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ABSTRACT

This report provides peer-reviewed, scholarly research supported in whole or in part by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement through its educational research and development programs. It includes 13 previously published articles from selected refereed journals identifying the best research on community service learning. Section 1, "Philosophy and History of Service Learning," includes (1) "Service Learning: An Introduction to Its Theory, Practice, and Effects" (Richard J. Kraft). Section 2, "National/State Trends," includes (2) "Institutional Support for Service-Learning" (Robert C. Serow, Diana C. Calleson, and Lani Parker). Section 3, "Institutional Trends and Issues," includes (3) "Implementing Service Learning in Higher Education" (Robert G. Bringle and Julie A. Hatcher) and (4) "Integrating Service and Academic Study: Faculty Motivation and Satisfaction in Michigan Higher Education" (Chris Hammond). Section 4, "Outcomes Assessment," includes (5) "Faculty Assessment of Student Learning: Outcomes Attributed to Service-Learning and Evidence of Changes in Faculty Attitudes about Experiential Education" (Garry Hesser); (6) "Integrating Community Service and Classroom Instruction Enhances Learning: Results from an Experiment" (Gregory B. Markus, Jeffrey P.F. Howard, and David C. King); (7) "Effects of an Undergraduate Program to Integrate Academic Learning and Service: Cognitive, Prosocial Cognitive, and Identity Outcomes" (Thomas H. Batchelder and Susan Root); (8) "The Impact of a College Community Service Laboratory on Students' Personal, Social, and Cognitive Outcomes"(Dwight E. Giles and Janet Eyler); and (9) "The Impact of Service-Learning on College Students" (Janet Eyler, Dwight E. Giles, and John Braxton). Section 5, "Program Design," offers (10) "In the Service of Citizenship: A Study of Student Involvement in Community Service" (Robert A. Rhoads). Section 6, "Evaluation and Research," includes (11) "An Assessment Model for Service-Learning: Comprehensive Case Studies of Impact on Faculty, Students, Community, and Institution" (Amy Driscoll, Barbara Holland, Sherril Gelmon, and Seanne Kerrigan); (12) "Campus Compact Special Report"; and (13)

"Research Agenda for Contributing Service and Learning in the 1990s" (Dwight E. Giles, Ellen Porter Honnet, and Sally Migliore). Appended are: service learning instruments; community service learning Websites; and community service learning organizations. (Contains 10 references.) (SM)

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FOREWORD

Advances in Education Research makes available to the public peer-reviewed, scholarly research supported in whole or in part by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) through its educational research and development programs. The goals of *Advances in Education Research* are to bring together from diverse scholarly sources first-rate, exemplary research that relates to important educational themes or topics; disseminate the results of funded research more widely to researchers, educators, and policymakers; serve as a forum for discussing, debating, and exchanging research results and perspectives of researchers and education practitioners; and increase public awareness of, access to, and use of high-quality education research that is central and indispensable to improving and strengthening American education.

This third volume of *Advances in Education Research* includes previously published articles from selected refereed journals, which identifies the best research on community service learning. The articles are reproduced with the permission of the authors and the journals in which they originally appeared. They were written by individuals who are practitioners and experts in the field of community service learning.

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This volume presents selected research articles related to community service learning. Each article was previously published in a refereed journal.

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Community Service Learning Movement

By Adrianna Kezar

Introduction

Over the past ten years, campuses and faculty have begun embracing community service learning (CSL) as a powerful pedagogical tool. Although new to many individuals on campuses today, community service learning emerged from the experiential education movement of the 1970s. The reason for the emergence of this movement was twofold: 1) the perceived lack of relevancy of college curriculum to public life and the public criticism that higher education was unresponsive to societal needs and issues; and, 2) social change movements in the 1960's (Rhoads, 1998). In the 1980's, service was marginalized as students and the public became focused on individual rewards and development. However, in the 1990's with the development of Campus Compact (1985), growing visibility for longstanding organizations such as National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE), federal support from the Clinton administration (1992), and the formation of the Corporation for National Service (1993), community service gained recognition as an important part of a college student=s experience. In the early 1990's further momentum was gained as NSEE convened hundreds of organizations to develop the principles of good practice for CSL. Many individual campuses such as Brown University, Stanford University, Brevard Community College, and the University of Michigan illustrated promising examples of service and grass roots leadership. Recognition of the power of CSL has grown tremendously in the last two years as a result of involvement by national higher education associations/organizations. For example, the American Association for Higher Education has begun providing leadership for this initiative, by developing an awareness among a greater number of campuses, committing individuals to the mission, helping to design programs, and integrating service into the disciplines. Now the task of developing a research and evaluation base to improve CSL efforts remains the last frontier. For this reason, this edition of AER is committed to the topic of community service learning. This publication showcases exemplary research already conducted and encourages further research.

What is community-service learning?

A few introductory comments are in order before reviewing the contents of this volume. First, the volume focuses on community service learning within the higher education context exclusively. There have been many research studies conducted within the K-12 literature that you may want to examine. The National Clearinghouse on Service Learning (NCSL) has a bibliography of ERIC resources on this topic on its website. Also, this edition focuses on studies of service tied to the academic experience and does not look at the research on community service or volunteer work. An ERIC search of the impact of volunteer work is also available through the (NCSL).

Second, it is important to note that definitions of community service learning vary widely. In fact, much of the recent literature is a search for a common definition in order to define the landscape of what is being referred to when studies of service learning are being reported. In the broadest sense, service learning is a form of active, experiential learning that utilizes service in order to ground the learning process. It draws heavily from the Deweyian theory that experience is essential for learning and the educational process (Kraft, 1996). Service learning utilizes a specific type of experience that involves working with the community and usually focuses on citizenship, service, and education as essential for a democracy (another Deweyian concept). Rather than struggle to develop one definition, most people now emphasize common characteristics or principles.

Four principles appear to underlie most definitions of community service learning (often referred to as preparation, participation, reflection, and evaluation):

1) preparation: involves setting academic objectives and goals including skills to be learned or issues to consider, and includes planning projects that will contribute to learning—many definitions of service learning suggest that this preparation be part of the formal academic curriculum, non-curricular models develop preparation through student affairs practitioners or student staff;

2) participation: the second component is performing service;

3) reflection: participants attempt to analyze the experience and draw generalizations, connections, and lessons through such means as discussions, journaling, formal essays, oral presentations; and,

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4) evaluation: program characteristics and design; community, institutional, student, faculty outcomes. (csf.colorado.edu/sl/what-is-sl.html)

The common core of community service learning is the setting of educational objectives, which often does not occur as students routinely work on a volunteer project. Perhaps the greatest distinction between community service learning and volunteer work is the structured reflection piece (Sigmon et. al., 1996). Within the service learning paradigm, reflection is the key to enhancing student learning because it makes connections between individual experience and theoretical understanding. Where definitions begin to differ is whether the experience must be a for-credit course, what the goals are, whether it is integrated into the traditional curriculum termed "academic service learning" (Howard, 1998), whether the community is involved and at what levels, where should CSL be housed (in student affairs, academic affairs, in specific schools and colleges), whether community outcomes are measured and part of the definition, and, whether the needs of the community dictate the service being provided (Sigmon et. al., 1996). Also, the structures of the actual programs differ widely. On some campuses there is a central office that administers programs; at others each school or college administers the community service learning opportunities.

Focus on evaluation and assessment

Although community service learning has been the subject of many publications in the last five years, it has not been the subject of much research. The majority of the community service learning literature is best practice ideas, highlighting model programs nationally. Unfortunately, these best practices are not based on certain criteria or traditional standards of research or evaluation. The other category of literature is descriptive studies such as the number of programs in a state, number of faculty or students involved, and areas of the curriculum where service is integrated. Minimal research analyzes what is a successful community service learning experience and why, what forms of reflection work best and why, or outcomes. Hesser noted that the 1980's and early 1990's was a time focused on developing programs, and assessment of service learning was done primarily for program evaluation, not impact (1995).

This compilation highlights empirical studies and attempts to encourage more of this type of research. Given the high level of advocacy for the integration of community service learning from various constituencies—policymakers, higher education associations, students, and communities—there is clearly a need for evaluation and more research, especially that which goes beyond descriptive studies. But as has been observed by individuals such as Deborah Hirsch of the New England Resource Center, "if this interest is going to be more than a swing of the pendulum, then practitioners, program administrators, faculty and researchers must be prepared to supply data on program impact and effect." I hope that this publication encourages this type of collaboration and continued research.

Organization of the contents

This edition of AER identifies and publishes the best research on community service learning available. The focus of the literature contained within this publication is empirical research or meta-analyses that captures the knowledge base to date on service-learning. Although it is not comprehensive in terms of capturing all empirical research, it captures the key pieces that are repeated as you scan the bibliographies of documents. It is organized along the following themes:

1) philosophy and history of service learning; 2) national and state trends; 3) institutional trends and issues; 4) outcomes assessment; 5) program design; and 6) evaluation and research issues.

