INFLUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND INTERNAL GOVERNANCE ON THE WORK AND PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY OF PUBLIC SERVICE FACULTY

by

PAUL JACKSON BROOKS

(Under the Direction of Libby V. Morris)

ABSTRACT

Public service work has not been afforded the same level of academic legitimacy as scholarship and teaching. To date, there has been limited evaluative research to discover and analyze influential forces that drive the work and shape the identity of faculty who primarily engage in academic-based public service. The purpose of this research is two-fold (1) to identify perceived organizational & internal governance elements that influence the work and professional identity of public service and outreach faculty and (2) to generate a grounded theory that relates the findings to the formation of self-identity and perceived feelings of legitimacy of public service faculty.

Data from the study revealed perceived social and policy patterns that impact the work, evaluation, and advancement of public service faculty at a Land-Grant institution. These perceived influences reinforced the general findings from the review of literature and included perceptions that public service work is not as highly valued as other academic pursuits and that public service faculty are often working at the fringes of higher education and their work and purpose are often not aligned with the dominant academic faculty culture and priorities.
The data provided a detailed accounting of perceived influential forces and have been categorized into a proposed *Framework of Relational Governance Influences on the Professional Identity of Non-Tenure Track Public Service and Outreach Faculty (Framework)*. Evaluating the components of the Framework may lead to specific recommendations for enhancing the self-identity and perceived feeling of legitimacy of public service faculty and other faculty groups that feel disenfranchised or isolated from the dominant academic culture.

INDEX WORDS:  Public service faculty; Non-tenure track faculty; Contingent faculty; Academic governance; Human dynamics; Professional identity; Qualitative study; Grounded theory
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends. Without their support and encouragement, this dissertation would not be finished. In particular, my wife Kay who provided me with encouragement, love, and lots of patience; my boys Nathan and Adam who pummeled me with motivating questions like, “are you ever going to be through with school?” and, my parents who have always supported my endeavors with calm assurance and devotion.
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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Overview
Higher education holds firm to the notion that it functions under the guidance of a tripartite mission of teaching, service, and research. In theory, these three areas are well integrated in faculty work and are equally important functions in developing human capital for a knowledge-driven society. The blended mission is intended to advance the culture of the academy to further intellectual and cultural values, foster intergenerational knowledge, instill positive social values, and train an educated labor force (K. Alexander, 1976, p. 273). However, there is growing belief both inside and outside the academy, that the blended mission, although an ideal, is not a reality. Internally, there is great disparity among the three academic components. Each area (teaching, service, and research) is infrequently integrated and more often than not competes for value within the higher education system. Within the academy, research remains “job one,” followed by teaching in areas of disciplinary expertise, and lastly and to a much lesser extent, public service. This recognized hierarchy of academic work is reinforced by the reward system for faculty (promotion and tenure), which is self-regulated and self-perpetuating, tends to advance basic research, at the expense of solving societal problems, addressing larger academic goals, and handling the needs of students (Diamond, 1993).

Externally, the general population is asking institutions of higher education questions such as “what have you done for us lately?” The public is aware of the many connections that academic-based public service has had in the past to societal issues, such as science infusion in
agriculture, advancement of the military, public health initiatives, extension services, family and consumer sciences and nutrition. However, today other areas loom large: the troubled state of the primary and secondary schools, the widening gulf between the “haves” and “have-nots”, the tremendous rise in health care costs, environmental concerns, economic development issues, and the demise of small town America. Public officials and citizens increasingly view this disparity as a sign of self-interested, unproductive and unresponsive faculty and administrators. Boyer notes that "one is struck by the gap between values of the academy and the needs of a larger world.” Public service in particular, “is routinely praised, but is accorded little attention” (Boyer, 1990, p. 22). And, in an interview with Andy Van de Ven, Van de Ven states that “higher education (has) become increasingly insular in the ways we define and study our problems, based on limited interactions with people other than ourselves” (Kenworthy-U'Ren, 2005, p. 356).

So why has the public service mission not enjoyed the same level of academic legitimacy as research and teaching, when its impact is significant and is lauded by the public? Evidence from the literature suggests that there are several reasons. These include the fact that service functions have been: (1) misinterpreted by faculty as something different from its original meaning (Birnbaum, 1988; Boyer, 1990; Cohen & March, 1986; Duryea, 1973); (2) criticized for being out of the mainstream of academia (King, 1992; Simpson, 2001b; Weerts, 2000); (3) increasingly performed by faculty who work at the fringes of higher education (AAUP, 2001, 2003; Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Baldwin & Chronister, 2001; Rice, 1996); (4) characterized by multiple activities and programs that are inconsistent and retain multiple meanings (Cooper, 1999; Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land Grant Universities, 1999; Ruef & Scott, 1998; Selznick, 1996); (5) governed by an academic workplace
that is internally competitive, controlling, isolating, and highly hierarchical (Elman, 1989; Votruba, 1978); and, (6) perceived as less rigorous academic work and hence less valuable for promotion (O’Meara, 2002; Ohio State Legislative Office, 1993).

However, the current literature largely has been developed by comparing public service initiatives to what have been viewed as the mid-20th century’s definition of legitimate faculty work, namely, scholarship. To date, there has been limited evaluative research to discover and analyze influential forces that drive the work and shape the identity of public service in academia. Among these forces are the underlying organizational culture and governance structures that influence the work of all faculty, including those who principally engage in defining academic-based public service. In higher education, governance originates from a Board of Regents or Trustees, which is guided by external and political forces. Yet, much of the actual work that is conducted is based on formal governance structures, as well as informal internal structural and cultural configurations that set hiring and firing policies, promulgate promotion guidelines, define the value of faculty work, establish priorities, and shape the culture of the institution. In turn, how the public service mission and its resultant policies and programs are promulgated, situated, sustained, and valued are driven by the larger or prominent organizational culture and governance of a university setting.

In particular, non-tenure track faculty who are principally engaged in public service and outreach activities appear to be marginalized when compared to other types of faculty. Specifically, they do not have access to the same level of internal rewards and privileges given to other more traditional faculty, which in-turn can limit their impact on helping communities improve their quality of life.
Purpose

The purpose of this research is two-fold (1) to identify perceived organizational & internal governance elements that influence the work and professional identity of public service and outreach faculty and (2) to generate a grounded theory that relates the findings to the formation of self-identity and perceived feelings of legitimacy of public service faculty. Data from the study is intended to reveal interpretations by public service faculty of social and policy governance elements. These elements were analyzed to determine how they shape professional self-identity and affect perceptions of legitimacy at a land-grant institution, including the relevance of work, evaluation, and advancement.

The results and theoretical propositions may lead to specific recommendations for enhancing the self-identity and perceived feeling of legitimacy of public service faculty and other faculty groups that feel disenfranchised or isolated from the dominant academic culture.

Using grounded theory methodology, this study revealed the lived experiences of eight non-tenure track public service faculty, employed by a major land-grant, research one university. The research was conducted at unit levels and examined human dynamic governance elements to help determine how relationships and interactions within an organizational community affects governance processes, including organizational processes, leadership styles, personality, motivation, and assessment of work. Qualitative data were collected through one-on-one interviews and analyzed using a constant comparison process. The integration of conceptual data were used to formulate hypotheses on the impact that organizational and internal governance influences have on professional identity of public service faculty.

The guiding research questions included:
1. How do the current internal governance processes affect the professional identity of non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

2. What factors account for receptiveness and/or commitment (or lack thereof) from the institution to non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

3. What are the perceived organizational norms, understandings, and assumptions related to non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

4. What are symbolic measures of success and legitimacy for non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

**Research Design**

The researcher used a contextual and bounded framework to examine multiple organizational aspects of formal and informal academic governance structures, which may influence the perceptions and work and professional identity of public service faculty. Moreover, a grounded theory analysis of the data provided an opportunity for issues to emerge in order to build a theoretical proposition to describe the impact that human dynamic interactions have on university governance decisions and the subsequent impact these decisions have on public service programs. Grounded study is a qualitative approach where researchers use a series of inductive steps to study and compare a series of particular instances or human experiences in order to generate a conceptual or theoretical understanding of the phenomenon being examined (Charmaz, 2002). The resultant theory is integrated from among the data being examined and is expressed in a form that can be further tested and expanded upon (Conrad, 1982, p. 241). Using a standard interview protocol, data were collected from public service faculty who represent the institution’s academic community. In addition, demographic data were
collected to provide a foundation regarding the work, contribution, and symbols of academic-based public service, within a structure of the larger university community.

Since this study relies on grounded theory analysis, it concludes with precepts to generate new theory rather than adopting a particular theoretical context in which to study the identified topic.

**Background**

Although the public service mission is often espoused in mission statements and strategic planning exercises, the commitment to funding public service is often fractional compared to other academic efforts. Palpable evidence for the diminution of public service can be seen in the dramatic reduction of resources toward public service programs compared to research and teaching, the fact that in general faculty are rarely rewarded for their public service contributions, and the popular notion that public service programs should be the self-supporting arm of the academy (King, 1992; Simpson, 2001a; Walshok, 2001). Ironically, public service was the initial heart and soul of American Higher Education. The public service mission, which grew out of the social, industrial, and outreach influences of the 19th and early 20th centuries, was first exemplified by The University of Virginia owing to Thomas Jefferson's democratic vision for a "new conception of college education based on meritocratic standards" (Curry & Wergin, 1997, p. 56). The intention of this public university was that a college education was for anyone who possessed the intellect and perseverance and it opened the door for others, besides the socially elite. However, the distinctively American public service agenda of higher education was not formally a reality until the passage of the Morrill Act in 1862, also known as the Land-Grant Act. This Act of Congress established the creation of land-grant colleges that were responsible "for shaping the character and the quality of the mind… preparing generations for
democratic leadership and… (serving as) an instrument of direct service to the nation” (Rice, 1996, p. 4). The 1862 Land-Grant Act spawned other egalitarian focused legislation including the Hatch Act of 1887, which established agricultural research stations for Land-Grant institutions; a second Morrill Act in 1890, to found “separate, but equal” institutions in the South for African Americans; and, the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, to disseminate new discoveries from land-grant colleges to the public through extension activities (Sandmann & Gillespie, 1991, p. 23). On into the mid-1900's, "public service was not only regarded as legitimate faculty work, but privileged… and the public intellectual was very much alive and well” (Rice, 1996, p. 5).

Moreover, institutions like The University of Wisconsin and The University of Georgia established their foundations in public service and attracted faculty, specifically as leaders in outreach and extension programs. Academic-based public service work helped establish a distinctively democratic mission for the American universities: to instill a unique blend of inquiry, teaching and service to train future leaders, serve the public’s needs, and in-turn support the economy (Curry & Wergin, 1997).

The democratic ideals espoused in the early Land-Grant Act and subsequent legislation stoked the development of public service in higher education; however, the roots of public service were delicate and became vulnerable to new scholarly thinking and professional growth. American scholars, who had been trained in the intellectual capitals of Germany, returned to the United States with an academic philosophy of creating new knowledge through scientific investigation. These scholars ended up having a tremendous impact on the direction and evolution of American higher education that resonates today as research and scholarly prestige (Rice, 1996, p. 4). The prestige of universities became tied to specialization and thus created professional bureaucracy comprised of disciplines from a consensus of scholars in the field.
Within the professional bureaucracy, “professionals control their own work, and seek collective control of the administrative decisions that affect them” (Mintzberg, 1979, p. 56). Moreover, professionalism became the "model" for higher education, primarily because funding became readily available for scientific discovery during the space age and cold war eras of U.S. society. Consequently, what is referred to as the service mission of higher education became less valued. The ideal university became one where faculty focus on discovery, new knowledge, the preeminence of basic (or “pure”) research, and the preparation of students to carry on the same activities (Curry & Wergin, 1997, p. 92).

Even though the land grant colleges formed the basis for a utilitarian, democratic system of higher education that was unique worldwide (Dyer, 1999, p. 54), these institutions also sought the prestige that resulted from disciplinary scholarship and they endeavored to become major research and graduate education institutions. It has been argued that professionalism long ago displaced the democratic ideology of the land-grant mission (Cooper, 1999, p. 776). Current evidence includes the fact that by the end of the 20th century, most of the Land-Grant institutions fell into Carnegie’s research university classification and the remaining land-grants are listed as doctoral institutions. It is clear that the dominant influence on the land-grant’s evolution has been the ability to generate new knowledge and graduate education (McDowell, 2001, p. 6), resulting in considerable scientific advancement, federal funding, and stature. However, some believe this has occurred at the expense of undergraduate teaching and the public service and outreach function (Sandmann & Gillespie, 1991). "From a mission standpoint, the service principles have remained alive and well and are lauded by academic officials as the fortitude of American Higher Education. But, from a professionalism standpoint, the research and scientific
efforts are what provide the prestige and awards within the academy” (Sandmann & Gillespie, 1991, p. 24).

It is the belief of this researcher that university governance structures and organizational culture that are deemed to be the most “legitimate" in terms of academic prestige are replicated by other universities to assure their legitimacy and academic prestige. This “isomorphism” has perpetuated a governance structure, culture, and subsequent perceptions that have effectively usurped the public service mission, even at Land-Grant institutions. Thus, instead of strategically working to respond to the tripartite mission in a rational way, university governance is focused on assuring legitimacy by modeling practices and actions of esteemed universities and disciplines in their field that are perceived to be more prestigious or successful (Kraatz & Zajac, 1996, p. 815). Ultimately, institutions are rewarded based on adherence to those patterns, not necessarily what is mission driven or best for supporting concrete public concerns.

A university’s modus operandi that is based primarily on the concept of isomorphism is contrary to the typical western business-world mindset, where organizations plan based on mission, goals, and objectives and are assessed against strategic measures, such as economic gain, and ability to hold employees. In the business world, most people are given specific roles and are expected to abide by a set of rules or principles so that mission and goals can be accomplished and the work can be produced efficiently and accurately (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 288). Classical organizational theorists refer to this concept of organizational growth as a rational-actor model of organizational development (Selznick, 1996, p. 273). The rational-actor model presumes that organizations operate by a series of goal-driven policies developed to coordinate and control activities and outcomes (Selznick, 1996, p. 273).
However, governance of higher education and "the business" of universities can not be viewed “rationally.” Instead, university governance has been described as an "organized anarchy." Organized anarchy is a "loosely coupled system in which individuals and subunits within the organization make essentially autonomous decisions” (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 241), and there is a constant “power-play” as to which group or subset is most legitimate or powerful. Consequently, there is great ambiguity as to goals, status, and decisions made on campus.

The loosely organized system of governance has developed over time, but flourished with the specialization of knowledge and the creation of discipline specific faculty in the early 1900s. With time, a downward shift of power from boards and administrators occurred and faculty began to exert new found power in the form of senates, councils, and associated committees (Duryea, 1973). Faculty claimed “rightfully sovereign power,” over “the settlement of educational questions,” and assumed primary responsibility for educational processes, including curriculum, methods of instruction, research, faculty status, and aspects of student life related to learning (Duryea, 1973). Thus, university governance, organizational structure, and policies encompass a complex social interplay of human and social interactions. Moreover, mission specific priorities such as public service that may be espoused by administrative officials, can be effectively cast aside if the prevailing governance structure does not support it as legitimate faculty work.

For over forty years, social scientists have developed different organizational theories to better interpret the unique development of organizations and institutions, where many people with multiple skills come together for a common purpose. These theories provide a foundation to explore the policies, work, attitudes, and culture of complex social systems by placing more emphasis on the motivational underpinnings of human beings and the resultant socially
constructed patterns that develop and define the institution and its continued existence (Hirsch, 1997). Thus, structural issues like resources, competition, and authority are downplayed and reinterpreted as socially ingrained conduct perpetuated through rituals and group sentiments that over time form organizational culture (Hirsch, 1997). It has been argued that to illuminate and understand the governance of loosely coupled organizations, research needs to closely examine the social patterns and the interplay of individuals within single institutions. By thoroughly investigating organizational culture through the interplay of individuals within a single case, important inferences may be established to more effectively discern the human dynamics of governance within higher education (Kezar, 2004). Within the field of higher education a short-list of researchers have begun to examine higher education governance from a human relations theoretical perspective. J. Victor Baldridge was among the first scholars to do so. His research focused on the political model and included interests in power, influence, negotiation, and bargaining (Baldridge, Curtis, Eckel, & Riley, 1974). Subsequently, Robert Birnbaum advanced Baldridge’s idea that university governance is formed in large part by successful political processes, which are unique from one university to the next. Moreover, he pointed to symbolic characteristics that become organizational “glue” responsible for perpetuating policies and daily operations (Birnbaum, 1989). Embedded in his research, Birnbaum, openly acknowledged a “deeply human dimension of governance by focusing on politics and symbolism,” and proposed several lines of additional inquiry (Kezar & Eckel, 2004, p. 13). Yet, few studies have moved past the political and symbolic images of governance and most have not delved into the deep analysis of the human elements that impact university governance (Kezar & Eckel, 2004). One of the more recent and prolific researchers tackling higher education governance from a human relations perceptive is Adrianna Kezar (2004). Kezar notes that the study of higher education
governance remains situated in a structural research framework. Even studies that explore the human side of governance, do so through the examination of demographics and quantifiable characteristics. Instead, she argues that loosely coupled organizations, need to be examined at a more micro and qualitative level in order to discover the elements of human dynamics in governance. Through close examination of the human dynamics within higher education institutions, researchers can begin to understand the unique effect that various groups within the organization have on key governance elements such as “organizational processes, leadership development, training, personality, motivation, and relationships” (Kezar & Eckel, 2004, p. 21).

**Statement of Contribution**

There is no known data that explore the governance structure and organizational capacity of universities to effectively initiate and sustain public service programs. If the public service mission and its practitioners wish to establish a more secure position among higher education’s priorities, it is important to understand the governance and organizational processes that currently exist within those sectors of higher education that promote or devalue the public service mission. Careful scrutiny of these processes and cultural norms from an inductive human dynamics theoretical frame-work, may identify organizational inconsistencies to the stated mission of public service. Moreover, the data may reveal built-in biases and inadequacies of organizational structures toward the advancement of public service, in an effort to promote more “legitimate” priorities, as defined by the boarder academic culture. In turn, elements of human dynamics may be identified that both contribute as well as impede organizational capacity of universities to effectively deliver a comprehensive academic-based public service agenda.

The results and theoretical proposition may expose social, organizational, governance, and policy patterns that repress a unique subset of faculty in professional development, affecting
their ability to advance a comprehensive academic-based public service agenda at a land-grant university. Analyzing the perceptions of public service faculty and others, who are not part of the current dominant culture in higher education as to the value of work performed, may provide clues to a larger context of reality and help plan for a more democratic and sustainable faculty. Ultimately, the findings should help communicate how universities can alter administrative structure and policies to better assure future success of its public service initiatives.
CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Disparity Among Higher Education's Stated Mission

Higher education holds firm to the notion that it functions under the guidance of a tripartite mission of teaching, service, and research. In theory, these three areas are well integrated in faculty work and are equally important functions in developing human capital for a knowledge-driven society. The blended mission is intended to advance the culture of the academy to further intellectual and cultural values, foster intergenerational knowledge, instill positive social values, and train an educated labor force (K Alexander, 1976, p. 273). However, there is growing belief both inside and outside the academy, that the blended mission, although an ideal, is not a reality. Internally, there is great disparity among the three academic components. Each area (teaching, service, and research) is infrequently integrated and often are "competing demands" for higher education. Moreover, because the reward system for faculty (promotion and tenure) is self-regulated and self-perpetuating, it tends to reward research, at the expense of solving societal problems, addressing the larger academic goals, and handling the needs of the students (Diamond, 1993). Externally, public officials and citizens view this disparity as a sign of self-interested, unproductive and unresponsive faculty and administrators. In-turn the public has strongly reacted to the perceived disinterest of faculty to social needs by tying public funding to public service accountability (Simpson, 2001a).
Doctrine of Public Service

Ironically, public service was a core value of American Higher Education. The public service mission grew out of the social, industrial, and outreach influences of the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Ralph Waldo Emerson's famous address of 1837, entitled *The American Scholar* was a call for a distinctly American role in higher education based on the foundations of a democratic society. Emerson stressed that duties of a scholar include deliberating on "nature, the mind of the past, and action" (Sealts, 1992, p. 104). In using the concepts of "nature" and "mind of the past," he was advocating the traditional (European) ideals of advancing "well-rounded" socially minded citizens having broad knowledge and skills and a conscious mindset for improving and progressing society. By including the concept of action, Emerson also is emphasizing the need for the scholar to engage in the "experience of day to day living among one's contemporaries" (Sealts, 1992, p. 104). Emerson notes that "any scholar lacking direct experience in society is 'not yet man,'…and without experience, 'his thoughts can not ripen into truth.'" He espouses that if a scholar misses the opportunity for "action" he has a "loss of power," for action "is the raw material out of which the intellect moulds her splendid products" (Sealts, 1992, p. 107). Emerson's affirmations regarding the utility of higher education was not necessarily viewed as heresy by his colleagues. In fact, by that time, the classical curriculum taught at Harvard and Yale had already come under attack and new types of institutions teaching new types of students began to appear (Curry & Wergin, 1997, p. 55). The University of Virginia, which opened in 1824, offered distinct fields of study and promoted Thomas Jefferson's democratic ideals for a "new conception of college education based on meritocratic standards" (Curry & Wergin, 1997, p. 56); the intention being that a college education was for anyone who possessed the intellect and perseverance and opened the door for others besides the socially elite.
Historian Frederick Rudolf records that by the late 1800's colleges in general were grounded in the precepts of American life and "intimately affected the lives of people" (Rice, 1996, p. 4). Rice concludes, colleges demonstrated a commitment "not only to the development of character, but also to the building of community” (Rice, 1996, p. 4). By the mid 1850s, some state universities dramatically reorganized their programs to meet these new ideals. Dyer notes, "more than one state university during this period undertook a reorganization that would take the breathe away from the late twentieth century academician, moving almost overnight from institutions that can best be described as liberal colleges into a new framework that emphasized professional and utilitarian subjects” (Dyer, 1999, p. 57).

However, the uniquely American public service agenda of higher education was not a reality until the passage of the Morrill Act in 1862. This Act of Congress established the creation of land-grant colleges that were responsible "for shaping the character and the quality of the mind,… preparing generations for democratic leadership and,…(serving as) an instrument of direct service to the nation. The public service ideal adopted in the 1862 Morrill Act "matched the mood and needs of an emerging nation” (Rice, 1996, p. 4). And by the turn of the century, the "vision of engagement that marked the land-grant college tradition was not only very much alive but thriving” (Rice, 1996, p. 4). The 1862 Land-Grant Act spawned other legislation including The Hatch Act of 1887, which established agricultural research stations for Land-Grant institutions; a second Morrill Act in 1890, to found so-called separate but equal institutions in the South for African Americans; and, the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, to disseminate new discoveries from land-grant colleges to the public through extension activities (Sandmann & Gillespie, 1991, p. 23). Into the mid-1900's, "public service was not only regarded as legitimate faculty work, but privileged… and the public intellectual was very much alive and well” (Rice, 1996, p. 5).
Moreover, institutions like The University of Wisconsin and The University of Georgia established their foundations in public service and attracted faculty specifically as leaders in outreach and extension programs. Academic-based public service work helped establish a distinctively democratic mission for the American University system: to instill a unique blend of inquiry, teaching and service to train future leaders, service the public’s needs, and in-turn support the economy (Curry & Wergin, 1997). This is verified by the core goals of colleges and universities outlined by the American Association of University Professors in 1915, which included “(1) to promote inquiry and advance the sum of human knowledge, (2) to develop general instruction to students, and (3) to develop experts for the various branches of public service” (Colbeck, 2002). Thus, the legitimate university of the early 20th century was one that was responsive to the public through its community obligations and an applied nature of scholarship to help tackle complex social issues.

