent of services available, the better relations between the university and the community, and the experience of using a nontraditional pedagogical approach.

The students benefit from learning by doing and reflecting on their learning with the professor and fellow students. Service learning experiences offer opportunities for students and professors to link theory and practice in ways that stimulate discussion, refinements of pedagogical strategies, and development of new teaching approaches. For example, challenges such as diversity and youth alienation can take on real faces and specific locations for students. Such shared, collaborative learning experiences result in the students being active rather than passive in the learning process, and their discourse is wide-ranging and interdisciplinary. Students in these small learning communities often say that these are some of the most beneficial learning experiences of their degree program. Furthermore, the stu-

dents' involvement in planning, practicing different skills, and reflecting on these experiences reinforces basic pedagogical behaviors common to teaching. Many students continue to work with kids long after the completion of the class.

Special Programs

Several of the professors have built an administrative home for their work by establishing special programs. These programs differ in regard to the academic experiences offered and their form of university-community collaboration. At the University of Illinois at Chicago, Don offers undergraduate elective courses in At-risk Youth Leadership and Youth Mentoring, a master's program in Urban Youth Development, and a doctoral program in curriculum design with the College of Education with a concentration in Urban Youth Development. As staff members in Don's Urban Youth Leadership Project, students work in youth programs in Chicago's inner-city communities. At the University of Northern Colorado, Jim's students can pursue Master's and doctoral degrees in Outdoor Education while teaching outdoor and experiential education in alternative schools in the Greeley area. At the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Tom directs a master's degree in Community Youth Leadership and teaches courses in underserved youth and program evaluation which are also attended by doctoral students. Students work in Project Effort—a mentoring and cross-aged teaching program held at the local Boys and Girls Club. At the University of Denver, Nick offers a two-course specialization in Urban Education at the master's level. In addition, graduate students in the College of Education and undergraduate students in the Department of Service Learning provide numerous educational, curriculum, and mental health services to three Denver public schools as part of his University of Denver/Northwestside Schools Partnership.

While different in structure, these programs share several similarities. The students enroll in master's or doctoral programs, take several classroom courses and one or more service learning or field-based courses, develop, teach in, and evaluate programs for underserved kids, and write theses and dissertations to expand their knowledge and their connections to real world problems. The purpose of these programs is to prepare students to take leadership roles in a variety of institutions and levels. Several graduates are teachers in pri-

vate or public schools and community recreation programs, while others are pursuing careers in higher education as faculty members in physical education teacher education, kinesiology, recreation, or urban education.

Also, these special programs adopt modes of organization in curriculum, pedagogy, academic work, and assessment that promote educational community among students and faculty. Student learning spans the disciplines and is shared and collaborative both in the university and in the community so that students learn together rather than apart. These classes often follow an inquiry approach into the dilemmas and challenges of teaching and learning in underserved communities. The professors build on the interaction of fieldwork experiences and theory to ask questions of students, direct them to a variety of resources, share perceptions, suggest some possible alternatives to try, and encourage them to persist in their own learning until they resolve the dilemmas of their teaching practices to their own satisfaction.

When students study the same topic, they will naturally form their own self-supporting associations to give each other academic and social support. The professors have found that students spend more time together out of class than do students in traditional, unrelated stand-alone classes. The common study of a subject within the context of kids' programs brings them together quickly as small communities of learners.

These learning communities have several benefits. First, students become more actively involved in classroom learning, even after class, and by spending more time learning, obviously they learn more. Second, the students spend more time learning together, and by learning together everyone's understanding and knowledge is enriched. Third, these students form social bonds outside the classroom. They tend to learn and make close friends at the same time. This last outcome is one that is especially important in an era which Robert Bellah (1985) says is defined by rampant "expressive individualism," and of growing racial, gender, sexual, and ideological divisions on university campuses. Collaborative experiences teach students that their learning and that of their peers is inexorably intertwined, and that, regardless of race, class, gender, or background, their academic interests, namely working with underserved youth, are the same.

These special programs require faculty to work and think in a different way. Often the traditional professor-student relationship is replaced by a team approach in which team members spend many hours in discussions deciding what specific topics should receive focus and how best to study them. Each person should feel able to express his or her opinion, and decisions are often made by consensus, rather than directives from the professor.

Faculty and Student Collaboration on Research and Scholarship

Each of the above options may include professors and students engaging in varying amounts of teaching in community programs, consulting with community agencies, presenting papers and conducting workshops at local, national, and international conferences, and undertaking research. Numerous applied research opportunities are available for students and faculty interested in making a contribution to the academic community and to the advancement of the youth development model. Such opportunities illustrate how the university tripartite mission of research, teaching, and service can be combined rather than being seen as separate entities (Cutforth, 1997).

Some Closing Thoughts About Developing a University-Community Focus

Collaborating with social agencies and educational institutions in local communities takes a considerable amount of time, support, and intellectual energy, and is often more messy than working on research projects and teaching. Problems and challenges occur regularly and all the professors have experienced struggles and victories in gaining support at the departmental, college, university, and community levels.

Underserved communities are everywhere and most are desperate for additional help and services. While such neediness can be an asset (there is no shortage of settings in which to focus our energies!) there is also the danger that we will be asked to take on more of a challenge than we can handle. For example, on several occasions we have been asked to take 30 kids in our after school programs. In response we make it clear that large numbers will take our focus away from the responsibility goals of the program to classroom management and behavioral strategies (for additional thoughts on this issue, see Hellison & Cutforth, 1997).

The adage, "Start Small" is appropriate because the options for university-community collaboration discussed earlier take time to develop and require professors and students to be receptive, ready, and willing to teach and learn in new ways. All the professors started by teaching in their own community program. Sometimes interested students visit these programs, several get their feet wet as assistant teachers, and a few go on to direct their own programs. Others may approach their professor about doing an independent study.

Over many months, the professors and students begin to foster university-community collaboration, often without much experience in doing so. As the years progress, they gain access to and the trust of additional public schools and community social agencies. Often the practical questions that arise from such efforts merit thoughtful consideration back at the university, and generate a demand for service learning experiences and the infusion of youth development concepts into university course work. Several years later a graduate concentration or a special program may develop, with faculty and student collaborating on research and scholarship.

However, while this scenario may sound like a blueprint, it certainly is not. Rather it is nonlinear and loaded with uncertainty. Because of individual, group, and institutional values, priorities, and needs, the extent to which these developments occur may vary. The important point is that one has to start somewhere, and without the professor's initial efforts to venture beyond the university setting, there would be no opportunities for the seeds of university-collaboration to take root. Vision, while necessary for success, emerges from, more than it precedes, action. Furthermore, productive educational change is really a journey that doesn't end until we do!

In the professors' university-community programs, students are more like colleagues than subordinates, colleagues to be supported in any possible way. Social functions play a large part in all the professors' programs, and they reflect the view that most of us possess minds capable of cultivation beyond classes. Also, they reduce the isolation that innovators typically experience. These professors are almost always available to students in their offices and at homes and they have a solicitous concern for their well-being—a concern

which is usually reciprocated. Such practices embody the view of looking beyond labels such as “inexperienced,” “beginning teacher,” “graduate student,” or “member of a research team” and replacing them with appropriate recognition for contributions to various projects, whether they be teaching in community programs, writing research reports, making presentations, or submitting manuscripts for publications.

It has been our experience that neither centralization nor decentralization works in efforts to reach out to the community. What is required is a different two-way relationship of pressure, support, and continuous negotiation, amounting to simultaneous top-down and bottom-up influence. Each of us—whether as individuals or as in groups—have learned to manage this paradox.

The most important ingredients for successful university-community collaboration are the commitment, preparation, and persistence of the faculty and students involved. Every person can be a change agent but must forego the hope of discovering a set of easy-to-follow steps. Likewise, a commitment to university-community collaboration by itself is not good enough. A commitment needs an engine, and that engine comprises individual, skilled people pushing for changes around them, intersecting with other like-minded individuals and groups necessary to form the critical mass necessary to bring about continuous improvements. Indeed, this is the spirit in which the partnership involving the professors was formed.

Physical education/kinesiology programs in higher education are well-positioned to direct more of their energies to their local communities, and to develop leaders in the youth development field—people willing to accept challenges and take risks. This article has provided several examples and guidelines for doing this kind of work and for developing and implementing programs. We hope that our efforts will inspire others to get involved.

Endnotes

1. The work of the professors mentioned in this article is featured in an edited book by Don Hellison and Nick Cutforth titled *Serving underserved youth through physical activity: Toward a model of university-community collaboration* which will be published by Human Kinetics, Champaign, IL. in 2000.

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CONFERENCE SUMMARIES

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON UNIVERSITY-ASSISTED COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

NOVEMBER 18-19, 1999

Keynote Address

David Hornbeck
Superintendent
School District of Philadelphia

David Hornbeck spoke on the need for collaborative partnerships between schools, community groups, and universities. He also addressed the School District of Philadelphia’s long-term agenda and how these collaborative partnerships can help accomplish the School District’s goals. Partnerships are not established overnight, but take time and a sustained effort. Schools can not just be inside four walls of a classroom or the province of school districts, but school needs to have a broader base to operate successfully. We form partnerships in a purposeful way and the power of partnership grows from synergy as a consequence of the agenda in which the partnership sits. In Philadelphia, Children Achieving is the ten part agenda of the School District. It consists of the following belief system: (1) we are about all children, (2) standards, assessment and accountability are vital—we want children to meet standards, outcomes based and consequences driven, (3) site-based management model—push power from superintendent’s office and into schools and communities that are closer to the kids, (4) teacher training—when altering basic structure in schools, there needs to be opportunities for those who are a part of the structure to learn about it, (5) we must start education with kids when they are little, (6) meeting health, social service community, and sanctuary needs—with many children on welfare, we face challenges that must be dealt with but not barriers to learning, (7) we must have the tools of instruction—books, building, and technology, (8) public engagement—it takes partnerships to do all of this, (9) financial resources, and (10) must accomplish first nine—one must be systemic when approaching these issues, to the extent that these parts fit together will be the degree to which there will be enormous power within this framework. All nine items must be accomplished for real improvement to occur. Over the last three years, Philadelphia public schools have achieved a forty percent increase in test scores while increasing participation of young people testing by twenty-two percent.

Partnerships, particularly with institutions of higher education, have played a large role in bringing these accomplishments about. Standards, accountability, and assessment is one area where higher eds have helped to identify a world-class standard framework. Standards bring responsibility because then children need to meet those standards. Being a good citizen is also important and there is a need to be purposeful about creating teaching and learning space in which children learn by doing and practicing citizenship. Such activity should be thoughtful, reflective, and rooted in writing and reading. Creating these opportunities has been an area of tight connection between universities and public schools. Experientially based learning is also an important component of Children Achieving. The University of Pennsylvania has been one of the largest employers in a school-to-career, American-style apprenticeship program. In the governance area, a major initiative has been creating within each cluster a cluster resource board. Penn has served as a senior partner in the two clusters adjacent to the its campus. Access to a network of partners is the central service that senior partners bring to cluster resource board. The resource board meets and identifies needs and then finds the resources that can meet those needs. University partnership is also important in professional development. Student teachers at schools are vital to the contribution of everyday learning in the school environment. Within health and social services, universities

have helped establish recreational programs, after-school and extended time programs both in the school and with other community organizations. There are two main ingredients for good volunteer programs: asking institutional partners and having a coordinator to organize their efforts. The other stable institutions in urban areas are faith communities. Church-state prohibitions only limit certain activities, and many connections can and should be made between public schools and faith communities. Penn has played a leading role in helping schools come together with faith organizations. Three years into the twelve-year goals, the School District of Philadelphia is ahead of schedule. Partnerships have played an important role in that success.