Philosophy and history of service learning

It is important to understand the educational philosophy that undergirds community service learning. Since it deviates from some traditional notions in education, many will find the Kraft introduction to service-learning helpful in framing their thinking and in understanding the research that follows. Kraft also provides definitions, principles, and criteria for effective programming. Kraft=s meta-analysis of the research of descriptive and impact studies on service learning is a helpful introduction to the research on CSL. This sets the landscape for the more specific research studies presented throughout the volume.

National/state trends

Serow, Calleson, and Parker provide a helpful analysis of one state=s effort to institutionalize service learning. Due to the 1993 National Service Act, each state now has a Commission on National and Community Service. A research grant from the Corporation on National and Community Service allowed the authors to explore factors that influence institutional support for community service learning. Not surprisingly, the researchers found that faculty

involvement and emphasis on academic goals were both critical to institutionalization. This research looking at service from a broader system's perspective supports research at the institutional level.

Institutional trends and issues

Bob Bringle and Julie Hatcher's research on developing a model for integrating service learning into the college curriculum is based on a study of 44 institutions. The resulting model (Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning (CAPSL) illustrates the way that research can inform practice in significant ways. Faculty and student involvement, an office of community service learning, and partnerships and collaborations are critical to making service central to the mission of the institution.

Chris Hammond's research builds on the work of Bringle and Hatcher by providing research on faculty motivation for integrating service learning. She also explores levels of satisfaction and commitment to service in the long-term. This study of 23 institutions representing all sectors of higher education in one state helps us to understand the various facilitators and inhibitors integrating CSL into their pedagogy. Not surprisingly, outcomes for students is a strong motivator for faculty involvement in CSL, which is why the research on outcomes is so critical.

Outcomes assessment

Hesser's study of learning outcomes looks at faculty assessment of learning outcomes, rather than measuring student outcomes. His study of 48 faculty in 16 disciplines illustrates that faculty did perceive greater learning outcomes in several different areas, including learning about a culture different from their own, critically reflecting on values, understanding how communities function, and improving analytical skills. These findings are also important as they are tied to institutionalization and integration issues discussed earlier. As long as faculty get involved in CSL and with the measurement of outcomes, it appears that most will be convinced of the benefits.

Markus' and Howard's experimentally controlled study examines student outcomes in a political science course. One group was taught through a CSL pedagogy while a control group was not. The results illustrated a higher GPA for students involved in CSL. This is compelling evidence for the impact of CSL on learning.

Building on the Markus and Howard study, Batchelder's and Root's research examines cognitive, prosocial cognitive, and identity outcomes. Using a control group, the researchers found that there were significant gains for service learning participants on cognitive dimensions such as awareness multidimensionality, prosocial decision-making, prosocial reasoning, and identity processing. All of these outcomes are essential for college student development.

Few national studies exist. Eyler's, Giles', and Braxton's unique FIPSE funded study examines outcomes of CSL among 1500 students at 20 colleges and universities through pre and post-test measures. They discovered that CSL had a small but significant impact on many outcome measures over the course of a semester. Closeness to faculty is a positive predictor of most outcomes; it is hard to decipher if the close relationship with a faculty member or CSL is contributing to the learning. Thus, more research is needed to clarify if CSL or a sense of community or relationship with others undergirds the positive outcomes.

Programs differ! Outcomes research needs to explore different types of CSL programs. Giles and Eyler examine a CSL program of limited duration and intensity to determine differential impact. They did indeed find that students in the program developed in ways similar to other service experiences. More comparative research is needed to facilitate further understanding of these issues.

Program design

Limited research examines the way that CSL programs can be developed to best capture the outcomes. The Rhoads article is one of the few that examines aspects of programs that appear to enhance their effectiveness. His primary goal is to advance understanding of community service as a strategy for citizenship education. He examines the facets of the service context that may be most beneficial to challenging students as caring citizens, targeting the meaning students associate with their service encounter as a way to identify important aspects of community service associated with caring. Rhoads finds that mutuality, reflection and personalization are critical components for the development of citizenship and caring (caring is critical because Rhoads' definition of citizenship is based on "caring" citizens).

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Evaluation and research

Evaluation and assessment is critical for maintaining funding of CSL programs and for gaining increased faculty support. Driscoll, Holland, Gelmon, and Kerrigan provide a model for assessing faculty, student, community and institutional outcomes of service. The case study of Portland State University blends quantitative and qualitative analysis. Too often, the research on CSL depends on one type of data or the other; both are critical for successful evaluation and can inform one another.

Lastly, there are many unanswered questions about CSL that need research. In 1990, the National Society for Experiential Education released the results of a wingspread conference with a research agenda for the 1990's (Giles, Honnet, and Migliore, 1991). Many of the research questions remain unanswered. In March of 1998, Campus Compact released a document about strategic directions for a national research agenda (also discussed in Giles and Eyler, 1998). They have been kind enough to allow us to reprint this agenda.

Future of community service learning research

Are we making the best possible decision in providing funding for community service learning programs, which can be more expensive and time-consuming pedagogical tools than other forms such as discussion or in-class group work? There is still a need for more research to answer this question. In addition, even the best research is plagued by problems that make a definitive answer difficult. One of the perennial problems is a lack of longitudinal data on the effects or impact of service (Hirsch, 1998). Because the effects of service are complex and evolve over time, one-shot evaluation and impact studies may not be capturing the complex and profound ways that service impacts students (Hesser, 1995). Also, researchers tend to measure traditional learning outcomes. Since service-learning is an alternative learning approach, many of the outcomes might be new or non-traditional such as humanitarianism or position taking rather than analysis or critical thinking. Other problems impact service-learning research, many of which may never be overcome. For example, one complication is that students self-select to be involved with service opportunities. Finding comparison groups is often difficult, which limits our ability to draw clear conclusions. However, many educational researchers using a more anthropological approach find that we can learn a great deal about what works and how it works without traditional scientific procedures. The Rhoads article is a nice example of alternative ways to conduct research that develops meaningful results to inform practice. The task lying ahead is for researchers to frame such findings in ways meaningful to policymakers and practitioners so that they understand the value of community service learning.

A recently published book, *Service Learning: Applications from the Research,* is a nice complement to this publication since it commissioned researchers to write chapters focused on providing a meta-analysis of research knowledge to date. It asks the question "What do we know about service and how do we know it?" One of the authors argues for evaluation and research to be intertwined with program design and implementation. This seems essential if we are to improve practice and realize value.

In order to assist researchers in designing studies to answer some of the research questions posed, an appendix I provides samples of scales for assessing CSL outcomes. In addition, Appendix II—Websites on CSL, and Appendix III —List of Organizations—provide resources for literature and contacts.

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Education and Urban Society
Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis
Journal of Adolescence
Journal of Research and Development in Education
Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning
The Journal Of Higher Education

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Philosophy and History of Service Learning

Service Learning: An Introduction to Its Theory, Practice, and Effects

Richard J. Kraft
University of Colorado at Boulder

After a decade characterized as narcissistic and individualistic (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985), the 1990's appeared to be destined as a time with strong communitarian and service overtones. President Bush's Points of Light campaign, the congressional passage of the National and Community Service Act in 1990, and President Clinton's National Service Trust Act of 1993, were preceded by the foundation of the national Campus Compact by college and university presidents in 1985. Throughout the 1980's, state and local boards of education and hundreds of schools across the country began service-learning programs or required community service for graduation. The decline in volunteerism on college campuses was halted as growing numbers of young adults again found meaning in giving back to their communities.

Although volunteerism has a long and honorable history in American society community service has often come to mean court-ordered sentence for misdemeanors. Civic, or citizenship, education has theoretically been part of the school social studies curriculum for a century, but with increasing youth violence and other social pathologies, it has received increased attention in recent years. Until the Republican congressional victories in the 1994 off-year election, there had been a growing acceptance of and coalescence around the concepts of service learning. It remains to be seen how much of the current movement is dependent upon federal funding, and how much will remain as a part of a broader movement toward the rebuilding of community and the reform of public education.

In this brief introduction to service learning, an attempt is made to lay out some of the historical and sociological antecedents to the current movement, to define some of the related terms, and to report on some of the findings of research and evaluation on the effects that it has on participants and society.