**Growth of Professionalism in Higher Education**

The democratic ideals espoused in the early Land-Grant Act and subsequent legislation stoked the development of public service in higher education; however, the roots of public service were delicate and became vulnerable to new scholarly thinking and professional growth. American scholars, who had been trained in the intellectual capitals of Germany, returned to the United States with an academic philosophy of creating new knowledge through scientific investigation. Although relatively few in number, these scholars ended up having a tremendous impact on the direction and evolution of American higher education that resonates today as research and scholarly prestige. One American steeped in the German tradition was Daniel Gilman, who founded John Hopkins University in 1876. The charter of John Hopkins is "perhaps the single most decisive event in the history of learning in the Western Hemisphere
By the turn of the century, faculty started aligning themselves with their research interests rather than with the institutional mission. The scholarly and scientific underpinnings took hold between 1890 and 1910, but became fulminate during the "heady days of college growth" after World War II and through the mid 1970s (Dyer, 1999). During that time money was available for hiring new faculty with the expectations that they would bring departmental prestige through the discovery of new knowledge (Dyer, 1999). As new discoveries were made, some notoriety was given to the institution, but mostly the reputation came from with the specialized field of colleagues with like-minded interests. Consequently, prestige was attributed to individual faculty’s professionalism judged by their peers. This created silos whereby faculty members wanted to be left alone to further develop their interests. Teaching and service were considered a nuisance or hindrance for getting the "real work done" (Curry & Wergin, 1997).

The rise of scientific and professional productivity within higher education had a penetrating effect on society. It was an answer to the "status anxieties and self-doubt engendered by a democratic society…with little reverence for tradition and no class boundaries" (Rice, 1986, p. 12). Professional education became a progressively important way to distinguish one’s-self in a democratic society. It provided upward mobility, merit, and success. Subsequently, a "culture of professionalism" was adopted in the academy and in-turn the rest of society. Within the academy, one-on-one apprenticeship teaching gave way to a teaching transformation, where classes were assembled, lectures were given, and cooperatives of practitioners were formed to reduce teaching loads (Curry & Wergin, 1997). The prestige of universities went the way of specialization and created disciplines from a consensus of scholars in the field. Wick refers to this as "pigeonholing," where people are categorized into certain segments in order to
standardize work and become recognized within an area of expertise (Mintzberg, 1979, p. 52). It is the pigeonholing process that formed a "professional bureaucracy" within higher education. Within the professional bureaucracy, “professionals control their own work, and seek collective control of the administrative decisions that affect them” (Mintzberg, 1979, p. 56). Moreover, professionalism became the "model" for higher education, primarily because funding became readily available for scientific discovery during the space age and cold war eras of society. Consequently, what is referred to as the service mission of higher education became less valued and even considered inappropriate for the university. The ideal university became one where faculty are focused on discovery, new knowledge, the preeminence of pure research, and the preparation of students to carry on the same activities (Curry & Wergin, 1997, p. 92).

Even though the land grant colleges formed the basis for utilitarian democratic system of higher education that was unique worldwide (Dyer, 1999, p. 54), these institutions also worked to become major research and graduate education institutions. And, it has been argued that professionalism long ago displaced the democratic ideology of the land-grant mission (Cooper, 1999, p. 776). Current evidence includes the fact that by the end of the 20th century, most of the Land-Grant institutions fell into the research university classification and the remaining listed as doctoral institutions. It is clear that the dominant influence on the land-grant’s evolution has been the role of generating new knowledge and graduate education (McDowell, 2001, p. 6). And this has occurred at the expense of undergraduate teaching and the public service and outreach function (Sandmann & Gillespie, 1991, p. 24). "It's not so much the failure of the land-grant college to live up to (its) values …it is the ease with which land-grant schools have methodically subverted a strapping egalitarianism as their defining character by uncritically adopting a new-style professionalism" (Cooper, 1999, p. 778).
Public Service Work Relegated to Second-Class Status in the Academy

From a mission standpoint, the service principles have remained alive and well and are lauded by academic officials as the fortitude of American Higher Education. But, from a professionalism standpoint, research and scientific efforts are what provide the prestige and rewards within the academy. Scholarship remains “job one,” followed by teaching in areas of expertise, and to a much lesser extent, public service. Boyer notes that “one is struck by the gap between values of the academy and the needs of a larger world. Service is routinely praised, but accorded little attention” (Boyer, 1990, p. 22). Aronson and Webster (2007, p. 265) believe that “most state and land-grant universities have moved far away from their original mission and are struggling to become engaged with the communities they serve.” And, Andy Van de Ven states that “higher education (has) become increasingly insular in the ways we define and study our problems, based on limited interactions with people other than ourselves” (Kenworthy-U'Ren, 2005, p. 356). Evidence from the literature suggests that there are many reasons that public service has been relegated to its secondary status. These include the fact that service functions have been (1) misinterpreted by faculty as something different from their original meaning, (2) criticized for being out of the mainstream of academia, (3) increasingly performed by non-tenure track faculty, who work at the fringes of higher education, (4) characterized by multiple activities and programs that are inconsistent and retain multiple meanings, (5) performed in an academic environment that is highly hierarchical and not collaborative and, (6) perceived as less rigorous forms of academic work, and hence less valuable for promotion.

First, faculty have misconstrued public service as those activities they perform to help maintain the managerial operations of the university. Since the early 1900s, an institution’s faculty’s involvement in administrative decision policy making has steadily increased as
universities have transformed into complex, hierarchical systems comprised of multiple layers of administration as well as faculty-comprised senates, councils, and associated committees (Duryea, 1973, p. 11). Subsequently, a highly bureaucratic and unique structure of academic governance has evolved "to grapple with the immense task of management" (Cohen & March, 1986). Birnbaum (1988, p. 241) refers to this administrative structure as a “loosely coupled system” of management, whereby faculty, administrators and professional staff engage in a kind of awkward dance to collectively develop governance policies. This ostensibly shared governance strategy has arisen from the academic principles of freethinking, questioning of norms, and insistence of faculty voice in administrative decisions (Duryea, 1973). As faculty have become ever more involved in the decision making aspects of higher education, the escalating time spent in this capacity has been accounted for by faculty as their “service” contributions to the university (Boyer, 1990, p. 2). Accounting for these routine service-related activities, faculty are able to establish a level of professional service, which in-turn dilutes academic underpinnings of public service designed to improve the quality of life for citizens. Serving on committees and public forums are worthy contributions, but are often not tied directly to one's special field of knowledge. Thus, examination of these activities for future improvements and new intellectual understandings are often not pursued.

Second, public service programs are often criticized because much of their work occurs outside the confines of the academy and is connected to business. For instance, within the area of continuing education, faculty have been accused of "selling out" and providing programs "with questionable educational value, simply to turn a buck” (Simpson, 2001b, p. 49). The irony in this criticism is that colleges and universities rely upon their public service units to generate income in order to support other priorities of the system (Simpson, 2001b). Evidence
suggests that outreach is a critical link to keeping state support for public universities strong, even in times of economic uncertainty (Weerts, 2000). This has become increasingly important as state appropriations for the total mission of higher education have plummeted in the last three decades because of the competing demands of corrections, health, and welfare. Therefore, "with many public universities suffering financial shortages, continuing education organizations are widely and routinely expected to become sources for generating new funds to support traditional university agendas” (King, 1992, p. 103). Additionally, while public service and extension units are expected to bolster the other missions of the university, fewer and fewer resources are committed to the public service mission because of the "prevailing strategy of funding from one of subsidy to one of self-support” (King, 1992, p. 101).

Third, increasingly more public service activities are being performed by non-tenure track faculty, who do not hold the same level of academic status as the tenure-track faculty. This fact is also due to the desire by universities to retain professional legitimacy by compelling faculty to spend a significant portion of their time on more erudite activities in order to receive promotion and tenure according to established practices. However, because of their stated public commitment to teaching and outreach, institutions of higher education have assigned many of those activities, such as service learning or field work, to non-tenure track faculty who hold proficiency in particular areas, but are not eligible for tenure. Although there are few records to determine how many non-tenure track faculty are hired specifically for public service, indications are that this is a trend (AAUP, 2001), (American Federation of Teachers, 2009). What is more widely documented is the fact that non-tenure track faculty are the fastest growing sector of higher education and are hired to perform specific tasks related to outreach, teaching or administration.
Non-tenure track (NTT) faculty consist of two major groups: those who teach part-time and those who teach full-time, but are not on tenure-track lines. In 1993, the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) compiled its most complete report to date of part-time and non-tenure-track faculty, noting that part-time faculty hold 38 percent of faculty appointments, and non-tenure-track full-time faculty hold 20 percent (AAUP, 2001). In that report and their subsequent proceedings, AAUP used the term “contingent faculty” to define as a group those faculty who are appointed off the tenure track. The report notes that the term, “contingent faculty calls attention to the tenuous relationship between academic institutions and the part- and full-time non-tenure-track faculty members who teach in them.” In addition, the term “includes adjuncts, who are generally compensated on a per-course or hourly basis, as well as full-time non-tenure-track faculty who receive a salary” (AAUP, 2003, p. 99).

In addition to the AAUP findings, the most comprehensive data on faculty demographics, which include NTT faculty characteristics, have been collected by the U.S. Department of Education’s National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) using the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). IPEDS is used to gather information from every U.S. college, university, and technical and vocational postsecondary institution that participates in federal student financial aid programs. NCES has tabulated IPEDS findings in a report called the National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF). To date, NSOPF has been conducted four times (in 1988, 1993, 1999, and 2004) by NCES and distributed as an Education Data Tabulation (E.D. Tab) report to allow examination of faculty characteristics at 2- and 4-year degree-granting postsecondary educational institutions. These E.D. TABs include gender, race/ethnicity, tenure status, and income of all faculty and instructional staff, by employment status, institution type, and program area. The 1988 NSOPF was not as inclusive as the preceding studies and did not
report separate statistics on non-tenure track faculty status. On the surface, NSOPF data between the 1993 and 2004 reports show that NTT faculty have similar characteristics to more traditional faculty in that they are primarily white, non-Hispanic males (Cataldi, Fahimi, Bradburn, & Zimbler, 2005). However, when the data are analyzed they reveal some interesting trends. First, the opportunities for a tenure track position appear to be decreasing. According to the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), the largest teachers labor union which has recently reported NSOPF and other NCES data in a more assessable format, while the overall number of faculty and instructors has grown by 32 percent over the 10-year span, nearly, two-thirds of that growth was in “contingent labor” (American Federation of Teachers, 2009). These NTT full and part time faculty increased in number from two-thirds in 1997 to nearly three-quarters in 2007 of all instructional staff, resulting in a corresponding decline in the number of full-time tenured and tenure-track faculty from approximately one-third (33.1%) of the instructional staff in 1997 to just over one-quarter (27.3%) in 2007. This represents a 5.7% decline in the number of tenure track faculty over a 10 year period. It is important to note that unlike other reports, AFT includes graduate students in the number of part-time non-tenure track (PT NTT) instructional staff, which inflates these numbers somewhat.

Thus, PT NTT faculty represent the largest percent increase in new hires over the last ten years and are primary employed to fill-in the gaps for increased teaching loads. In addition, the data indicate a continual rise in full-time non-tenure track (FT NTT) faculty to support various academic priorities, but at a much less rate than part-time (American Federation of Teachers, 2009). At the turn of the 21st century, private research and comprehensive universities appear to have had the greatest percentage of full-time, non-tenure track faculty, having on average 13 and 12 percent employed in this category, respectively. Public doctoral and comprehensive
universities were close behind with 10.4 and 10 percent, respectively (Rice, 2004). The American Federation of Teachers, which has analyzed more recent NCES data show that the percentages of FT NTT are even higher. In 2007 they were 14.4 and 16.9 percent at Public Research and Public Comprehensive Universities respectively, and 17.9 and 17.2 percent at Private Research and Private Comprehensive Universities, respectively. Yet, in total, these numbers represent only a 1.1% increase in FT NTT faculty over ten years (1997-2007) (American Federation of Teachers, 2009).

However, the 10-year collective data that include the 1.1% rise in FT NTT faculty, and a 3.7% increase in PT NTT faculty, coupled with a subsequent 5.7% decline in FT TT faculty, makes it easy to understand AFT’s stated sentiment: “the significant shift away from employing tenured and tenure-track faculty members in favor of employing full-time non-tenure-track faculty members, part-time/adjunct faculty members and graduate employees” is “the most notable—and potentially most destructive—trend in higher education…” (American Federation of Teachers, 2009, p. 3). These statistics have contributed to AFT launching the Faculty and College Excellence (FACE) campaign, “a national effort to reverse the trends in academic staffing, documented in this report, through political action, collective bargaining, public outreach, and research and organizing” (American Federation of Teachers, 2009, p. 4).

On the other hand, NTT faculty, especially FT NTT often come to academia with proficiency from other influential professional or applied fields such as health-care, business, law or education (Baldwin & Chronister, 2001), the ramifications of such a rapidly growing subset of non-tenure track faculty is a concern for many reasons. Data from the American Association of University Professors (AAUP, 2003), indicate that non-tenure track faculty do not enjoy the same benefits afforded to tenure-track faculty. Their findings note that “job security, benefits,
and opportunity to advance are the three working conditions that most divide non-tenure-track faculty from their tenure-track colleagues.” Records show that most non-tenure-track faculty hold the lowest academic ranks and are among the lowest paid and lowest in total earnings of full-time faculty, in part because as a group they hold less prestigious academic degrees (e.g., a masters or a professional degree vs. the Ph.D.). Moreover, non-tenure-track faculty rarely receive priority consideration when their positions are upgraded. Their notable professional credentials and experience do not provide them the same level of success as faculty who begin their career in the academy. Data show that they are less often promoted and seldom progress beyond the rank of assistant professor (Baldwin & Chronister, 2001). This is because their academic path to the position may be regarded as suspect, when compared to a more traditional route taken by new Ph.D.’s who are just entering the academic marketplace. The professional development of non-tenure track faculty also appears to be compromised by a lack of fundamentals, such as adequate office space or basic equipment and by ineligibility for teaching awards or funding for research or travel. Academic units that require regular evaluation of their tenure-track faculty, may inappropriately assess or simply not evaluate non-tenure track faculty, since their accomplishments and abilities do not accrue in the conventional sense of promotion or tenure. Not surprisingly, non-tenure-track faculty members are often excluded from the regular faculty governance structure and traditional reward system that is overseen by tenured professors (AAUP, 2001). Taken in total, the data strongly indicate that full-time, non-tenure track faculty lack the resources and power that are granted to their tenure-track colleagues, leading to marginal status and lack of prestige and power in the academic setting. Furthermore, women and minorities are the ones that are being hired at a greater rate into non-tenure track positions (Antonio, et al., 2000, p. 282).
The literature suggests a fourth broad reason that public service is not as highly regarded as other academic pursuits; public service is not well defined or easily classified. This area of higher education has become a hodge-podge of different activities and services and comprises various programs, units, offices, and faculty assignments that are inconsistent from campus to campus. Therefore, very little is known about the faculty who are engaged in public service work, including their demographics and the specific nature of their work. One reason for this is that there is no clear definition for the type of work that public service faculty perform (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 1999). Most people both inside and outside the academy have a fairly clear notion of teaching and research; in contrast, the concept of public service is imprecise and confusing. In 1999, the Kellogg Commission undertook an extensive review of the literature (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 1999). The report noted that there were over a dozen terms used in the literature that described some aspect of public service or outreach activities, these included: “outreach,” “university outreach,” “academic outreach,” “professional outreach,” “extension,” “public service,” “community service,” “professional service,” “faculty professional service,” “public scholarship,” “outreach scholarship,” “technology transfer,” and simply “service.” In addition, there were subsets of service activities that included “service to the institution,” “service to the discipline,” and “private community service.” Each of these terms has been developed purposely to shine a light on specific university services designed to address real-life issues. The manifold terms and activities used to describe academic-based public service work have escalated greatly during the 1980s and 1990s (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 1999, p. 15). Perhaps, this is because public service has wittingly developed various professional subunits in order to mimic the specialized fields in other disciplines in an effort to legitimize its work. Reuf and Scott (1998, p. 878), note that organizations find legitimacy by incorporating widely
accepted cultural models that "embody common beliefs and knowledge systems." Thus, legitimacy is achieved by conforming with these general perceptions that frame the identity of successful structural arrangements and are considered "desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed systems of norms, values, beliefs and definitions” (Ruef & Scott, 1998, p. 878). Legitimacy becomes the "organizational imperative" and the "driving force among organizational actors” (Selznick, 1996, p. 273). Cooper (1999) concludes that this is what has occurred with the land-grant colleges and the original spirit of public service. Instead of the original doctrine of public service being part and parcel of the academician’s duties, this area of higher education has fallen victim to the perceived importance of defining itself separately. It has done so to maintain some form of academic-based legitimacy. Consequently, public service has synthesized its own "profession," which includes its own structure of promotion and recognition modeled after the research conception. The public service "career" encapsulated with its own rules of success and promotion, sits in contraposition to the public service mission. Cooper notes:

Professional, and vocational practices result in academic rites of purification and exclusion and support an academic meritocracy that undermines the populist mystique inherent in the land-grant mission. A democratic ethos inferred by the Morrill Act, in which land-grant colleges were enjoined ‘to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes is everywhere compromised by the ego-satisfying pretensions of professionalism’ (Cooper, 1999, p. 780).

Fifth, there is evidence, even among faculty themselves, that academic expectations are out of balance and the academic workplace is not a "congenial, collegial, and cooperative place,
but rather, competitive, controlling, isolating, and highly hierarchical” (Elman, 1989, p. 4).

Further, "this kind of environment is neither conducive to nor encouraging of cooperative efforts and behavior” (Elman, 1989, p. 4). This lack of collaboration has led to concern that a two-tiered system of careers has and will continue to develop and faculty will trifurcate into “camps,” focusing only in a specific area of expertise like teaching, research, or service. This development could widen the perceived value of specific faculty groups to the mission of higher education and how these faculty are rewarded and recognized within the academy. Votruba bluntly states that this self definition will in-turn serve only to jeopardize the public service mission:

Faculty members recognize that, ultimately, the university has one reward system (research/scholarship) that significantly affects their professional future. This system is based in their own academic department and controls salary, promotion, and tenure considerations. It is naive to expect that any other system of rewards can compete with the brightest and most energetic faculty members. On the contrary, faculty members may retreat to a subordinate reward system only after they have failed to be rewarded at the departmental level. This can result in the outreach division becoming a home for mediocre faculty members (Votruba, 1978, p. 639).

Although there may be several reasons for this lack of collegiality, one reason is that unlike corporate entities, academic institutions are rewarded externally by peers instead of internally for meeting important organizational goals. Therefore, there may be lip-service given to public service and outreach by central administration, but there are very few internal rewards built into the system for faculty to actually produce in this area (Elman, 1989).
A sixth reason that public service is accorded less significance in higher education is the ongoing perception by faculty that public service is less rigorous work and thus less valuable in terms of their recognition and promotion within the academy. O'Meara (2002) conducted a study to help determine how values and beliefs influenced the promotion process in relationship to the assessment of service as scholarship. Using semi-structured, open-ended interviews, O’Meara investigated the perceptions of tenure-track education faculty, and their respective deans and administrators regarding the value of public service work for promotion and tenure. Her data indicated a significant level of pride within faculty with the notion that the ideals of service emerged from their land-grant status. Moreover, faculty viewed service as part of their institutional unity and believed it was a "critical part of their identity as scholars" (O’Meara, 2002, p. 68). However, these values and beliefs were besieged when compared to the desire on the part of faculty, administrators and the institution to mimic more prestigious universities. Values concerning self-image were most apparent in decisions regarding promotion to full professor. In other words, service was important work, but research was what really counted toward distinction and reputation. A second theme identified in O'Meara's work included the belief that service activities and scholarship were not as rigorous as research. These faculty identified research as the "real hard work" of scholarship. These faculty felt that it is more time-consuming and intellectual than service scholarship. Moreover, senior faculty in particular felt that if too much credit was given to service, junior faculty would have an easier time getting promoted and tenured and consequently academic ideals would be diluted.

O'Meara's findings are similar to another study (Ohio State Legislative Office, 1993), which suggests that promotion and tenure decisions are heavily based on research productivity. In this study, three reasons were cited to explain this biased emphasis on research: (1) national
competition for research grants that bolster university prestige; (2) lack of clear-cut standards for judging teaching and service; and (3) a continued existence of a national, higher education culture that continues to stress research publication as the fundamental criteria for faculty work.

**Influences of Academic Governance on Public Service Faculty and Work**

As described thus far, the six broad influences highlighted in the literature that impact the legitimacy of academic-based public service and the faculty who perform this work include:

(1) Misinterpretation of public service as something different from its original meaning.

(2) Criticism of public service work for being out of the mainstream of more recognized academic pursuits.

(3) Assignment to non-tenure track faculty, who work at the fringes of higher education.

(4) Evidence that public service faculty are involved in multiple activities and programs that are inconsistent and retain multiple meanings.

(5) Work in an academic environment that is highly hierarchical and not collaborative.

(6) Perception that public service is less rigorous academic work and hence less valuable for promotion.

In summary, these influences represent a culmination of social and organizational patterns that repress a unique subset of faculty from developing professionally and from effectively advancing a comprehensive academic-based public service agenda at a land-grant university. University governance structures and organizational culture that are deemed to be the most “legitimate” in terms of academic prestige are the most highly valued. The fact that public service and outreach has been usurped by the professional and scholarly ideals of higher education can be explored and possibly restored from a social-system context including intra-institutional and interpersonal relationships.
Understanding Academic Governance

In the Western world, organizations rely heavily on external rewards of economic gain to define success and attract and hold employees. Most people are given specific roles and are expected to abide by a set of rules and principles so that work can be produced efficiently and accurately (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 288). Classical organizational theorists refer to this concept of organizational growth as a rational-actor model of organizational development (Selznick, 1996, p. 273). The rational-actor model presumes that organizations operate by a series of goals and policies developed to coordinate and control activities and outcomes. In-turn, a bureaucratic structure is created to assure that "rules and procedures are followed and actual activities conform to the prescriptions of formal structure" (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, p. 342). The rational-actor model concludes that a more efficient organizational design will lead to better production and greater success. It focuses on the aspects of power relationships and competition as a means for determining organizational direction, vitality and success.

However, many theorists have rejected the rational-actor model because it does not account for the social aspects of work. These theorists place more emphasis on the motivational underpinnings of human beings and the resultant socially constructed patterns that develop and define the organizations. In fact, some contend that the difference between an organization and institution is that an institution has collective values and social patterns that define its existence. Therefore, an institution represents a social order or pattern of human behavior that has attained a creation state or property; institutionalization denotes the process of such attainment (Ruef & Scott, 1998). An institution then is a social pattern that reveals a particular reproductive process. Put another way: institutions are those social patterns that, when chronically reproduced, owe their survival to relatively self-activating social processes (Hirsch, 1997). Viewed in this
context, structural issues like resources, competition, and power are downplayed and reinterpreted as socially ingrained conduct perpetuated though rituals and group sentiments that over time form organizational culture (Hirsch, 1997). In his fundamental text, *The Foundations of Social Research*, Michael Crotty (1998) begins the chapter on interpretivism with a quote from Lewis Thomas: “We pass the word around; we ponder how the case is put by different people; we read the poetry; we meditate over the literature; we play the music; we change our minds; we reach an understanding” (Crotty, 1998, p. 66). Using this quote as an opening, Crotty is emphasizing the attributes of interpretivism, a theoretical perspective, which postulates that outcomes (in life) are socially constructed through "culturally derived and historically situated interpretations." In other words, rational thought and logical progression cannot adequately explain the outcomes of human and social interactions. This is especially true in organizations and institutions where many people with multiple skills come together for a common purpose.