Plenary Session on University-Assisted Community Schools as Vehicles for Educating Citizens for Democracy: K-H Perspectives

Convener:

Nevin Brown
Principal Partner
The Education Trust

Panelists:

Barry Checkoway
Professor and Director
Center for Community Service and Service Learning
University of Michigan – Ann Arbor

C. David Lisman
Director of Service Learning
University of Denver

Terry Pickeral
Director
Compact for Learning and Citizenship
Education Commission of the States

Sondra Myers
Consultant – International, Civic and Cultural Projects
Member, WEPIC Replication Project National Advisory Board
Democracy is a Discussion Handbook

Commentator:

Ira Harkavy
Associate Vice President
Director
Center for Community Partnerships
University of Pennsylvania

The opening panel chronicled the many developments in service learning, community schools, and democratic education while laying out a number of critical issues and questions that currently confront schools, institutions of higher education, and democratic societies in their efforts to educate for democracy.

Nevin Brown began the panel by noting that one of the issues facing post-secondary learning is determining who is accountable for student learning and what kind of student learning should be encouraged by those responsible for learning. We must ask what is it we expect from post-secondary education and what are we trying to produce in the learning that our students engage in. Learning for citizenship and engagement in democracy needs to join the current focus on the academic. The movement for service learning and education for democracy is not just occurring in the United States, but shaping discussions about higher education and k-12 schools worldwide. The International Partnership for Service Learning is pushing post-secondary institutions to think about their role in creating citizens in emerging democracies in countries such as Jamaica, Liberia, Uganda, India, and Philippines. The implications of our discussion move far beyond our own borders.

Barry Checkoway asked if the university should have a strategy for involving community and community schools in democratic education and if so, what should it be. Civic education is essential to a democratic society, but too many Americans have reduced their engagement in public affairs. While they may have increased involvement in community service, engagement in public affairs has declined. Studies have documented that the decline in traditional forms of political participation is especially prevalent among younger age groups. While new forms of engagement are emerging for an increasingly diverse society that traditional political scientists do not necessarily appreciate, serious questions still remain about people's interests in public issues, respect for differences, and ability to argue beliefs.

Universities are civic institutions whose original mission had a strong public purpose and are currently strategically situated to do something about the problem of civic involvement. Universities are not just places that educate and conduct research, but they have immense resources (such as libraries and technology) that could be relevant for the community. Whether they view themselves in this role or not, universities are part of the community fabric because of their role as consumers and employers. John Dewey demonstrated this democratic spirit when he established the Michigan Schoolmasters, an organization for professors at the University of Michigan and local school teachers that met monthly to discuss what they had in common and how it was related to education for democracy. However, universities have drifted away from this ideal. Community groups find it hard to access universities as institutions, faculty vary in their commitment to this idea, and few top administrators have made educating for democracy a top goal.

Three elements need to be considered when examining the role of higher education in relation to its community and schools. (1) How can universities help students, including k-h students, prepare for active participation in a diverse democratic society? Today's students are among most politically disengaged in history. Interest in political participation is at a low level with incoming freshman and declines while in the university, making this both a societal and institutional issue. Possible solutions that the university could implement are research projects, service learning courses, and co-curricular activities. Yet, even when universities have these things, strong student commitment to public participation is still a problem, leading one to believe that education is not enough. (2) How can universities engage faculty in research and teaching which involves and improves communities? Dewey models a number of avenues through which professors can involve themselves in local community; opportunities which include conducting research in and with the community, providing technical support and consultation in areas of expertise, and connecting with teachers in schools. Yet faculty view themselves as teachers or researchers, but generally do not perceive themselves as public participants. Furthermore, there is little in the training of professors and teachers to prepare them for civic education. (3) How can the universities form com-

munity partnerships for civic renewal? The promise of partnerships is not often matched by their performance. Many partnerships show lack of trust, inequitable power and control, differences in cultural perspective, and conflicts over funding and fiduciary agents. Partnerships in this arena are most likely to be genuine if the community, and not the university, is the fiduciary. While we have exceptional partnerships, they are not typical and need to become more numerous if we wish to address the issues outlined above.

David Lisman articulated that the service learning movement is headed toward a new dimension that connects service learning to democracy and civic development. Community schools are increasingly viewed conceptually as a vehicle for helping students to achieve participation in a diverse democratic society. The promotion of civic democracy as the underlying foundation for service learning is a strong development that builds on three previous models of service learning. Using Service learning Service learning to promote as a basis for an ethic of service lacks institutional imbeddedness. While service learning serves as a model for experiential learning, experiential learning can have other outcomes besides civic development. Service learning as a vehicle for promoting social conscious and justice is not a sufficient rationale for people who are concerned with the problems of public institutions. The civic approach wraps in these objectives, while giving it a foundation.

Public schools are one of the great community locations for working to achieve this civic democracy. They have the stability and infrastructure that other community institutions often lack. Yet higher-eds face many challenges when working with schools as well as other community groups. Universities may be high minded when going into a community but must realize that community partners set the agenda. In public schools, established state and federal standards currently play a large role in determining the agenda. When principals are pressured to achieve standards they will want after-school homework clubs or other activities designed around raising test scores, even though the university might entertain larger goals and aspirations for community schools. As we move forward with the community school concept, higher eds must be careful to not use schools as a laboratory for their own interests. Yet, while focusing on both the needs of the university and

the schools, we must be careful to have an inclusive community school program and not just meet the academic needs of youth through after-school programs. Community schools must exist to serve adults in the community and operate during the evening. Community schools should also utilize service learning to promote civic development among youth and engage communities in sustainable democratic work. We are often focused on the civic development of college students and public scholarship of faculty, but we also need to bear in mind the civic needs of youth in schools. If we believe that service learning contributes to academic learning we ought to incorporate those activities into the community school model.

Terry Pickeral offered two frameworks for the conference participants to consider. The first framework examines three different levels of work: (1) practice, (2) policy, and (3) capacity and infrastructure. A struggle exists for the prevalence of high quality practice, which comes at the cost of energy expended on policy matters. Practitioners need to examine the policies that impede and support our work (such as school regulations). There is a need to help structure policies and help policymakers understand the work being done and how that work leads to common visions of education and democratic society. Focusing on practice alone does not ultimately get us where we want to be and focusing on policy alone does not lift us up enough, so we also need to address issues of capacity and infrastructure. What supports the work we want to do? A school superintendent in Hudson, MA has organized a school around education for democracy and service learning as an effective strategy and pedagogy for democratic education. Thus, the teachers must be able to teach through service learning; that's a policy issue. How can that policy be institutionalized so when the current superintendent leaves the commitment to service learning will continue?

The second framework involves four dimensions of schooling: (1) learning outcomes, (2) teaching strategies, (3) time & place of teaching, (4) climate & culture of schools. How do we have a culture in our school that is accommodating to the community during school? What are outcomes we want students to acquire, what are the effective teaching strategies/pedagogues to achieve those outcomes? When talking about learner outcomes that are centered around democracy and active citizenship, teaching strategies change from

lecture and homework to kinds of engaging activities that are critical for young people to understand by doing. Knowledge is just one part of civic development (efficacy, experience, skills, commitment also help shape civic development). In K-12, the reliance on standards has led us to view civics as an outcome of knowledge while ignoring experience and commitment. Other elements lead us to higher levels of civic engagement. Standards need to go beyond one set of knowledge and skills in order to examine the issues that make for good citizens. Time and place also has to change because students must venture outside the schoolhouse doors. Enrichment activities that currently occur after-school must be employed in school. Service learning has capacity to get to academic, civic, social/personal responsibility outcomes while moving students from personal interest to communal interests.

The service learning movement should not be about reformation, but instead transformation at individual, institutional, and community levels. One can not expect transformation at k-12 level without being concerned with transformation within higher education and vice-versa. How do we move our schools from risk to resiliency, competency, potency, belonging, and connectedness? It is one thing to give students the capacity to serve in the community, it is another for the community to allow them to do meaningful work. Schools have lost their civic soul and service learning is helping to regain it.

Sondra Myers spoke about the publishing of her handbook entitled *Democracy is a Discussion*.

Our democracy suffers from an inadequacy in both policy and practice. Yet both new and old democracies face similar problems and dialogue is crucial to overcoming these inadequacies. There exists an absence of civic sensibility at university level, yet that absence is starting to be addressed. George Washington University has launched a new project called "Presidents Millennium Seminars: The University For A New Democratic Era." Each of the eight schools at George Washington will conduct seminars to think about the University's role in civic development and democracy. Such dialogue and strategies will help address both the absence of civic values at the university level and prepare students to tackle the larger societal inadequacies present in our society.

Ira Harkavy responded to the panelists by first addressing the issue of student political partici-

pation. He asked to what extent is lack of participation a result of the careerist non-principled nature of politics. Political engagement among young people is difficult despite the best efforts of the university because of the nature of politics. The core issue and question presented asks if the nature of the society is determined by the nature of the schooling system. If the schooling system shapes the nature of politics, then we should be concerned with the nature and function of our schools. For example, Plato's aristocracy calls for an authoritarian and elitist school while Dewey's democratic society calls for a more democratic school. Thus, the lack of democratic education will inevitably lead to a non-democratic society. We must consider how to develop education for democracy and ask what is education for democracy. While Dewey understood what democratic education might look like, he never developed a strategy for implementing it. William Harper, former president of the University of Chicago, said that education is the basis of democracy and that higher education is the primary shaper of the American schooling system because it trains the teachers, educates the leaders, and dominates the pedagogical style of American schooling. Universities are prophets of democracy, but only if they are working with local schools. How do we engage in a successful implementation revolution that sees the implementation of education for democracy as the goal of that revolution?

University-Community-School Partnerships as Strategies for Community and Economic Development

Convener:

Lucy Kerman
Director of Special Projects
Office of the President
University of Pennsylvania

Panelists:

Marcia Marker Feld
Professor and Director
Urban Field Center
University of Rhode Island

Michael Morand
Assistant Vice President
Office of New Haven & State Affairs
Yale University

Diana Dorn-Jones
Executive Director
United South Broadway Corporation
Albuquerque, New Mexico

Loomis Mayfield
Coordinator
Great Cities Initiative
College of Planning and Public Affairs
University of Illinois-Chicago

Henry Louis Taylor, Jr.
Director
Center for Urban Studies
University at Buffalo
State University of New York

Lucy Kerman began the session by outlining a number of efforts the University of Pennsylvania has undertaken to promote the corporate involvement of the University in the West Philadelphia community. Penn's strategic effort of corporate involvement, entitled the West Philadelphia Initiatives, is an organized, comprehensive effort that understands neighborhoods are like people; needing holistic approaches to meet its needs. Thus, the West Philadelphia Initiatives comprise five main areas of effort.

(1) Education—a commitment to good schools and public schools, especially the schools in close proximity to the University. In addition to the numerous academic efforts with local schools, Penn has recently joined with the Philadelphia School District and the Teacher's Union in creating a new University-assisted public school. The school will draw students from the local community and serve as both a professional development hub as well as a community center.

(2) Clean and safe streets—a realization that any community needs to be both clean and safe. Penn has joined with the city of Philadelphia in creating a special service district that keeps the streets clean and places security ambassadors around the neighborhood. Additional initiatives have helped light and green the neighborhood.

(3) Retail development—building retail corridors around the University. Penn has recently completed a new retail complex that includes a bookstore, inn and a number of upscale shops. In addition to upscale retail, Penn is establishing other corridors with mixed retail. All of these initiatives are aimed at building retail in areas of West

Philadelphia that the University helped to transform a number of years ago during its expansion.

(4) Housing—believing that homeowners help make communities stronger. Penn has began an enhanced mortgage program which gives \$15,000 (or \$21,000 over 7 years) to help build home ownership among Penn faculty and staff. The University is also involved in re-claiming abandoned homes, by buying, re-furbishing, and then selling those homes back to community. There is also an emphasis on multi-family properties, which deals with the management of absentee landlords and student overcrowding.