Although service learning and voluntary service in general are not uniquely American concepts, they have taken root in our schools and the broader society in new and powerful ways. It is important to understand some of the historical antecedents of the current movement and the sociological explanations for them as we approach the turn of the century. Bellah et al. (1985) documented in Habits of the Heart the constant competing pressures in American society, throughout our history, between what they term individualism and commitment. They express this dilemma in the following way:

> We found the classic polarities of American individualism still operating: the deep desire for autonomy and self-reliance combined with an equally deep conviction that life has no meaning unless shared with others in the context of community. (p.150)

The oft-quoted and seldom-read de Tocqueville (1835/1969) held in the 1830s that in tradition European societies one's status and role was carefully delineated and people knew where they stood in relationship to others, whereas in the United States, ties between individuals were more casual and transient, in part because of their "restlessness in the midst of prosperity," and because Americans "never stop thinking of the good things they have not got" (p.565). This restlessness, according to de Tocqueville, is intensified by the "competition of all" (p. 536). Whereas Americans could be characterized and perhaps the most individualistic of all peoples, de Tocqueville went on to show the near equal importance that we as a people place on "being with" others in social relationship (p. 538). Whereas our ancestors may have felt oppressed in the civic, religious, and moral cultures from which they fled they almost immediately formed similar associations on landing in the New World.

Bellah et al. (1985) conclude that implicit in this penchant for getting involved is the peculiarly American notion of the relationship between self and society. Individuals are expected to get involved-to choose for themselves to join

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social groups. Barber (1992) and other observers of contemporary society conclude that in the last half century, individualism has triumphed over commitment, citizenship demands, and civic responsibility, and that only as we rebuild a sense of community will we be able to rebalance the two poles of our national dilemma. He and others have concluded that community service, citizenship education, and service learning are crucial to the survival of American society.

Historical background

It is difficult to know where to trace the beginnings of service learning, but if one accepts its antecedents in voluntary service to community, then it can be easily traced to its Judeo-Christian roots, through certainly not exclusively to these two great world religions. Dass and Bush (1992) have connected the roots of helping to the Hindu tradition, and others have presented evidence from other wold religions.

Whereas philosophers before him certainly confronted questions of the "good" and "living in community," most scholars trace the tying of service to schooling to the writings of Dewey (1902). His concept of "associated living" as the basis for both education and democracy was a precursor of much later writing about rebuilding the connections between the school and community. In his classic works, *Experience and Education* (1938/1963) and *Democracy and Education* (1916), he provided the intellectual undergirdings for such critical service-learning components as student involvement in the construction of learning objective; working together rather than in isolation on learning tasks; using "educative" and minimizing "miseducative" experiences; the organic relation between what is learned and personal experience; the importance of social and not just intellectual development; and the value of actions directed toward the welfare of others. James (1910) stated:

> What we need to discover in the social realm is the moral equivalent of war; something heroic that will speak to man as universally as war does, and yet will be compatible with their spiritual selves as was has proved to be incompatible. (p. 17)

This "moral equivalent of war" theme has been struck by progressive and experiential educators for most of this century and most recently by service-learning advocates, who believe that through service learning, education can again be a moral force, something too often lacking in traditional schooling.

More directly related to service learning, Kilpatrick (1918), a Dewey disciple and leader of the Progressive movement, advocated the adoption of the "project method" as a major curricular and pedagogical tool of education. Social reform, education outside the school setting, and real-live problems because the focus for many progressive schools between the First and Second World Wars. Also during the interim between the wars, the Civilian Conservation Corps, although primarily a youth unemployment program, became a forerunner for countless youth service programs and corps in the 1980s and 1990s. Classic works such as Count's (1932) *Dare the Schools Build a New Social Order?* And Hanna's (1937) *Youth Serves the Community* provided additional underpinnings to the service-learning movement over a half century later.

Although the 1950s are generally not known or remembered as a period of reform or progressivism, the Citizenship Education Project (CEP) at Teacher's College set the framework for a wide variety of "active learning," "community studies," and social and political action programs that came to renewed popularity in the 1970s. Many of the ideas developed and updated by Newman and Rutter (1986) and by Barber (1992) could be found in the CEP materials from the quiescent 1950s.

Despite a few such curricular efforts, little in the way of gains was made during the 1950s and 1960s, but with the 1970s came a host of state and national reports on education reform and the need to escape the passivity of schooling and the "irrelevance" of school to either students or the broader society. The Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee (1972). The National Committee on Secondary Education's (1972) *American Youth in the Mid-Seventies,* the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973), Coleman's (1974) *Youth: Transition to Adulthood,* the National Manpower Institute (1975), the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education (1976), and Martin's (1976) *The Education of Adolescents* made a host of proposals on a range of topics: service programs; experience-based learning; job preparation; service graduation requirements; real and meaningful tasks; interaction with a greater range of people; reintegration of the young into the community. Little in the way of broad reform, however, was started until the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in

Education, 1983), and by then the pendulum had swung away from the 'progressive' aspects of the 1970s reports and had returned to a focus on the basics.

In spite of the emphasis on basics in many of the reform documents in the 1980s, there still were a considerable number of commissions and influential individuals calling for one form or another of community service. Goodlad (1984), in *A Place Called School,* included community service, as did Boyer (1983) in *High School,* which called for a service requirement for graduation from high school. Two Carnegie reports (Harrison, 1987; Carnegie Task Force on Education of Young Adolescents, 1989) focused on the needs of middle school youth and also called for service opportunities.

Suffice it to say that service learning is the most recent manifestation of what is now almost a 100-year history of American educational reform attempts to bring the school and community back together, to build or rebuild a citizenship ethic in our young people, and to bring more active forms of learning to our schools. Service-learning advocates are generally careful to not claim the movement as a panacea for all that ails American schools. With strong evidence that classroom pedagogy and curriculum has not changed significantly in the 100 years since Dewey began to call for reform, and there are those who see the service-learning components of citizenship education, caring, community building, and active pedagogies as a possible "sleeping Giant of School Reform" (Nathan and Kielsmeier, 1991). Whereas national and state commissions have provided political support for service learning, it has been primarily a grassroots movement, with thousands of teachers and professors discovering the power of the methodology and using it with their classes, or developing programs, often with little or no money or external support. This grassroots nature would appear to indicate a longer life than the more typical autocratic, top-down reforms that have generally failed in recent decades.

Definition of terms

Volunteerism has a long and honorable tradition in our society and generally refers to the millions of citizens who perform some service or good work of their own free will and without pay. Scouting, coaching, church work, community food share, Meals on Wheels, crisis lines, and thousands of other voluntary organizations and opportunities make up the voluntary sector.

Whereas service learning has obvious roots in traditional volunteerism, it is the traditional volunteer ethic that has proved troublesome for those seeking to bring service learning into the schools. When states, schools, or colleges mandate service for graduation or as part of course requirements, there has been a public outcry about the oxymoronic nature of "mandatory volunteerism." Only as service-learning advocates have more carefully defined it as a pedagogical tool, rather than as voluntary activity, has the negative rhetoric lessened, though it certainly has not yet disappeared.

Community service, as indicated earlier, has several meanings. Those familiar with the criminal justice system recognize the punitive aspects of its current meaning, whereby thousands of adolescent and adult offenders are sentenced each year to picking up trash or doing other menial tasks in the community in exchange of jail time. Because of the negative punitive connotations of the words, those within the service-learning movement have generally abandoned the use of the term community service. In the school definition of the word, it has generally meant volunteering in the community, although that might also include a range of tutoring or other programs on the school campus. Volunteering alone generally is differentiated from service learning by having an emphasis on service without a formal, structured learning component. *Community-based learning* also involves learning that occurs out in the community through outdoor education, field trips, intern-ships, or apprenticeships, but it does not involve any service component.

Many schools have a wide range of *peer-helping* programs. These are generally cocurricular and involve students in peer or cross-age helping services. Although such programs are good examples of many aspects of service learning, they tend to be separated from the regular curricular subject areas. Among the many such programs begun or continued in recent years with state or federal service-learning funding have been conflict mediation, peer and cross-age tutoring, health and drug education programs, and counseling programs.

Service learning: definition and principles

Whereas there is still much discussion in the field about what actually constitutes service learning, the Commission

on National and Community Service (CNCS; 1993) provides perhaps the most widely accepted definition:

A service learning program provides educational experiences:

a. Under which students learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet actual community needs and that are coordinated in collaboration with school and community;
b. That are integrated into the students' academic curriculum or provides structured time for a student to think, talk, or write about what the student did and saw during the actual service activity;
c. That provide a student with opportunities to use newly-acquired skills and knowledge in real-life situations in their own communities; and
d. That enhance what is taught in school by extending student learning beyond the classroom and into the community and helps to foster the development of a sense of caring for others. (p. 15)

Other definitions of service learning speak to the blending of both service and learning goals in such a way that both occur and are enriched by the other. Most service-learning advocates also emphasize the importance of a reflective component where students use higher order thinking skills to better understand and extend the formal learning from the service experience.