For over forty years, social scientists have developed different organizational theories to better interpret the unique development of organizations and institutions, where many people with multiple skills come together for a common purpose. These theories provide a foundation to explore the policies, work, attitudes, and culture of complex social systems by placing more emphasis on the motivational underpinnings of human beings and the resultant socially constructed patterns that develop and define the institution and its continued existence (Hirsch, 1997). It has been argued that to illuminate and understand the governance of higher education organizations, research needs to closely examine the social patterns and the interplay of individuals within institutions. By thoroughly investigating organizational culture through the interplay of individuals, important inferences may be established to more effectively discern the human dynamics of governance within higher education (Kezar, 2004). J. Victor Baldridge was
among the first scholars to explore higher education from this perspective. He noted that the governance of higher education is "loosely coupled," whereby individuals and subunits within the organization make essentially autonomous decisions (Birnbaum, 1988). His research focused on the political model and included interests in power, influence, negotiation, and bargaining (Baldridge, et al., 1974). Subsequently, Robert Birnbaum advanced Baldridge’s idea that university governance is formed in large part from successful political processes, which are unique from one university to the next. Moreover, he pointed to symbolic characteristics that become organizational “glue” responsible for perpetuating policies and daily operations (Birnbaum, 1989). Embedded in his research, Birnbaum, openly acknowledged a “deeply human dimension of governance by focusing on politics and symbolism,” and proposed several lines of additional inquiry (Kezar & Eckel, 2004, p. 383). Yet, few studies have moved past the political and symbolic images of governance and most have not delved into the deep analysis of the human elements that impact university governance (Kezar, 2004).

“Neoinstitutionalism” and “human dynamics culture” are two theoretical bases from which researchers can investigate social patterns of institutions to better understand their development and endurance of organizational-environment relations (Kraatz & Zajac, 1996, p. 812). Neoinstitutionalists, look for similarities among and between organizations, whereas, human dynamic culturalists look for similarities across individuals within the same organization. Table 1 describes the differences in organizational culture examination.
### Table 1: Characteristics of Neoinstitutionalism and Human Dynamics Culture

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### Neoinstitutional Framework of Organizational-Environment Relations

Neoinstitutionalism (or new institutionalism) is a dominant theory of organizational-environment relations that allows scholars to examine the social patterns of institutions to better understand their development and endurance (Kraatz & Zajac, 1996, p. 812). Organizational success is viewed from a social context including interpersonal relationships of employees, colleagues, customers, and competitors. Thus, "social order is based fundamentally on a shared social reality which, in-turn, is a human construction, being created in social interaction" (Scott, 1987, p. 495). Knowing that an institution owes its existence to human behavior provides an enticing conclusion that successful institutions develop and evolve based on the collective thoughts and actions of those individuals who comprise the institution. And that an organization’s rules, policies, and norms are constructed by consensus opinion. Yet, it is simply not possible to add interests together -- human interests are so complex, a simple aggregation of individual preferences can not explain organizational decisions. "Summing or aggregating them is merely applying a metaphor to a complicated process” (Immergut, 1998, p. 12). Instead, institutions "induce particular behaviors" through internal and external relationships, previous customs, historical successes, current political environments, new laws and property right (Immergut, 1998). Ultimately, institutions will create social patterns that are best for their survival, not necessarily what is best for the common good. Accordingly, cultural norms
develop along side rational business processes. These cultural norms are characterized by "symbolic action," which emphasizes symbols, language, interpretations, and stories that define the organization's survival. These symbols become organizational glue and bound the course of organizational development, oftentimes ignoring or replacing rational rules and policies established for efficiency (Cameron, 1989). By embracing symbolic interactionism, neoinstitutionalists view organizations "in terms of their consistency or congruence with cultural models or rules" (Ruef & Scott, 1998, p. 878). These cultural rules are the true indication of how structures ultimately are formed and which procedures actually are followed. By incorporating widely accepted cultural models that "embody common beliefs and knowledge systems," organizations find legitimacy. Namely, an organization gains legitimacy by conforming with the general perception of identity given to similar organizations. Viewed this way, "legitimate" organizational structures advance services and actions that are "desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed systems of norms, values, beliefs and definitions" (Ruef & Scott, 1998, p. 878). In turn, more and more organizations conform to socially constructed systems and "institutional rules arise in given domains of work activity." Legitimacy becomes the "organizational imperative" and the "driving force among organizational actors" (Selznick, 1996, p. 273). DiMaggio and Powell (1991, p. 70) explain it this way; "organizations tend to model themselves after similar organizations in their field that they perceive to be more legitimate or successful." In other words, organizational fields mimic structures, actions, and practices that are the most successful or most prestigious in their field (Kraatz & Zajac, 1996, p. 815). DiMaggio & Powell (1991, p. 70) state “the ubiquity of certain kinds of structural arrangements can more likely be credited to the universality of mimetic processes than to any concrete evidence that the adopted models enhance efficiency.” Organizations acquire certain
structural features “not because of rational decisions or design, but because they are taken for

granted as: the way these things are done” (Scott, 1991, p. 179). This characteristic is important

basis for its persistence over time and may best be described by the old adage, the more things (organizations) change (grow) they more they stay the same. Therefore, institutional

organizations are rewarded for establishing culturally correct structures and processes, not for the

quantity and quality of their outputs (Scott, 1991).

Human Dynamic Framework of Organizational-Environment Relations

A “human dynamic” theoretical base represents a broad collection of theories that

explore the social construction of organizational culture. But, unlike neoinstitutionalism that

looks at patterns of social meaning across groups of organizations, a human dynamic framework

attempts to explore organizations from the perspectives of specific individuals or from a group of

individuals. In short, organizational success is accomplished through individual motivation and

interpersonal relationships, especially between supervisor and subordinate. This includes tacit

knowledge that consists of habits and culture that are not easily taught or communicated.

According to Nonaka (1994), “Organizations play a critical role in mobilizing tacit knowledge

held by individuals and provide the forum for a ‘spiral of knowledge’ creation through

socialization, combination, externalization, and internalization.” Nonaka (1994) refers to it as an

"entanglement" of knowledge that cannot be codified, but can only be transmitted via training or

gained through personal experience.

One of the more recent and prolific researchers tackling higher education governance and

exploring organizational cultural from a human dynamic perspective is Adrianna Kezar (2004).

Kezar believes that the study of higher education governance remains situated in a structural

research framework. And even studies that explore the human side of governance do so through
the examination of demographics and quantifiable characteristics. Instead, Kezar argues that loosely coupled organizations need to be examined at a much more micro and qualitative level in order to discover the human dynamics elements of governance. Thus, the governance structure encompasses a complex social interplay of human and social interactions, resulting in great ambiguity as to goals, status, and decisions made on campus. Through close examination of the human dynamics within higher education institutions, researchers can begin to understand the unique affect that various groups within the organization have on key governance elements like “organizational processes, leadership development, training, personality, motivation, and relationships” (Kezar, 2004), (Kezar & Eckel, 2004).

Kezar has categorized the broader human dynamics theoretical perspectives into four levels of inquiry, allowing a more precise distillation of research focus and exploration of governance. They include (1) human relations, (2) social cognition, (3) cultural, and (4) open systems. Table 2 summarizes the focus of research for each level of inquiry. Each perspective has been defined in previous work and is recognized as distinct theoretical bases from which to study organizational culture (Kezar, 2004; Kezar & Eckel, 2004). Kezar and Eckel (2004) believe that taken together these theoretical perspectives can help elucidate human dynamic contributions to governance challenges in higher education. Below are brief descriptions of each theoretical base that will be used to help inform the data analysis of this qualitative research study.
Table 2: Human Dynamics Framework

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Dynamics Framework</th>
<th>Focus of Research</th>
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<tr>
<td>Human Relations</td>
<td>Emphasizes how people within organizations effect governance processes, including concepts such as motivation, training, and rewards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Cognition</td>
<td>Explores how individuals and organizations examine, learn and make sense of their environments and the governance structure and processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Theory</td>
<td>Focuses on identifying core cultural issues and determine how institutional culture can thwart or facilitate governance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Systems Theory</td>
<td>Examines how various layers of the organization effect each other and impact governance and institutional responsiveness.</td>
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**Human relations.**

The Human relations movement focuses on studying organizational development through the exploration of individual characteristics and leadership development in groups. Its primary mission is to study the “integration of the individual with the organization” (Overvold, 1987, p. 560). Primarily human relations researchers explore job-oriented interpersonal skills or soft skills of employees within an organization’s structure specifically, exploring a case from a human relations context includes uncovering the feelings and actions of employees as a way to understand motivation, empowerment, and organizational commitment. The premise is that intrinsic rewards or perceptions account for organizational harmony and job fulfillment (Kezar, 2004; Overvold, 1987).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990), refer to these intrinsic perceptions as “task assessments” or personal judgments that reinforce a person’s behavior, ultimate action, or work. Task assessments are fundamental to Thomas and Velthouse’s workplace model of “psychological empowerment,” which consists of “cognitive constructs of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact.” They note that these psychological factors are, for the most part,
deep-seated in an individual’s consciousness and are therefore relatively difficult to change. However, the authors also observe that these internal constructs or self-motivational processes are constantly being shaped by one’s interpretation of (outside) environmental events as well as one’s assessment of their own work over time. Thus, change in behavior happens “incrementally,” as a result of learning and interaction (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

**Social cognition.**

Social cognition explores how individuals learn and make sense of their work environment. The study of social cognition comes out of the discipline of cognitive psychology and allows for research on how people within an organization sort out and make sense of social information. Wood and Bandura (1989, p. 362), note that social cognition includes “the development of people’s cognitive, social, and behavioral competencies” that attribute to an organization’s success. This includes the pre-conceived belief systems that employees have relevant to the organization, such as managerial capability (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

According to Kezar, this approach is useful to examine how one learns about the organization and how much one knows or doesn’t know. It includes learning “structures, paradigms, schema, cybernetics, sense making, cognitive dissonance, causal maps, and interpretations of social phenomena” (Kezar & Eckel, 2004, p. 392).

Viewing governance issues in higher education though a social cognition lens may lead to what Mezirow and Robert Kegan (2003, p. 58) call “adaptive learning,” which is “transformative” and involves a change in one’s “frame of reference” in order to “act on our own purposes, values, feelings, and meanings rather that those we have uncritically assimilated from others.” In short, adaptive thinking about what is truly valued may lead to transformational learning and greater empowerment. It is important to point out that Mezirow and Kegan (2003)
noted that effective transformation only occurs by critically exploring both “objective reframing” (critical reflection on the assumptions of others) and “subjective reframing” (critical self-reflection of one’s own assumptions). Moreover, they observe that for transformative leaning to truly be effective it must also occur “in an environment of freedom and trust” that allows for different viewpoints to be considered (Mezirow, 2003). Therefore, social cognition enhancement should be explored from multiple aspects including, objective and subjective reframing techniques and in a context where trust is considered.

**Cultural theory.**

Cultural theory focuses on identifying core cultural issues and determining how institutional culture can thwart or facilitate governance (Kezar & Eckel, 2004). Organizational culture is an idea born out of organizational studies and the field of management and helps to elucidate the sense of culture over time. It helps to explain organizational values and assumptions that lead to organizational norms, guidelines or expectations that are broadly shared and held as “truths” by the organization (Birnbaum, 1988).

Birnbaum (1988) and others have long explored how culture shapes the governance policies in higher education. Edgar Schein, eminent scholar of organizational culture notes that organizational culture is one of the most lasting characteristics of an organization’s make-up. He notes that culture develops from a combination of (1) assumptions, or inherent beliefs about reality and human nature, (2) values, that include social principles, philosophies, and standards considered to have intrinsic worth and (3) artifacts, which are visible, tangible, and audible consequences that are grounded in the creeds, values and assumptions expressed by the organization (Hatch, 1993).
Open Systems.

The open systems approach to organizational inquiry has been studied from multiple perspectives. Katz and Kahn (1966) conceptualized this model in their seminal work, *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. Using an open systems approach, organizations can be studied from multiple levels to determine how these different levels influence governance and governance decisions as a whole. Senge, refers to this process as “systems thinking,” or examining organizations by dissecting the organization to study various “subsystems.” Each subsystem can be further analyzed into distinct social and technical inputs, processes, and outputs, which together, accomplish the overall desired goal for the system (Boland & Fowler, 2000). By investigating the relation between parts and the system as a whole, analysis on academic governance can be conducted to determine the “interplay of various levels of governance” (Kezar & Eckel, 2004, p. 384). Levels of influence at the system, institutional, college, and department impact overall governance actions and decisions. If these can be evaluated separately, specific components can be deemed as highly influential or underrepresented and can help inform future governance decisions and directions. Thus, exploration from an open systems approach must explore the impact of both the social and well as the technical systems of governance.

**Technical Factors**

Although this dissertation is focused primarily on the social aspects of governance, technical or contextual factors have direct influences on psychological factors and professional identity. Moreover, technical factors can be considered, for the most part, determined by the organization’s policies and culture. They include such important concepts as communication channels and network systems (Siegall & Gardner, 2000). In the working environment, it is
useful to determine how these technical factors can affect the social aspects, including impact on behavior and one's self-efficacy and, therefore, personal empowerment. A helpful structure for classifying dimensions of “technical empowerment” was developed by Herrenkohl, Judson, and Heffner (1999), through the use of a questionnaire designed to measure the degree of empowerment in a high technology company. An overarching goal of their study was to “develop an operational definition of employee empowerment,” which included a set of four broad dimensions that characterized the interaction between workers and their environment (Herrenkohl, et al., 1999). The four dimensions included shared vision, supportive organizational structure and governance, knowledge and learning, and institutional recognition. Embedded within these dimensions were a number of factors that could be measured to help determine a level of employee empowerment. These factors were analyzed and a validity study was conducted to examine them across 28 workgroups. Two of the factors (1) fairness of the recognition system and (2) decisions about work processes, most clearly contributed to discriminating between those individuals in the study who felt “more empowered” versus those who felt “less empowered” in their job. The most significant factor in the study related to how an employee perceives fair and equitable recognition of his or her achievement and included issues such as fairness in reward distribution and recognition of accomplishments. The second most relevant factor, decisions about work processes, is closely related to the first. It concerned autonomy for work decisions and appropriate supervision. Clearly there was a direct correlation between supervisors, who understood an employee’s line of work and who provided autonomy in decision-making, and employees who felt more empowered. It is interesting to note that other technical factors deemed less or not significant to empowerment included risk taking, working in teams, quality of work, and company success among others. In summary, technical factors are
important aspects to consider when analyzing the human dynamics impact in shaping professional identity.

**Interplay of Human Dynamic Framework on Professional Self Identity**

It is the premise of this research that the interplay of influential forces defined in human relations, social cognition, cultural, and open systems models, as well as technical factors, shape the professional identity of public service faculty, affecting their ability to advance a comprehensive academic-based public service agenda at a land-grant university. Brewer and Gardner (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) present a useful model to connect perceptions of an individual’s self-identity of how individuals define themselves in terms of their relationships to others and to social groups. Their model, borne out of experimental data from one hundred undergraduate psychology students, resulted in the identification of three levels of self-identities: personal self, relational self, and collective self. Each level of self-identity represents a “distinct form of self representation with different origins, sources of self-worth, and social motivations” (Brewer & Gardner, 1996, p. 83). The model is useful to assign degrees of “individuation and differentiation of the self from others (in a group) to promote assimilation and unit formation” (Brewer & Gardner, 1996, p. 91). According to Brewer and Gardner, individuals obtain self-identity in large part from their relationships with others and their immersion within various social groups. The personal self construct is one that focuses on discovering the uniqueness of an individual by exploring differences of self from all others. The relational self is dependent on interpersonal relationships that are most often “dyadic,” including intimate relationships like those of a spouse or parent-child, or more formal dependent relations like boss-subordinate. In addition, they may include group relations like memberships in small face to face groups. Collective self identities do not require intimate or closely associated personal relationships; but,
are formed from common connections and shared characteristics within a defined group or social category. This is most often seen in the form of professional groups or disciplines. The concept of self-identity viewed along a continuum (personal-relational-collective) may be useful in closely inspecting the professional identity of public service faculty. Moreover, by identifying and exploring likely influences on the progression of self-identity, it may be possible to find ways to enhance the self-identity of professional groups, especially those groups which appear to be disassociated from the dominant working culture.

In summary, the review of literature provides substantial evidence that academic-based public service work is less valued than other academic pursuits. Furthermore, this work is often performed by non-tenure track faculty, who may be judged inferior in the academic setting when compared to traditional tenure track faculty. Multiple historical, organizational, and cultural influences contribute to this phenomenon. Closer inspection of human dynamic interactions and perceptions among public service faculty may reveal social, organizational, governance, and policy patterns that affect a unique subset of faculty from developing professionally and from effectively advancing a comprehensive academic-based public service agenda at a land-grant university.
CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Introduction

The site for this qualitative study is Research Land-Grant University (RLGU), a major land-grant, research one university that hires public service faculty for non-tenure track appointments to perform academic work to help meet the service mission of the university. The literature notes that both being focused on public service and holding a non-tenure track appointment are disadvantageous faculty positions, when compared to the 20th and early 21st century notion of higher education, which is highly committed to scientific research and tenure.

The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore perspectives of one group of employees, non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty, who are employed full-time by RLGU, in order to gain their views regarding their professional identities and to detect potential entrenched impediments to their academic-based work. This study is not focused on the bureaucratic and structural impact of governance, but instead explores the interpretation of human relations by one group of faculty and perceived governance implications on their academic work. Specifically, this research explores perceived organizational and internal governance elements like direct lines of authority, roles, procedures, and decision making processes that influence the work and professional identities of public service and outreach faculty.

The results and theoretical proposition may expose social, organizational, governance, and policy patterns that repress a unique subset of faculty in professional development, affecting
their ability to advance a comprehensive academic-based public service agenda. Data analysis provides specific recommendations for enhancing the self-identity and perceived feeling of legitimacy of public service faculty and other faculty groups that feel disenfranchised or isolated from the dominant academic culture.

Using grounded theory methodology, this study revealed the lived experiences of eight non-tenure track public service faculty, employed by a major land-grant, research one university. The research was conducted at unit levels and examined human dynamic governance elements to help determine how relationships and interactions within an organizational community affects governance processes, including organizational processes, leadership styles, personality, motivation, and assessment of work. Qualitative data were collected through one-on-one interviews and analyzed using a constant comparison process. The integration of conceptual data were used to formulate hypotheses on the impact that organizational and internal governance influences have on professional identities of public service faculty.

Background

RLGU is designated as both a land and sea grant university. Based on Fall 2009 statistics it comprises sixteen schools and colleges, which collectively offers over 20 baccalaureate degrees in more than 140 disciplines, over 50 graduate degrees (masters, specialist, and doctorate) in more than 150 disciplines, and four professional doctoral degrees. Student enrollment is over 30,000 and comprise roughly 75% undergraduates and 25% graduate and professional students. Administratively, RLGU has a President, and a Senior Vice President for Academic Affairs and Provost, who report to the president; three additional Senior Vice Presidents, who report to the President; and, six Vice Presidents, who report to the Senior Vice President for Academic Affairs and Provost.
RLGU has eight different faculty categories that serve the teaching, research, and service mission of the university. These include an academic tenure-track faculty category, and seven different non-tenure track faculty lines. Only the academic rank has an opportunity for both promotion and tenure. The remaining faculty tracks provide opportunities for promotion, but not tenure. Each track was designed to meet the unique needs of a large and diverse university setting. Consequently, each track has distinct appointment and promotion guidelines that correspond to particular academic responsibilities and the process is managed by an appropriate Vice President’s unit.

In Fall 2008, there were 3,311 personnel holding a paid faculty assignment at RGLU, of which 2,832 were full time (85.5%) and 479 were part-time (14.5%). Of the 2,832 full-time faculty in 2008, 1,751 (62%) were tenured or on tenure track, while 1,081 (38%) held a non-tenure track faculty position. Public Service Faculty were the largest group of full time non-tenure track faculty. Collectively this faculty category comprised 555 individuals, or 51% of non-tenure track faculty, and roughly 20% of the entire faculty body (Appendix A).

Public Service Faculty

According to information distributed by the Office of the Vice President for Public Service and Outreach, public service faculty are expressly hired to help fulfill the public service and outreach mission expected of a large state-supported university, particularly one designated “Land–Grant” and charged with “developing and carrying out educational programs of outstanding quality for the State…and beyond.” In particular, public service faculty work to apply “knowledge through research, teaching, and technical assistance” to address “problems confronting today’s ever-changing and increasingly complex society.” Typically they focus their efforts on the application of technical skills and practical knowledge over conventional scientific
Administration of RLGU’s service and outreach program constitutes a “mixed approach.” Some programs are located and managed directly from the colleges, schools, degree-granting institutes, and research intensive centers. However, the majority of programs are affiliated with Cooperative Extension Service or are separately administered and budgeted in stand-alone public service and outreach units, but with direct ties with one or more academic departments, schools and colleges for programmatic purposes (University of Georgia, 2009b).

In Fall 2008, 56 public service faculty (10% of all public service faculty) were located in academic degree-granting or teaching units including RLGU’s 16 colleges and schools, as well as its teaching and research institutes, centers, and research experiment stations (University of Georgia, 2008a). With the exception of one college, all of RLGU’s schools and colleges employed or appointed at least one full-time public service faculty member in their unit. Seven of the 56 were affiliated with three academic institutes, and six worked in Research Experiment Stations throughout the state. Eleven of the 56 faculty held graduate faculty status. Primarily, these faculty managed or assisted in the operation of academic-centered public service initiatives. It is through this collective group of faculty and their program connections with schools, colleges, institutes, and experiment stations that the university’s public service and outreach operations have the most direct collegial collaboration with the academic, tenure-track faculty at RLGU. In theory, these public service faculty and programs are directly integrated with the teaching and research functions of these academic units (University of Georgia, 2008c).

A significantly larger group of 134 public service faculty (24% of all public service faculty) administered programs from eight stand-alone public service and outreach units of the University. These units include an Institute of Government, an Institute of Leadership, an
Continuing Education Conference Center and Hotel, an Office of International Public Service and Outreach, an Office of Service-Learning, a Marine Extension Service Unit, a Small Business Development Center, and a State Botanical Garden. Each of these centers and institutes are separately budgeted from the academic units, but in some cases have direct ties with one or more academic departments, schools and colleges for programmatic purposes. Moreover, four additional institutional units, including the River Ecology Laboratory, the University Library System, The University Publishing house, and The University’s Center for Performing Arts have, at times, hired public service faculty to help meet their outreach obligations. Overall the mission of these stand-alone service units is to utilize these faculty as key experts to provide needs assessment, program development, training, consultation, and technical assistance directly to individuals, communities, organizations, and public agencies (University of Georgia, 2008a).