(5) Strong Economic Development—a strategic use of the University's economic policies. Penn is focused on how you purchase and build. Last year \$50 million was contracted to businesses in Penn's neighborhood. In addition to job development and small business mentoring, a very strong percentage of construction projects go to minority business. The University has restructured so that they are focused on helping community businesses.

Marcia Marker Feld, Professor at University of Rhode Island and the first director of HUD's Office of University Partnerships, spoke on the history of university-school-community partnerships, the initial assumptions that grounded that work, and current activity in the field. Since the early 1970s there has been a growing movement to pair higher education systems with public school institutions. Although initially designed so that higher education institutions could provide a helping hand for public schools, the movement has developed on a broad equity basis that has brought about equal partnerships. These relationships encourage dialogue between university faculty and secondary schools, stress quality education restructuring, and encourage recruitment of low-income and minority students to higher education. In the mid-1980s, led by the efforts of Ira Harkavy at the University of Pennsylvania, these partnerships saw the addition of a strong community service learning component both in secondary and higher education. The next major development occurred in 1994, when Housing and Urban Development decided that government could not transform communities alone, but needed community partnerships for effective change. HUD saw higher education institutions as the anchor institutions of many neighborhoods that could bring community building resources and articulate

constituencies to solve inner-city problems. For this reason they established the Office of University Partnerships to act as catalyst and broker for facilitating partnerships between higher education institutions and local communities.

Six initial assumptions grounded this work: 1) partnerships create a level playing field; 2) partnerships bring resources and technical assistance to each partner and focus on solving urban problems; 3) partnerships influence curriculum, communication, and behavior to move to their highest level; 4) partnerships mediate the development of a community-based common vision and agenda as well as agreed upon implementation strategies; 5) partnerships foster building capacity and sharing among all individuals; and 6) partnerships empower all participants, from both the university and community, in the decision process of how to create a sustainable quality community environment. Experience has taught a simple equation for success in community building: CEE=RT (Communication, Enabling (or capacity building), and Empowerment = Respect and Trust).

The perspective from the eyes of the community and a community development corporation was outlined by Diana Dorn-Jones, who is the executive director of United South Broadway Corporation (USBC). She discussed neighborhood and resident capacity building and emphasized the need for local neighborhoods to be the driving force behind community revitalization. South Broadway, a neighborhood in Albuquerque, NM, has had to deal with the many problems common to urban neighborhoods. For many years the community's economic development was driven by and dependent on outside forces, which meant that such development was neither long term nor sustainable. During this outside intervention, an enlightened and engaged neighborhood developed and realized that the time had come to engage in their own community planning activities. This has led to recent successes in building up the community's voice and its ability to act and achieve independent of outside intervention. By educating neighborhood residents and mobilizing them to act on behalf of the community's interest, the USBC and the neighborhood have achieved a number of victories. These victories include bringing about changes in the local public school system, reducing crime and public nuisances, eliminating drug dealing, taking back the streets, and bringing about housing and commercial

revitalization. This success has been achieved with little money, but much citizen participation (which led South Broad to receive the national neighborhood award in 1994). USBC has served as a link to the outside world and an organic vehicle for community action; one whose role constantly changes to be open to community identified neighborhood needs.

South Broadway has also attempted to institutionalize their many successes to ensure their long-term success. This activity has seen South Broadway partner with many organizations, from local and federal government to higher education institutions. In partnership with HUD, they looked at how the built environment of the community influenced drug trafficking in the area. Public art initiatives and regular community clean-up days were established to encourage people to take pride in their community. South Broadway has also developed a relationship with both the University of New Mexico College of Education and their School of Architecture and Planning. When USBC undertook a project to identify vacant lots for housing in the neighborhood, they worked with the School of Architecture to hold design meetings with the community in order to come up with resident-derived design guidelines. In South Broadway's partnerships there is a definite sense of equality, with residents actively participating in the work and determining the nature of the partnerships. Communities must bring a people/volunteer investment to the table for successful partnerships and that takes grass roots organizing. If projects are not resident driven, what happens when programs decline or are taken away? Partners can help move communities to next level of activity, but they can not be relied on to sustain the activity forever. Thus, a model of resident-driven community development and self-help is needed. Healthy neighborhoods precede healthy schools. Healthy neighborhoods can only happen when people feel safe, have decent housing, and when a neighborhood has found its voice and is able to articulate the terms of engagement with potential partners.

Michael Morand discussed the intersection of the university's roles in economic development and public education. One of the fundamental issues of democracy is access to economic opportunity. Yale University is engaged in a comprehensive initiative to increase economic opportunity. The initiative focuses on economic

development, increasing home ownership, strengthening public schools, and revitalizing downtown New Haven. A major generator of economic opportunity is the enormous potential of life sciences to address human disease and promote economic opportunity. Yale has recently created ten thousand jobs in this field recently and the pace of development is increasing. This employment boon raises the issue of who is getting these jobs. Currently, many people are being imported for these new jobs, so Yale is working at creating access to this economic opportunity for people in New Haven.

The University is working with Hill Regional Career High School, a 750 student regional magnet school where students declare an interest in health science or business and computing. Yale supports the curriculum of the school by providing faculty and medical students who work with teachers and students in advanced college-level science classes. The medical students learn their material better because they have to know it well enough to teach it to high school students. The bio-tech certification that high school students receives creates direct connections to economic opportunities because companies know that high school students have a certain level of skills. In this manner, universities serve as the bridge between k-12 schools and the private business sector because both institutions partner with universities. This partnership has been facilitated by a formal agreement that signifies a commitment to work together by entering into open-ended relationships based on trust. The University has been careful not to overpromise, but has delivered on modest promises including a shuttle between the medical school and high school, library access, and access to high school athletic facilities to students at Yale. This activity did not start with a strategic program, but strong relationships that developed trust which then led to development of programs. This has resulted in two hundred youth spending over eight hundred hours of studying in Yale programs and an increase in the ability of youth to seize new economic opportunities.

Loomis Mayfield described the Great Cities program at the University of Illinois-Chicago (UIC). This program is an expression of UIC's commitment to deal with urban issues on a community level, thus fulfilling the land-grant status of university (albeit in an urban instead of agricultural environment). Community groups

function as equal partners in the Great Cities program and help to determine the agenda by laying out issues of importance to the community. Great Cities attempts to effect how faculty do research and teaching at the university by encouraging them to be driven by community interests instead of being discipline driven. The Neighborhood Initiative program (UICNI) is focused expression of this model in two neighborhoods around the university. This project-based initiative develops programs along a range of issues (health, education, public safety, economic development, etc.) according to interests of community and faculty/students. Both the community and university must have an interest in the issue in order to have a successful project. Two examples of projects:

Great Cities—Great Careers. This project began with HUD money in 1994, and was originally designed to help students understand their career options and equip them to pursue those careers. When pressure came down on schools concerning test scores the schools became less concerned with programs not directly related to tests. Since this program fell into that category, a re-evaluation led to a new project that related to faculty interests and organically intertwined with the curriculum of the high school. Professors performed a survey analysis of the school to understand what careers students were interested in and what information they had to pursue those careers. This new project was integrally related to English classes and helped teachers evaluate the skills and motivations of their students. Faculty received research and publishing experience for tenure while students realized that test scores matter to achieve goals. Tenacity, consistency and flexibility allowed the project to develop and mature.

West-Side Consortium Home-Care Training Institute. This project grew out of research the West-Side Consortium requested regarding job aspirations and barriers for people in public housing developments. Research found that the biggest obstacle was lack of adequate daycare for low-income people while the biggest job interest was also in day care. Initially, the project's attempt to begin a day-care center floundered because it was hard to get a private development established and the policy focus of public agencies changed from supporting day-care to supporting home-care. How do you adjust to policy changes? Instead of establishing a day-care center, the project began an institute, set in a local community college, where people

could receive training and assistance with certification. The Institute has led to an ongoing relationship between individuals interested in the home-care industry and existing day care centers.

In both projects, it is important to note some common elements that serve as general rules for university-community collaborative partnerships. These projects require tenacity, consistent efforts on the issue, and flexibility. Furthermore, the end results need to match up with interests of all the parties involved (public agencies, community, and faculty).

Henry Taylor finished the panel presentations by describing activities that represent efforts to bring neighborhood economic development to the forefront of the process of transforming neighborhoods. There is a need to develop a long-term strategy for how we bring the schools into the process of neighborhood community economic development. A true community school will be a force in the process of transforming neighborhoods by engaging the neighborhood in a variety of activities which will re-enforce efforts to change communities.

The Center for Urban Studies (CUR) at the Buffalo University is a freestanding research and policy unit located in the Department of Planning. The University allows faculty members to be released from part of the course load during a semester to engage in center activity while also providing summer funding for faculty. CUR also houses a non-profit community-economic development corporation that is membership-based and linked directly to the community. Neighborhood economic development when done properly is a significant vehicle for community capacity building. A neighborhood intervention strategy that would center around neighborhood economic development was recently formulated by residents and city council members in a troubled neighborhood in central Buffalo. The strategy focused on transforming commercial strips around which communities are built because these strips are often dilapidated and crumbling. The community chose to focus on strips for three reasons: (1) strips are the window through which people view everyday life and culture in a community; (2) strip development is central to bolstering the quality of life of people in neighborhoods; and (3) the strip could potentially become a community commons. The capacity could be developed to attack other complex and difficult problems because a range

of individuals will buy-in to transforming the strip. The first stage of implementing this project was creating an environment that would get groups to concentrate on making visible changes. Central to this process was building collaborations and coalitions that demonstrated to community that CUR was serious and committed to making things happen. Past actions have led to distrust, so building the relationships and gaining trust is crucial. The first stage was primarily accomplished through activities that build and develop a sense of trust. CUR helped to locate a new police district on the strip, created partnerships with several of the banks to make resources and money available, and worked with business owners to locate capital and provide technical assistance.

To start the process of engaging schools, you need to operate on multiple levels. It is essential that youth are involved in the process of neighborhood development because this will lead to pride in community, investment in community, and a visible example that what they learn in classroom has practical application in the process of community development. Youth can help to build a sense that commercial strip is a sacred place with the identity of community closely connected to that strip. CUR worked with the community and schools to design a major clean-up campaign, a Halloween party, and other different activities that centered on the business strip so that the strip could become a ceremonial place within the community. The second level of activity allows community and business development forums to be shifted to schools, thus creating important educational and community capacity tools. Locating the forums in schools lets schools be identified with community economic development in the eyes of business, government and schools leaders while bringing those leaders into schools to see the connection between their profession and community economic development. CUR hopes to soon establish a youth entrepreneur program based on cooperative economics and social purpose capitalism. Different activities that improve the community represent a market that a school-based entrepreneur program could meet. This would create a powerful link between youth entrepreneurship and the process of community transformation. Such a program would translate into a new respect for the built environment and neighborhood places. Because kids do it themselves, it becomes sacred. Finally, CUR hopes to get schools involved in

adult education programs. Many businesses end up with workers at bottom of market. If we can link job training with neighborhood business development these businesses can become springboard for further opportunity. These initiatives will take time to build, but the process will demonstrate that the community school can become a force in transforming the neighborhood in which it is located.

Evaluation and Assessment Issues in University-Assisted Community School Partnerships

Convener:

David Grossman
Director
Civic House
University of Pennsylvania

Panelists:

Ian Beckford
Evaluation Officer
DeWitt Wallace-Reader's Digest Fund

Jean Grossman
Vice President for Research
Public / Private Ventures

Eric Anderman
Associate Professor of Educational and Counseling Psychology
College of Education
University of Kentucky, Lexington Campus

Francis Johnston
Professor of Anthropology
University of Pennsylvania
Director, Turner Nutrition Awareness Project (TNAP)

David Grossman introduced the panel and provided opening comments and questions for consideration. Evaluation of partnerships is important to researchers, activists, teachers, policy makers, and stewards. As researchers we want to broaden our knowledge of this work and know what works and why, people's motivations, enablers and hindrances, and how varied stakeholders with varied goals come together to create positive change. As activists we want to see positive systemic change in our institutions and society while participating in collaborative efforts

that are respectful of many voices. As teachers, we want to know if our service learning efforts are reaping real benefits pedagogically and in terms of learning outcomes, and if students at all levels are learning better. As policy makers we want to demonstrate that our work matters and makes a difference. As stewards and fundraisers, we want to demonstrate that our projects have achieved real measurable outcomes.