The principles that often guide the creation of service-learning programs are those created by the Johnson Foundation (1989) in the *Wingspread Special Report.* In the report are 10 principles preceded by the following preamble:

> We are a nation founded upon active citizenship and participation in community life. We have always believed that individuals can and should serve. It is crucial that service toward the common good be combined with reflective learning to assure that service programs of high quality can be created and sustained over time, and to help individuals appreciate how service can be a significant and ongoing part of life. Service, combined with learning, adds value to each and transforms both. Those who serve and those who are served are thus able to develop the informed judgment, imagination, and skills that lead to a greater capacity to contribute to the common good. (p.1)

The principles that follow claim to provide criteria for effective programming. The resulting model is one that

1. Engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good.
2. Provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience.
3. Articulates clear service and learning goals for everyone involved.
4. Allows for those with needs to define those needs.
5. Clarifies the responsibilities of each person and organization involved.
6. Matches service providers and service needs through a process than recognizes changing circumstance.
7. Expects genuine, active, and sustained organizational commitment.
8. Includes training, supervision, monitoring, support, recognition, and evaluation to meet service and learning goals.
9. Insures that the time commitment for service and learning is flexible, appropriate, and in the best interests of all involved.
10. Is committed to program participation by and with diverse populations. (Johnson Foundation, 1989), pp. 2-3)

Critical questions about service and service learning

Although these principles have been widely disseminated and accepted, it is important to raise some critical questions about them. Principle 1 states that effective service learning "engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good." How is this common good determined? Are agencies identifying and representing individual strengths and weaknesses of their clients in service-learning projects with the same rigor that students are being assessed and represented by the schools? Is the common good a service ethic that responds to the equally important needs of both partners in service or is it simply a chance to cure the ills of society by one group serving people whose needs are collectively predetermined? The common good must reflect an empowering benefit for both partners in the service relationship. Both partners should be provided an opportunity to feel responsible and chal-

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lenged as the service project is designed to enhance the individual growth of all partners: *That* is common good.

Principle 2 states that effective service learning "provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience." Based on the service-learning models in literature, "people" in this statement refers exclusively to the student: Students are required to keep journals that allow them opportunities to reflect upon their experiences in the service project. The *Wingspread Special Report* (Johnson Foundation, 1989) elaborates:

> This reflective component allows for intellectual growth and the development of skills in critical thinking. It is most useful when it is intentional and continuous throughout the experience, and when opportunity for feedback is provided. Ideally feedback will come from those persons being served, as well as from peers and program leaders. (p.25)

Besides being a blatant exclusion of the partner in service, this principle merely suggests rather than requires a discourse between the service partners. It assumes that the student engages in service, thinks about what he or she has done, writes down reflections, then hopefully receives feedback on these observations. Without a foundation grounded in the quest for shared understanding, only the student is encouraged to reflect, and he or she may do so in a vacuum.

In research on service learning conducted as a result of CNCS venture grants in Colorado (Maybach, 1994), reflection for or with service recipients was reported in only 1% of the grant recipients' projects, and in only 4% of the projects was discourse encouraged among students and recipients regarding the effects and/or design of the service. Discourse throughout the project between service partners should be the hallmark of the service experience. Freire (1970) makes the point:

> For us, however, the requirement is seen not in terms of explaining to, but rather dialoguing with the people about their actions. The pedagogy of the oppressed, which is a pedagogy of the people engaged in the fight for their own liberation, has its roots here. (p.35)

> The important thing, from the view of libertarian education, is for people to come to feel like masters of their thinking by discussing the thinking and views of the world explicitly or implicitly manifest in their own suggestions and those of their comrades. Because this view of education starts with the conviction that it cannot present its own program but must search for this program dialogically with people, it serves to introduce the pedagogy of the oppressed, in the elaboration of which the oppressed must participate. (p. 105)

The opportunities for cross-cultural learning are greatly enhanced if the service partners are engaged in written and verbal reflection that is shared with each other throughout the service experience. In this interactive, dialogical form of reflection, individuals can explore each other's opinions, thoughts, desires, and perspectives. Noddings (1992) writes that "dialogue is a common search for understanding, empathy, or appreciation...It is always a genuine quest for something undetermined at the beginning" (p.23). Without this emphasis on dialogue between individuals, service learning again becomes one- sided, focusing on the isolated views and perceptions of the student without true understanding of each individual's perspective. Misunderstandings and missed opportunities for learning can occur in isolated reflection.

Principles 3 through 10 are closer to acknowledging more or all voices in the service relationship. However, as Cruz (1994) points out, a perspective of diversity must be the lens from which these principles should be conceptualized. Emphasized in these principles is the need to include all participants in the goals, outcomes, process, evaluation, and publicity of service-learning ventures. As the report expands upon these principles, it continues to frame the involvement of service partners as service providers and recipients. As previously stated, this focus does not go far enough in acknowledging the strengths of the served, and does not adequately address the barriers keeping these individuals from fully participating in society. The concept of "partners in service" needs to be embraced in the principles themselves for programs to emulate a paragon of equality.

Which vision of service are we supporting through service learning? Do we only go so far to embrace a vision of service in which people are serving others in need? Or do we expand upon that vision to include a more empowering

model of service that acknowledges the strengths and weaknesses we all bring to a relationship, a vision that moves people away from the margins of society through partnerships based on equal concern, equal voice, equal opportunity to serve and explore new perspectives, a vision that allows each partner to learn from the other, an opportunity for every participant to grow in an environment that nurtures social, cognitive, emotional, physical, spiritual, and occupational growth. The latter should be our service ethic. It is only when equal consideration and voice is acknowledged from all members of a community that we begin to move toward a truly democratic society. In an effective service-learning model, no voice is silenced, no role is invisible.

The questions above must be revisited if we are to equally address the needs of all individuals in the service relationship. It is only through this equal consideration that service can truly be mutually beneficial: to allow for growth in both the student and his or her partner in service. What is needed is a new paradigm of service learning in which the service ethic involves students engaged in projects that do not focus solely on the learning and growth of the student but that focus also on the voice and empowerment of the individual involved with the student in service.

The practice of service learning

Whereas some agreement on the definition of service learning has been achieved in recent years, its practice in schools and colleges varies widely. Many of the practices do not strictly fit the definition and guidelines described above but still are listed under the general rubric. Cocurricular service activities with special clubs or through a volunteer clearinghouse are generally not directly connected to the curriculum of the school, although students can often receive academic credit for their involvement in the community. One of the most dominant forms is that of individual or group class projects. When they are carefully tied to curricular objectives, contain academic content, involve the student in reflection, and contain an evaluative component, they can be considered service learning. If these components are missing, they fit more comfortably into community-based learning or volunteerism. The following list, prepared by the National Youth Leadership Council (Cains & Kielsmeier, 1991), is exemplary of the types of projects carried out by literally hundreds of thousands of school and college students today:

> bicycle shop, Big Buddies, blood drive, board membership, building projects, clothes collection, community education classes, community history, cooking meals, crisis centers, day care, emergency services, environmental research, environmental cleanup, fund-raising for charities, gardens, helping the homebound, home chores, hot lines. Meals on Wheels, overseas volunteers, paint-a-thons, peer helpers and tutors, performing arts, planting trees, public awareness, public media, reading for the blind, recreation programs, recycling, research, special equipment, Special Olympics, tax preparation, tutoring, victim aid, visiting institutionalized people, visual art, voter education, youth agencies, youth leadership, and youth sports.

Service within the school is one of the largest forms of service learning, with numerous opportunities for students to tutor, counsel, mediate conflicts, mentor, and address other needs within the school community. Often these activities tend to be internships rather than service learning, or to involve minimal skills development with little or no connection to the curriculum. Many teachers use service as an extension of their regular classroom. Service-learning activities become a means of completing course requirements and going into greater depth into a topic. Community service classes and programs can be found in many schools, with colleges even developing complete interdisciplinary majors with service as the focus.

The ultimate goal of many in the service-learning movement is to have service integrated into the curriculum of all subjects and at all levels. It thus becomes an ongoing part of the curriculum, pedagogy, evaluation, and ethic of the class or school, and not an add-on, dependent on external funding or the particular philosophical whims of the teacher, administration, or board. This goal has been reached in a minority of colleges, particularly many religiously based institutions that have a long history of service as part of their education philosophy. It is also becoming increasingly common in the elementary and middle schools, where greater philosophical compatibility exists than is generally true at the high school level. Active, interdisciplinary, community-based, cooperative, and other forms of learning have long been part of their primary education and are now deeply embedded in the more recent "middle school philosophy." The pressures of college admission, academic rigor, and success on standardized examinations make the high school perhaps the weakest link in the current service-learning movement .

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The extent of service learning in American schools and colleges

It is difficult, if not impossible, to give an exact number of schools and colleges that have developed service-learning programs of one form or another. The following statistics are taken from the 1994 report of Abt Associates (Melchior, Jastrzab, Bailis, & Frees, 1994), the national evaluator for CNCS, which awarded $64 million in grants to 150 states, colleges, community- based organizations, Indian tribes, and other institutions. These organizations, in turn, distributed the funds to literally thousands of school, college, and community organizations. Among the many findings of this first-year report to Congress are those enumerated in the list that follows. The statistics do not include the thousands of programs that involve students in service to their communities without external funding, but the data do give a snapshot of the extent to which service learning is now going on in our schools and society.