By far the majority of public service faculty (365 or 66% of all public service faculty) work for the cooperative extension service as county extension officers and representatives. At RLGU, there are three broad cooperative extension program areas, including Agriculture and Natural Resources, 4-H Youth, and Family and Consumer Sciences. These programs, which are exclusively provided by the state's designated land-grant universities, are administered at RLGU by a complex network of administrative deans, district heads, and program directors that are associated with the College of Agriculture and Environment Sciences and/or the College of Family and Consumer Sciences. One hundred and seventy offices are divided among four districts thought the state. District headquarters, including a district head, program development specialists and clerical support, are located in each district to administer, coordinate and support the extension agents (University of Georgia, 2008a).
Public Service Faculty Appointment and Promotion Guidelines

RLGU is unique in that it has a separate faculty structure for those who are primarily hired and promoted to administer the outreach endeavors of the university. A literature review indicates that other major Land-Grant institutions have not developed this type of promotion system of incentives and rewards for faculty primarily engaged in public service endeavors, which includes those professionals who serve as county agents for the cooperative extension program.

Essentially, there are two ways for providing a career and promotion ladder for public service and outreach faculty of RLGU. The most common approach for these faculty is to use the Guidelines for Appointments and Promotion of Public Service and Outreach Academic Rank (University of Georgia, 2009a), which most clearly reflect the various types of public service and outreach functions expected for career advancement in these areas of academic work. Specialized duties, definitions and criteria that directly relate to the professional services performed by public service and outreach faculty are used to assess appointment and promotion. These can “differ from those performed by (tenure-track) teaching and research faculty in ways that make the traditional criteria for appointment and promotion inadequate or inappropriate” (University of Georgia, 2009a).

At the same time, some of RLGU’s colleges provide the opportunity for faculty who primarily perform public service scholarship to use the traditional (tenure-track) academic rank ladder. This option is possible when appointments are in certain departments of degree-granting schools and colleges. In these cases, “the traditional academic rank career ladder, with some adaptations of criteria, may be appropriate to meet the needs of some public service and outreach
faculty,” especially when “many functions are common to both academic faculty and public service and outreach faculty” (University of Georgia, 2008b).

Research Questions

Because of differences in title and work to the recognized norm, tenure ineligible public service faculty appear to experience inequalities with regards to promotion, rewards, recognition, resources, and power, when compared to their tenure-track colleagues, as shown by the review of literature. Even though these inequalities are documented, perceptions about the value of the work that public service faculty perform for the university has not been extensively studied.

The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore one group of employees, non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty who are employed full-time by a major land-grant, research one university, in order to gain their perspectives regarding their professional identities and to detect perceived entrenched impediments to their academic-based work. Specifically, this research explores perceived organizational and internal governance elements that influence the work and professional identity of public service and outreach faculty. Through close examination of human dynamics, the results and theoretical proposition of this study may expose social, organizational, governance, and policy patterns that repress a unique subset of faculty from developing professionally and from effectively advancing a comprehensive academic-based public service agenda at a land-grant university.

These interviews are explored individually and then as a combined analysis from a sociocultural perspective. Collective memory can be analyzed from the perspective of individual narrative organization. According to Wertsch and Roediger (2008, p. 318), collective narratives can provide a “sociocultural context” of the past, if and when members of a group “share a similar set of cultural tools.” These tools can include knowledge, experiences, dates, places,
practices, and similar relationships. This study focuses on the relationship between the participants' memories of individual experiences within a contextual framework that includes common “tools,” and “ground rules” employed by the shared workplace.

Using a theoretical base that asserts that each person develops (or constructs) his or her belief system based on influences of personal experiences, thoughts, and interactions, this research analyzes public service faculty’s own perceptions of their academic work. Analysis of these data may help elucidate how organizational culture and internal governance influence their work and career in a traditional academic setting. The findings could lead to further exploration of public service faculty and other non-tenure track faculty in terms of career development and professional identity.

The guiding research questions for this investigation include:

1. How does the current (internal) governance process affect the professional identity of non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

2. What factors account for receptiveness and/or commitment (or lack thereof) from the institution to non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

3. What are the organizational norms, understandings, and assumptions held by non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

4. What are symbolic measures of success and legitimacy for non-tenure track public service and outreach faculty?

Participant Selection

It was determined from the out-set to focus the participant selection for this research on non-tenure track public service faculty who were employed by an academic unit, instead of those working for a particular public service center or for the Cooperative Extension Service. Since
public service faculty are a distinct minority within academic schools colleges, this environment was to determined to be the most suitable to address the research questions of this study. Moreover, public service faculty who work in public service based institutions and centers and for the Cooperative Extension Service are often decentralized from schools and colleges or located off-campus; thus, the researcher felt that they may have fewer experiences to reflect upon with regard to day-to-day interactions with academic faculty and administrators and other campus exchanges.

For this research study, the investigator conducted in-person a 60-90 minute, semi-structured interview with eight individuals. Each participant had the common characteristic of holding a non-tenure track public service faculty appointment, five at the associate level (equivalent to associate professor level in the traditional academic track) and three at the senior level (equivalent to professor level in the traditional academic track). The eight participants were chosen from an initial pool provided to the investigator by the office of the vice president for public service and outreach, which retains records of public service appointments, including names, titles and contact information. After receiving the list, the investigator developed three inclusion criteria to narrow the available public service faculty according to those whom he felt would have an informed perspective to best respond to the research questions. These included:

1. currently holding a full-time non-tenure public service rank at the associate or senior level;
2. having held a faculty position with RLGU for at least 4 years; and,
3. being employed by an academic unit of RLGU (i.e., exclusive of Cooperative Extension)

Holding a position for at least four years at RLGU and interviewing at the associate level or above assured that the faculty interviewed held an impression of the university based on
longevity and had already thought about their contributions to higher education, since they would have put together a dossier for appointment or promotion at that level. Although there was no target age identified, the researcher planned to find public service faculty who were at least mid-career, confirmed through promotion. Additionally, the researcher felt it was preferable to include a mix of male and female interviewees to help determine if the preliminary data revealed any differences in perceptions by gender.

Using the inclusion criteria, the initial list acquired from the vice president’s office was reduced to twelve, with potential subjects identified from a cross section of schools and colleges. An initial email request was sent to the potential participants explaining the purpose of the study and determining a willingness to participate. The majority of potential candidates responded quickly and positively. Three never responded, even after a second email was sent. One responded positively after a second attempt. In total, nine participants agreed and were selected from seven different academic schools or colleges, including three from applied science areas, three from natural resources areas, and three from social science areas. However, one person who worked in an applied science school decided later not to participate and was not interviewed. Thus, eight participants were eventually interviewed for this research.

After identifying appropriate and willing participants, each was contacted a second time by email to confirm their commitment to the 60-90 minute audio taped interview, to negotiate an interview time and place, and to attach a copy of the consent form (Appendix B). Each participant had at least three days to review the consent form and ask any questions prior to the interview. A follow-up phone call was made one day prior to the interview to confirm the time and determine if there were any concerns or questions about the study or the consent form.
Description of Participants

Participant one (P1) is at the associate level in an applied professional school. He has worked for the same academic unit for more than five years. He holds the MS degree and has been an active practitioner in his profession, serving on national and international boards prior and during his current position.

Participant two (P2) is at the senior level in a social sciences school. She has worked at RLGU for over ten years in the same general discipline. Having served as a practitioner in her field, she returned to school to obtain the Ph.D. degree. She has held faculty position at another institution prior to RLGU.

Participant three (P3) is at the associate level in a natural resources school. He has worked for the same academic unit for more than ten years. He holds the MS degree and prior to his academic appointment at RLGU he worked almost two decades in state, national and international agencies.

Participant four (P4) has worked at RLGU at the associate level for roughly five years in a natural science area. Having served as a practitioner in his field for twenty-plus years he returned to school to obtain the Ph.D. degree. He has held several positions in management and consulting.

Participant five (P5) is at the associate level, working for a college of applied natural sciences for over ten years. P5 possesses the Ph.D. and has several decades of experience in both the academic and business world, as business owner and corporate executive, and as a department head and dean at another research university.

Participant six (P6) holds the senior level public service appointment at a large social science college. She worked close to fifteen years in her chosen profession prior to obtaining the
Ph.D. degree. After obtaining her doctorate, she was hired by RLGU where she has worked for roughly five years.

Participant seven (P7) is at the senior level public service appointment at a large social science college. She worked in an applied arts profession for many years prior to obtaining the Ph.D. degree in social sciences. After obtaining her doctorate, she was hired by RLGU in different units, including her current department, where she has worked close to ten years.

Participant seven (P8) is at the associate level. She holds a professional doctorate and a master degree. She worked in both private and public agencies for over ten years prior to her current faculty appointment at a natural sciences college of RLGU. She has served in this position for approximately ten years.

Two of the eight interviews were conducted in a 12-seat conference room provided by the investigator, two were conducted in a private conference area chosen by the participants and located within their home building, and four interviews were conducted in the participant’s office. In all cases, the setting was a comfortable, private and business-like location to conduct the interview. Each interview in this study was conducted using a semi-structured interview protocol. The semi-structured interview was appropriate because it assured a level of consistency among responses from the public service faculty, while at the same time the process allowed some freedom for the interviewee to talk about his or her unique lived experience and insights. Thus, the selection of a semi-structured interview process generated raw data that could be analyzed for commonalities and differences among a similar population and allowed for new topics to emerge based on the participants’ individualized experiences with their different academic units (Patton, 2002, p. 344). Prior to the interviews, the investigator developed a series of interview questions consistent with a semi-structured interview approach. The
interview questions were refined based on the process developed by Mason. (2002). Each research question was examined closely to determine if it could be subdivided into more specific research questions. This process led to a fairly long list of potential interview questions that were related to the research questions. Over time the interview questions were refined, further categorized, and cross-referenced against the research questions to make sure each correlated to the intent of at least one of the research questions. At this point many of the questions were eliminated because the researcher determined they did not directly contribute to finding an answer to the research questions. The list of questions was reduced from twenty-four to ten (Appendix C). However, three of the ten questions, which did not directly correlate to the research questions, were maintained as “optional questions.” The optional questions were intended to be “nice to know” questions and asked only if time permitted. Using Patton’s guidelines (2002), the final list of questions was categorized and sequenced in a way that seemed to make sense with regard to a typical flow of information. This included having a couple of background/demographic questions followed by experience/behavior questions, and lastly questions focused on opinion and on perception. Moreover, probing questions were added during the interview to elicit more fully described responses to the open ended questions. In order to maintain smooth conversation transitions, questions were chosen from the list that seemed the most appropriate for advancing the conversation in a logical way.

Disclosure

The investigator for this study holds a non-tenured, public service associate appointment; thus, he professionally represents the same type of faculty member that he interviewed. This fact was fully disclosed to all participants. Therefore, the background and the findings are familiar to him and he came to this research with certain defined ideas including a feeling that
public service academic work commonly is not valued as highly as other academic initiatives, especially from a budget stand-point. When funding is diminished, often the public service programs are the ones that are cut most severely or eliminated, even for a land-grant institution. Moreover, having served on numerous university committees it seemed apparent that there is a discrepancy with regards to how public service faculty are represented in the university governance structure. Namely, there remains confusion with regards to their status as faculty and their ability to represent the school and college through voting rights, and teaching assignments. In large part, this has to do with the debate over the growth in non-tenure track positions compared with tenure track positions and the belief held by many in higher education that there is a potential loss of academic integrity when a large number of faculty are employed, who are not eligible for tenure.

Even though the researcher is able to relate to the participants as a public service faculty member, he believes the data supports the opinions of the participants and that the results obtained from this study are based on an accepted qualitative methodology so that the analysis is grounded in the participants’ perspectives and not his own.

Data Collection

Data were captured using two audio-recorders and supplemental handwritten notes. The notes were mostly a listing of points that the interviewer had recorded to remind himself to return to an issue during the interview for further exploration. These included quotes of descriptive phases that seemed to be important to the context of the interview or specifically meant something to the participants. Each interview was fully transcribed within twenty-one days after the interview. Within the transcripts, names of people and departments were exchanged with pseudonyms to help assure confidentiality among participants. In order to increase validity to the
study, a peer-debriefer reviewed five of the eight transcripts to help ensure that the interview questions were appropriate for getting at the intent of the research questions and to provide suggestions for improvement for subsequent interviews. For this assignment, a grounded theory methodological approach was employed to analyze the interview data. The researcher used several publications on grounded theory to guide the analysis process for this study (Charmaz, 2002; Conrad, 1982; Glaser & Holton, 2004; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002; Pidgeon & Henwood, 2004; Tesch, 1990). The first step of analysis was a process of open coding. This involved reading each transcript thoroughly, so the researcher could refresh his memory as to the dialogue and content of the interview. During a second reading each separate response expressed by the interviewee was treated as a segment of data and was analyzed for key points or expressions. These key points were circled with a pen directly on the transcript document and these became a series of “data bits” for further exploration. The data bits identified as key were potentially meaningful units that included single words, phrases, metaphors, and discussion fragments. The decision on which data bits to include for analysis were based on criteria defined by Merriam (1998). Merriam notes that a potentially meaningful unit of data should meet specific criteria. First, it should “reveal information relevant to the study,” second it should “stimulate the reader to think beyond the particular bit of information,” and third, “the unit should be the smallest piece of information about something that can stand by itself” (Merriam, 1998, p. 179).

Next, working with the data bits in a separate document, a series of categories were developed. The categories were labeled as a phrase that seemed to succinctly describe the phenomena that was being expressed in the data segments. Each category label was formed by the researcher asking himself the question: “what was the participant trying to convey in his response?” (Pidgeon & Henwood, 2004, p. 628). New categories were formed when previous
ones did not convey an appropriate meaning. After each data bit was assessed, 34 categories (and subcategories) emerged (Appendix C). The data bits were then rearranged so that they were grouped together into one document. While developing the categories during the open coding process, the researcher also began to determine themes that seemed to emerge from the data as the categories were created. These themes or ideas were transcribed as “memos,” with the intent of more fully describing the meaning of a category or summarizing a potential connection between categories. These memos became the basis for a rudimentary representation of the analysis process.

Lastly, the themes or memos from each participant's experience of a specific phenomenon were compared with the other participants' experiences of the same phenomenon. Tesch (1990) refers to this process as de-contextualization and re-contextualization. In de-contextualization certain passages in the interview are taken out of order and “knitted together” or re-contextualized in a new text that contains sections from the other interviews related to the same phenomena. This process helps identify similarities and differences in the data so that they can be interpreted within a context that builds the theoretical framework.

In summary, the qualitative methodology and data analysis provide a collective representation of participants' stories centered on broad themes, while maintaining distinctiveness through phenomenological accounting of actual responses. From this analysis, a substantive theoretical base was created. Taken as a whole, this research will contribute to understanding the world in which public service, non-tenure track faculty work. By interpreting the perceptions and experiences of this unique subset of faculty in relation to the larger cultural domain, organizational and internal governance influences may be identified that positively or
negatively impact the professional identity and subsequent academic-based work of these faculty members.
CHAPTER 4

Findings

Overview

The purpose of this research is two-fold (1) to identify perceived organizational & internal governance elements that influence the work and professional identity of public service and outreach faculty and (2) to generate a grounded theory that relates the findings to the formation of self-identity and perceived feelings of legitimacy of public service faculty. Data from the study revealed social and policy influences that impact the work, evaluation, and advancement of this unique subset of faculty at RLGU. The findings presented in this chapter represent a summary of these influences revealed from the data analysis and are sorted into seven general categories centered on the following themes:

1. Value of academic-based public service work.
2. Evaluation and promotion processes of public service faculty.
3. Faculty rights, governance issues, and pay of public service faculty.
4. Collaboration between public service faculty and other academic faculty.
5. Legitimacy of public service faculty in the prevailing culture.
6. Vulnerability of public service faculty positions.
7. Social aspects of academic-based public service.

Value of academic-based public service work

In general, the participants of this study felt that the prevailing culture at RLGU did not value academic-based public service work, when it was compared to other academic activities.
Several of the public service faculty participants expressed a sense of serving in the academic community as a “second-class citizen.” When asked about the value of his work and contributions to the university, P4 said that a diminished perception of public service faculty is engrained “in the system,” and confirmed “you’re probably well aware of how I’m going to say it as a non-tenure track faculty, it’s a second class citizen status. You can’t mince any words on that.” One debasing aspect that P4 called attention to was the way that the annual contract for public service faculty (and other contract faculty) is handled at the university: “Just the fact that we just had this annual (contract) thing right here. It’s too bad you can’t see this for the recording but …it has to do with the annual reminder that you don’t have a long-term employment contract.” It’s not that P4 necessarily objects to working from an annual contract it is how it is interpreted and presented:

Every one knows it’s year to year. You don’t need to be reminded with words that say, ‘Pursuant to policy, I remind you no formal employment contract will be offered for this academic year. Thank you for your opportunity for service and wish you personal best.’ It’s almost like if you didn’t know better you would read this and say, ‘What the heck is this?’ And you don’t need to do that. I’m not sure (why) things work (the way they do) around here.

Having worked most of his career outside of academia, P4 compares the process to that used in the business world:

In the real world, and I spent 20 years of that at employment-at-will companies, I mean, you could walk in one morning and say, ‘I’m out of here,’ and turn around and walk out the door. Or you could walk in, they
say you’re an idiot and you’re fired; and you turn around and walk out the
door. Everybody knows that and understands that. And in this situation
everybody knows what the deal is there too. It’s kind of year to year. You
don’t need to be reminded of that or to get a letter that you have to sign.
That is asinine that somebody in the system thinks that they have to do
that. I have very strong feelings on that point…

P4 believes that the approach is hubris of higher education: “it is representative of some of the
attitude that not many individuals, but in the system, a collection of individuals. And it’s – call it
arrogance, call it whatever you want, that’s the way it is. It’s not a good way to do business.”

P5 agrees that the approach used by the system for annual contracts “doesn’t give you
warm fuzzies.” He notes that:

Every year we are required to send these guys a termination notice before
we hire them back. Obviously, the university has to make a long-run
commitment to have you in a tenured faculty position. And some of these
public service jobs, although they may last a very, very long time - the
long-run commitment on the institutional side is not (apparent). And it
can cause some mental and emotional stress on the folks that work this
way.

In describing the overall university environment, P6 notes that faculty and administrators
describe an environment that promotes equality and inclusiveness; however, there is definitely a
sense of “pecking order” and pretense regarding public service faculty and their work:

And so I really do work with people, who at least in their words, say they
want this, ‘we want the work environment or be comfortable for everybody,
have equality,’ and that kind of thing. But, I don’t think this is always happening – certainly I hear that it doesn’t happen in other places (departments)… You hear democratic ideals espoused, but not lived. But, I don’t think this is always happening – certainly I hear that it doesn’t happen in other places (departments)… You hear democratic ideals espoused, but not lived. Because, it’s really interesting… I hear a lot of social justice things come out of this college and the university, but that’s social justice for people out there. And these people that I work with – not my colleagues, certainly – but others can be (insincere), it’s pretty ironic in that.

P6 knows from her experience that a more equitable environment can occur over time and with the right leadership:

So it’s (a more equal environment) happened over time, and it’s happened with changes in departmental leadership. So, I think our department head now is much more open to listening. ‘So, what is it that you do? Tell me how I can help you. What is it that I need to know? I’ll go meet with the dean with you if I need to do that.’ Whereas, I didn’t hear that before. So it’s occurred with the right leadership.

A common perception of the participants is that the majority culture sees public service work as less important and less valuable than other academic work. Specific viewpoints from P2, P3, and others center on a belief that public service work is not valued to the same extent as other academic-based work. According to P3, others in the academy have a diminished view of public service academic work because public service faculty are seen as “non-scholarly,” since they are not actively engaged in the basic research components: “I’m the snack boy. I do meetings. I do workshops. I train teachers, and I’m out there on field trips. Um, I’m not doing research.” P3 did note that perhaps he “should” write more and implied that this type of
scholarly work could help with this perception, “I don’t write peer-reviewed journal articles. I could. Probably should. I should at least get one or two a year probably.” Another probable factor for this diminished view is that some public service faculty members do not hold a terminal degree. P3 expressed this in the following statement:

‘Oh, what does he know’? He doesn’t have a Ph.D., two, he’s a service faculty, and three, he’s non-tenured. That’s just a view I have. Can’t be backed up by anything. But...that’s my view. So I just don’t bother, if they say something negative, I just continue telling my opinion.

One of the more telling and troubling accounts of the status of public service faculty was from P2, who described the reception she received by her previous major professor and other faculty when she was hired as a public service faculty member at the same institution that granted her doctoral degree:

And when I came back here because my husband was here, and found out that there was an opening in my area at RLGU, and I just decided to take that and to do that...I didn’t really feel like it was a step down, because it to me was exciting, so I was going to be doing something that I felt that I was more suited for, in terms of helping people who are out there in the real world working now. And so I was really excited about that and doing that and it was something in my content area, but I’ll never forget the reaction of my major professor here on campus when I did that. He was very disappointed and didn’t speak to me for a couple of years. He really was (disappointed). And there were faculty who I had as faculty here that could not understand, you know...that sat me down a couple of times and
said, ‘What are you doing? You’re ruining your life.’ So it took me a while to figure out, I guess I was naive enough I didn’t realize that there was this disparity between... and um, that was a real concern. And so, you know, I don’t know. Now things have evened out a little more...but you know I still sense that there’s still a feeling of, you know, you could have done better. You know, we expected more out of you.

P8 describes a time when a small group of tenure-track faculty questioned the resources spent on new physical space for public service initiatives, instead of college funding for new tenure track faculty positions. She, however, viewed this as purely a resource question and not an affront against public service faculty or programs:

Well, I think for our public service faculty, it was not that we were second class in any way; but, I think it was because they (the tenure-track faculty) didn’t understand the resources. Like we moved out here (to our new space). We got like six or seven times more space than we had before, but that’s (because) we’d gone through the five-year programmatic review, got great reviews, but the review committee said, ‘These guys are in substandard space and they’re crawling all over each other and they’re in three different buildings.’ We like it because we got a great auditorium. We’ve got free parking for all our stakeholders and things like that. But I think it was, ‘Why did they get all that space and why are they hiring all these new people and does that mean we can’t hire a new (researcher)?’ or something like that. So I think it was purely a resource issue.
P8 pragmatically notes that the response from the other faculty was valid, because they had not been given all the facts:

> I mean I would have been upset, too, maybe if I thought that whole budget was going on five new faculty in a specific disease area and I didn’t have anything to say about it. But, they understand that now, and they understand that those probably would not have been funds that they could use for that reason anyway. But, the Provost did give a big chunk of money to convert all this, but they understood. I mean we gave up our space there so that the young faculty could have our space, so once you’ve talked through all that, they understand it.

In summary, based on the perceptions of faculty focused on public service endeavors the prevailing culture at RLGU did not value public service academic work as favorably, compared with teaching and research undertakings.

**Evaluation and promotion processes of public service faculty**

A common theme that was discovered in most of the data is a perceived misunderstanding and application of public service track promotion guidelines. The participants felt that there was misunderstanding or lack of awareness of the public service guidelines, mostly among their tenure track colleagues and administrators. P1 notes, “they (tenure-track faculty) don’t really understand public service (guidelines) at all.” P2 agrees that tenure-track faculty in particular are unaware of the public service guidelines, mostly because the guidelines are so different from the ones they use for their promotion, “if you talk to them (tenure-track) about (public service) promotion track, it would be hard for them to (understand)…”
track for public service, it is just really different…, it has a different purpose, and…you use it a different way.”