Questions raised by evaluation and assessment are as numerous as its goals and purposes. How do we set up research and assessment so that it captures what we want to learn without getting in the way of the program? How do we overcome fear and ignorance concerning matters of evaluation and assessment so that we see it as an instrument of confirmation and improvement?

How do we agree upon research goals and results we need? What about methodologies and implementation of assessment tools (both qualitative and quantitative)? How do we know more about what we know? How can we learn about our experience in the most useful and complimentary ways?

Ian Beckford described the model of assessment in the DeWitt Wallace-Reader's Digest study. WEPIC has been part of a larger DeWitt study, which has invested 14 million into studying extended service schools since 1994. DeWitt is studying the adaptation of four promising models in twenty communities nationwide to help schools become more effective educational resources for young people by expanding their role beyond the usual school day. The models are: (1) Beacons model—operated by community based organizations (CBOs) at public schools sites, (2) Bridges to success—partnership including public schools, youth-serving CBOs, and local United Ways, (3) Community schools—Universities, CBOs and public schools with social workers and educational graduate students supplementing the work of youth workers and school staff, and (4) WEPIC—Universities and public schools—University faculty and students at University and schools during after-school time.

This evaluation is a three year evaluation that has five components: (1) planning study, (2) implementation study, (3) participation study, (4) study of youth experience, and (5) cost and finance study. The three-tiered evaluation first identifies a set of sites that are part of the intensive study, which closely examines those sites to

learn about planning, participation and implementation. Sites that were not identified to be in intensive group will receive an organizational survey to be documented (tier 3 sites). Tier 2 sites consist of nine cities identified as very intense in terms of implementation planning and in terms of what they are doing. This will be part of the planning and participation study and six of those nine will be involved in a more extensive participation study examining characteristics of student participants, types of activities, etc. Six sites will also be part of the experience survey.

Jean Grossman elaborated on the study being conducted by DeWitt. She began by noting the daunting nature of an evaluation that covers sixty schools in twenty cities. Much effort has been put in to determining what are the important lessons and information to glean and how to best go about gleaning them. It takes many sub-questions to answer the crucial "How do you prove if this thing works?" question. Among the most crucial are: "How do after-school and community-school initiatives get off the ground?", "How does a community come together and determine the collaborators to put a program in the school?", and "What are the lessons that can be learned?". The model is always beautiful, but we are evaluating what is on the ground, not what is in the model. When looking at the implementation of what is on the ground we need to ask who is involved, what types of activities are in place, and how do we learn to measure the quality of activities in place (particularly the youth development qualities). While the content of a program is somewhat important, that is only one dimension of what determines the outcomes (i.e. different outcomes may come out of similar activities depending on the structure and quality of the activity). Understanding what the dimensions of the program are and how they can be measured is crucial (different dimensions include the amount of adult supervision and youth leadership opportunities). There are also many lessons that we can learn from asking questions about the activity of a program. Does it matter if good kids or bad kids are attending? How often do they attend? Is the program geared toward many kids with less intensive activity or fewer kids with more intensive activity? Does intensive participation produce different results? When surveying the children in the DeWitt study, a base-line survey was utilized with a follow-up survey in a year. Issues that are being examined over time

include: use of children, peer, adult, and family relationships; youth's sense of hope for future, belonging, and self-efficacy; engagement, behavior, and attitudes towards school. All those elements are then correlated with type, quality, quantity, and cost of the activity. Are higher quality activities more costly? Is training critical for high quality? Does spending more money produce better outcomes? When is one method of raising money more successful than other methods for an organization?

After visiting the 2nd level sites for a year, the organizational survey allows evaluators to determine how common the experiences of the nine sites are everywhere else. What causes one site to have different visions? While the type of model impacts participant's vision, the historical context is also important in determining key visions for the school. When do you get more of a consensus on the vision and when does it seem more dispersed? Community involvement might play a crucial role in determining this. For some sights, the community runs initiatives and there is collaboration of community and school groups with management oversight. In other sights, less formalized community input and involvement exists. Even when site-level governance is strong factor, it is a difficult factor to put into place because input is easier, yet governance is much more difficult. The biggest implementation challenges found at this point primarily deal with issues of trust and control. There are tensions at the school district level about getting school district support and school-level tensions about space and liability issues (how does school allow community onto property?) These challenges are based on fundamental differences in mission, procedural differences (makes communication difficult), and organizations styles (do you go to top or bottom of a hierarchy first). Sites that are able to overcome those issues have the strongest collaborative structure with both school and community taking part in the governance of these after-school activities. Unless school, particularly the principal, is on board and welcoming of collaboration, it will be difficult to attain a collaborative partnership. Even when a program is up and running, tensions with teachers arise, making the principal's support crucial. Distrust at school-level comes from not understanding what the program involves. In general, there is more distrust at upper levels (i.e. high school) than lower levels because teachers are

normally less involved in school activities at the upper level. Hiring teachers as staff for after-school programs is a double-edged sword: it helps them know about and buy into the program, but they might teach the after-school time just like the regular school day.

Eric Anderman continued to address the issue of assessment by describing evaluation activities occurring at Winburn Academy, a WEPIC replication site in Kentucky. The University of Kentucky is involved in assessing how various aspects of student motivation change throughout the process of community school. The study is not examining objective data such as test scores or GPA, but instead asking more subjective questions such as why are kids in school, what do they think about school, and why are they doing their work. If students see community school as worthwhile, important and as a safe-place, then they will be more motivated and care about school and participate in more activities. The principal is important to making process work. If the principal sees outsiders as partners then everything runs much smoother and teachers are much more cooperative. Survey methodology included collecting data from 1995-1999 (longitudinal data from 1995-1997 and cross-sectional data from 1998-1999). Data included questions dealing with motivation and goal orientations (mastery, performance, or extrinsic orientation) at the classroom and school levels. School belonging was measured since it is one of the strongest predictors, along with family belonging, of a buffer against negative outcome during adolescence. Students' expectations and values were also measured to determine what they value in school and what they expect from the future. The survey also asked whether students believe they have control over what they become or if they think intelligence is inherited. Both general data and specific data relating to science were collected.

The results did yield some preliminary findings. School belonging jumped dramatically after the Academy WEPIC-replication program began. While it is hard to tell if the program caused the jump in school belonging, there was significant correlation between participation in the academy and a higher sense of school belonging. This implies that those who felt a sense of belonging were also more likely to come back and participate. As the school moved towards a community school model, there was a significant decline in

extrinsic goal orientation, which is good since psychology shows extrinsic orientation to be the weakest motivator. There was also a decline in effort avoidance. A decline was seen in anti-social tendencies as the community school model was adopted. A really strong interaction exists between using aggression to be cool and GPA. Students who were not mastery oriented and had a low GPA possessed a high aggression index. Students who were mastery oriented and had a low GPA had a much lower aggression index (a mastery orientation implies that they bought in to community school model). Violence towards teachers was also a concern. Students were asked how likely they would be to respond in particular if they were angry with a teacher. The strongest predictors of aggressive tendencies were beliefs about intelligence and school mastery. Youth who bought into idea that school is about effort and working hard were less likely to be aggressive. Some variables did not change and some changed contrary to what was expected. The value of science, school mastery climate, and general mastery orientation declined, while worrying about school and beliefs in modifiability of intelligence decreased. The strongest predictor of high GPA was school belonging. There was a dramatic increase in service learning and working with groups they are not familiar with, although there was only a slight increase in actual community service rendered and the importance of participating in community service declined.

For future evaluations, it is very important to try and have a comparison/control school, but this raises the issue of how do you find a comparable school. Classroom level differences (different teachers doing different things) also need to be taken into account. Multi-level effects would help tease out individual differences from classroom level types of difference. Other lessons learned include combining qualitative and quantitative measurements and using collected data collaboratively with teachers and administrators at the school.

Francis Johnston concluded the panel presentations by commenting on the ongoing evaluation of a Kellogg-funded grant linking intellectual resources at the University of Pennsylvania with community needs. Evaluation needs to be built within the program of a university so that it becomes a part of academically based community service (service intrinsically linked to the aca-

demically based community service (ABCS) courses along with expanded courses and course projects also resulted from Kellogg funding, helping the University to develop over eighty ABCS courses. These courses cut across departments and undergraduate schools. Finally, Kellogg provided support for undergraduate and graduate students to serve as research assistants, provide infrastructure support, and write ongoing doctoral dissertations and undergraduate theses.

How do we improve the quality of work that we do in local community schools? When confronted with this question, Johnston set up a course on evaluation of programs: "Monitoring and Evaluation of Social Programs." It is crucial that the university draw on its only and most unique resource—students. Students can learn the process of evaluation as part of their own courses of study. Students develop a concept of evaluation and monitoring as they learn and help to sensitize community schools to the evaluation process so that they can take an active part in that process. There are four central areas of evaluation: (1) establishment of program, process of implementing the program, impact of program on the school and school community; (2) impact on university students—how has it enriched and expanded education and developed their own sense of moral and civic awareness; (3) integration of activities within the university and their impact on curricular structure of university; and (4) impact on central administration—how has it shaped their view of the mission of the university.

Evaluation should be brought within what we are doing on a daily basis. In the class, group projects, in-class presentations, and evaluation write-ups based on the four-fold model have all been utilized. Students then were able to present their findings at a recent Kellogg conference. One group of students evaluated the impact of ABCS courses on undergraduates. Two samples of students were taken: one group that did not take ABCS courses, and one that did. What types of students were drawn to ABCS courses? Students who did not take ABCS courses have a greater

concern for social problems that impact them directly: race relations, crime and violence, drug use, etc. Students enrolled in one or more ABCS courses were more concerned about homelessness, poverty, teenage pregnancy, universal health care, income disparity, quality of public education, and health care. How do students view their academic careers? While all were concerned about getting good grades, ABCS students proved to be more concerned with volunteering and slightly less concerned with socializing. What is the impact of these courses? ABCS courses increase students' abilities in being community leaders, acting morally, developing research skills and a philosophy of life, and concern for community and volunteering. Non-ABCS students claimed to be concerned with attaining job skills, being competitive, and preparing for life.

The process of project evaluation ought to be a part of ongoing university curricula and not separate from it. Evaluation is part of the total process in both university and community schools. While external evaluations are also needed, evaluation is too important to be left to just the evaluators.

Concurrent Session 1: Service learning workshop: Introducing service learning into the K-12 curriculum and linking it to out-of school time

Convener:

Karl Nass
Director
Philadelphia Higher Education Network for
Neighborhood Development (PHENND)

Panelists:

Cynthia Belliveau
Director
Pennsylvania Service-Learning Alliance

Edison Freire
Learn and Serve Master Teacher
School District of Philadelphia

Tamara Dubowitz
Graduate Student
Department of Anthropology
University of Pennsylvania
Urban Nutrition Initiative

Danny Gerber
Graduate Student
Department of Anthropology
University of Pennsylvania
Urban Nutrition Initiative

Cynthia Belliveau described the many service-learning developments occurring in Pennsylvania, while raising general issues of concern for service learning. Service learning organizations are taking a conscious look at how service learning can be developed in a state as big and diverse as Pennsylvania. A service-learning program needs to be both a good teaching methodology and a community-changing tool. Service learning is too often a quick adventure into the community and then a retreat back to school. Communities are often changed during that adventure but there is no mechanism to look at the systemic change in communities or individuals that results from service learning. Character education, traditionally kept separate from service learning, is now becoming increasingly linked with service learning efforts. How can character education be developed within the context of service learning, thereby making the two synergistic? Students should not just learn about responsibility, but practice it through service learning. A youth leadership model where youth are trained as facilitators to help their peers with service learning is one example of how service learning and character education can effectively merge together.