1. Approximately 200,000 young people and adults took part in ongoing community service programs. An additional 45,000 took part in short-term or onetime events.
2. CNCS-funded programs generated nearly 6 million hours of community service.
3. CNCS-funded programs also involved participants in another 4.2 million hours of nonservice activities. These activities were generally basic education and/or service learning.
4. The average hours of direct service per participant varied widely among the programs. Serve--America (K-12 programs) participants provided an average of 16 hours of direct service, compared to 39 hours in Higher Education programs and averages of 344 hours in Service Corps and National Service Demonstration programs, respectively.
5. Community service programs engaged a broad range of individuals, from kindergarten students to senior volunteers, representing a diverse array of racial, ethnic, educational, and economic backgrounds. The vast majority of participants were school-aged youth and young adults. Of the total, 56% were women, 36% were non-White, and 19% were economically disadvantaged.
6. Community service programs also provided a broad range of services. Approximately 40% of service hours were focused on conservation and environmental projects and 22% on education and human needs.
7. Federal CNCS funds were matched significantly from other sources. Local programs contributed an additional $1.38 from other government and nongovernment sources for every $1.00 of federal CNCS funds.

Research and evaluation of service learning

Whereas service learning, community service, and volunteer programs have been a part of schools and colleges in the United States for decades, and there have been a range of research and evaluation studies, there is a general lack of solid evidence on the effects of these programs,. One of the major difficulties in evaluating or researching service-learning programs is the lack of agreement on what is meant by the term service learning and exactly what it is meant to accomplish. Whereas some programs emphasize social growth, character development, or civic responsibility, others attempt to study psychological development and effects of programs on self-concept. Moral judgment studies have sought to evaluate the effects of service on moral and ego development, and other studies have attempted to measure the effects of service on the broader community. Perhaps the most difficult arena has been in the area of intellectual , cognitive, and academic effects. It has been difficult to design tight experiments to isolate the effects of service on specific academic achievements. A recent experimental study (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993) of students in a university political science course provides some of the first evidence of the positive academic effects of service learning.

A challenge for evaluators and researchers in the field is the dramatically different nature and duration of the programs that go under the guise of service learning. It is difficult to compare one-term service events for a group of 8-year-olds in an elementary classroom with full-time, paid programs for young adults in conservation corps. In-depth, semester-long academic courses in international settings for college students differ greatly from once-a-week volunteer visits to a senior center. Yet all of these can and do meet basic criteria for service learning.

General surveys

Krug's (1991) research was on the effects of service learning on four groups of high school young people: at-risk youth in a special program student assistants (primarily minority) within the school, nature guides, and tutors at a primary school. Preliminary results indicate that although all the experimental groups gained on measures of potency, activity involvement in the community, self-concept, and other factors, the statistically significant growth at the .01 and .05 levels was found almost exclusively with the at-risk and minority young people. The control group, as predicted, did not change on the pre- and post-instruments.

Newman and Rutter (1986) estimated that in 1984, approximately 27% of all high schools offered some form of service program, involving 900,000 students in 5,400 schools. Service took on the form of (a) school clubs or co-curricular organizations; (b) service-learning credit or requirement; (c) a laboratory for an existing course; (d) a service-learning class; or (e) a schoolwide focus. Nonpublic schools were more likely to offer service, and suburban and large schools did so more often than urban, rural, or small schools. Alternative public and Catholic schools were more likely to offer service than were regular public or non-Catholic private schools. An estimated 6.6% of all high school students were involved in 1984 , with 2.3% of their activities tied to the curriculum. This compared with 52% of seniors involved in team sports and 34% in the performing arts. Time spent was an average of 4 hours per week across all programs, and 6 hours in elective programs. Those with service as a high school graduation requirement spent 1 hour per week. Schools where a majority of students were non-White were more likely to offer programs than White majority schools; they also were three times as likely to offer community service as an elective course and to award academic credit. Programs involved students in near-equal proportion form the college prep, genera, and vocational tracks. At-risk students and those with behavioral problems were found to be nonexistent in service programs. Thirty-four percent of programs were in schools, not in the community.

Harrison (1987) reported that among voluntary programs, most (61%) involved less than 10% of the student body. Ninety percent of the students put in less than 200 hours, about half the time required by one season of high school football. Sixty-five percent of service programs were within the schools themselves.

Whatever the actual numbers of students involved in service learning might be, the surest conclusion that can be drawn is that school-based service learning is an educational concept that has endured throughout this century but has not yet become an integral part of the high school experience for more than a small group of students. In addition, few programs involve participation by at-risk and minority youth, and a majority of school-sponsored programs are focused on college-bound White students.

Social growth

Riecken (1952) studied college students involved in 2 months of intensive, full-time summer experiences designed to strengthen humanitarian ideals by having youths participate in physically useful labor in an economically deprived community. Using a questionnaire, he discovered that participants became less prejudiced, more democratic, less authoritarian, and more service oriented, and they developed greater ego strength.

Smith (1966), in a study of 44 Peace Corps volunteers who taught in Ghana during a period of 2 years, discovered that after the first year in which the volunteers displayed initial and perhaps naive optimism, a more reasoned but no less committed moralistic philosophy emerged. They demonstrated more realism, autonomy, and independence, and significantly increased levels of self-worth and insight. In addition, they became more service oriented in terms of their own career aspirations.

Hunt and Hart (1969) found that both White and Black groups in a Project Upward Bound, precollege enrichment program for high school students achieved nearly identical increases in motivation, self-esteem, and academic achievement. Other researchers have indicated positive results in social growth from less intensive school service programs. Marsh (1973) concluded that participation in community affairs as part of a high school experimental course increased, as did interest in political activities and a desire to support political issues.

Using a model based on Mosher's moral education, Newman's citizen education, and Hampden- Turner's psychosocial development, Bourgeois (1978) concluded that democratic values were accepted by young teenagers, that an urgency for personal competence existed, and that community activities helped to develop civic competence.

Wilson (1974) examined open-mindedness and a sense of political efficacy in a community-based alternative education program. Wilson concluded that because the learning environment became one of openness, changed authority relationships between students and teachers, and student self- selection of the subject matter and process of curriculum, greater open-mindedness and political efficacy on the part of participants were able to occur.

Corbett (1977) studied the effects of high school students' participation in yearlong community program that aimed to develop student commitment to the solution of social problems. He found that during the first year when the program was teacher centered and teacher directed, gains in student moral and psychosocial development were non-

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significant, but in the second year, when it became student centered and reflective in nature, significant gains on personality measures and emotional and task competence were found. He concluded that students who worked with individuals in providing service developed more commitment to the solution of social problems than did the students whose volunteer work was focused upon group situations.

Stockhaus (1976) sought to determine if 20 hours of helping in social service agencies would positively affect self-esteem, political efficacy, social responsibility, and community responsibility in high school seniors. Stockhaus found that participants in one school developed a greater sense of social responsibility, community responsibility, and altruism than did nonparticipants and controls, but that strong support for community involvement programs to bring about positive changes in citizenship attitudes was lacking. Changes were too small to be of practical significance.

Broudyh (1977) delineated problems that limited the effective development of moral/citizenship, experiential, and service-learning programs in the public schools. They included heterogeneity of values and lifestyles, discrepancies between educational objectives and community behaviors, discrepancies between structured classroom teaching and students' informal community learning, and community experiences of differing intensity and quality. Conrad and Hedin (2982) found that students in service and other experiential programs developed more favorable attitudes toward adults and also toward the type of organizations and people with whom they were involved.

Luchs (1981) reported that high school students involved in community service gained a more positive attitude toward others, a greater sense of efficacy, and higher self-esteem than nonparticipating comparison students. Calabrese and Schumer (1986) reported lower levels of alienation and isolation, and fewer disciplinary problems among junior high school youth involved in service as part of a program for students with behavioral difficulties.

In summary, the research findings on social outcomes as a result of students ' involvement in experiential and service-learning programs are mixed. Intensive, full-time, communal living programs have generally proven to be more successful in changing attitudes; these programs also have usually included older students who may already have committed themselves to achieving program objectives, primarily because they entered the programs as volunteers. Too many of the studies suffer from small sample size, lack of strict controls, the effect of previous volunteer experiences on the part of students, and the uneven quality of students' experiences in the program.

The impact on psychological development

A number of research studies have concentrated on the student's psychological development as a result of participation in experiential education and service-learning programs. Taking full responsibility for one's own actions, developing a sense of self-esteem and ego strength, reaching a high level of moral reasoning, and becoming psychologically mature were seen to be key determinants for success in school and for active involvement in positive citizenship (Stockhaus, 1976). Unfortunately, traditional school curricula frequently not only do not promote these aims but, conversely, appear to affect them negatively (Bidwell, 1965; Coleman, 1961; Cusick, 1973; Goodlad & Klein, 1990; Jackson, 1990; Martin, 1975; Silberman, 1990; Sturges, 1979).