P6’s experience indicates that there was little appreciation or understanding of the guidelines by her supervisors or of her needs to advance within her appointed faculty track. One supervisor appears to lump all non-tenure track faculty into the same category:

This one (department head who since left), absolutely had no idea what people like me do. I mean, if you’re not tenure track; it was totally foreign as many times as I tried to explain it to him. It never got through. In fact, to the point of – he thought – there was something – there was some position he wanted me to do, some role he wanted me to play. So he just wanted me to switch lines - that I should switch to another non-tenure faculty track. And he didn’t get that that would do away with six years of being in this (public service) line. He commented, ‘well, what difference does that make?’ I asked (him), ‘didn’t it make a lot of difference to you when you started out as an assistant professor? Didn’t it make a difference that you were in that position for a period of time?’

P1 points out a similar frustration with misunderstanding of the track in which he was appointed, promoted, and already established. In his case, others in his department wondered why he did not apply for tenure-track positions when they became available, even if it would mean a lower rank and pay:

So people within the school don’t get it at all. And, I’ll get insane questions, at least I think they’re insane. A faculty position, an academic
faculty position will come open (and) it pays much less than what I make; but, I will consistently get faculty members asking if I’m going to apply.

Some participants alluded to the fact that many administrators only provide a pretense of support for public service, characterized by glib sentiment and not reflected in action. In the public eye, these administrators (Deans, Vice-Presidents, President) indicate strong support for the outreach mission. However, P1 thinks it is “a lot of lip service to the university as a whole,” and in reality they do not demonstrate their support. He notes:

I think there needs to be a decision about how to deal with public service faculty within academic units… I don’t think that same level of ‘oh, what are we going to do with them’ has happened for the academic level, as (it has for) the public service people at the service unit level.

This was also identified as false posturing of support, played out by a seemingly double standard when going up for promotion. Participants described a process whereby they were held accountable for the public service guidelines, but were assessed according to more traditional tenure-track standards that were viewed as more valuable to the academic unit. P2 notes that she was an “experiment” for promotion review, because her dean felt it would be a good idea for her to be reviewed like a tenure track faculty member. She believed this was because other public service faculty recently had switched to an academic track due to a state-wide restructuring process and the dean considered it best for P2 to undergo a similar review at the college level:

(The dean) did a full-fledged, like you know, like you’re a tenure track person...and did that whole review. Well, that’s fine if you had done that prior to preparing your dossier, and now here you go, and I had been a hundred percent service, so... so I didn’t have the kinds of research that
(the dean) was looking for...although I had some but not like (the dean) was looking for. So (the dean’s) letter, which is really key to a promotion dossier...was really weak. Um...now my letter from my administrator was very strong. But it (the dean’s letter) was very weak. And I thought that was going to, I mean I was very worried about that...I thought that was going to shut me down right there...but it didn’t. I got promoted and that was OK...

P3 conveys a similar story about how he began to concentrate on projects that would earn him regional prominence required of the public service guidelines, but how his dean encouraged a separate agenda that was more in-line with the tenure track guidelines, which in the end did not help his promotion. P3 felt he was held up against “two sets of guidelines (the public service guidelines and)...the school’s guidelines,” where there was an expectation for traditional scholarship, “they’re looking for refereed publications. They want more (traditional scholarship) criteria of what to evaluate that person on.” P3 acknowledges he felt like he had been “raked over the coals.” At an annual evaluation, P3 questioned the dean about this perceived “double standard,” ‘so I asked him when you put us all together and you rank us, I’m thrown in with the tenure faculty?’ (The dean) said, ‘Yep.’”

P6 admits that the seemingly unmanaged process for promotion negatively impacted the desire and enthusiasm for her to even start the promotion process:

So when we get these notices about promotion I don’t put in for them – I don’t put in to start doing them, but I think I’m going to probably do that next year and get someone to tell me – I guess they’ll put the call out pretty soon. And figure out how do I handle that when I was hired at a
higher level. How do I get promoted now? It’s a shame that the system isn’t more clear about how public service faculty are assessed (for merit and promotion).

P3 feels part of the misunderstanding of the public service promotion track and the assessment process is due to an unclear definition of the public service role for the academy as a whole. He concludes that there is a lack of consensus among all faculty with regard to the meaning of public service and outreach and there should be better communication within the academic community as to the mission of public service and outreach, its terminology, and its priorities. He states, “that’s another thing. Just understanding the jargon. What is what? And that’s one of the things we have to do with our faculty, and that’s what I would tell the administration, get the faculty in line with what you call service and outreach. That’s the bottom line.” He feels that outreach and service, are not synonymous, yet they are used interchangeably, “Once they (faculty) understand that and can discern between the two, ‘what I did here was service and what I did here was outreach,’ then we’re all on the same page.”

P1 believes that awareness about the public service track is limited because most of the conversation about public service initiatives occurs primarily at a grassroots level where public service faculty themselves talk about the value of their academic work and the importance of their faculty appointment to the land-grant university. However, P1 feels that if the public service mission and the corresponding faculty are to be taken seriously, the message of importance for a separate public service career track to the university must consistently come from the top down too, “I don’t think it’s the on-the-ground reps that can do it. I think that it has to be upper administration, and that’s where that message hasn’t gotten out there.” P2 agrees and
notes, “I feel that the administration at this institution doesn’t quite have a really good grasp of what public service is, and as a result, I think that a lot of us within public service don’t either.”

With regards to appraisal of work, many of the participants revealed that the process for reporting and receiving performance evaluation was deficient and haphazard, forcing these faculty to primarily rely on self-assessment of their work. P1 observed that he was always confused about to whom he should report. “This year it is unknown. In the past, I have turned my reports into the associate dean, but I would have my annual review with the dean.” More specifically, he noted that the associate dean used the traditional tenure-track format for his annual performance, but it did not fit the work being performed:

I don’t know, he (the associate dean) consistently used …the academic report form (for annual reviews), but none of that stuff would ever fit … I would have four questions that went unanswered and one that was seven pages. And I kept saying, ‘this really doesn’t make any sense’ and finally, the associate dean said, ‘oh, just design your own.’ So I did, and that’s what I report on now, and it looks like I’m doing great! They can hold it up against nothing else… so they don’t know if I’m doing great compared to other public service faculty on campus.

P6 described the lack of knowledge regarding public service faculty work to be a significant problem that is linked to her performance evaluation by supervisors. She talks about the frustration over the years of being assigned to several different department heads, all of whom have been tenured faculty. She describes each one having a different level of appreciation and understanding of how to assess public service work and contributions to the department:
Okay. Well, it comes down to the department head. He evaluates whether your work is sort of what you should be doing and does it go above and beyond the call. (But) if he doesn’t understand the track at all, it’s hard for him (to make an assessment). We’ve had transitions in that area, in the department heads. Since I came into the department, we had a department head who was leaving on a medical leave but ended up not returning. Had two interims; hired someone two years ago and (he) left after a year, so it was pretty disastrous. And so, the person who is in the position now is just starting his second year, although he’s been a department head before. I will say he does (have an understanding of the public service track/work). We submit our work, and we can explain what it is. He’s pretty open to what it is. (However), [u]ntil that I wasn’t even included in any of that merit stuff. One of the interim department heads said – after I did my performance evaluation said, ‘well, I don’t really supervise you because you’re in public service and so there’s really no need for you to even turn this thing in to me.’ I mean, it was just lack of knowledge. It was not anything snide. …so I wasn’t even in the game until the last couple of years.

P2 expressed a similar dilemma about informal and inappropriate approach to the evaluation of her work:

It’s really funny because…I don’t think they’ve ever known really how to evaluate (public service) faculty. It’s always just been, every year a department head writes a letter that says they did a good job, and that goes
in our personnel file and that’s that, you know. I guess the way that I monitored myself is that I’ve always figured if I can bring in … enough money to cover my salary then I was pretty happy with that. But that’s grown, you know, so now I figure, I always just have this mental (picture), if I can do this much this year, I’ll be pretty happy with that. But it’s pretty much been self-generated. …As far as how I’ve known if I’m doing a good job, you know, I don’t get yelled at too much. Is that a good one? … They haven’t thrown me out yet, so, um, so, but you never know…”

P3 was a bit more pragmatic. When he was asked when and how he was evaluated he replied, “How am I doing a good job on the professional level as far as being evaluated by employer? That’s annual evaluation.” However, like the other two public service faculty, he seemed to emphasize that evaluation had more to do with his own process of self-assessment than the evaluation he gets from his supervisor: “But personally, it’s by what I see that I can do and how many things I can improve.” However, P3 goes on to note that the whole land-grant mission is off-balance and that evaluation of public service must take into account the tripartite mission of higher education:

Administrators and faculty alike forget that land grants are built on three pillars…it’s a three-legged stool, and that the extension service outreach, whatever you want to call it, leg of the stool has to be there …that was formation reason, one of the primary formations of land grants.

Yet, when it comes to evaluation he notes, “people don’t look at… they don’t recognize the value of good extension service programs.”
P6 described comparable feelings and expressed frustration in communicating and documenting the value of her public service work for annual evaluation “how do you compare someone who part of their job is to crank out books with someone whose job is to go out and work in schools?” Her department has discussed the issue of what is expected as a public service track faculty member compared with other tracks:

We have a lot of conversations in our department meetings – faculty meetings about how do you compare work. I happen to do writing, and it’s not – I am not budgeted to publish anything. I don’t have to do it. If I don’t do it, I don’t lose my job. There are a lot of discussions about that. And I think I heard people feel, like – saying things, like, ‘it’s different work; people ought to be judged based on what they’re assigned to do, and not judged across tracks.’ I don’t know how easily it can be done, especially if the person who is making the decisions is a tenure-track person and that’s what they know.

P6 elaborates her experience with a previous supervisor, a tenure track faculty member, who conducted her annual evaluation. She insinuates the evaluation process was disingenuous. “Since only half of my money was coming from the state I wasn’t eligible for raises anyway, and yet, I was going through the process like it would make a difference to my pay or advancement.” In large part, the frustration seemed to stem from the fact that the supervisor had very little awareness of P6’s public service faculty line and funding:

I told him (supervisor) at the time that ‘I don’t mind doing this (evaluation process) for you, but I’m not even going to be considered in the (raise) pool.’ He didn’t understand that. He thought we could get money from
someplace else. And I restated that ‘I don’t think they’re going to give you any more money. The money comes from the state.’ He was really – he was just so ignorant about the whole process. So I went through it anyway just because I didn’t want to be, you know, insubordinate. So I turned it in, and then had my – we all had to go in and do our meeting. So we did the meeting, and he says, ‘Well, you know there’s no money available for you?’ He said, ‘I’m ranking you – you’re – I mean, you’re way up here.’ He told me I was the second most productive person in the department. I’m thinking, based on what? Then to say, ‘Well, there’s no money for you.’ Then I thought that was easy to say I was the second most productive if you didn’t have to back it up with any dollars, but that was just me being cynical. I didn’t say that to him.

Even with the concern from most participants over not being assessed appropriately and differently from the tenure track faculty, two participants, P4 and P8 liked the fact that they were assessed very similarly to the tenure track faculty colleagues. P4 explained that the “(academic based) department head is the one who evaluates (my work), possibly by nature of the way our group is organized, it just makes sense. And that case right there is very similar to any other faculty.” In responding to a question as to whether he is held to the same criteria required of the tenure track faculty in his department, he says:

Yes, I mean, the definition of what your job description is, is a little different so you’re evaluated against that, but you’re also evaluated in many ways the same - that part of the process is very similar, at least within this department, which is nice. I like that part. He (P4’s
department head) looks at as you as faculty, and you are responsible for developing your own whatever. There’s only so many hours in a day, so many days in a week. So you have to focus at times. Sometimes you go after things and you do things that maybe don’t pan out, but that’s okay. Some of those evolve with spreading the name of the university, for want of a better word, whether it’s being speaking around the nation, which I do, or other countries, which I’ve done. That’s all well and good, and that’s one of the kind of things that a regular faculty would do. We’re encouraged to do that too.

P4 reiterates that his positive feelings about his annual performance review are because he is treated like all other faculty in that regard:

> Externally we have annual performance review, just like; again, we’re evaluated on very similar to what regular faculty would be. The process is the same as, I would say, is the evaluation standards because of the major work that we do. Less if you have – don’t have any this year or just one peer review public, no big deal. If you do other things, then that balances out. So I consider that as good as anything else.

When asked specifically about publications and scholarship required for his performance review, P4 says:

> Same deal (as with other faculty in the department)…yeah it’s good to require these. Although, probably it’s not as much of a requirement, per se, but in the sense of the peer review papers, those are nice but you’re expected – at least to publish – a lot of extension people write extension
bulletins or some kind of general type thing. You’re expected at least some of that communication.

P8 noted that at first she was not assessed for many years, but starting two years ago and with a new dean, she receives an annual evaluation that is similar to all other faculty in the college. To her, this is a constructive development and helpful to her career:

Well, at first I didn’t (get evaluated), but it started like two years ago the dean began to evaluate me, which I love. So, since he came on, he has a formal thing that he fills out and we’ve tinkered with it a little bit to accommodate the public service and outreach faculty. But, you know, he asks the same kinda things that he does for all faculty. He asks for articles and other scholarship, it’s not as much of a requirement, per se, as others but in all, it’s pretty much the same process.

In fact P8 notes others in her department have indicated that she has completed the work for the tenure track guidelines. “Yeah some have said they think I should go – you know, they said if I went the traditional track for tenure, they think I could get tenure, though, you know, I’m perfectly happy where I am but just their feedback and their support is great.”

**Faculty rights, governance issues, and pay of public service faculty**

With regard to faculty governance and other faculty “rights,” most of the participants voiced a sense of inequity at some point while holding a public service appointment. A few appeared to be highly disenfranchised, while others were much less affected or felt no discrimination. P4 describes a sense of “double standard” with regard to faculty governance:

So anyway, it appears to be a double standard that carries over sometimes into faculty meetings when you’re all sitting there having – well, for
example we were having some promotion – tenure meetings and votes last week. Some were public service tracks, some were faculty tracks. And before that there was over a year’s discussion of who can vote on what. And if you’re a regular faculty you can participate in all that (promotion process for all faculty); but if you’re only public service you can only do them (other public service faculty), but you can’t be with them (when discussing tenure track) because you’re not good enough. At least, that’s how it comes across really.

P6 noted that uncomfortable feeling of being singled out from the tenure-track faculty from certain governance issues:

So it’s different now, but before we would all go into the departments meetings and then questions would come up ‘Can you vote on that’ or ‘could you leave the room?’ I mean really eeww. I mean, you're this grown person, and someone asks you to leave the room because they’re going to vote on something. It is just really odd. So, that happened early on.

When asked why the process changed, P6 said:

I think people are just educated about it. And, I guess we happened to be nice people too. I say that kind of tongue and cheek, but once you get to know somebody it’s a lot harder to discriminate against them when you get to know them personally.

P5 was more pragmatic about the governance of higher education and made clear he did not think public service faculty were eligible to manage the academic process. He also noted the
added stress of the traditional tenure process, which public service and other non-tenure faculty are not required to undergo:

In general, if you’re not tenure you’re not going to hold an administrative position within the university. You can’t be dean. You can’t be department head. I don’t even know that you can be division director even for extension. I’m not sure. I don’t much think you can. You must hold a faculty appointment as well. That’s true. In some cases they (public service faculty) do feel that way (deprived of certain faculty rights), but there’s one hell of a price that they hadn’t paid yet either, and that’s undergoing the stress level it takes to become tenured. In here, we usually require promotion with tenure for key positions, which in most schools is the same thing. I haven’t experienced it. It’s a wee bit aggravating, but I mean, that’s what you expected. It’s all about expectations now.

P8 was an anomaly; she experienced a legitimate level of faculty rights, privileges, and held faculty governance positions, indicating variance in application of university bylaws within divisions:

It’s really not an issue here as far as faculty meetings and all, that’s very open. I serve on university council and that’s – I mean, I know that can vary quite a bit from place to place (in different colleges). You know, some units would never put a public service and outreach person on their committee. But, here they don’t make the distinction really. The one time they do is on tenure votes.
However, this treatment of equality for P8 and her colleagues was challenged at one point a few years ago, which indicated that not all tenure-track faculty in her department recognized the same level of autonomy of public service faculty. P8 described an instance when a young tenure track faculty member felt that public service faculty may “swing the votes” for recommendation of a new hire. This resulted in a request by the committee chair “for separate votes to be taken.” When P8 questioned the need for separate votes, the chair noted, “Well, we’re taking your vote. We’re just treating it separately.” And I said, ‘You know, it’s segregation, you know, riding in the back of the bus is different than riding in the bus.’ But it was resolved and I think they really understood what all was happening. And so – I guess you can look at it as a good thing because everything came to a head and these things had to be resolved and now I think young faculty all understand it, where before they might have been seething secretly.”

Participants voiced different perspectives in terms of perceived equality with their tenure track colleagues around issues of faculty pay. Certain participants felt the inequities were striking and apparent; whereas, other participants did not necessarily have this view. When asked about equality issues, P4 felt there was a disparity in pay. “Equivalent pay is probably not happening. There are ways of checking those things out, and it’s best if you couldn’t tell.” P4 believes that his level of experience and education is undervalued when compared to more recent hires on tenure track:

For example, one recent hire is basically - she’s a couple years older than my son and fresh out of school. She’s good, but I just think for a 9-month contract she’s almost to where I’m at for a 12 (month contract). So if that – that says it right there. If it’s dependent on the job market though, a person sitting with a Ph.D., two master’s and 25-plus years experience
could easily be making 50 percent or 100 percent more than what they’re sitting at here if you played your cards right. I was before. I’m barely fully caught up to where I was in (9 years earlier). It’s been a few years of inflationary adjustment for the same time period. Somebody asked me one time when I went to go back to school, ‘So you think you’ll get much more money?’ I said, ‘Not why you do that.’ I understand the whole deal about budgets and situations right there. But, bottom-line they (the department) are looking for (the right person)… and these people (these hired into the public service track) are the best they can find. Also, if you’re asking people to basically get paid less than they could in the real world or be reminded of that all the time, why not make it a little more equitable?

P4 reflects, however, that this is probably no different than a business world strategy and he admits, “Of course, if you were a manager like I was before (in previous employment); you do what you can get away with.”

P6 feels that pay is likely less equitable for public service faculty. In discussing a recently held forum in her college to discuss potential inequities among faculty lines, pay was purposely left off the table because it was determined to be too distracting and possibly divisive:

It’s interesting that salary wasn’t considered (at the meeting). We didn’t want to push it with our ad hoc committee We wanted to look at it – but we didn't want our work to be to seem focused around money and to distract people from the work environment issues. However, we suspected that there were career track people who were paid much less than tenure
track people who would be at a similar rank for similar lengths of time and service.

It is apparent from others that serving as a public service faculty member does not necessarily mean being paid a lower salary compared with being on tenure-track, even at the associate or professor levels. Many public service faculty have a unique set of skills and accomplished professional careers prior to their public service academic appointments and theoretically could command significant salaries in the private sector. P8 believes her salary is competitive or higher than others within the college for which she is employed because of her professional degree and previous work history. She conveys:

Yeah, (my salary) it’s a little bit higher than where somebody in my position should be (compared with others in the same college). But, you know, some of it in my case is complicated by the fact of my credentials in my other discipline and I’m doing something different than what my academic colleagues are doing. You know, this college is collaborative and, you know, they wanted whatever help they could get... And my piece (professional area) is one the college decided a while ago was really essential... so that sort skews things for me and so I have a little bit easier time, I think, that some people (public service faculty) who – you know, are just like the rest of them (same disciplinary area) in the college. If I was located in the same type of college for my degree, it might be a little bit lower than the regular faculty. I don’t know. Also, if I were the same (discipline), I might be treated more like a second-class citizen (in this college too).
P5 also confirms that other public service faculty like himself, who are seasoned professionals and hold advanced and terminal degrees can “stay here a long time, and a lot of these guys here make quite a bit of money in the public service associate level. One or two of those guys make good money. They’re not tenured; they don’t have Ph.D.s even. They make a whole lot of money, and they’re probably not going anywhere in the short run.” However, P5 also believes that salary inconsistencies should not be too much of a concern, especially for younger employees. The public service rank can offer a professional advantage to those who are new to academia or have never held an academic appointment before. He seems to view the public service track as a possible stepping-stone into a more traditional faculty appointment or to better prepare a professional work force. He talks about how departments bring on professionals into the public service track to prepare them for more mainstream academic positions:

We’re talking about young professionals who come to work here, and our job is to provide them an opportunity to get education while they’re here, if they want to do an advanced degree. And when they get – go from here – they go out as better employees. So, a lot of our public service people, this may be the first or second job they’ve ever had. And our job is to continue the educational process and fling them on the world in much better shape. It works in general. We shouldn’t keep them here 25 years. It’s within a period of five to seven years and makes them even more marketable.

In brief, several public service faculty interviewed for this study did not enjoy the same level of faculty rights and governance opportunities as tenured track faculty. Partly, this is due to the obvious inability to vote for tenure issues. However, in certain
colleges and schools, the discrepancy seemed more significant and resulted in public
service faculty feeling disenfranchised due to their exclusion of other important collegial
activities.

Collaboration between public service faculty and academic faculty

Public service work is less valued in the system and thwarts collaboration with tenure
track faculty, according to the participants. By far, the group felt that collaboration on public
service projects occurs rarely because there are few incentives for other faculty to do so. P4
notes, “There’s a disparity of where your rewards and gains are, there’s some overlap, but often
there’s no overlap, which tends to lessen collaboration (opportunities).” Both P2 and P3 feel it
also has to do with getting “credit,” for the work performed. And P2 believes it is not solely a
characteristic of the tenure-track faculty, but it is also typical of non-tenure faculty:

It’s been a challenge to us to try to work with other public service faculty
and other faculty to let them know how we can work with them. ...to
provide this part of the service or to enhance it in this way...to administer,
you know, joint programs.

P2 stresses that if a faculty member feels she is not getting the sufficient promotion,
recognition, or prestige as defined by her field, department or school, she is not very willing to
participate in this form of academic work no matter how important it may be to the public, “a lot
of that has to do with not getting credit for the grant and getting the money, and getting the
indirect, and all that.” P3 spoke more directly about this issue noting that tenure-track faculty
do what they feel they need to do in terms of getting promoted and tenured. Anything else will
be at best, a secondary concern:
They’re (tenure-track faculty) frantically making sure they get their tenure, that they get promoted...that they work diligently to get their research and their graduate students and their grants and their publications. So it’s not in a negative way, but it’s ‘all about me’ type of attitude. And they have to. They have to take on that thought, because otherwise, they will perish in the eyes of, of the academy. So therefore, they have a very strong urge to get things done, what they need to, what they’re familiar with.

P1 also believes that tenure-track faculty who show an interest in public service are penalized. Thus, there is only a small portion who is willing to collaborate on service projects. This has been especially true for minority tenure-track faculty, who tend to have a passion for service-related initiatives for reasons of “social good,” but are passed over for promotion and tenure in part because of their participation in public service at the expense of teaching and research:

That’s particularly bothersome um a string of minority efforts that… (were taken) on by minority faculty not only because there was a social good that could come out of their involvement with my projects, but this was a whole area of unexplored opportunities. So there they spend their whole summer earning money and doing a profession, but (they) were not moving themselves along any promotion and tenure format.