Service learning must also follow a needs and assets based mode, which leads us to consider how can we do a whole lot with a very little money. Communities many resources to offer the schools, but often have trouble establishing a relationship with the school because they do not know how. Youth-driven service learning centers are a new development in service learning that helps to address that problem. The centers serve as hubs within schools for service learning and are operated by students. The model empowers youth by allowing them to organize and produce service learning projects and directs community organizations interested in partnering with the schools to the youth-driven service learning center. This model has been tested in Gratz High School in Philadelphia and has been extremely successful. Students are leaders and administrators of the center and the organization has addressed issues of sustainability, teacher involvement, and multi-

disciplinary project planning. The community uses classrooms to meet with students about community issues, needs, and assets. The service learning that results is grounded in authentic needs determined by community. The community then evaluates the effectiveness of service learning projects. Students from Temple University taught the high school students to run focus groups to help determine needs in areas around the schools. What started out as student newsletter for service learning has evolved into community newsletter. Ten other similar centers in Pennsylvania have developed following the successful Gratz model.

Tamara Dubowitz and Danny Gerber, both graduate students in Anthropology at the University of Pennsylvania, detailed their work with the Urban Nutrition Initiative (UNI), a program which has received funding from Kellogg, Ford, U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the Centers for Disease Control. UNI is a school-based, child-centered community health project, which is linked to an academically based community service course in the Anthropology department. The course employs participatory-action research with experiential learning as the pedagogy of choice, and the class has evolved as undergraduates create the new knowledge that the course generates. Volunteers for the UNI program come from both the Anthropology course and also from the WEPIC volunteer organization. The major components of the project include school-based produce stands, school-based gardens, and an interdisciplinary curriculum that teaches about nutrition, health, business, social studies, science, math, and language arts. At the high school level there is also a business aspect where students grow vegetables that are sold to local restaurants.

UNI primarily works with three schools. UNI volunteers help students at Drew Elementary to plan and operate an after-school produce stand four days per week. Students also cultivate a vegetable garden and are exposed to an interdisciplinary curriculum where the lesson plans incorporate these activities. Turner Middle School also runs a produce stand, and the students are engaged with designing school gardens, classroom gardening, and the interdisciplinary curriculum. University City High School focuses on micro-business development. Students work at the school greenhouse practicing urban agriculture. In all the schools a problem-based approach to learning is employed with the students. By choosing

nutrition, UNI links activities to local problems, examining how nutrition relates to diseases that are prominent in local areas. By linking the curriculum to a dynamic problem, students act as agents of social change by solving real world problems which in turn improves their self-esteem and motivation. In the public school curriculum, health only gets a few minutes a day, so it is important to integrate health into other curriculum components. Ownership of the curriculum is very important with teachers, so UNI volunteers work with teachers to integrate health into the curriculum. Developments are being made to help the UNI project become more of a resource for the entire neighborhood around the school. Finally, UNI addresses sustainability through a financially profitable project, curriculum development, and ownership felt by school and community.

Edison Freire described his experiences incorporating service learning as a teacher of technology. In a needs and assets framework, improving technology skills among students creates assets that can then be used to meet the needs of the surrounding community. A group of Latino students wanted to enhance their technology skills, which led to the creation of an after-school technology club. If you give a child something they are interested in, it does not matter if learning happens during or after school. Out of school experiences will be successful if they are relevant and/or addressing a need. The successful after-school club transformed into an urban technology project. The focus of the project is on meaningful access to technology and technology professionals. The group was able to establish a computer refurbishing and recycling center that is operated during and after school by the students. Students acquire technology skills within the context of service learning. The students are challenged to consider how they can take the skills they have learned and use them to benefit their communities. Donated hardware goes to schools and community agencies after it is refurbished. Another element of service learning is teaching kids that the problems of a community are in the eye of beholder. A building that is an eyesore has potential to be used for successful programs, such as the computer recycling program, turning a detriment into an asset. Non-profits are notoriously bad with technology so the project has become a resource, providing non-profit organizations with needs assessments, hardware, and technical support.

University involvement is needed in partnerships where service learning experience involves a collaborative process in which all participants are learners and teachers, receivers and providers. University-school relationships are a two-way street. How can high school students' expertise be utilized with university strengths? For example, if university students have established an after-school mentoring program, then high school students in the technology program could provide technical support for the after-school mentoring program. This type of activity and partnership engages students, at the university and secondary levels, to solve their own problems and develop models that can be emulated. Programs must be embedded in the community to outlast individual personalities. Universities will be connected with the outside community to the extent that students take their acquired skills back to their communities, whether that community be in West Philadelphia or Vietnam. One example of a university-school-community project that allowed for service learning opportunities at multiple levels was a partnership formed between the University City New School and a school in Quito, Ecuador. Students from Penn partnered with students from the technology program to establish computer labs at both of these schools. Everyone who was involved in creating this program offered something to the program and this brought together a local partnership to prepare to partner globally. By identifying common needs and skills we were able to bridge differences and bring different partners together. This in turn led to personal transformation regarding education and the use of technology.

Concurrent Session 3: Implications of University-Assisted Community Schools for Teacher Education

Convener:

Josephine Robles
Coordinator
Cluster Resource Boards
University of Pennsylvania

Panelists:

Claudette Williams
Professor of Educational Leadership
Clark Atlanta University

Nick Cutforth
Professor of Education
University of Denver

Kenneth Tobin
Professor of Educational Leadership
Director of Teacher Education
Graduate School of Education
University of Pennsylvania

Claudette Williams offered that the term university-assisted community schools is ill suited for what it defines because the schools assist universities as well. Community-based professional development models are more of what the panel is considering. Clark Atlanta University works with a school in urban Atlanta with this type of model. The partnership between the university and school has implications on policy. Policies must put down very clearly so that the partnership's mission is well known. Since schools change personnel very quickly, documentation is very important to ensure continuity at the school and school system levels. Conceptual frameworks are also impacted. Before entering into a partnership both the school and university should consider define their institutional mission and consider how a partnership will help them achieve that mission. Clark Atlanta came up with a new vision and mission that relates to the partnership with local schools. Conceptual frameworks also evolve at the school level. Teacher education should not be limited to pre-service teachers, but also certified teachers and faculty at the university level.

Professional development is also impacted by school-university partnerships. Joint training between university students and schoolteachers leads to an infusion of service learning. Middle school teachers are invited to audit classes as part of their professional development. Staff development units (sdu) are also offered in service learning, which counts towards a teacher's professional development. Assessment and evaluation must also be considered. The concept of community schools necessitates different assessment and evaluation methods in order to sustain community school efforts. When Atlanta's new superintendent established goals centered on the primary academic areas and emphasized the necessity of meeting those goals, teachers became hesitant to teach outside of that established framework. While the principal at Clark Atlanta's partner school has been

supportive of the community school and encouraged teachers to participate in it, there is still a need for community schools to be a part of the assessment process. If community school efforts do not become part of evaluation, teachers will be hesitant to do it. Similarly, because we are changing the way we teach, it should be evident in the way we do assessment at the university. Teacher education is not just about what is going on in the college classroom, but also in the local schools. Students at Clark Atlanta are assessed on the basis of their recommendations/evaluations of various school programs. This incorporates service learning into curriculum and increases the amount that they learn from the class.

Nick Cutforth described the work that the University of Denver is doing to prepare education students to meet the challenges of urban education. The University of Denver has a non-traditional teacher education program, with the average student age falling in the late twenties. The program is designed for working adults and lasts nine months with classes meeting on Wednesday nights and all day Saturday. As part of the program, students are required to spend one day a week in the schools doing observation during the fall semester and then complete a thirteen-week student-teacher assignment in the spring.

In recent years, an urban education element has been built into the curriculum of the education program. All students must do at least one student-teaching assignment in an urban school. Yet, the program needed to infuse the type of experience that urban teachers need to address the special issues of culture and diversity, poverty, racial injustice, etc. In response to this need, the University of Denver began a voluntary program called SALUTE (Service And Learning in Urban Teacher Education) that focuses on urban issues. The university invites all teacher education students to be a part of the voluntary education program. SALUTE spends two hours every week working with elementary students and then an hour seminar following the experience. Student teachers train the 5th graders to help the 2nd graders with their schoolwork. Then the 2nd graders leave and the student teachers engage the 5th graders in service learning projects. Student teachers work in groups of four and are in charge of 15-20 5th graders who are in charge of 10-12 2nd graders. Student teachers get to create their own learning environment with urban students,

which is very beneficial experience for the aspiring teachers. The school-community seminar is also important because it provides the reflection piece that service learning needs. The primary focus of the seminars is to get them to think critically about their teaching, values, and biases. Exposure to the community is also an important part of program. Students do community walks and visits before the teaching starts to expose them to the urban environment.

Kenneth Tobin raised four points for consideration based on the teacher education graduate program at the University of Pennsylvania. (1) The teacher education program is very intentionally an urban program because urban schools are good places to learn to teach. If students want to teach in urban schools, they really need to learn in urban schools. If students want to teach elsewhere, urban schools are excellent venues to be prepared for other environments. (2) The Graduate School of Education has transformative goals. The School does not place student teachers in schools just to learn to teach, but to help transform the schools. The teacher education program needs to work closely with the school community to co-develop goals and to facilitate the learning of youngsters. By facilitating learning and working with teachers, student teachers will learn to teach. (3) Education is facilitated by co-teaching (learning at the elbows). The best way to learn to teach is not to read about methods and pedagogy, but to experience it. Students spend half days in the schools during the first semester of the program and full days during the second semester. A team of about eight student teachers is normally assigned to a small learning community of six teachers. Teams of student teachers allow classes to be divided and student teachers gain hands-on teaching experience. In the science education program, student teachers were teaching high school students chromatography. The issue of standards never arose because the problem solving and activity was closely involved with scientific investigation and learning. If teachers are confident that their teaching methods are solid, then they will be meeting the established standards. (4) Guided by a believe in teaching from a social-constructivist point of view, the teacher education program thinks about learning in communities. Students plan lessons and activities with other students and with cooperating teachers. K-12 students are brought in and asked about effective teaching

styles, making these students teacher-educators with respect to graduate students. Undergraduates and graduate students work with teachers and prospective teachers to help open up the resources at the university for the high school students. Student teachers teach physics and mathematics in the university departments. This affords more ways for both K-12 students and student teachers to learn.

After the panelists concluded their presentations, the audience and panelists engaged in a time of extended discussion. One of the central questions raised in the dialogue was the issue of standards in schools and the apparent tension between standards and service learning. Education programs must meet the challenge of preparing student teachers for the classroom while equipping them to help youth learn the standards-based curriculum. How can we accomplish that and prepare our teachers to facilitate civic development for young people? Education students must know that what they will be capable of doing is largely shaped by the context of the school. But, within that context they should be proactive with respect to opportunities for civic development. On the policy level, we need policymakers to realize that national standards do not work and schools need community-oriented curriculum. Such a curriculum would lead to a natural marriage between curriculum and civic development. Still, most successful service learning initiatives naturally connect to existing standards. If you focus on the child and the child's development, then you will meet the standards, although not always in traditional ways.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON HIGHER EDUCATION- ASSISTED COMMUNITY SCHOOLS AS SITES OF CIVIC ENGAGEMENT

March 29-30, 2001

Keynote Address

UK Universities and The Social Agenda

Sir David Watson
Director
University of Brighton
United Kingdom

Sir David began with his reflections on the changing role of higher education in civil society from a global perspective and then turned to his views of British higher education. One of the greatest strengths of the university system is the ability to periodically re-invent itself as well as managing the balance between continuity and change. Each phase of reinvention has carried forward previous elements within a changed context. There are various examples of this. Patterns of participation in higher education have changed and as well as their goals in educating their students. The late medieval university produced rhetoricians and mathematicians. The early modern university served to create theologians and natural scientists. The nineteenth century university created civil servants and the modern university has created a whole range of professionals from engineers to teachers and health workers.