Advocates of experiential education and service-learning programs believe that development of psychological strength will occur more strongly in such programs than in traditional school programs (Coleman 1974; Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Dewey, 1938/1963; Erikson, 1968; Frankena, 1965; Kohlberg, 1970; Piaget, 1970; Rich, 1962; Rogers, 1969; Schwebel & Ralph, 1973).

Bontempo (1979) conducted field interviews with students and coordinators, and studied program documents from the various schools. Her conclusions were that this type of learning was clearly grounded in consistent philosophies of learning and was making valuable and extensive use of community resources in students' education. Students who were enrolled demonstrated positive self-concepts and increased feelings of self-worth.

Kazunga (1978) concluded that voluntary youth helping experiences promoted a more positive self-concept among youth and significantly helped to improve the community.

Sager (1973) studied 22 high school seniors who volunteered for 9 weeks during their summer vacations at state hospitals. Young people increased their self-esteem and self-confidence significantly on 30 to 34 subscales on seven personality inventories. In addition, they were more self-accepting and felt more adequate and worthwhile in

interactions with their peers and with the persons they were helping.

Kelly (1989) found that therapeutic helping behavior generated positive changes in self-concept and other self-perceptive dimensions on the part of the helper. He found that students who helped on a one-to-on personal level underwent significantly greater positive changes in self- concept and other related measures than did those in more general types of service activities.

To determine whether self-concept of students who had experienced school behavioral problems of apathy, vandalism, and delinquency would be improved by enrollment in a voluntary curriculum with a traditional school setting, Martin (1977) employed a case study approach to a yearlong study of 30 male and female high school students. By the end of the year, student behavior had positively changed as measured by teacher interviews and by students' own self- reflections as reported to the researcher. Both teachers and students believed that students had also developed more positive self-concepts as they changed their former negative behaviors.

Exum (1978), in addition to investigating interpersonal behaviors and ego development, also studied the results of systematic reflective discussions of college students' helping experiences upon the development of self-concept. Conclusions indicated that a combination of actual experiences and systematic reflective discussions were the most important components in the curriculum and that participants showed significant growth in self-concept and ego development.

Rutter and Newman (1989) found that the potential for service enhancing social responsibility was dependent on the presence of a reflection seminar. The opportunity to discuss their experiences with teachers in small peer-group settings greatly affected whether students reported a positive interaction with the community. Saunders (1976) investigated whether junior and senior high school student tutors would demonstrate a positive attitude change in self-concept, in reading, and toward school when compared to student nontutors. Although no significant difference was found, Saunders concluded that the program had an effect on maintaining positive attitudes.

Soat (1974) examined college students in an introductory psychology course as to whether one's cognitive style and self-concept were related to expressed willingness to help others. He found no significant relationships.

In summary, the research evidence does give some indication that experiential and service- learning programs may have a positive effect upon the development of a positive self-concept in those students involved in such a program. More research must be done for that evidence to be definitive.

Service learning and moral judgement

Alexander (1977) investigated whether moral thinking, ego development, and the presence of prejudice in youth could be changed by an alternative education curriculum. Significant changes were discovered in moral reasoning, ego development, and level of prejudice. Edwards (1974) studies experiential education as it relates to moral development and explored the influence of environment upon moral reasoning development. Studying 103 high school and university students in Kenya, she confirmed the following hypotheses relating to the effects of intellectual and social experiences:

1. Students who attended multicultural secondary schools displayed higher levels of moral judgment than did students who attended ethnically homogeneous schools.
2. An atmosphere of mutual trust and cooperation stimulated students in preconventional (Stages 1 and 2) reasoning postures to develop toward more adult postures (Stages 3 and 4).
3. Students who resided at boarding schools displayed more Stage 3 and 4 moral reasoning than did students living at home.
4. Students who studied law and social sciences displayed more Stage 3, 4 and 5 moral reasoning development than did students who studied primarily science and engineering.

Reck (1978) attempted to determine whether participation in a school service-learning program was positively related to moral development, whether the amount of time given to service was related to students' positive moral development, and whether students with little experience in service activities experienced more moral development than did students with more prior experience. On only 2 or 16 variables were there significant differences between experi-

mental and control groups: (a) Students who pretested low in moral development demonstrated greatest gains in the posttest, and (b) students who served only during the program in their assigned tasks showed significant growth.

Mosher (1977) concluded that moral and ego development can be enhanced by service-learning programs, with the most powerful being those that combine discussion of moral issues with the experiences.

Although the research results in the area of moral judgment are mixed, they do tend to indicate that experiential and service-learning programs may have an impact upon the development of moral judgment. What has not been answered is whether there are consistently effective ways in which moral judgment may be developed, what types of students will benefit from what programs, and what formats will be most successful.

The impact on academic learning

Houser (1974) recorded significant gains in an experimental group versus a control group in the development of both reading skills and self-concept at the seventh- and eighth-grade level for students participating in a student-aide program involving elementary school students. Lewis (1977) recorded significant gains in his investigation on whether learning by doing (experiential learning) was as effective a method of teaching subject matter concepts to adolescents and adults as was expository learning. Although expository learning was effective in a number of situations, learning by doing coupled with receipt of procedural knowledge learned both by declarative and procedural knowledge was more effective.

Hedin (1987), in a comprehensive meta-analysis on peer tutoring by high school students involved in service, found increases in reading and math achievement scores both on the part of the tutor and tutee. Although the achievement score increases in reading and math were modest, the author defends the analysis on the basis that small increases are evident with most learning and growth in general.

Hamilton and Zeldin (1987) found that when the measuring instrument is a general test of knowledge, there is usually no difference between students in service programs and those in conventional classrooms who do not participate. Consistent gains in factual knowledge have been found, however, when researchers have used tests designed to measure the kinds of information students were more likely to encounter in their field experiences.

Braza (1974) studied 15 experimental and 8 control group students in an attempt to discover significant improvements in knowledge, behavior and attitudes recorded as a result of a community-based service-learning procedure. Control group students received traditional classroom instruction in health problems of disadvantaged groups, whereas the experimental group students were given intensive community experiences. Posttest results demonstrated that both methods were equally effective in promoting knowledge gains; in addition, both groups expressed essentially identical increased commitment to the study of health problems of disadvantaged persons.

Markus et al. (1993) reported results of an experiment in integrating service learning into a large undergraduate political science course. Students in service-learning sections of the course were significantly more likely than those in the traditional discussion sections to report that they had performed up to their potential in the course, had learned to apply principles from the course to new situations, and had developed a greater awareness of societal problems. Classroom learning and course grades also improved significantly as a result of students' participation in course-relevant community service. Finally, pre- and postsurvey data reveled significant effects of participation in community service upon students' personal values and orientations. The experiential learning acquired through service appears to compensate for some pedagogical weaknesses of classroom instruction.

Thus the findings on intellectual learning and participation in experiential and service-learning programs are mixed. It may be that positive intellectual outcomes are found most frequently for tutoring because it is the form of service learning that is most school-like, and the knowledge skills examined are most like those the tutors have been using. In the instances when students in other forms of experiential and service learning have been tested for gains in factual knowledge, the results have been less conclusive. In most cases, the test instruments used to measure intellectual gain were developed by the same individual responsible for the service-learning program, therefore raising questions of researcher bias and lack of test validity.

Community impact and effects on those served

Ellington (1978) studied the effects of contact with and education about the elderly in three experimental classes of high school seniors. Although no differences were discovered between students who received only contact with the seniors and the control group, and none were discovered between the attitudes of the two groups receiving inductive and deductive teaching, the study did find that a combination of contact with the seniors and learning about their problems appeared to positively change young people's attitudes.

Glass and Trent (1979) concluded that adolescents' attitudes toward the elderly can be changed through classroom experiences. Owens (1979) sought to determine whether student attitudes toward academic and vocational goals would change in a positive direction after involvement in a yearlong service-learning program. He concluded that students in the experimental group experienced significantly larger attitudinal changes than did the control group in the areas of more positive self-confidence and more clarity in educational direction and career paths.

Shoup (1978) saw service learning as a viable alternative to the set secondary curriculum, and as a valuable method for expanding the traditional classroom experiences to promote citizenship attitudes. Clayman (1968), in a study of a program to train preservice teachers to become familiar with community resources, discovered that although student teachers were committed to using the community as a resource, supervision of their activities was complex and difficult.