P1 sees this as a real problem; namely, because his profession is a “field of white men.” Thus, it’s a rarity to have “not only an African African man (but also) an African-American woman.” From his perspective, these minority tenure-track faculty in particular received little guidance
and were subsequently “voted down on promotion.” P1 summarizes, “it seems an unequal
treatment of certain faculty.” Furthermore, there is little guidance within the department in
helping these faculty turn their social passion into scholarship. Instead they are dismissed for not
living up to the imposed norms of scientific based research.

P6 concurs that collaboration is limited and describes a general attitude of indifference or
apathy from other types of faculty in her college towards outreach projects, even when she and
others are working on nationally prestigious projects and with recognized experts. P6 believes
this is due to a difference in “status” and title, and those on tenure track value the work with
colleagues in similar position, rather than actually looking or evaluating actual work performed:

It is ironic that this work is valued outside the university. When we go
places and we talk about being a part of this project, and they know about
the work we are doing….it’s like ‘oh wow, yeah.’ And they talk to us
about it.”

P6 describes the feeling as:

being a prophet in your own land… There are people on the next floor
that don’t know me from the next guy and don’t know the work that I do.
Yet, I can travel three or four hours across the state and there's
recognition. And I’m sure it’s like that a lot of places.

P5 voices a similar observation and notices that even though colleagues from various
tracks do find some common interests on which to collaborate, it seems to remain easier to
collaborate with disciplines outside the institution:

Oh man, I brought in faculty from our campus from another department
representing business outreach services three or four times, you’d thought
we were from two different worlds. I’m sitting there and saying, ‘Guys, but, we have projects together?’ I found there’s much more (collaboration from the outside) – it’s much easier to get our faculty to work with another university entity than it was cross colleges here (on the same campus).

P3 notes collaboration occurs infrequently, “very rarely (do we collaborate). That’s one of the drawbacks that we have in our school right now.” He further noted:

And I wouldn’t doubt that it’s fairly widespread in that in this day and age, you know a lot of granting organizations want an outreach component tied to their grant...yet our research faculty are not knocking our doors down saying, ‘Hey, I’ve got this grant idea. Help me develop the outreach component.’

He believes lack of collaboration is due in part to the tenure-track faculty members’ lack of confidence in the public service faculty’s ability towards scholarly work: “only two times that I can think of have I been asked to help on a grant during the grant writing process to come up with the outreach component.” When P3 was asked why he thought this was the case he responded, “a myopic view, I don’t know. Um, lack of confidence in my ability for some reason?”

Collaboration between public service faculty and tenure-track faculty is seen as beneficial, but difficult to achieve. Largely, this is because time commitments and patterns of work for public service faculty are inconsistent with prevailing culture, making it extremely difficult to work with the traditional academic faculty. The participants noted that tenure track faculty, especially those on nine–month contracts often view public service projects as “contract work.” As such, they are only willing to participate during the summer season or other “down
time” when they are not actively teaching or working on scholarly pursuits defined by their field of expertise. Consequently, their off-time rarely meshes with public service commitments to outside agencies that either require long-term sustainability or goal oriented results that are on a time-frame that does not coincide with the faculty’s time-off. P1 notes:

Projects (that are) focused within the school generally are connected with a class, which is a semester time frame or summer buy-out for faculty, or it’s connected with a thesis project where another faculty member might be directing it and has a public service component. And that’s all an arbitrary time frame usually.”

P2’s experience has been similar to P1, resulting in limited opportunities for collaboration:

Um, we try, when we can, to use faculty on campus, though, to meet the clients’ needs, it doesn’t necessarily meet the time frame of the faculty. But when they want to work, it’s during the summer months or, you know, when they’re not teaching, those kinds of things. But that never works with us in terms of our clients’ needs; they need things during the year at different times, so I’m not really able to use faculty on campus as much as I’d like to.

The data indicate another reason collaboration does not occur is because tenure-track faculty must focus on other more prominent and visible academic pursuits defined by their academic disciplines and departments. P2’s experience is that “faculty are pretty much involved in what they’re doing...and when you can overlap with that or when you can work them on that, then that’s great. But otherwise, they tend to pretty much do what they’re doing.” P1 agrees that “faculty really don’t have a lot of extra time” to conduct outreach endeavors. He stresses that a
lack of time should not necessarily be perceived as an aversion on their part for engagement in outreach projects. In fact he sees a true “passion” or desire to conduct outreach work in many faculty, it is just that tenure-track faculty must focus on other priorities:

And that’s one of our problems with um, from what I hear, their tenure process is that they don’t have much extra (time) apart from their traditional research and writing time. So I think…(academic faculty) have a lot of passion here, I just don’t think they have a lot of time.

There appears to be an awareness that like tenure track faculty, who are often accused of burying themselves in the lab and in their research pursuits, public service faculty are often too focused on their day to day activities centered around the real-world issues to pursue other scholarly activities. Thus, they may not take the time or display interest in extending themselves to the tenure track colleagues. P4 believes that “by nature” public service faculty focus on “doing” the work and “dealing with the real world all the time.” Hence, they often lack the desire or perhaps the experience “in wanting to write a paper or write a research grant for just more …basic research.” In turn, academic faculty may avoid approaching public service faculty in collaborative projects because they “perceive that the people in outreach are probably (too) busy chasing other things.” P5 agrees that public service faculty need to interact with other types of faculty more. He notes that:

If we could get public service faculty to talk with people (tenure track faculty) in the department (and) cross departments (about their work), it’ll make it easier for the advancement of collaborative pursuits. But collaborative activities do not happen as effectively ‘inside’ the academy as well as they do in the public realm, because that’s what public service
faculty do, they make connections with the public and other professions outside the university.

P5 expounds on the fact that outreach based faculty could be more assertive in advancing collaborative partnerships with their tenure track colleagues; but, he implies there’s a level of contentment in their work that may hinder these relationships: “public service folks feel they’re kind of out on an island,” and “there’s not enough mentoring that they do” in assuring meaningful collaboration.

A consistent message for effective collaboration centers on funding. Quite simply the more funding available for conducting public service projects, the more interested faculty and administrators are in collaboration. P6 is clear on the point. “In the past it’s been harder (for collaboration to occur)…however, now that I’ve gotten funding everyone is interested in my work.” She conveys conversations she had over time with her dean’s office, in which there tended to be apathy towards encouraging involvement in public service projects until P6 received funding, “At that point (of receiving funding) the associate dean came to me and said, ‘We really need to sit and talk about how you’ll work with (our) office. I’m really interested in what you are doing.’” P6 ruminated, “I don’t think her (attitude) change is because she’s not a nice person or because she didn’t like me.” In fact, P6 appreciates that the associate dean’s standpoint and interest was mostly pragmatic, and “realized that she’s looking over lots of different kinds of programs (and) the ones that are bringing in money are the ones that get the attention.” But, it remains difficult sometimes when the work does not seem to be valued until “it is tied to money.”

P8 and P7 both agree that the primary solution to collaboration is funding. P8 sees her division as a progressive center aggressively securing grants for the college, “In this unit,
department heads and tenure track faculty see public service as a leading unit to approach, to help with their own research, or to collaborate on ways to practice application, which includes funding possibilities.” Because of significant federal money secured within her unit, tenure track faculty have come to her for sub-contracts or to fund doctoral students. This has increased the prestige of the public service unit and attracts faculty from across the university to either collaborate on the project in some way or even to request mentorship on how to package grant proposals for similar funding. For example, the university has submitted and is in the running for a large and highly competitive federal grant, whereby P8 has been specifically requested to serve as a co-investigator because of her subject expertise and success in writing grants, “And I guess the last three or four that the university has submitted they’ve asked – all the players have asked me to come to the table to be on it, so that’s one of the kind of things” that shows value in collaborating with public service faculty.

P5 concurs that collaboration happens when you sign on other faculty member as a principled investigator on public service projects, “well usually we have the other faculty sign-on as one of the Co-PIs and pay them and their graduate students. That way most everybody in this department has an appointment in instruction, an appointment in research, and an appointment in public service. So we have percentages of times divided amongst those (activities).” P7 notes that grants provide a “way to hook into faculty because there (is) money for work to be done. If you want faculty to do work, you have to be able to offer some incentive for doing so, and most commonly it’s summer salary or travel money or something of that nature.” However, she notes it can not be only about having access to money, the project must be relevant to those who are involved:
The project must align with work they wanna do as well. They must decide themselves, ‘Here’s what I wanna do’ and – on an individual level decide if they’re just going to chase money or if they’re gonna look for work that aligns with their interest. And you’re always better off if it’s work that aligns. You know, so in terms of the departmental interaction, it’s usually through individual faculty with aligned work.

P6 agrees that effective collaboration is more than just having adequate funding. She notes it is best to find a small group “who is really going about collaborating or doing new things and target them” and find incentives for others to join. Having “small groups of believers provides leverage,” they begin to “own the idea” and eventually influence others in the work and benefits of public service. Often times the biggest incentive that these faculty realize and communicate to others, is that outreach initiatives can be “reciprocal” in nature and sustainable over the long run. In other words, faculty not only bring their expertise to the project, but receive desirable feedback from the community that can be used to further research and teaching. P6 says that “there is a tendency for faculty (new to outreach projects) to begin with questions like, ‘how can we help you, or how can we make you a better place,’ but these faculty quickly learn that outreach is a two-way street and a place for us all to learn from each other.”

Legitimacy of public service faculty in the prevailing culture

Public service faculty struggle to find legitimacy in the prevailing culture, because of their professional career backgrounds and their academic work. Since public service faculty often come from applied professions (real world), they are perceived to be interlopers, not true academicians. P1 discussed his belief that the applied nature of public service work is not highly valued by others in the academic community. He sees a “clash” between the “academic culture
and (the) professional world.” In fact, he notes that those faculty who have been recruited from the profession into academia, do not fair as well with regard to promotion and tenure as do those who have not held a position outside academia:

I think that people who come from the profession and they teach don’t get a fair shake as the ones who have been in a university framework all this time and they knew that they had to have publications and they, um, you know, developed shortcuts and they’ve been able to attend academic conferences whereas someone hustling and um, owned a sidewalk shop come in, you know, Design 101, doesn’t have that opportunity.

P1 views this as an inconsistent message on the part of the academic community, “they get hired here, the job application, the job description says they are welcome and encourage people from the profession, but they get here and it’s very hard to get promoted.” P1 feels this is partly due to university administration’s lack of involvement and priorities:

I think their needs to be a decision about how to deal with public service faculty within academic units. I think among, amongst all of us, we probably would say that it’s the easiest and greatest idea and the place where bridges are built between students, faculty, and public.

P5 also held the opinion that often public service faculty come to academia from professional fields and may not be viewed as regular academics, who come straight from a doctoral program or postdoctoral training. P5 points out that administrators and others should encourage and reinforce public service faculty about their contributions and the important job they provide for the university. However, at the same time, P5 seems to indicate that it is a
purposeful choice for them and if public service faculty do not feel that their work is rightly valued, then perhaps they should pursue their career opportunities in the private sector:

I would have to say that here they know they’re part of the team. That doesn’t mean all of them like their supervisors, but we know from what we’re working on, or they should know, whether or not their services are doing what they should and contributing (to the department or college). Most of them have an alternative to go to work for a professional or consulting firm.

Several of the participants indicated achieving a greater sense of legitimacy when they took on the more accepted roles of an academician, namely teaching and research. Thus, they saw themselves maintaining their public service roots, but crossing over into and participating in traditional faculty functions. P4 describes his job as a “hybrid” position and indicates his satisfaction in having a job that is diverse, representing both outreach work and teaching, “In some ways it’s kind of living the dream.” P4’s notes his outreach responsibilities, which are paid from “contract and things” are “the kind of things I have done in the real world.” He communicates a nice balance to his job, “this is exactly what I set out to do. I’m doing half teaching, which is kind of what I wanted to do, and half of what I used to do (in the real-world).”

With regards to teachings, he “primarily works with juniors and seniors” to do “the application” instruction:

I team teach with the guy who does the structural part, and I do all the systems inside of it; this will be the fourth time for that. I also do a junior level class. The other two were senior level. And I’m also going to do a (new) course this fall that I’m creating.
A provisional dimension to P4’s job is his involvement in curriculum planning; in particular, to assure there is application and real-world examples in the curriculum:

I’ve also been doing a lot of (curriculum) planning for a (new) degree program they’re creating here too that’ll be kind of sustainable design oriented. I’m focusing a lot (of time) on that (project) now – practical applications. (So), that’s another kind of a hybrid thing I’m doing. It’s technically not part of anything that is in my pure job description right now, but the idea is maybe eventually we’ll evolve to that way anyway. Curriculum planning - technically, it starts – now, this year they are only taking transfers in that within the university, then accepting freshman class a year from now, it’s a good one (project) to be working on.

Another aspect of P4’s work allows him to consult, “I was at (a sister institution) a few months ago reviewing some of the curricular things they were doing, basically a consultant coming in on a specific part (of the program), in which I have expertise.” In all, P4 sees himself in a unique position and ‘one of a kind’ within the department, “So I mean, due to the nature of what I do and how the situation came about, I’m a little different than most here. I’m kind of a placeholder here right now, for want of a better word.”

Others seem to enjoy the diverse nature of their jobs and the public service faculty appointment allows them to do more than just service work. P5 agrees the diverse nature of the job is ideal for him, especially after holding other traditional academic appointments, as well as positions in the corporate sector:

I am able do it all…the job description is public service associate within the school. But, I actually teach a (graduate) course or two and in the
undergraduate as well… I teach decision-making, which is a lot of what I’ve done (in my career). Also, I help with the outreach program here considerably; do some administration stuff here, paper shuffling and accounting; almost anything related to management, inside and outside; and I interface with the community at large, and sometimes with the political community.

P8 also draws from her previous career. She notes she was specifically brought into the college to “build up the public service and outreach program” and with her unique background, she was given “an extra component … to build up the policy program and to let science students know how they can impact the policy world.” In addition, she holds a faculty appointment with another professional school, where she serves as “more of a traditional clinical faculty member and help to teach an interdisciplinary practicum, so my job has sort of dramatically expanded.” Additionally P8 serves as a unit head and oversees programs and several employees that formed a new center:

I have about ten people work under me now, some of whom are public service and outreach track and then some of whom aren’t yet on a faculty track, these are more clerical; but, some of those we’re working into the track as well. And about three years ago or four years ago what we did is morph the public service and outreach stuff that I was doing into a new Center. My colleague, who’s the past head of the Institute and I are co-directors of the Center. So it works well, he’s for science; I’m for policy. But, I oversee basically all the fundraising and the staff and things like that.
As described elsewhere, the funding for P6’s job comes from “different pots of money.” And like the others, this funding mix results in a job that is multifaceted and has multiple priorities. Consequently, P6 has continued to directly participate in outreach activities, while also bridging and engaging other faculty within her home academic college in unique outreach endeavors:

So I’m still in the outreach work that I do now, but working with various initiatives. I’ve got a grant from the vice president’s office for an anti-poverty initiative, so I’m working with them. Also, our college is now forming an office of engagement where they really want to make a concerted effort (for many faculty) to be out in the community and not just have these pockets of people like me who have been doing individual projects, but to say how do we form true partnerships? So I’m moving from that idea of where I served multiple schools that solicited my help – to where we go out and help them do professional development in all of our conferences and workshops and things. It’s a way to form some meaningful relationships and (allows me) to facilitate between specific schools and the entire college. So that’s where I am, and that’s sort of – I guess in different places.

Vulnerability of public service faculty positions

On the whole, it appeared that these public service faculty perceived a sense of vulnerability in their jobs. In part, the vulnerability stemmed from a lack of mentoring and an insufficient community of peers on campus. Individuals with whom these faculty most closely aligned themselves, included their immediate co-workers (who may or may not be public service
faculty), professional colleagues in the same scholarly discipline, or non-tenure track faculty as a whole. One obvious reason for this lack of a public service community is the small total number of public service faculty relative to other faculty on campus. Moreover, there may only be one or two of these type faculty in a single unit, school of college. “There just aren’t many me’s,” notes P6. She continues:

I feel like there are others who are in that line (public service appointment) who are there to help me if I need it. If there are questions about promotion or the position. But, in terms of mentoring and collaboration and doing the work, no I don’t (feel a sense of community).

In addition to the overall small total number of public service, P8 believes that camaraderie among this district group of faculty maybe due in part to a deficiency of central processes needed to effectively rally public service faculty together to collectively determine strategic direction and promote cohesion:

There is not nearly as much of community among these (public service) faculty as there could be. I think that - I mean, I really don’t know why. But I think there could be more (connection). It seems that the administration has switched directions strategically three of fours years ago. And I have no idea how public service faculty were involved in that decision-making. I mean, I go to the director’s luncheons and that’s good. But, we’re never really asked – you know we listen and are asked to present our stuff. But, you know there is no kind of brainstorming or thinking or things there to promote it (a vision) in a collective way. So, it’s just kinda of reacting to what already has been kinda decided at a
higher level or whatever…public service faculty (as a whole) should be doing more strategic planning.

Although P6 knows she can get answers to some of the questions she has regarding promotion or policy driven issues, she feels there is very little evidence of mentorship in her department or elsewhere on campus. Instead, she seeks guidance from her colleagues through off-campus connections:

You just don’t see the kind of mentorship happening (with public service faculty), nothing formal. I mean, I know it exists if I want it – for public service professionals. I know I could call the Associate VP and get help when I need it and she’s going to help me with what I need. I also, work a lot (with the person who administers) the service learning program. But, no one in the department mentors me. I don’t think that’s the case with others like mine (non-tenure track faculty lines). I do have a colleague outside the university (who) I work very closely with and she mentors me through our work in the program. But other than that there’s really no one.

When asked if she, P6, had any thoughts on improving collaboration among public service faculty, she noted:

One of the suggestions we had made to an ad hoc committee was that career track be afforded the same opportunities as tenure track in terms of workshops, information. So if you’re going to do a promotion in tenure workshop you should do a promotion workshop for other types (of career track faculty) so that everyone knows, so they all know their ranks; that
they know how the go through the process; that they have third year reviews. I’ve never had a third year review. They just go. ‘Well she’s still coming to the faculty meetings so she must be doing something. They are still paying her.’ But, we don’t have that process, and that’s one the things that we recommended – that there be a more formal process. It makes sense to me. If you’re spending money on people you might as well make sure they’re doing their job. So it makes sense to me for the university to do that, but it also helps the individual.

P4 experiences a sense of community within his professional discipline, but not necessarily among other public service faculty nor with other types of faculty within his home college. He expresses:

What I really do doesn’t tie too much into everybody else here at my college. So I have a home, but it’s not necessarily here (at the college or with other public service faculty). I actively seek and work with people that have the same (disciplinary) background. For example, I work with colleagues at the physical plant. I’m over there in their office every couple of weeks. They’re another part of my team. So my circle is half here (locally) – and of that half not all are (within my) college - and the other is nationwide and world-wide.

P8 appeared to more closely associate with various public service faculty to get her work accomplished and across a wider spectrum of university units:

There’s several different cohorts here, I guess – there are – on my staff – in addition to me there are two other (public service) faculty. And there
are other policy people too in my area (discipline) at the college. And then there also is a group of faculty on campus, mainly public service and outreach, that do sort of sustainable growth kind a things like I do - so there’s a cohort too. And then at the state level there are a number like me – there are a lot of us who work on the growth issues, I’m a part of that and there’s a nongovernmental organization, sort of public interest types. And I’m a part of that cohort. And then at the federal level not as much… (but), I am asked to come and talk about what I do here around the country, like U.C. Davis and Yale last year and University of Alaska (this year).

As a teacher and administrator for many years at different institutions and more recently taking a position as a public service administrator, P5 appeared to align himself with teaching faculty. It did not seem to matter to P5 what rank or professional track another person held, being a teacher was the characteristic that connected him most closely to a collection of peers. “I align myself with those who are teachers. The difference is in the fact that I’m ‘old school’ I don’t think you should be a faculty member if you don’t teach. So, I don’t care what you do. You shouldn’t be called a faculty member (if you don’t teach). P4 also sees himself as a teacher and believes outreach can be an offshoot from instructional efforts and does not have to be initiated through traditional public service programs:

For me there is not much support (in what I do) from other outreach faculty – probably because – politically the way extension is set up - is totally separate (from what I do). So the interaction with other public service faculty is minimal at best. The outreach I do is more service
learning focused. It’s outreach in the broader sense, but not necessarily done through outreach offices or extension. (For example), my colleague and I work with a group in my area (discipline) that is similar to doctors with borders. The program is more student focused and our university now has an official charter. So that is a service-oriented activity, but it’s primarily done through instruction.

P5 believes there is a group of public service faculty to engage with and form a sense of community, but you have to work at it:

Resources are available for these faculty, but you have to find your own connections. I always encourage our young people to go get to the meetings and make the thing (connections) happen. And, I think it’s beneficial to them and they begin to know a lot of things that will help their career.” P5 indicates, however, to really make linkages happen and form a sense of community, administrators like himself often have to drive the issue a bit. And it requires faculty to get out of their comfort zone, to associate with others who are in different programs, schools, or colleges.

P5 describes a recent public service faculty hire:

For instance, we have a young guy here who just finished his Ph.D. We hired him under the environmental water grant to help with water and wastewater (issues) from food processors. None of the other of us was experts in wastewater. But, I knew Dr. S. with expertise in applications of food processing. So we really encouraged him to work with this guy and they did. So now, I think the university is going to hire him (for a full-
time position) because he’s one of the five folks in the world that know
how to do these things. That’s what collaboration brings.

A unique perspective voiced by P5 is the potential job vulnerability of public service faculty that
may occur from their inherent exposure to public issues and officials. He compares this level of
vulnerability to other faculty, who do not work directly with the public:

Like I said, these (traditional) faculty are not exposed as much as the
(public service) guy who is out in the industry. You make a mistake with
a client like Coca-Cola or somebody down here’s brother is elected to
county commission, everybody is going to know it. Screw up in the lab
and nobody knows it but you.

He describes public service faculty being out, about, and in front of the community, having the
added responsibility of maintaining professional and academic credibility:

When you’re fronting – if you’re the spokesperson for anybody and you’re
front for them or making the interface trying to – the only thing you have
to sell is your believability. That makes you very, very vulnerable because
if you happen to make a mistake. I get calls from people in industry and
in government saying, ‘Do you know somebody who can do this work for
us?’ Now, if I tell them, one time, and the wrong person I’m just
finished… If you do it right you get a lot of good stuff, and if you make a
mistake it’s amplified. Because they’re out there and people see them.
Communication is more open. People communicate back with their
bosses better because most of their bosses were ex-communicators as well.
Information flow, good and bad, is pretty rapid. I’ll give you a ‘for
instance,’ not here but another place I worked. Some of the extension folks showed up in a rally against the guy who got elected governor, driving university vehicles. Word got back to his campaign, and before the night was over he got elected. Let’s just say, he remembered.

When asked if that gives public service faculty a sense of paranoia, P5 responds:

I don’t know if it’s paranoia or just plain realistic assumption - maybe it’s amplified. That’s a feeling you get. I listen to them. It’s (a perspective) one that most of them won’t talk to you about, but I think that’s a concern. So no, I don’t think it’s paranoia. I think it’s real. I think they feel like they are under more of the microscope. Although, no one can live under a microscope, microscope syndrome is much more in public service than it is (for faculty working) in the lab.