The technological environment has also changed. The march of modern science and that of the university have been in lock step. Both have experienced rapid expansions with no clear end in sight. Both have also struggled to maintain what they regard as appropriate levels of resource for the job in hand. Shifts throughout the economy and the public life in general have been both formulated and absorbed by the university. Social expectations have changed as well. Universities have been refuges for the poor and devout, finishing schools for the elite, and engine rooms of technology and democracy.

With greater investments into universities in Europe, came greater expectations in policy related returns. This may partly explain why universities have been able to delay and resist change. Universities have to some extent wanted to be apart from the world of social, economic and technical life and to maintain a critical and disinterested standpoint. With the "Dearing Compact" of 1997 in the UK, higher education has retained its independence, while getting increased financial security, but in return, there is clearer accountability and greater responsiveness to a wide range of stakeholders.

There are epistemological as well as policy currents at work here. For some critics, the advances in the modern society have prevented the humanist vision of the university as the area of liberal and non-technological knowledge. For many commentators this decline is drastic. The belief is that the modern university now has received material status by disengaging itself from the problems of human life.

The main thing that is happening worldwide is that higher education is growing rapidly without a clear end in sight. In global growth in higher education, there has been a 278% in

Australia and in Asia the growth is 412%. Empirically, there can be no doubt that there is a convergence of mass systems of higher education away from elite systems. In Trow's Taxonomy, elite systems enroll up to 15% of the age group. Mass systems enroll between 15 - 40% and universal systems enroll more than 40% of the age group. The problem with these numbers is that it ignores the life long learning factor in that even initial higher education is no longer the initial province of the uniformly prepared young. For example, in Britain, there are a majority of students over the age of 21 have had some experience in school when they start. Secondly, the taxonomy concentrates entirely on the process rather than on output. What are all these students doing?

Looking at graduation rates in 1998, Sir David pointed out that internationally there are several mass systems, a majority in the developed world are close to or over the mass threshold and very few which can be safely regarded as elite. The rates also question the relative efficiency of different national systems. The UK system produces the same amount of graduates into the population as the US, but on very different age participation rates. In the UK, over a third of young people participate, but in the US it is roughly 50%.

There are certain characteristics in higher education that seem to be generic if not universal. The major one is pressure for expansion on economic, as well as personal and cultural reasons. There are certain features, which are almost unstoppable characteristics of expansion. The first one is the challenge of the distinctiveness of higher education as an intellectual or epistemological enterprise. The second is the concern of the maintenance of standards. This is a special dilemma when education shifts from elite to mass (quantity versus quality). The third feature is an increase in "instrumentality." Students make more vocational choices in a mass system and sponsors want to see more economic return.

Such educational inflation can lead to paradoxical outcomes. A simple additive model such as more years in school and higher qualifications increases democratic tolerance as measured through attitude surveys, but does very little for social equality or for improving material life chances. Does competition for education advantage result in more education than we can afford? As in a competitive framework for social position, educational attainment rates are pushed higher and higher.

There is debate institutional status, both stratification and the acceptable limits of diversity in a higher education system. Larger systems always raise questions of relative institutional esteem. Purely market systems quickly produce bad rankings and a rigid ranking order. Other systems rely more on the state to fix and maintain strata of institutions. Usually there is a policing the divide of academic and higher education. The United States and Japan are examples of the market driven model and Germany is an example of the other system.

Finally, there is controversy about increasing costs of a larger system and how they should be met. This usually focuses on the identification of who the real beneficiaries of higher education are and how much they should pay. That issue is usually cast in the marketization or privatization of higher education. There are three counter instances to the market model. Only in the most extreme instances are which students can become consumers and purchase awards and qualifications. Secondly, there are no systems that are entirely independent of public investment. Finally, market failure is reluctantly tolerated. Most of the generic features have been played out between WWII and the 1980s. In that period, USA participation rates went up from 11% of 16 - 24 age bracket, to 40%. Expansion of the UK system has been much more recent. The UK went through its own transition from elite to mass at about twice the rate of the US. In contrast to the US, there is the central role of the national government and of public policy. One result shows that educational policy in the UK is deeply political and on a partisan basis. Secondly, it is important to show that higher education institutions are not warmly referenced in the public press in the UK. There has been much moral panic, even in the British tabloid.

If you want a more socially valuable system, you have to allow it to expand. Sir David shows a chart showing how UK student numbers have expanded in that past thirty years from 300,000 to 1,800,000 students. Along with that chart, is another showing students by mode of study and level of courses from 1979 to 1999. In the chart, the highest increase occurred in part-time post-graduate student. The next chart shows women as a percentage of total home full-time students in Great Britain from 1979 to 1999. In higher education, the percentage of women has increased slowly. The next chart demonstrates the

continuation of full time first year students in undergraduate courses aged 21 and over and 25 and over from 1979 to 1999. There has been a steady increase in this chart.

Ethnicity in higher education and the national population is the next chart Sir David shows. It shows the percentage of minorities in higher education versus their percentage in the population. For example, the White majority, particularly young males, is underrepresented in higher education, while others in minority groups are more successful. The next chart deals with the estimated participation rates in higher education by social class. There is a failure of the system to address the problems of social class in higher education. In the UK, there are five groups based on parental occupation. There is very high representation by the elite in higher education. The proportions hardly change, even though the system is changing. The numbers have gone up, but the rates are the same.

The second issue is that the burden to address the social agenda is unequally shouldered by one part of the sector, the new university (formerly polytechnics). The gender effect is neutral, but in terms of older students, students from the lower three classes, and ethnicity, the new universities are shouldering the greatest load in terms of social change.

Expansion in the UK has come at the price of relative under-funding. The next chart Sir David shows is a decreasing rate of public funding per student for higher education. Between the 1960s and 1990s, higher education was a free good in the middle class. The Dearing Report, completed in 1997, looked at the educational needs for the next twenty years. The report is huge with hundreds of pages. It asked for support for expansion, support for research, greater use of communications and information technology, graduates to contribute approximately about 25% of the price of their courses on an income contingent basis, and stronger regional role for higher education.

The Dearing Report provoked extensive discussion. People wanted a leveling out of the reduction of the amount of money per student. The government took a highly controversial step over fees. They recommended charging fees on a flat rate basis, but maintaining living support for those in need. The government established the flat rate fees, but took the stand on means tests. Accepting fees was a bold step.

Sir David demonstrated the impact of the student funding issues at his own institution. The acceptance of loans is almost universal, almost 80%, starting from 40%. Students are now working for money during their studies, almost 50% working at 15 or more hours a week. Lifestyle choices do of course affect these financial choices. Cars, cell phones, computers all affect students' "need" for money.

Another pressure for convergence is the government's concern on policy returns for higher education. The catch phrase is "something for something." If the government puts in more money, they want to see their social agenda being achieved. There is a very strong emphasis on wider participation and the drive for social inclusion.

Pursuing the social agenda is the development on the inside; these include action on admissions and non-student support and choices on teaching, research, and service priorities. The second is outside development; for example, developments in schooling and on community capability. There are apparent risks in this second option. For example, the partnerships with the community often force universities into junior or secondary positions, something which universities may find hard. Secondly, there will always be voices inside the university stressing ambiguities about the bottom line, when a general social good may not be felt directly.

In the UK, there is a serious problem of the lack of lower class peoples getting into higher education. There is much research in this area trying to solve this problem. Partly as a result, there are good initiatives looking at engagements with schools and communities, trying to make higher education a realistic goal. The higher education institutions, eager as they may be to engage in these projects, need to do some owning up. The first is the danger of using these kinds of schemes as a way to recruit in areas that are difficult, such as engineering, nursing and education. Second, that higher education's interest in the secondary school curriculum has been in its the efficacy as a pipeline of students who would go onto higher education, rather than looking at curriculum's intrinsic values.

Globalization and higher education can be liberating, but can also be very divisive. One of the greatest challenges UK schools have to take on is exposing discrimination in employment. Two slides show the number of graduate unemployment by social class and the extra unemployment of ethnic minority graduates over white graduates. Both

graphs show very high unemployment levels in lower class and ethnic minorities. Even for university graduates, many face discrimination in the work-place.

Universities can no longer isolate themselves from what goes around them. Sir David concluded that the University of Brighton needs to contribute graduates who will work locally as well as contribute to the performance of the maintained schools in the area. This is not just about access to higher education, but supporting the teachers, health workers as well as the entrepreneurs who hold the city's future in their hands. This work is central mission to the University of Brighton as it is to University of Pennsylvania, promoting a vision advanced by Sir David's professor at Penn, Lee Benson, over a quarter of a century ago—the Tocquevillian notion of community empowerment through democratic, collaborative action.

Plenary Panel on Universities, Schools, and Information Technology: Which Future for Education-Democratization or Commodification?

Convener and Panelist:

Henry Louis Taylor, Jr.
Professor of City Planning
Director
Center for Urban Studies
University at Buffalo-SUNY

Panelists:

Lee Benson
Professor Emeritus of History
University of Pennsylvania

Gabriele Mazza
Head of Education Department
Directorate of Education, Culture and Sport
Secretariat General
Council of Europe

Sir David Watson
Director
University of Brighton
United Kingdom

R. Eugene Rice
Scholar-in-Residence
Forum on Faculty Roles and Rewards
American Association for Higher Education

Henry Taylor began by looking at the question on university, schools and information technology. Democratization or commodification? When this issue is discussed it is generally around the question of the digital divide and the process of making this technology available to those who do not have access. Mr. Taylor believes in expansion. Information technology for what? Why is the digital divide such an important issue? Access to information technology is critical. The task and goal is poverty alleviation and the radical transformation of inner city environments and neighborhoods. For much of the last century, the approach to the spirit of this work was charity and philanthropy. This is not a radical transformation of the environment, alleviation of poverty, and the democratization of society.

Information technology in this framework is a tool; an instrument in reconstructing the environment. There are at least four issues that need to be considered beyond the digital divide. The first is the design and construction of a system of information technology that will serve these ends. How will we create infrastructures in communities so that every household has the type of technology and equipment that will take advantage of this? How will we have a system of fast and clear communication? The second is issues of culture. How do you build and construct the type of culture that makes individuals aware of the power of this technology? How do you make them excited to learn about this? The third issue is the question of finance. Where will the money come from to build this information technology system? Priorities have to begin to change. The last issue is the role of university-assisted schools. How do we turn these schools into hubs around that information system? How do we show that technology is not for just the people in the schools, but in the community?

Mr. Taylor goes on to define commodification. This is the access to buy anything. Everything is based on a dollar value. Access is the ability to buy something within the private market place. It is based upon the market economy as currently conceived. Commodification goes against the idea that technology should be given to everyone, especially those without access to it.

Lee Benson began by referencing Ira Harkavy and his paper, titled "Democratic Virtuous University Versus Entrepreneurial Virtual Universities: Education for Virtue Versus

Education for Profit—Saving the Soul of the University, What is to Be Done?” The basic argument of the paper is not simply radically reinventing American universities, but radically reinventing the entire schooling system. Universities are the strategic agencies to do so. The basic argument is that universities should be democratic virtuous schools whose primary functions are to develop democratic virtuous citizens who then will go on to create democratic virtuous societies. The argument made is that the university is the key entity to bring this. Contrasting Marxism, which held that the economy is the subsystem of society, Dr. Benson stated that he believes it is the schools in today’s society that is the strategic subsystem. Battles over the university is where the battle for good society takes place.