Conrad (1979) chose 11 experiential and service-learning programs from various cities for intensive study. The 11 programs from nine schools involved more than 600 students in nine experimental and four control groups; foci included community service, outdoor adventure, career exploration, and community action. The overall conclusions of the study were that experiential education and service-learning programs can promote social, psychological, and intellectual development; that they appear to do so more effectively than classroom-based programs; and that the key factors in promoting growth are (a) that the experiences be significant and provide for the exercise of autonomy and (b) that there be opportunity for active reflection on the experience.

Keene (1975) examined whether students involved in an elective sociology high school course where classroom instruction was coupled with 5 hours of volunteer direct experience per week for one semester at various social agencies would have a more positive attitude change toward poverty and minority problems than would students who took only a required political science and economic course. She found no significant difference in the groups, but the experience was perceived as positive by parents, students, and the community, and so was continued.

Newman (1978) found a negative impact on attitudes toward the disabled held by elementary students placed in contact with severely emotionally disturbed children, as compared to attitudes held by students who received classroom instruction about handicapped children. Tobler (1986) conducted a meta-analysis of 143 studies on drug prevention programs and found that peer- helping programs were identified as the most effective on all outcome measures. Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1977), reporting on a series of studies of high school students engaged as teachers, tutors, and peer counselors, observed that in addition to showing other gains, many students had developed higher-level counseling skills than those achieved by graduate students in counseling.

The findings on community impact and the effects on those served are primarily positive, indicating that young people enrolled in experiential education and service-learning programs that focus upon making a difference in terms of community do, in fact, positively affect community members. In addition, the attitudes of young people frequently are significantly changed in the process of helping others.

The evaluation of Service-Learning Colorado was conducted by a team of researchers from the University of Colorado at Boulder (Kraft, Goldwasser, Swadener, & Timmons, 1993). It looked at all K-12 Serve-America, Youth and Conservation Corps, and Higher Education programs funded from grants made by the Commission on National and community Service to the Colorado State Commission. To give a sense of the wide range of possible outcomes of service learning, the following list indicates the impact domains, participant and teacher attitudes, participant behaviors, and institutional and community impacts that were looked at in the Colorado research:

> Civic/social responsibility, self esteem, leadership, poverty, career aspirations, moral development, empowerment, service/community, gender, alienation, social justice, race, efficacy, environment, peers,

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elderly, younger children, handicapped, family, reflection, and cross-cultural experience.

More than 2,000 students and staff from middle school through higher education responded to the pre- and post-attitude survey. The survey instrument was developed by the researchers and was based on previous research on the effects of service learning. Among the results gleaned from the pre- and post-attitude survey were the following

1. There were few items on which the students made statistically significant gains in positive attitudes toward service, possibly due to the short time frame of most of the programs, often only once a week for 6 to 8 weeks.
2. Teachers, all of whom had received grants to administer service-learning programs, were significantly more committed on almost all items to the goals of service learning than were their student participants.
3. There were few statistically significant differences between middle school service- learning participants and those in high school as far as their attitudes toward items on the service-learning instrument. This could be seen as a surprising finding, because research by the Search Institute (Benson, 1993) found that high school students were significantly less committed to serving others than were younger students in grades six through eight.
4. Students in higher education tended to be more positive in their attitudes toward service learning than were students at the younger grades.
5. Short-term service-learning experiences did not have a statistically significant effect either way on attitudes of students.
6. On almost all attitudinal items, girls were significantly more positive in their attitudes to service and related values than were boys.

Conclusions

It is too early to predict the long-term impact of service learning on educational reform, citizenship education, community building, or pedagogical and curricular change. There were great hopes during the Bush and early Clinton administrations that a consensus had been reached on the value and importance of involving the young in their communities and of reforming the public schools through the use of service learning and community service. Service has again become a political football between liberals and conservatives, and this may well end much, if not most, of the federal funding for K-12, Higher Education, and Americorps programs. If the movement is a genuinely grassroots one, as many of its advocates claim, and if the effects are as positive as some of the research and personal testimony indicates, then it is likely that service learning will continue as one of the educational reform mechanisms into the next century.

About this issue

The articles in this issue provide a broad range of approaches to service learning. Barbara Gomez of the Council of Chief State School Officers takes a national look at how service learning relates to the school-to-work transition programs. The older definitions of service or volunteerism generally did not include career preparation, but many urban areas today are experimenting with ways that service in the community can not only prepare students in citizenship and academic achievement but also give them marketable skills.

James C. Kielsmeier provides a detailed description of the WalkAbout summer program now being implemented in urban settings around the country. This program involves a high degree of hands-on-service learning emphasizing the importance of students being authentically invested in their own learning. The program has a range of goals: increasing academic achievement, providing opportunities for community-based learning, providing genuine community service, developing a service ethic in youth, and improving problem-solving and critical thinking skills. The model makes use of young people, college students, teachers, and community members in meeting the range of academic, personal, and community goals.

Carole MacNeil and Beth Krensky discuss Project YES, a model of urban programming that provides youth with a support structure wherein their voices about pressing social issues can be heard by a wider audience. Using the visual and performing arts, video, and photography as tools, youths participate in project-based workshops in which they develop critical-thinking, problem-solving, leadership, and consensus-building skills, and, at the end, walk away having completed some artistic, socially oriented project. The workshops seek to explore the ways in which voices of marginalized groups are silenced, finding ways to validate their voices. Project YES is about both social commentary

and social change, and develops critical thinking and leadership skills in the participants.

The teacher-education arena has become a focus for many service-learning programs. Jennifer A. Vadeboncoeur and her colleagues sought the development of democratic character in their preservice teachers through the use of service learning in a single-semester undergraduate class on social foundations of education. The goals of the class and service experience were to improve students' understanding of and tolerance for racial, ethnic, cultural, socioeconomic, and gender diversity; to reduce their biases by engaging them in critical self-reflection; to increase their commitment to social justice; and to help them learn how to collaborate with community members. Special emphasis was placed on offering the students various sites or opportunities to critically reflect upon the course material. Overall, the course did increase students' awareness of societal problems, their interest in the social dynamics of schooling, and their readiness to internalize new ideas and beliefs, but although consciousness-raising was achieved by most students, and personal growth was evident few students really increased their level of social activism.

Robert Shumer and Brad Belbas describe the founding of the National Clearinghouse for Service- Learning at the University of Minnesota. Following a description of the political, institutional, and technical difficulties in structuring the clearinghouse, they go on to describe the nature of service learning, as they have been able to collect data from throughout the country. Activity areas included under service learning nationally include education, human services, community development, conservation and the environment, public safety, and disaster response. Among the specific activities most often mentioned were mentoring, cross-age tutoring, academic instruction, hospital service, social service, neighborhood improvement, service in intergenerational programs, peer tutoring, peer mentoring, and service in food banks. Whereas urban, suburban, and rural programs are often similar in programming, there is a greater urban focus on disadvantaged youth and at-risk students than is true in the other settings, and urban programs are more likely to focus on literacy training activities.

A more theoretical focus is provided by Carol Maybach, who gives a critical theoretical perspective on service learning. She raises issues about focusing on the growth of students, while often ignoring the service recipients or failing to ask how service is affecting the communities in which it is bing performed. Many of the critical assumptions behind service learning are analyzed for consistency and results. Insights from Paulo Freire are used to critically analyze the movement, and a new service-learning paradigm is offered to overcome some of the more obvious inconsistencies in the existing one.

Finally, Novella Z. Keith provides a theoretical perspective on how urban school reform can be joined with community development to bring about genuine community schools. Certain tendencies and biases running through much of service-learning practice are teased out to reveal the contours of a model defined by its emphasis on service provision. Service learning is placed in the broader context of community schools and community development. The model presented in the article does not reject the role of partnerships with outside agencies that form the centerpiece of community schools as currently conceptualized; it does, however, put such partnerships in a context that emphasizes the centrality of community involvement and community priorities and, further, is informed by the new socioeconomic and cultural realities that are upon us.

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2

National/State Trends

Institutional Support for Service-Learning

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In recent years, the service-learning (SL) movement has achieved considerable success in integrating students' community service projects into the formal curricula of colleges, universities and schools. Yet, the factors associated with differences in institutional support for SL have remained largely unexamined. Based on a comprehensive survey of institutions of higher education in one state, results of a multiple regression analysis show the institutionalization of SL to be closely associated with a variety of institutional characteristics, including the degree of faculty involvement and the emphasis on academic goals in SL courses. While these findings point to the increasingly tight links between academics and student service, they also suggest that steps be taken to retain some of the grass-roots quality that initially made service work popular among students.