The majority of public service faculty interviewed expressed a significant level of vulnerability for their positions and program activities, due to a sense of insufficient support in terms of stable funding and appraisal of work. P2 was the most direct about how susceptible she felt with her job and relayed a recent conversation she had with a co-worker: “and she asked me, have you ever felt your job was actually secure here during your entire time? I said, no. Maybe the first or second year I did, but after that, you know, I just felt like it was year to year. I could have my job next year and I could not. I just feel like it could go away, poof, like that any minute.”

P7 also described the tenuous nature of her position. Because of her unique skill set and area of specialty, P7 was highly sought after during her time at the university; however, when a
couple of principal investigators for whom she worked left and some long standing grants started
to dry up, she found her position highly susceptible to elimination:

Well, at this point, that grant is over; okay? And the… partnerships, which I was part of for all these years, is starting to – I don’t want to say disintegrate, but some key people who were head of it have left. So now there’re individual parallel projects and most people are affiliated with a particular project, but I’m kinda scattered across several of them; and my funding, which is all soft money, is very tenuous. So I’m basically employed through May and after that – Unless the core grant funding comes in, I’m not employed.

P7 communicates the contract nature of her position and the implications:

Cause in public service you have no tenure – so that’s where I am right now and – which is not a comfortable place in some ways; in other ways, you know, you do what you can. I’m looking around; I’m trying to find other positions. I would like to continue with an appointment that has, at least, a portion of public service in it because I found that kind of work very rewarding, but it’s much harder to maintain that kind of funding and position, to me.

P7 did not necessarily relate the tenuous nature of her job to her public service appointment as to the fact that it is a non-tenure track position:

Not sure I feel it (vulnerability) being public service, as just the soft money status. In these positions, you are never tenured. At the associate level I got, you know, promoted, but – But there’s no guarantee of
continued employment with the promotion. And so – personal sustainability [Laughter] – Can be an issue if you’re not a line item, and again, I don’t know that that’s necessarily an aspect of being public service, being on soft money. So, it’s hard for me to parse out things that are aspects of being public service faculty versus things of being not in a department and being on soft money.

P1 believes a lack of stable funding is more prevalent with public service faculty because these units are often not driven by priorities of the state, but by where the money is available. Thus, each unit must focus their priorities on finding the funding. He views this as a “survival for the fittest” mentality. “I think the strategy is let the ones who can’t raise their money and then the ones who are raising money can kinda swim. So luckily we were strongly rooted in good funding.” However, he views this susceptibility to be inequitable and not meeting the mission of the land-grant ideal: “For some reason I thought that um my brain and my abilities would be paid for by the people of the State and then we would be allowed to do all these projects. The truth is that the projects drive my commitment to the citizens of State.” He refers to these as “in and out projects.” And although, he believes these projects are meaningful, they are more akin to the private sector and must be completed according to a compressed time-frame, “rather than by their needs for deep and continued research,” expected from a university. P1 laments that public service faculty often find themselves having to “hurry a project along just so that you can get it completed and get the check through the door, which is the pressure that is put on you from the fiduciary side of the University.” In contrast, he sees that other faculty working on research are able to methodically pace their work and get better results:
A project that is conducted over a two-year span, um, actually produces better results than one that is crowded into three months. And in our field...especially, the longer-term projects through growing seasons especially tend to be better, but we don’t usually get that. Certainly we don’t get more than a year’s time to look at the project.

P6 notes that a public service faculty member is often defined by how the position is funded, which is often from different “pots of money” that includes soft money from grants, but also can come from state funds, when part of the assignment is for teaching. She notes that the funding for the teaching component of her job is “sustainable:”

Well, I guess I should say that I am public service faculty. I’m identified by the public of – the Office of Public Service and Outreach as 100 percent public service faculty. However, in this college my funding comes from different pots of money, so to speak. So half my time – or 49 percent of my time, which is 49 percent on paper, is for instruction. So I’m on the department’s (instruction) faculty. So we say half time; legally it’s not half time. But I do teach half time, so I teach four to five courses a year. And again, I’m public service but you can teach with that – with a public service designation. So half my money comes from an instructional budget, so state money – it comes through that way, which is sustainable. And my PhD is in the area (that the department needed), so it made sense to them to ask us (P6 and colleague). So the department said we really could use your expertise, so please come teach for us.
While the teaching component provides a level of sustainability, funding for the outreach component is less secure:

And the other half of my time is spent in outreach… and that has looked – it’s looked one way in the past, and it’s probably going to look a little different in the future. I came here on as 100 percent outreach, in a (state–wide) collaborative project. So that was what my work was for, and that was solely funded by grants. You know most (grants) they’re three to five (year). And we’re just now phasing it out, and it started 1989. So our grant money was diminishing, and we really didn’t need to search for more. And the department had lost several faculty members from things like just moving and retiring and those kinds of things. So then that’s how it worked from being 100 percent soft money, grant money, totally outreach to half-time teaching and then half-time outreach. And of course, there’s really no such thing as two half-time jobs. I mean, there’s – you can divide the money in half, but it’s really more like two full-time jobs.

P3 also talks about the fact that teaching and research are considered paramount to the university mission, and faculty are paid for conducting these assignments out of the primary instructional budget. However service is not. “I’m 100% service and… money should come for service, not (just for) teaching.” He believes service should be valued and funded even it is comes out of “some other pot of money.” Yet, he has resigned to the fact that it is due to “turf” and “administrator decisions” based on their own priorities, instead of what is best for the public and the land-grant mission of the university. P3 sees his job as “mission critical.” He provides an example of mission critical work by describing his responsibility for “producing materials that
address (a) particular problem for a particular audience…its’ looking at the future and trying to help our future generations know that (natural resources) are renewable and if we manage them properly, we’ll have them forever. So that’s what I think it’s very critical.”

Social aspects of academic-based public service

The participants voiced consensus for connecting the civic and social aspects expected of a land-grant institution to the learning and research components of the university and saw these social aspects of public service as overriding attributes to their job. Although most noted this was not easy to achieve, the participants cited need for increased collaborative partnerships with their tenure-track faculty colleagues. Collectively, the participants cited beneficial reasons and ways to initiate and sustain collaboration with and between public service units and other constituents both inside and outside the academy. These included, relating the communal and social aspects of public service, and finding connections through funding.

Since the mission of public service is focused on issues directly affecting society, meaningful projects can serve as a “life-line,” when other aspects of the academic job are not going smoothly. In describing a strategically planned, but difficult reorganization of her college in which “neither the goals nor the process were clear,” P7 saw that a collaborative public service project that she and several of her tenure and non-tenure track colleagues were already engaged in provided a sense of stability during a challenging time. P7 believes that people “interact more around meaningful work (because) people like to do things that they feel – matters.” During the tough time of transition P7 felt that the change had “sucked away all the energy available (and that faculty) were in survival mode, and didn’t have extra energy for extra effort things.” But, she believes that the faculty involved in the public service project “kind of clung to (it) as a lifeline.” P7 describes the benefits of the project:
It was something that was still rewarding; and those involved (in it) believed ‘this is something that brings me together with people who are doing work I care about. This is something that’s still a good place to be.’ So that was a really interesting dynamic to watch.

P7 believes that “sometimes the connections that public service offers with other departments and the spin-offs (that can result) cause people to start collaborating in their day jobs in ways that they might not have otherwise.” Thus, according to P7, academically based public service projects can act as “intangibles or kind-of payoffs for the faculty that are oriented that way to start with.” She continues:

It’s rewarding to work with colleagues who also care about certain issues, and while they might not have started for love, or (they are not fully involved) because they can’t and life is too full, once they’re in it, you know, very often people will keep doings things. (In these cases,) the work itself will pull some folks in naturally, (because) it appeals to the sense of doing meaningful work.

P1 believes outreach endeavors are often not captured effectively in terms of academic rewards, but maintains that the success and value of the work is measured by in terms of helping to resolve tangible problems for specific communities.

I think probably outreach efforts have their own level of success that is hard to capture on publication lists, forms, and curricula vitae. I think that being artificially defined within a our discipline within a school isn’t reflective of how life is outside the University. Working on cross-disciplinary teams that are outside my school are much more reflective of
how real life is. And that’s why it seems more successful. Um, single focus, single purpose delivery is rarely the effective (for community problems), except perhaps in very specific disciplines. Working on the community is satisfying, because you know you’re helping solve a problem.

P6 voices similar opinions. When asked about the impact of her work she notes:

Yes, I believe the impact is there. The evaluations from our groups (constituents) tell us that. We are bringing real needs (from the community) back to the institution or college and saying ‘Okay, how are we going to help?’ So we establish these formal relationships with our community partners and we do all kinds of evaluations about our work; the professional development that we offer. We’re always soliciting feedback from them, so that was how we are able to document impact.

Data from this study revealed perceptions of public service faculty regarding social and policy that influence their work, evaluation, and advancement. The findings were categorized into seven broad themes. In the subsequent chapter, these findings are assessed against a larger governance framework to create a grounded theoretical base to analyze professional self-identity of public service faculty.
CHAPTER 5

Analysis and Conclusions

Framework for Governance

The purpose of this research is to generate a grounded theory regarding the impact of organizational and internal governance elements and cultural norms on the work, action and professional identity of public service and outreach faculty. Data from the study revealed perceived social and policy patterns that impact the work, evaluation, and advancement of these faculty at RLGU. These perceived influences reinforced the general findings from the review of literature and included perceptions that public service work is not as highly valued as other academic pursuits and that public service faculty are often working at the fringes of higher education and their work and purpose often conflicts with the dominant academic faculty culture and priorities. Furthermore, the data provides a detailed accounting of perceived influential forces that drive the work and shape the identity of public service in academia.

These perceived influences, which are described in detail in chapter 4, have been blended, arranged, analyzed and categorized into a grounded theoretical base referred to as Framework of Relational Governance Influences on the Professional Identity of Non-Tenure Track Public Service and Outreach Faculty (Framework) (Figure 1). The Framework attempts to relate the data from the study to internal academic governance principals defined in chapter 2 by Kezar and others. The Framework is presented in an overlapping context, to demonstrate the integration and degree of specific influences on behavior that impact professional identity. The Framework is comprised of five broad sets of influences: (1) Extrinsic Pressures, (2) Cultural
Norms, (3) Technical Factors (4) Social Cognition, and (5) Internal Motivators. Examination and analysis of the Framework may expose social patterns that reveal a particular reproductive process, for or against the creation and/or sustainability of academic-based public service programs.

Figure 1: Framework of Relational Governance Influences

**Extrinsic Pressures**

The first influence in the proposed Framework is extrinsic pressures, which includes a set of governance influences at the broadest and highest level. These are factors that impact the work of all faculty and include the overall University System, Academic Governance, Accreditation, Professional Societies, State and Federal Government, the General Public, and the Business Community. Since this study was intended to explore perceptions of internal governance structures at the unit and personal level, it is beyond the scope of this research project to elucidate the impact of these governance-related extrinsic factors on professional identity. Moreover, these factors were rarely mentioned in the interview data, because the
interview questions were purposely posed to gain insight into the daily lives of the faculty members to determine influences at a more personal level. It is worth noting, however, that the Framework would be incomplete without referring to these extrinsic influences. This is because they drive much of the decision making with regards to broad strategic goals, academic priorities, funding, political impact, the formation of cultural norms, and what is routinely defined as acceptable work performance in institutions of higher education. Argyris (1998) presents a helpful distinction between external and internal commitment. He notes that external commitment is more akin to compliance rather than to true commitment. External commitment is “contractual in nature and can be engineered and expected to a reasonable degree, whereas internal commitment is based on personal motivations and is purely voluntary” (Argyris, 1998, p. 101).

The contractual nature of the extrinsic pressures can be seen in the overall governance framework that exists at RLGU. Among other elements, these pressures are exerted by university statutes, accreditation guidelines, and the formalized arrangement of tenure and non-tenure faculty lines. Moreover, as a public university, RLGU is highly influenced by the state legislative and executive branches of government, particularly with issues like budgeting and paying salary lines. It is within this overall context of extrinsic factors that the other components of the Framework must ultimately be viewed.

Cultural Norms

The second influence in the proposed Framework is cultural norms. Exploring cultural impact includes identifying core cultural principles of the institution, and determining how these entrenched issues can thwart or facilitate governance (Kezar & Eckel, 2004). From this investigation, it is noticeable that public service faculty have developed their own cultural
patterns of behavior and practices that appear to be unique and somewhat distinct from the traditional tenure track academic faculty base. This unique cultural subset, however, subsists within the larger conventional culture of tenure track academic underpinnings. Consequently, the overriding culture appears to govern what is and what is not significantly valued, which is interpreted by public service faculty as indifference regarding their own work. Below is an analysis of the cultural manifestations elucidated from the research.

In general, it appears that the public service culture can be characterized as working on concrete problems that arise from real-world issues. It is also a culture of self-reliance and finding internal meaning and purpose for work. There is a true sense of passion in the job that public service faculty do, but the potential downside is that they are often too focused on their day-to-day activities centered on societal issues to pursue other scholarly activities. Described by participants as a “clash in cultures,” between the “academic culture” and the “professional world,” there is a strong propensity to get and keep contracts and technical agreements that sustain the public interface and subsequent funding for their work. Thus, much of the cultural behavior of the public service faculty seems to be related to a palpable internal drive to launch new projects that will not only make a difference, but also justify their existence and support their salaries. Because of this tension, public service faculty are characterized as “going it alone,” getting money from multiple and less prestigious sources, and finding answers or strategies for existing problems -- as opposed to systematically cultivating a preliminary concept, looking for funding, and producing published findings. Thus, even with terminal degrees and similar credentials, it appears that faculty who have been recruited from the professional arena into academia, do not fare as well with regards to academic credibility, promotion, and pay as do those who have not held a position outside academia. Participants used expressions such as
“survival of the fittest” and “turf” struggles when describing their funding sources. Since each one felt that he or she must be self reliant with regards to both funding and appraisal of their own work, collectively they also believed that support for their jobs and programs was more tenuous than for other academic pursuits. Consequently, there was an ever-present underlying sense of vulnerability.

Another reason for an apparent self-reliance may come from the fact that there is not as strong a group cohesion and defined culture within the public service faculty line as there could be. Several participants expressed a sense of isolation in their department. Often there may be only one public service faculty member in a unit or perhaps in a college. This was evidenced by words like “unique,” “one of a kind,” and “placeholder” to describe themselves. With limited mentoring from other public service faculty and not a strong cohesion from within the faculty track to draw upon and help guide work, individual faculty found comradeship from subsets of colleagues that each formed for him or herself. Mostly they appeared to create a sense of community within their own professional discipline or from other professionals outside the university, who may or may not hold faculty positions. But, rarely did they feel a sense of unity from other public service faculty. As one participant noted, “what I really do doesn’t tie too much into everybody else here at my college.” Thus, most of the work that each participant performed required a significant level of self-sufficiency and personal conviction to accomplish his or her goals. Although perhaps not readily apparent to the participants in this study, it appeared that being out of the faculty mainstream in some ways freed up these faculty to more aggressively pursue their passion and conviction for academic-based public service. Consequently, the sentiments documented may have been less fervent if the participants had been part of the mainstream culture.
Concomitantly, the lack of unity among the public service faculty as a whole may dilute the message of academic based public service initiatives broadly at RLGU. Hence, there is not a collective voice to express consensus around the meaning and mission of public service and outreach, its promotion track and assessment process, its unique terminology, and its priorities. The participants noted that this cultural inconsistency was in large part due to a lack of emphasis from the top down regarding the importance of public service to the university and lack of clear strategic direction for public service initiatives coming from administration. Evidence included expressions that administration appeared to have “switched directions” regarding strategic priorities, leading units to “react to what already had already been decided at a higher level.”

There was an expressed need for more collective input from public service faculty involved in intentional decision-making and setting university priorities for public service. In turn, there was a feeling that the lack of involvement was due to a deficiency of central processes needed to effectively rally public service faculty together, to collectively determine strategic direction, and to promote cohesion. There was a sentiment that public service administrators may not adequately represent their faculty at the higher levels of faculty governance. For instance, discussion of the value of their work is not clearly disseminated to the university as a whole and assistance in changing governance policies to assure equity, such as serving on university committees, is limited. Instead, the public service track talk is often restricted to public service initiatives occurring at a grassroots level, where public service faculty informally discuss among themselves the value of their academic work and profess their own importance to the land-grant university ideal.

Another unique cultural aspect identified with public service faculty is being out and in front of public service issues that are community-based and political in nature. The public
service arena is described as sitting at the cross roads between the university’s environment of academic elitism and the state’s political landscape. Thus, these faculty take very seriously the requirements of ensuring political decorum, maintaining strong communication with outside constituents, and honing their public relations skills. They are depicted as representing the face of the university with public constituents, described by one participant as “being under the microscope.” That makes public service faculty more vulnerable to political responses, and to potential retaliation. Moreover, because they do not have tenure, there is the potential threat to their intellectual autonomy to investigate the problems and solutions about which they are most passionate.

**Technical Factors**

The third influence in the proposed *Framework* is technical factors. Technical or contextual factors have been defined as organizational factors as opposed to psychological factors. They can be considered, for the most part, to be determined by the organization’s policies and culture. They include such concepts as communication channels and network systems (Siegall & Gardner, 2000). In the working environment, it is useful to determine how these factors can affect one's self-efficacy and, therefore, empowerment. Herrenkohl, Judson, and Heffner (1999) developed a helpful structure for classifying dimensions of “technical empowerment,” which includes a set of four broad dimensions that characterize the interaction between workers and their environment. Embedded within the four dimensions are a number of factors that can be measured to help determine a level of employee empowerment. In Herrenkohl’s study, two of the factors (1) fairness of the recognition system and (2) decisions about work processes, most clearly contributed to discriminating between those individuals in the study who felt “more empowered” versus those who felt “less empowered” in their jobs. The
most significant factor in the study related to how an employee perceive fair and equitable recognition of his or her achievement and include issues such as fairness in reward distribution and recognition of accomplishments. The second most relevant factor, “decisions about work processes,” is closely related to the first. It concerns autonomy for work decisions and appropriate supervision. Clearly there was a direct correlation between supervisors, who understood an employee’s line of work and who provided autonomy in decision-making, and employees who felt more empowered.

With regards to the study at hand, misunderstandings and disregard of the public service evaluation and promotion process by supervisors were among the most significant findings of this research. Thus, the results in this study seem to provide evidence to the work of Herrenkohl et. al. The majority of the public service faculty felt they were inappropriately assessed by supervisors, who did not understand or appreciate the kind of academic work for which they were hired. Comments such as “I don’t think they’ve ever known really how to evaluate (us),” or “(there is a) double standard,” indicating that that public service faculty are held to two sets of standards for promotion show a sense of disconnect between the perceived work by public service faculty and assessment by their supervisors. In addition, decisions about work processes, which Herrenkohl et. al. saw as the second most significant technical factor affecting empowerment in their study, was also described in this study. In talking about work process, one participant said, “I feel that the administration at this institution doesn’t have a really good grasp of what public service is and as a result, I think that a lot of us within public service don’t either.” Several participants made reference to an inappropriate comparison in work and outputs between public service faculty and tenure track faculty. Remarks like “how do you compare someone who part of their job is to crank out books with someone whose job is to go out and
work in schools?” or “I was going through the process like it would make a difference to my pay or advancement.” These and other comments in the data set indicate disconnects in how the technical processes are translated for and by public service faculty.

Social Cognition

The fourth influence in the proposed Framework is the social cognition of individuals. As described earlier, “legitimate” organizational structures advance services and actions that are "desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs and definitions” (Ruef & Scott, 1998, p. 878). In order for public service faculty to develop professionally in the dominant culture, they must have an understanding and make sense of the social, organizational, governance, and policy patterns that are attributed to an organization’s success, what Wood and Bandura call “social cognition” (Wood & Bandura, 1989). For the most part, the public service faculty interviewed had a high level of social cognition compared to the constraints that the tenure track faculty were under to conduct research and get their work published before their time runs out for promotion and tenure. They voiced the realization that tenure track faculty must focus on other more prominent and visible academic pursuits defined by their academic disciplines and departments. In turn, they realized that the tenure track faculty do not have much time to be involved in public service activities or to collaborate with public service faculty, even if they wanted to participate.

In almost every case, public service faculty indicated they “understood” why collaboration was not occurring with their tenure track colleagues. They identified the pressures that tenure track faculty experience to get promoted and tenured; the requirement to teach based on department assignments; the prescribed academic schedules that were difficult to alter for sporadic public service assignments; the need to remain focused and current in their disciplinary
areas; and, the need to stay connected with academic peers for recognition, rewards, and further promotion. One participant noted that lack of time or priorities for tenure track faculty should not necessarily be perceived as an aversion on their part for engagement in outreach projects. He stated “it’s an ‘all about me’ type of attitude. And they have to… otherwise, they will perish in the eyes of the academy.”

Thus, in many ways a high level of social cognition in this area appears to be helpful in understanding the tenure track perspectives and limitations on collaboration. This perception by public service faculty also appeared to assuage the notion that tenure track faculty did not want to work with them and instead reinforced a “reality” that it simply was not possible based on their distinct cultural priorities. On the other hand, because of this ingrained sense of social cognition, the culture on both sides was continually being reinforced and shaped by the “fact” that these groups had different priorities and simply could not justifiably work together. Hence, the status quo was maintained and not challenged.

While voicing an understanding and appreciation for the stresses and responsibilities required of the tenure track system, participants were in accord that tenure track faculty, university administration, and other decision makers possessed a low level of social cognition with regards to the public service arena. In every data set, participants voiced some level of frustration that the role and contributions of public service faculty were not adequately appreciated or understood. Moreover, they felt that there was misunderstanding or unawareness of the public service guidelines, mostly among their tenure track colleagues and administrators. Some participants concluded that public service guidelines are too unique and they did not criticize tenure track faculty for misunderstanding their role and promotion guidelines. However, there did seem to be significant abuses of the system. There were instances where
supervisors utilized tenure track faculty guidelines when reviewing public service faculty annual evaluations and promotion assessments. In some cases, this appeared to be due to a general unawareness of the public service guidelines. Then again, in other cases, supervisors were apathetic and not willing to understand the different criteria, or resolute that all faculty be evaluated against the conventional tenure track criteria. In one case, the supervisor suggested that the public service faculty member switch to a different non-tenure track faculty line, disregarding the years spent working to achieve the public service promotion guidelines. This lack of understanding was also exemplified in the tenure track colleagues’ interpretation of public service promotion. For instance, one participant’s previous colleagues and mentors rebuffed her for taking a public service appointment. Another participant was encouraged to apply for a tenure track position, even if it meant lower pay and rank. This apparent lack of social cognition among tenure track faculty and especially those tenure track faculty that supervise public service faculty is disconcerting at best and may result in harmful assessments and unfair delay in promotion and advancement for public service faculty.

Social cognition for what is valued and rewarded in the academic setting was certainly evident to the public service faculty interviewed. They understood the importance of mimicking the conventional approach for gaining legitimacy in their work, peer recognition, status, and rewards. Several pointed to the area of teaching academic coursework and degree-based curriculum development as ways to stay relevant in the academic setting. They also developed a stronger sense of job security after being assigned a teaching load, because money for teaching came from the more stable instructional budget instead of the more precarious soft money accounts from which many were paid. Some criticized their own public service colleagues for not teaching. However, it was pointed out that the public service faculty line is not funded to
teach academic courses, and each public service faculty member must get special authorization from the university to teach academic coursework – even if she or he possess the specific knowledge and skill set, or may be the most qualified person in the department to teach specific coursework. The need to get this authorization is an area of university social cognition that needs to be more fully explored.