The primary purpose of the university should be education, not research. The mission statements of universities say that education is their focus, but this is not quite true. The research emphasis has become obsessional. The paper does not, however, say research is unimportant, quite the opposite. But Dr. Benson believes that the primary mission is education. The argument is that if universities focus on education, there will be better research. Dr. Benson noted that professors should be mentors to students on how to do inquiry, problem solving, and research. The argument is that if universities are centered on that principle, every course in every university would be rooted in some real world problem solving. There would be most impact if the courses would be designed to solve strategic real world problems. All higher education should make solving the problems of education their greatest priority. If democratic universities could solve the problems of their local schools, a revolution could occur.

The next panelist to speak is Gabriele Mazza. The question that is brought up is whether or not this partnership is a good model for practice for higher education. The second question is whether or not it offers lessons in democratization for the future of education in general. Mr. Mazza believes that the answer to the first question is yes. In Europe, there has been a small project on universities for sites of citizenship which extends to a bigger school based project on democratic citizenship. The one qualification is that European universities have less resources for this kind of action. US universities are the envy of the world. However, European secondary schools receive

more money than American secondary schools. European universities are now thinking more about the education they offer. They are seeking partnerships with businesses and local government to secure their futures.

The more difficult general question is democratization. Americans somehow believe that Europe acts as a single entity and when it does not Americans conclude that it is fragmented. Europe is a project without a master plan. There are many issues to address when looking at Europe. The first is cultural diversity. There are many languages and dialects. There are ranges of conditions from first world to third world standards. There are political stabilities and instabilities. The common goal though is the shared future. Second, there is a divide in Europe. The greatest divide is in Western and Eastern Europe. Another divide is the Protestants North and the Catholic South. The last divide is the Southeast Europe with all the violence in Bosnia and Kosovo. The third issue is war. It has been 137 years since the last war on American soil. Most of Europe is has experience reoccurring trauma. The last issue is government. Almost all European countries have a history of strong governments. Citizens expect more from governments than they do in the US, including a minimal standard of education and health. The good side is Europeans have a macro framework for equal opportunity. The bad side is a cultural dependency on authoritarian style of education and government.

The stage is different in Europe and America, but in both universities are being challenged as are K-12 schools. There have always been good and bad reasons for having schools. The bad reason is to train the young in docility and ideology. The good reason is now teaching is centered on learners, active competencies, and greater flexibility. Mazza quoted Dewey in saying that “true education has to be a collected enterprise.” You may get facts from lectures, but you learn critical learning from problem solving. What we know is of no use without action. Schools and universities will survive and adapt, but they need to show their role in democratic education. The strongest argument will be examples. Although the democratic work that happens in Philadelphia may not be perfect for Naples, it is the model of the right kind of political view of action.

Sir David Watson focused on the historical view of the success the university as an institution

has had in reinventing itself to meet new needs. That reinvention is focused on three elements. The two obvious elements are continuity and change, allowing itself to maintain the factors that make it successful, while being able to change those that do not. The third element is restoration. One of the agendas is to restore that social element within the mission of the university.

On schools, Sir David noted that they are critical, and often deciding the factors in social advancement. For example, in Africa you improve health fastest by giving women primary education.

On information technology, it is very important to note it is a technology, an applied science. Universities are scared all over the world. If higher education is not globally entrepreneurial, the for-profit sector will dominate. Sir David ended by warning that people should not get overwhelmed by the future of this. The way to go forward is to understand where you are and to find out what is really going on.

The last speaker was R. Eugene Rice. Rice suggested that in order to change universities, you have to change the reward system.

There are great changes in higher education now. This is the time to attend to this problem. The first change noted by Rice is the changing of the guard among faculty. Higher education grew dramatically during the 1960s. Many White male faculty were recruited. Today they are ready to move on. For the first time in years, universities are hiring junior faculty. More females and minorities are being hired, a silent revolution. They are non-tenured track, full time faculty and adjunct faculty are growing in numbers.

The second change is the pedagogical revolution, started by three developments. The first is information technology and how it relates to the learning process. The second is experience-based learning (or service-based learning). Collaborative learning in the community is the third development.

The third change is the most disturbing. Universities are the field where competitive struggle takes place for advantage. Students, administrators and faculty are all competing. Higher education is seen now as a private benefit, not a public good. There is a serious disconnection with higher education and American society. There seems to be two forms of social rationality. The first is procedural rationality, questions on having to do with how. The second is substantive ration-

ality, question on having to do with why. Our society is getting caught up with the procedural and technical issues of process. We are narrowing our understanding in technology. Here is where commodification occurs. The moral obligation of the teacher is to ask inconvenient questions. If teacher do not have this, there is no education. You have training. The for-profit companies and the corporate universities can do this kind of training.

The fourth change is between the collegiate culture and managerial culture. The collegiate culture is faculty-oriented, peer-reviewed, with an emphasis on the community of scholars and merit. Then in comes managerial culture comes from the corporate sector. They focus on the bottom line, efficiency, productivity, output, etc. They talk about customer orientation, that is the student. The managerial culture is driven by market economy. The collegiate culture is about the academic economy.

Commodification is a problem in higher education, but there is also the collegiate culture where status is big. In terms of the relationship between the university and the public schools, this status discrepancy probably has a lot more to do with lack of appreciation for and neglect of K-12. Although the US is the envy of the world in research, the public schools have deteriorated and fallen apart. The universities have not focused on this problem. This is a serious problem of the university.

Ralph Waldo Emerson asked the question, “what does it mean to be a scholar in a dynamic changing democracy?” There is a tradition there that has developed that is uniquely American. Freedom began to change in meaning, not just freedom from tyranny, but freedom to learn and grow as people, institutions and society. There has been a neglect of schools and multicultural democracy. They are tied and go together. Equality also has changed, not to mean equal, but to also celebrate and confront differences. There has to be a broader vision of the scholar.

Plenary Panel: Perspectives of K-12 Educational Leaders on Higher Education-Assisted Community Schools

Convener:

Laura Pires-Hester

Consultant

Member

WEPIC Replication Project Advisory Board

Panelists:

Virgil Covington
Principal
Winburn Middle School
Lexington, Kentucky

Nolan Graham
Principal
Patterson Kennedy Elementary School
Dayton, Ohio

Terence Johnson
Principal
North Middle School
Aurora, Colorado

Dr. Pires-Hester introduced the three principals as school-based practitioners and generators of emerging theories. Their schools have been participating in the WEPIC Replication Project for at least three years, working to develop elements of Penn's higher-education assisted community school model.

The first principal is from the Winburn Middle School in Lexington who works with the University of Kentucky; his name is Virgil Covington. His school has been engaged in this work the longest, since 1994, when three sites were funded through Penn by the DeWitt Wallace-Reader's Digest Fund (Fund). The other two principals began their partnerships in 1998 with renewed Fund support and assistance from the Corporation for National Service-Learn and Serve America (CNS). The second speaker is Nolan Graham, principal of Patterson Kennedy School. His partner is the University of Dayton. The final panelist is Terence Johnson, the principal of North Middle School in Aurora, Colorado, who works in partnership with the Community College of Aurora.

Pires-Hester noted that the principals will address issues such as: How do they figure out what kinds of experiences will begin to shape and craft their journey? How do they and we spread this knowledge and practice? What have been their toughest challenges?

Referencing W.E.B. DuBois, Pires-Hester framed the discussion in the broad context of critical issues facing American society, namely: "The problem of the twentieth-century will be color line." As we go into the twenty-first century, this problem is even more complex. There are growing changes in demographic context. We

are more and more not just a multicultural society, but we have greater acknowledgement of standing and claiming a multiple ancestries and cultural experiences by more and more individuals. A second trend is the numerical growth that challenges the traditional definitions and understandings of minorities and majorities. The public school is suppose to be the place of access to family and communities and that is the place where the changing diversity confronts people are in the schools everyday. This is the place of great possibility and potential for helping young people and citizens to deal with the issues of diversity. Finally, she states the question, what are the broader impacts that are engaging in this types of partnerships? What will be the products of the work as well? What are the positive impacts for the students, schools, family and communities?

Mr. Covington noted that he has been at Winburn Middle School since 1984 and became the principal in 1990 at the time the state passed the Kentucky Educational Reform Act (KERA). KERA been continuously studied and examined and many people are following its results. Most teachers doubted it, expecting it to not last past the first two years, but it continues. The act has caused many changes, mainly changing decision making from the top to the bottom. In the changing of the decision making, it required the schools to be partners with the community. If there was to be any type of success, working with the community was necessary.

For Covington and his staff the question they faced was: How do you gain trust from the community? Winburn is a predominantly Black community at the north end of town. Out of this small subdivision, students are bused to seven or eight schools out of the community. The Winburn school is not predominantly black, 55% Caucasian, 44% Black). How does a school engage the community when the school does not reflect the majority of the community? It needed partners, in the neighborhood and elsewhere. At the south end of Lexington was the University of Kentucky (UK), a predominantly white institution-with a statewide mission to serve all Kentuckians and under KERA to assist K-12 education. However, until then UK acted on its a state-wide mission, but there was no evidence of north end of Lexington mission. Mr. Covington questioned how can a higher education institute have a mission statement, but not one to a

predominantly Black community in its own city?

Early in 1994, UK began to turn its attention to the north end. They were grappling with issues of: "How does the UK change itself to local focus? How can the UK come in and how can they support the mission of the school?" As Covington noted, higher ed cannot come in and change the school agenda. Kentucky schools were pressed to raise achievement levels, and sanctions and rewards were implemented. Schools that did well academically would receive teacher bonuses. If you were not successful, you could be closed down. UK wanted to help, and the teachers agreed, but they stated that you could not take them away from this focus of sanctions and rewards.

The problem with all these projects is that there is a lack of focus. Bringing in the UK they hoped would help them find direction and supports needed for all students to achieve. UK began sending students to help tutor Winburn students in the afternoon.

If this effort was to expand and serve more students, funding was needed and UK found Penn's WEPIC Replication Project, then getting underway by Ira Harkavy and Joann Weeks. They would fund the school as a community school. Winburn could loosely structure its program on the Penn model. The only hard and fast requirement was to have a relationship between the school, the community and the university. They created the Winburn Community Academy that extended student learning after school and opened the building in the evening and on Saturdays for the entire community. Doing it raised issues, for example, teachers had a problem with other people "messing around with their stuff" if night programs were implemented. This was a legitimate problem and still is an issue today, but they work through it. Reflecting on their experience, Mr. Covington noted that there has to be benefit for the individual teacher in the building. There has to be something tangible for the teachers to see. The teachers have to see that the school is a safe haven for the students and the community.

Nolan Graham began by describing what Patterson Kennedy was like ten years ago. He was a second grade teacher ten years then. The school was predominantly white with the community as almost all white as well. Today the school has 17% White females, 24% Black females, 24% White males, and 29% Black males. Ten years ago the school also had a large population of special

education students, which is currently nearly forty percent. Ten years ago the regular students and special education students never met. There were many misconceptions between the two groups. Some of the teachers had been there for over 20 years and did not want to change the situation.

Creating a climate for change was not easy. There were about ten teachers that wanted to see change. Because of this small group, they formed a group with parents, teachers, and staff. They wanted to develop a mission. The test scores were terrible. They had the lowest scores in 34 schools. Presently, after ten years, they have moved up to 17.

A vision of partnership with the community was emerging. Mr. Graham wanted to create a grassroots community council in the school. Many of the teachers did not want this, they did not want the community in the school. The teachers did not live in the community. Key to creating partnerships was engaging PK's close neighbor, the University of Dayton (UD). Many in the community were scared of UD. It was seen as the white ivory tower. Most of the community did not have a college degree. Once the parent/teacher/staff group was developed, a room was developed for the parents. On a daily basis they have four to eight parents working in the parent room, assisting with attendance and discipline. If others are needed, they are a phone call away.

UD's engagement has deepened from sending two student teachers to three hundred students. This is not just the school of education, but from other colleges and departments such as business, planning and environmental sciences. Technology education has grown enormously.

Much of Patterson Kennedy success also had to do with money and grants. The grants have helped develop new structures at PK. The school before had only teachers who had taught from 20-40 years. A successful school has one-third first year teachers, one-third ten year teachers, and one-third veteran teacher. You have to have the wisdom of the old teachers and the zealously of the new teachers. Any teacher that is hired at Patterson is now required to work there for two years. Teachers loop for two years with their students, i.e., kindergarten to first grade. Test scores went up drastically because of this initiative.

The grants have also provided equal distribution of money. Before, only science and math were receiving money. Special education was often neglected. The WEPIC grants have helped

distribute the money so that all the children are receiving resources. The school has developed a cyber café with wireless Internet. The school is being completely renovated so that every computer will go wireless. So often public education, without the support of higher education, continues the same old curriculum every year. UD has brought curricular innovation, such as project on lead-based paint exposure and risk reduction. Lead poisoning has taken place in many of the students. The UD went in with surveys and presentations to the parents on lead. Many of the parents did not even know of the effects.

Terence Johnson noted that North Middle School has developed two key partners: the Community College of Aurora and the city of Aurora. North Middle School is very close to Denver, in "original" Aurora, the lowest income section of Aurora and one that is experiencing extremely high rates of demographic change. They are approximately 850 students at North. There were approximately 38% African American, 32% Caucasian, and 17% Latino five years ago. Today they are 50% Latino and 40% African-American. There was also a mismatch between the school and the teachers. There is a large prostitution and drug problem near the school. Approximately 75% of the students are eligible for free lunch. They are considered a lower achieving school and had a very high suspension rate. There had been a huge disconnection between the school and the community. Attendance was poor, roughly about 87%.

When Mr. Johnson first came to North Middle School he spent his time in the alleys learning where the fights would take place. There was a fight just about everyday.

The mission had to be created. The focus was on academic achievement. The goals are often focused on how they are doing on standardized tests. They needed to connect their children to the schools and the parents to the schools. One of the ways they did that was to invite people back into the building. During this time they went through a five and a half million dollar renovation. Through the partnership with the city of Aurora, a grant was submitted to plant trees, have picnic tables, and other measures of beautification for the school. Parents, students and everyone was invited. It was an entire day of effort. From that day the graffiti diminished and the fights slowed down. Soon afterschool programs were imple-

mented. Tae-Kwon-Do, computer programming, tutoring club, drill teams, theater and drama, shop club, newspaper, games club, science academy and junior life guards were all created in partnership with the community.

The current impact of the project on the school has been profound. The suspension rate has gone down from 16% to 8%. The attendance rate has gone from 87% to 92%. There is almost no graffiti anymore in the school. The fights do not take place anymore. Student achievement has gone up—25% of the students who took the reading tests had been at grade level, currently 33% of the students are at level. Another impact on the partnership is the leveraging of funds. The funds are coming in very quickly.

The challenges that lie ahead are that the people that are involved often change. Mr. Johnson noted that the goals have to be defined early on. The goal is plain and simple, student achievement.

Plenary Panel: National Perspectives on Higher Education and Civic Engagement in America

Convener:

Ted Howard
Director, Civil Society/Community Building Initiative
College of Behavioral & Social Sciences
University of Maryland

Panelists:

Marty Blank
Staff Director
Coalition for Community Schools

Nevin Brown
Principal Partner
Education Trust
Member
National Advisory Board of the WEPIC Replication Project

Amy Cohen
Acting Director
Department of Service-Learning
Corporation for National Service-Learn and Serve America

David Ray
Director of Community Outreach
United Negro College Fund

Ted Howard convened the panel by noting that while democracy has recently triumphed, as the 21st Century begins, democracy faces some daunting challenges both in the US and throughout the world. In the US, citizens are apathetic and mistrust their government. The differences in income and wealth have been quite destructive. The challenges to democracy raise serious questions. One of them is what is at least one institutional base that can renew and rebuild democracy in the US. There have been such institutional bases in history. For example, the organized labor movement helped to build democracy. However, we know organized labor today has gone down to nine percent of the workforce.

When you look at an institutional base, one possibility is the university. With its resources, intellectual capacity, civic mission, and financial wealth and its partnership with the community could make a huge contribution to democracy and civic engagement. While there have been a lot of negative trends, such as commodification, the time is possibly right to renew the mission of higher education. In recent years there have been some favorable trends to promote this.

The engaged university focuses on the trend, how can our higher education institution best bring about academic renewal in our communities? If universities are to meet the historical challenges facing them at this time, various elements must be present. First, civic engagement responsibility must become central to the mission of higher education. Next, internally, universities need to further develop and use pedagogy that better integrates theory and research that focuses on democratic problem solving and meeting real world challenges. Finally, the whole effort needs to focus on locality and community in recognition that democracy and civic engagement begins at home. In order for the society to focus on democracy, the community must first begin to be civically engaged.

Panelist Marty Blank observed that if universities are an engine for renewal, then the community schools is the place where all this happens. This is where the university, community, parents, youth organizations, and faith based institutions all come together. Breaking down the walls between disciplines, institutions and sectors in support of public education is what he does. The question that needs to be addressed is what is the connection between the work that is done in the

university and the partners they are working with? Education reform people state this is clutter; academic achievement should be the number one priority. So it is very important to gather everyone and build a strategic community school. People need to come with their distinct perspective.

What is then the most important outcome in the schools? Success in school is the answer. If you can get kids through schools successfully, they do well in life. Everything somehow has to be connected. Higher education has a bit of prestige. Who else is working with the local schools? How can we bring about those sectors together? Academic achievement is not the only important thing to measure, but it is an important goal. If work is to be done in school, that has to be the focus.

Mr. Blank next addressed the kind of work the Coalition for Community Schools is doing. The Coalition is trying to get more principals and superintendents on this vision of civic engagement and community schools. They are also trying to figure out a way for principals to get prepared, that their successors have some idea about community. There is not enough skill to build community inside and outside of the school. For years many people have gone around the school. Because of this alternative programs are developed. But the school just remains there separated and isolated. The Coalition is also focused on policy and working on a state framework. Many of the principals feel overwhelmed by all these renewals. The Coalition is trying to make their jobs a lot easier.

Nevin Brown began by reminiscing about what happened twenty-one years ago when he headed the Department of Urban Affairs. This department was focused on how to make urban public universities try to figure out how to be better citizens in the community. If people are really serious in getting higher education engagement in civic engagement, there is a lot of internal work that has to be done, not just democratic, but educational as well. There are some areas where the work has to be done. There are four areas in which Mr. Brown feels there needs improvement. The first is teacher professional development and teacher preparation in our institutions in higher education. We often forget the primary focus of higher education is the preparation of teachers; preparation in pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge are all ways in which people become teachers. Most people have not been exposed to models of good teaching. Nor do we think that

the students in the classroom are going to be future teachers of America. How often do we encourage the best students in the departments that K-12 teaching is a high goal to have? Rather is it more likely that you take the best students and help them into graduate schools. The promotion of teachers must be more widespread, not just isolated in the college of education.

The second area that needs work is preparation of students in college to be successful. One of the key to that is looking hard and seeing what students need to do on the high school level, what students need to do to be admitted to the institutions, and more importantly, what they need to do to be placed in college bearing courses. Many times students may be admitted to college, but find when they take placement exams, they are not prepared adequately. Far too many low income and minority students find that this ends their higher education experience. Third, colleges need to think about their own undergraduate programs. In many cases, it is not clear to students what they really want them to know, to learn, and to take away from the completion of college. There is not talk about qualities of learning. In this area, part of the problem is the lack of modeling of good teaching practices. There is also the lack of focus on two year colleges. For many low income and minority students, that is where they first experience higher education. Finally, there needs to be a serious consideration being educational institutions. Many urban universities employ a large number of local citizens as nurses, aides, janitors, groundskeepers, etc who we never think of as potential students, the parents of students, and other ways they can be members of a learning community. Here is a good opportunity to provide educational chances.

Mr. Brown concluded by describing the educational environment of Alverno College, a small all women's college. He noted that Alverno College has done its best to make sure all the students are learners and civic minded citizens. At Alverno, faculty work is seen as the school's work. Most people say my work or my research. At Alverno, the real work is what they do. Not the individual, but the school. Secondly, Alverno is very public about its expectations and what it does. Students know what they need to have to be successful. Many institutions are not transparent.

The third panelist speaker was Amy Cohen. The first part of the talk focused on what the

Corporation of National Service and the second part on her observations on undergraduates and service engagement. The Corporation of National Service is a small federal agency created in 1994. There are three essential programs. The most popular is the AmeriCorps program, which puts individuals in direct service for an extended period of time in their local community. They also operate the National Senior Service Corp Program which brings Americans 55 or older into service in their communities. Lastly they have the Learn and Serve program that provides service learning in K-12 and higher education. In all three branches, perhaps 80% of programs are involved in education.

The service-learning resource availability is widespread. Under Learn and Serve America, 43 million dollars has been made available annually for the last seven years. Three-fourths of the money goes to K-12 related programs. The goal of these programs is to get students into service that is embedded into their academic curriculum. Service-learning also promotes civic responsibility as well as academic learning. The ways in which it promotes civic responsibility depends on how well the service-learning is done. The quality of the service, the length of time, and how that service is analyzed, discussed, and contextualized is what engenders civic responsibility.

The higher education programs get a quarter of the funds. They fund 57 direct grants. Those 57 direct grants are nearly evenly divided between grants to consortia and individual institutes of higher education. Why does that matter? Through the consortia they are able reach 250 colleges a year to do service-learning and to make sure those courses are integrated into the community. Good service-learning focuses on the community. Service-learning also focuses on making the personal political, to find the motivation for service and civic engagement. Personal politics creates personal responsibility. It carries with it a commitment to join others to get things done. Individual action can lead to collective action and this collective action takes place on campuses. Collective action has to deal with diversity and many of the barriers have to be broken down. Civic engagement teaches how to live in a multicultural world. In short, Ms. Cohen concluded, we need to engage young people in civic engagements that are high quality and meaningful which will lead to democratic action.

The final panelist speaker was David Ray who addressed issues of diversity and service learning. The United Negro College Fund is a consortium of historically Black and private colleges and universities. Most of their students are first or second generation college students. They come from communities that are often marginalized, dealing with critical socio-economic problems. Historically Black schools tend to embrace the idea of service. The idea of service-learning did not usually resonate because these colleges were already used to the idea of service. Clearly there was a language barrier. Many of the institutions felt this was the last movement of the society. Many did not want to participate because they feared being dictated by the outside. Service-learning at a historically Black school does not embrace the idea of charity. They speak in terms of change; how one engages young people, staff, and faculty in service. How do we educate young people so that they are civically active.

What does civic mean then? Does it mean to vote? To be politically active? The whole idea of civic engagement can be foreign to these historically Black institutions because voting and being politically active were not even allowed until recently.

Service learning-provides constructive dialogue. There can be a provision of opportunities for civic engagement. How do you recognize that this way of learning needs to be viewed differently by different people? These are students that have a stake in the community. They will go to college and come back to their communities to help.

There are always assumptions about the nature of the civic engagement. Mr. Ray noted that there is no level playing field when it comes to civic engagement. There are many people who do not see the value of being an engaged citizen. The programs Mr. Ray is involved in are trying to show its value. The idea of what Blacks think of civic may be different than the idea of the majority: civic engagement is not that you have the privilege to be engaged; you have the right and responsibility to be engaged and educators have the responsibility to find ways in which everyone can participate.

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