By far the most influential approach for academic recognition is serving as a principal investigator on a grant that employs other faculty. If grant money was obtained by a specific public service faculty member, an immediate degree of status was afforded him or her, proportional to the amount of the grant and/or the prominence of the granting authority. Lastly, the participants spoke about publishing in peer-reviewed journals and producing other scholarly work. Some felt they “could and probably should” write-up and get their work published more widely in peer-reviewed journals. Others felt that the unique work they produced, like technical bulletins and state or workforce reports were scholarly, but not fully or equally recognized as published articles. With contemporary perspectives that value multiple types of scholarship, like that of Boyer’s (1990), further exploration of social cognition among all faculty regarding the cultural norms and the value of alternative scholarship, is needed.

More research into social cognition higher education should be explored, especially in relation to public service and non-tenured issues. It may lead to what Mezirow and Kegan (2003, p. 58) call “adaptive learning,” which is “transformative” and involves a change in one’s “frame of reference” in order to “act on our own purposes, values, feelings, and meanings rather that those we have uncritically assimilated from others.” In this case, adaptive thinking about what is truly valued may lead to transformation learning and greater empowerment. Yet, as was pointed out in Chapter 2, according to Mezirow and Kegan (2003) effective transformation only
occurs by critically exploring both “objective reframing” (critical reflection on the assumptions of others) and “subjective reframing” (critical self-reflection of one’s own assumptions). Moreover, Mezirow and Kegan observe that for transformative leaning to truly be effective it must also occur “in an environment of freedom and trust” that allows for different viewpoints to be considered (Mezirow, 2003, p. 60). Therefore, further studies of social cognition enhancement should be explored from multiple aspects including, objective and subjective reframing techniques and in a context where trust is considered.

Internal Motivators

The fifth influence in the proposed Framework is internal motivators. This research reveals that the participants’ professional identities appear to be highly influenced by internal perceptions of an individual’s level of commitment, motivation, competence, and autonomy regarding their work as public service faculty. Thomas and Velthouse (1990, p. 660), refer to these internal perceptions as “task assessments” or personal judgments that reinforce a person’s behavior, ultimate action, or work and consist of “cognitive constructs of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact.” Although task assessments are often deep-seated and relatively difficult to change, they are constantly being shaped by one’s interpretation of (outside) environmental events as well as one’s assessment of their own work over time. Thus, change in behavior happens “incrementally,” as a result of learning and interaction (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Similar to Thomas and Velthouse’s model, this study seems to indicate that internal beliefs and behaviors are continually shaped in part through a lens of social cognition or a shifting degree of understanding regarding the governance process. Using Thomas and Velthouse’s (1990) schematic of task assessments (meaning, competence, self-determination,
and impact), what follows is a brief summary of some of the internal influences discovered in this researcher’s dataset.

Meaning.

All participants expressed a strong conviction regarding the meaning of their work. This was in spite of an overarching belief that others may view their work as less meaningful academic work than more visible activities like teaching and research. Mostly, they felt that others in the academy see their pursuits as “non-scholarly,” since they are often not actively engaged in the basic research. However, they also noted accounts where public service projects provided a sense of stability for entire departments.” Moreover, they repeatedly talked about their work as “meaningful” and “rewarding.” They noted that public service work could help “make connections,” and provide “intangibles” like a sense of community and support that “pulls some folks in naturally,” characteristics that are not readily apparent in other academic pursuits. This level of commitment toward meaningful public service work was sometimes in spite of external pressures that seemed to indicate otherwise. For instance, when one of the participants was told by her previous major professor and the faculty that she was “ruining her life” by accepting a non-tenure track public service position, she noted in the interview “I didn’t really feel like it was a step down, because it to me was exciting.” Others appeared to get meaning out of the diverse nature of their jobs and the public service faculty appointment allows them to do more than just service work. As one participant noted, “I am able to do it all,” referring to the ability to teach, administer programs and conduct meaningful outreach.

Competence.

None of the participants expressed a lack of competence in their ability to effectively perform their job. In fact, all demonstrated a sense of self-efficacy regarding their own skills
and abilities to perform their job at a high level. However, there were perceptions that others in the university system, including their tenure track colleagues, and their supervisors saw them as less competent, less educated, or less trained than a traditional faculty member. Two participants expressly indicated that tenured-track faculty members demonstrated a “lack of confidence” in their work because of their holding the title “public service,” indicated that the title was viewed as “non-scholarly” and less important. In addition, one participant without a Ph.D. felt that other faculty avoided collaboration with him on projects because he did not hold a terminal degree. He also felt that being tagged “service faculty,” and being non-tenured disenfranchised him from forming effective partnerships with tenured-track faculty.

**Self-Determination and Choice.**

In terms of self-determination and choice, there seemed to be differing perceptions among the study participants. On the one hand, they possessed significant autonomy in their job. This was often due to the lack of integration with other aspects of the academic department. They were frequently the sole public service faculty member in the unit, having been hired to handle a broad section of service related functions. This provided opportunities to independently seek projects and funding; partner with colleagues and outside professionals with similar academic interests; and, build offices and departments by obtaining sustainable funding. One participant referred to the position as “living a dream.” On the other hand, for purposes of assessment of work, and for promotion by their supervisors and governance decisions at the department and university levels, these faculty often felt alienated and like “second-class” citizens. For instance, some were evaluated by department heads and deans using criteria that did not fit the work being performed. They were evaluated against a tenure-track format for annual performance reviews and for promotion. Others found that they never received
evaluations of their work or that their work was dismissed because their supervisors did not attempt to understand their work or held complacent or unconcerned attitudes toward the work or the assessment process for public service faculty. One participant expressed that after some attempt to communicate with the department head about an appropriate evaluation process, he was told “oh, just design your own.” Subsequently, he noted “so I did, and that’s what I report on now, and it looks like I’m doing great!” This was consistent with other participants whose assessment process were “self-generated,” with little feedback from supervisors -- one saying she felt she was doing a good job because she has not “been thrown out yet,” and she did not “get yelled at too much.” Surprisingly, the apparent lack of concern and direction did not appear to affect the overall morale of these faculty. One did admit that the seemingly unmanaged process for promotion negatively impacted the desire and enthusiasm for her to even start the promotion process. Yet, when she decided to go up for promotion, it was a good experience. Thus, even with the apparent lack of feedback, most participants seemed to have a sense of autonomy and adhered to an intrinsic measurement to gauge the quality of work they preformed.

**Impact.**

In Thomas and Velthouse’s model, *Impact* is defined as “making a difference,” in terms of accomplishing the “purpose of a defined task” and is based on a level of competence. As described previously, participants in this study demonstrated a strong propensity for accomplishing meaningful tasks assigned to the programs and projects they undertook (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Moreover, they felt relatively competent in the work they accomplished and that their work led to a successful impact. Participants used words and phrases like “meaningful,” and “doing work that really matters,” to indicate a level of impact. Consistent with the other findings, impact was mostly internally assessed, evidenced by one’s sentiment that
assessment and impact of work is a “personal issue… it’s (measured) by what I see that I can do and how many things I can improve.” However, Thomas and Velthouse’s extended definition of impact, also includes a dimension that was not as apparent in data. They propose that work impact should also be measured in terms of the “extent to which one feels able and inclined to influence strategic, administrative, and operative results at work” (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 674). This is a useful context to explore the perceived impact of the public service faculty.

Again, the public service faculty may have an internal belief of work impact, meaningfulness, and competency, but at the same time they do not appear to have significant influence on the strategic direction of academic priorities within their university. This was “ironic” to one participant, who noted that the value of her work was not appreciated by her home academic community, but was “valued outside the university” as a model of success. Another said she felt like “being a prophet in your own land,” espousing the virtues of public service work, but unable to substantially change the dominant culture’s attitude regarding the true impact of it to the academy.

In summary, the proposed governance framework provides a useful tool for examining internal perceptions of public service faculty regarding their professional identity. However, in the dissection and reformation process of these research data, it is valuable to look at a potential collective model that integrates the overall impact of the Framework components to suggest a set of propositions for further examination. The next section suggests three propositions along a continuum of self-identity, which may provide clues to a larger context of reality and help plan for a more democratic and sustainable faculty.
Propositions

As described in Chapter 2, Brewer and Gardner (1996, p. 83), present a model of how individuals define themselves in terms of their relationships to others and to social groups. Their research, resulted in the identification of three levels of self-identities: personal self, relational self, and collective self. Each level of self-identity represents a “distinct form of self representation with different origins, sources of self-worth, and social motivations” (Brewer & Gardner, 1996, p. 83). The model is useful to assign degrees of “individuation and differentiation of the self from others (in a group) to promote assimilation and unit formation” (Brewer & Gardner, 1996, p. 91). The personal self construct is one that focuses on discovering the uniqueness of an individual by exploring differences of self from all others. The relational self is dependent on interpersonal relationships that are most often “dyadic,” including one-on-one and other closely-associated relationships. Collective self identities do not require closely associated personal relationships; but, are formed from common connections and shared characteristics within a defined group or social category. This is most often seen in the form of professional groups or disciplines.

The concept of self-identity viewed along a continuum (personal-relational-collective) is useful in evaluating the components of the Framework as potential influences on self-identity. Thus, examining the impact that the Framework components have on the progression of professional self-identity may lead to specific recommendations for enhancing the self-identity and perceived feeling of legitimacy of public service faculty and other faculty groups that feel disenfranchised or isolated from the dominant academic culture. Based on this supposition, the following conclusions are stated as propositions for further study.
Proposition one: Public service faculty have a relatively high degree of personal self-identity compared to their relational and collective identities. Aspects of motivation, competence and empowerment appear to be relatively high in this study, as was their perceived impact of work, enjoyment, and values of their work. Through examination of intrinsic self-worth, they can internally compare themselves and the values of their work to others in the academy. In many respects it seems as if the service ideal is “in their blood” and they feel committed to their “mission” of public service. Part of the intrinsic motivation of this particular group of faculty may be due to their entering academia from professional fields. They came to academia with specific purposes after holding other professional employment and with a sense of being able to make a difference in their contributions to communities from their positions in higher education. Examining Proposition One: The personal self-identity of public service faculty can be more closely explored and potentially enhanced through a lens of internal influences such as motivation, competence, and empowerment. Not all public service, or non-tenure track faculty in general, may have a strong sense of personal self-identity. Further research that more closely examines these aspects of the Framework would be useful to investigate proposition one. In addition, social cognition may be the best way for the personal “self” to gain a level of appreciation of the differences among various groups in order to promote a context for its unique contributions and purpose.

Proposition two: Public service faculty have a moderate degree of relational self-identity compared to their personal and collective identities. Public service faculty have formed relationships with various colleagues and teams that are engaged in similar project-based work. These relationships have developed much to their own making and appear vital for building project-based work connections, and for developing comradeship. Pragmatically,
relationship building is necessary as a survival process in order to obtain funding for their positions. Equally important is their primary mission to be out in front of the public, seeking and building relationships and making associations between the academy and the real world. In this study, comradeship occurred with like-minded practitioners or academicians, or others who explore ways to promote the application of practice in academic work. Often these colleagues were outside the public service faculty member’s home department, college and university. Thus, there is not an adequate system within the university to engage and foster relationship building for these faculty with colleagues in the same setting.

Another area of relational self-identity that is diminished for these faculty is their connection with their tenured track-supervisors and tenure-track colleagues. This research shows that the participants perceive incongruence in how these faculty are assessed and promoted in a system that afford less value and legitimacy to public service work in comparison to teaching and research. These aspects, like fairness of the recognition system and decisions about work processes assessment can be identified as “technical factors.” Technical factors can be viewed as the rules necessary to maintain a relational self-identity. In other words, they act as the principles for evaluation and promotion. If these rules are misinterpreted or not evenly applied, or not taken seriously, the relational self-identity will likely suffer. Because the public service faculty’s work is often out of the academic mainstream or what has been historically valued, it is often difficult for supervisors to relate or effectively evaluate their work. Additionally, the assessment criteria and the process for developing dossiers are different than for the majority tenure-track faculty. Examining Proposition Two: Further research that more closely examines the technical factor aspect of the Framework would be useful to investigate proposition two. A close inspection of the evaluation, promotion, and recognition system should be conducted. In
addition, critically reviewing work processes will provide insight into how some groups have input into governance and decision issues, while other groups may not. By openly communicating perceived inequities and struggles to meet expectations, an enhanced relational self-identity with supervisors may develop. Moreover, greater social cognition by public service faculty of the tenure track assessment process and further group analysis of how public service work can be counted as scholarship may be helpful in more suitably fitting the evaluation criteria that tenure track supervisors look for in other faculty career tracks. This may enhance the relational self identity and connect more fully with tenure track faculty supervisors.

Proposition three: Public service faculty have a low degree of collective self-identity compared to their personal and relational identities. This is largely because public service faculty often perceive themselves to be outsiders in a dominant culture. Within the university, they have effectively been diminished in terms of governance, status, and assessment. Individually, they have connected with their original disciplines or with faculty having similar educational or professional backgrounds and have thus formed a level of collective identity in that regard. This of course is no different than university faculty in general, who align themselves with their disciplines nationally for comradeship, peer acknowledgment, and stature. However, public service faculty often have professional experiences and other skill sets that keep them less tied to specific groups considered to be scholarly in terms of mutual research and publication productivity, compared with the tenure track faculty. In addition, public service faculty are not equally integrated into the campus academic culture, since their work does not typically fit the customary cultural mold. Examining Proposition Three: The collective self-identity of these participants should be explored through a cultural lens, both at the dominant cultural level and within the sub culture of public service faculty. The data suggested that public
service do not feel connected to the dominant culture, while at the same time they experience a lack of unity and disconnectedness within their own faculty career track. This lack of unity can lead to a sense of isolation and diminish collective self-identity. Further studies to determine if groups who are not part of the mainstream should work to cultivate a distinctive subculture, should “mimic” the dominant culture, or should explore ways for the dominant culture to effectively recognize their academic contributions as equitable, should be explored. Each option has advantages and disadvantages. For instance, mimicking the dominant culture may bring about the quickest change toward gaining legitimacy within the organization. However, it may diminish the entrepreneurial and service mission that these particular faculty seem to enjoy and contribute to RLGU. Moreover, if public service faculty continue to develop a culture that is highly distinctive, it may lead to a level of connectiveness, but may also perpetuate vertical governance issues and less cohesion among faculty lines. Lastly, changing the dominant culture to fully accept the work and purpose of public service faculty takes a significant level of commitment from all sides, including changes in the extrinsic governance, like university statues and bylaws. The collective self-identity of public service faculty can also be more closely explored and enhanced through a lens of social cognition. As social cognition is enhanced, individuals for better or worse, understand how they fit or do not fit in with the majority culture. This could lead to important questions and approaches to build cohesion. Using the adaptive learning model defined by Mezirow and Kegan (2003), which incorporates objective and subjective reframing techniques within an environment of trust, may help bring about the “transformative” ideal of collective self-identity.
Conclusions

As with all qualitative research, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to all public service faculty or non-tenure track faculty. Instead the qualitative analysis allows for distinctions to be drawn from a discrete group of faculty who share some common demographics. The intent of this study was to reveal perceived organizational and internal governance elements that influence the work and professional identity of public service and outreach faculty. Taken as a whole, this research will contribute to understanding the world in which public service, non-tenure track faculty work. By interpreting the perceptions and experiences of this unique subset of faculty in relation to the larger cultural domain, organizational and internal governance influences may be identified that positively or negatively impact the professional identity and subsequent academic-based work of these faculty.

The propositions, which emerged from the data analysis may be individually explored in greater depth to determine the degree of these influences from other perspectives. For instance, perspectives from tenure track colleagues or supervisors of public service faculty would provide a more detailed accounting of socially constructed professional development impacts. In addition, the propositions may be used to design other qualitative or quantitative approaches to describe more fully or to test individual propositions. Lastly, a similar qualitative study could be conducted among various groups of non-tenure track faculty to collect descriptive accounts that would more fully describe their lived experiences. It is likely that the findings are not unique to public service faculty and the model could be employed for studying the professional identity of other faculty groups and their perceived feelings of legitimacy within the larger academic culture. Further analysis of faculty perceptions, who are not part of the current dominant
culture in higher education as to the value of work performed, may provide clues to a larger context of reality and help plan for a more democratic and sustainable faculty.
APPENDIX A

Full-Time Faculty and Allied Professional Staff by Rank and Function
Fall 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function/Rank</th>
<th>Prof</th>
<th>Assoc Prof</th>
<th>Asst Prof</th>
<th>Instr</th>
<th>Subtotal Faculty</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Rsch* Assoc</th>
<th>Serv** Assoc</th>
<th>Libr*</th>
<th>Other*</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>Experiment Stations</td>
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<td>1,751</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>2,832</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Senior Research Scientists, Associate Research Scientists, Assistant Research Scientists, Agricultural Research Scientists, Research Scientists, Research Associates. Does not include Postdoctoral Associates.

** Senior Public Service Associates, Public Service Associates, Public Service Assistants, Public Service Representatives, Extension Associates, Public Service Specialists.

+ Academic Professionals, Administrative Staff, Physicians, Clinical Ranks
APPENDIX B

Consent Form for Individual Interviews

I, _________________________________, agree to participate in a research study titled "Professional Identity of Public Service Faculty in a Research One Land Grant University”

This research is conducted by Paul Brooks, from the Office of Postgraduate Continuing Education and Outreach, College of Pharmacy at the University of Georgia (542-5343) under the direction of Dr. Libby Morris, Advisor, Institute of Higher Education, University of Georgia (542-3464). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have all of the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The purpose of this research is to identify structural and attitudinal influences that drive the work and shape the identity of public service professionals, who hold faculty status and work in traditional academic departments.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I am aware of and acknowledge the following:

1) All activities will be related to research that I am conducting for a dissertation required for the degree, Doctor of Education offered by the Institute of Higher Education.

2) I am at least 21 years of age.

3) There will be no reasonably foreseeable risks and/or discomfort.

4) Expected benefits could include an increased personal insight regarding the value of public and service faculty to the mission of the university.

5) There will be 1 interview that will last no more than one and one-half hours.

6) There may be a request for a follow-up interview to clarify or explicate portions of the first interview.

7) In addition, there may be a separate request for a focus group interview regarding the social context of public service professional identity. If you decide you are willing to participate in a focus group interview at a later date, a new and separate Consent Form will be required of you at that time to assure your willingness to participate in the focus group interview.

8) Interview responses will be recorded by the investigator using handwritten notes and audiotape recordings.

9) The names of participants will be kept confidential.

10) Confidentiality will be maintained by creating a pseudonym of each participant.

11) Confidentiality may not be guaranteed if disclosure, for some reason, is required by law.

12) Audiotapes will be securely stored in a locked file cabinet or stored in an alternatively safe place.

13) Audiotapes will not be publicly disseminated and will be destroyed within 6 months after the completion of data analysis.
14) Participants will have the right to review/edit transcripts by making a request to do so with the researcher.
15) The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project (542-5343).

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

Paul Brooks
Name of Researcher ______________________________ Signature ___________ Date ___________
Telephone:706-542-5343 Email:pbrooks@rx.uga.edu

_____________________________ Name of Participant Signature Date ___________

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher. Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The IRB Chairperson, Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu
APPENDIX C

Interview Questions

1. Brief description of your job.
2. When you interviewed for your job, what was it about your job that made it attractive to you? (fit and perceived purpose)
3. Has the job been what you thought it would be? Elaborate? (match between initial perception and current perception)
4. How critical do you view your position and your work in relation to your department’s or college’s goals or work? (perception of worth of their work)
5. How do you feel your work or position is viewed by non public service faculty or administrators? (perceptions as of equality with other faculty members in a land-grant)
6. How often and by whom are you evaluated? Is this a public service faculty person or someone in your discipline?
7. Now with regards to promotion, how appropriate is it to have a parallel non-tenured public service track system for promotion? (perceptions on how the separation of faculty by type of focus is working)
8. With regards to promotion, how and by whom were you guided or mentored through the promotion process? (structural support system for growth)
9. How do you know if you are doing a good job? (assessment of work by superiors and others)
10. How do you report or track the work that you perform? (assessment of work by superiors and others)

Additional Questions:

11. How equivalent are your rights or privileges as a faculty member compared to your nonpublic service faculty colleagues? (perceptions as of equality with other faculty members in a land-grant)
12. How about pay, status or others rewards? (perceptions as of equality with other faculty members in a land-grant)
13. From what source do the funds from your position come? (perceptions as of equality with other faculty members in a land-grant)
14. Do you think there are adequate resources such as mentorship, financial support of your program, advocacy, for advancing as a public service faculty member? (structural support system for growth)
15. With regards financial backing are you encouraged to have business of industry partners?
16. With regards to colleagueship are you encouraged to partner with other types of academia faculty
17. Are externally partnerships viewed more favorably towards promotion or other areas of significance,
18. How would you describe your working relationship with faculty in your unit who are not public service?

19. What discipline do you align yourself with? (most academic faculty align their sense of self with a discipline)

20. Who do you consider to be your closest colleagues with regards to the work you perform to be within in your unit, discipline, within another units in the university, etc

21. At UGA, do you feel there is sense of community among public service faculty or others to support the work you do? (structural support system for growth)

22. In what ways is the university strategic in promoting public service? (broader support for the mission of PS)

23. This university is both a land grant and a research one university, what do you think is the balance b/w these two missions? (balance of missions)

24. In what way is public service defined at UGA?
APPENDIX D

Initial Data Categories

1. Job Responsibilities
   a. Teaching
   b. Consulting
2. Management style
3. Hybrid job
   a. Real (professional) vs. academic world
      i. Advantages of academia
      ii. Parallels to Business world
4. System purposefully not collegial
5. Funding
   a. Go where the money is
6. Program Personnel
7. Developing New Projects
8. What Drives Projects
9. Characteristics of Public Service Faculty
10. Outside Projects
11. Inside Projects
12. Collaboration
    a. Role in collaboration
    b. Reasons collaboration works
    c. Reasons collaboration doesn’t work
    d. Need for collaboration
13. Value of public service outside
14. Value of public service inside
    a. Students
15. Tripartite mission
    a. Need better understanding of each mission
    b. System purposely not collegial - $ drives prestige and power
    c. Competition among units – may show we are more similar than not
16. Public service as scholarship
17. Unequal treatment of faculty
18. Advantages of being Public service
19. View of regular academic faculty
    a. Traditional academic preparation – grad school
20. Rewards/Promotion/Evaluation
    a. (What about publications and scholarship?)
21. Imbalance b/w profession & academic work
22. Different tracks
23. Disadvantage of being public service
   a. Misunderstanding of tracks
   b. Funding/positions vulnerable
   c. Still don’t measure up
   d. Second class citizen
   e. In the public eye, thus more vulnerable and more accountable
   f. Not rewarded for being the face of the university

24. Inconsistent message

25. Sense of community/Colleagues
   a. Mentorship
   b. Align self

26. Public Service in Academic units
   a. Job Creation
   b. Service Learning

27. Tenure vs. Nontenure
   a. Documenting work for promotion

28. Reasons for forging new programs/entrepreneurship
   a. What drives projects
   b. Perceived critical nature of own work

29. Mentorship
   a. Tricks of the trade

30. Governance
   a. Class pecking
   b. Governance ??(college level)

32. Strategic, mission-based work

33. View of Outreach/ Personal Philosophy
   c. Serve as ambassadors
   d. Bridge real world and academic world

34. Entry into Academia
   e. Previous career
   f. Hire them in public service faculty positions to qualify for grants or maintain a faculty line
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