Recent evidence suggests that SL is moving rapidly from the margins to the mainstream of American higher education. No longer content merely to encourage community service by their students, many campuses are attempting to weave it into their academic curriculum through course or program requirements and through stepped-up training and recruitment efforts among both students and faculty. As of 1994, nearly 500 institutions, ranging from open-door community and junior colleges to highly selective research universities, were members of Campus Compact, an organization founded 9 years earlier for the purpose of promoting students' community service as an integral part of the educational process (Cha & Rothman, 1994). Upward trends in institutional membership have also been reported by the National Society for Experiential Education, another leading proponent of student service, while several prominent higher-education organizations, including the American Association for Higher Education and the Council of Independent Colleges, have begun to organize annual conferences and colloquia around service-learning and related themes. As one well-placed observer of higher education has succinctly put it, "service-learning is hot" (Marchese, 1994, p. 15).

To date, the implementation of SL has far out paced research and evaluation on this topic. Although there is a growing literature centered around students' motives and outcomes (Bathcheleder & Root, 1994; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Kraft & Krug, 1994; Serow, 1991), few studies have examined SL from an institutional perspective. Thus, it remains uncertain why some institutions actively promote student participation while others maintain a hands-off approach, in which service activities continue to be organized and operated by students themselves.

The aim of this article is to identify some of the factors associated with support for SL among institutions of higher education (IHE) in one state. This study measured the level of support for SL at participating colleges and universities; a multiple regression framework was used to relate the outcome measure to institutions' structural and programmatic features. By so doing, it was hoped to gain not only clearer insights into he means by which student service is being incorporated into the educational process but also a better understanding of how the SL movement relates to other institutional priorities.

Roots of service-learning

As previously suggested, the term SL refers to the integration of community-based student service projects within the formal curriculum of a school, college, or university. Although the precise method and degree of integration may vary, SL is nonetheless distinguished from community service, a concept now reserved largely for projects that students undertake on a purely personal basis and which have no explicit connection to courses, curricula, or graduation requirements. Thus, while students at virtually every IHE in the United States perform community service, not all institutions support SL programs.

The origins of the service-learning movement in American higher education can be traced to a diverse array of ideas and practices whose common element is a concern for balancing the needs of young people with those of the larger community. For present purposes, it is possible to identify three distinct traditions as the immediate progenitors of contemporary SL. These are experiential education, the service mission of colleges and universities, and civilian youth service.

Experiential Education

Experiential education encompasses community service, life experience credits, internships, practice, and other approaches that supplement formal instruction with direct personal experience in nonclassroom settings. In broad terms, the aim of these programs is to: (a) turn over a greater share of responsibility for learning to the students themselves, (b) make better educational use of individual interests and capacities, and (c) tie the individual student more closely to the life of the surrounding community and society. These objectives are derived in part from the work of Progressive educational theorists, most notably John Dewey (1916/1966), who saw learning-by-doing and community based education as indispensable preparation for democratic citizenship. Yet, the practical, hands-on aspect of American intellectual life extends at least as far back as the early decades of the nineteenth century, when Tocqueville's classic study, Democracy in America, identified continuous activity, self-reliance, and "looking to results without getting tangled in the means' as hallmarks of "the American philosophical method" (Tocqueville, 1840/1969), p. 429).

The Service Mission of Colleges and Universities

The second tradition in which SL is grounded is the service mission of colleges and universities. Here, a distinction may be made between private and public institutions. The former, most of which were founded by Christian denominations, have historically viewed service to humanity in the context of religious doctrine. In some instances, these denominational ties have loosened to the point that religious affiliation provides little more than an historical background for a largely secular environment. Yet, an inspection of catalogues and other official documents reveals that such institutions routinely invoke the moral development of their students as an important justification for their won service ideals. In the case of the public campuses, service is a concomitant of state funding. This is not to suggest that every public college or university pursues its service mission in exactly the same manner. Land-grant universities which were established in accordance with the provisions of the federal Morrill Act of 1862, have tended to place their emphasis on "the practical and mechanic arts," or, in modern parlance, on applied science and technology transfer that will redound directly to the benefit of the regional, state, and national economies. Likewise, community colleges, which aim primarily at local constituencies, have interpreted their service mission partly in terms of adult education and cultural enrichment programs but increasingly as easily-accessible job-training aimed at nearby businesses and industries. Meanwhile, branch campuses and comprehensive universities sometimes blend the functions of university and regional service center by targeting a specific geographic area and a limited range of applied programs (Wallenfeldt, 1983).

Youth Service

The third source on which SL draws is civilian youth service. (Military service, often compulsory, is usually treated as a separate tradition, though some writers have sought to narrow the differences. See, in particular, Moskos, 1988.) Over the past 7 decades, voluntary service programs have come to play a significant part in the socialization of young people to adult civic roles. During the 1930s, the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration placed thousands of college-age men and women in low-wage public works jobs, thereby providing not only an alternative to the public dole, but also training in practical skills range from environmental work to cooking, carpentry, and automotive mechanics. Thirty years later, the Peace Corps, VISTA, and the teacher corps were at the forefront of the Kennedy and Johnsons administrations' efforts to recruit young people for a host of international and domestic service programs. By the late 1980s and early 1990s, the federal government had become the prime sponsor of other youth service initiatives, including those organized under the auspices of the Points of Light foundation, the Fund for the Improvement of Post Secondary Education, ACTION, and the student Literacy Corps. In 1993, the Clinton administration combined youth service with educational reform by persuading Congress to authorize two new national service projects, and then to tie national service to a cluster of innovative student aid packages, such as direct lending by the federal government, forgivable loans, and income-contingent loan repayments, (Serow, 1995; Waldman, 1995). Often overlooked in the attention directed to the federal initiatives is that the vast majority of youth service programs have been sponsored not by governments but by private agencies,

including church groups, civic an service clubs, and scouting organizations. Exact estimates of the number of participants in all such projects are difficult to me by, but it is obvious that substantial proportions of American youth engage in some type of unpaid service work by the time they graduate form high school. For instance, more than two out of three entering college freshmen state that they have performed volunteer work during the previous year (*The American Freshman,* 1994).

Method

This report is based on data gathered from a comprehensive inventory of SL programs institutions of higher education in one state--namely, North Carolina. The inventory was sponsored by the state's Commission on National and Community Service, a body established in each of the 50 states under the provisions of the federal National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993. In keeping with the spirit of that legislation, the purpose of the inventory was to document not only the extent to which federally-funded service projects were operating on college an university campuses, but also to gain a sense of the degree to which service-learning programs in general were being supported by IHE's. The latter objective was deemed essential in view of the murky prospects for continued federal funding that arose from changing national budgetary priorities in the mid-1990s.

Table 1
Response Rates by Type of Institution

Highest degree:	Baccalaureate/Graduate		Associate	
Control:	Public	Private	Private	Public
Institutions	16	38	58	6
Responding (%)	13(81)	30(79)	37(64)	2(23)
Respondents with SL programs(%)	13(100)	30(100)	22(59)	2(100)

Population

The study proceeded by mailing the survey instrument to an appropriate official (usually in the office of student affairs) at all 118 IHEs listed under the North Carolina heading in a current higher education directory (Rodenhouse, 1995). This same source also yielded information about each institutions' major structural characteristics, notably its enrollment, control (public or private) and its Carnegie classification (one of nine categories, based on the number and types of degrees awarded.) After several weeks, about half of all institutions had completed and returned the inventory. A second round of contacts was then initiated with a telephone call and an additional mailing of the instrument. These procedures increased the rate of return to 82 institutions, or 70% of the statewide total. As indicated in Table 1, most of the nonresponding IHEs were two-year institutions, especially public community colleges. One explanation is that these institutions are less likely to have SL programs--a conclusion suggested by response patterns among those community colleges participating in the inventory. (See Table 1, bottom row.)

The parts of the survey instrument under consideration here were constructed primarily with the aim of obtaining basic descriptive information about SL at each of the state's IHEs. In addition to directory information about the respondent (name, title, and relationship to service-learning), three sets of questions were posed. First, respondents were asked to check off specific efforts made by the institution in the recruitment, training, and evaluation of SL participants. (As will be discussed shortly, the checklist items were combined to form an Index of Institutional Support. See Appendix A for contents.) Second, two sort answer programmatic items focused on the degree to which student service had been integrated into the curriculum and the number of faculty members who had incorporated service units into their courses. Finally, an open-ended question invited respondents to discuss the goals of service learning and its relationship to institutional mission. Utilizing procedures for the classification of qualitative data (Seidman, 1991), the goal statements were placed into six broad categories, five of which corresponded to various areas of student development (Academic, Career, Psychological, Social/Ethical/Religious, and Otehr). The remaining goal category, designated as Service to the Community, consisted of statements in which the institutions' service mission to local or broader communities was cited as a ratio-sale for supporting SL programs. Each of the six categories was then scored as a dummy variable (1 point of the goal was mentioned, 0 otherwise).

Although the inventory consisted essentially of informational rather than interpretive items, it was decided to assess the interobserver reliability of these estimates. For this purpose, responses were obtained from multiple respondents at five institutions. Reliability estimates for each campus were then calculated based on the percentage of responses agreeing with the modal response. In the case of the two checklists, the percentage of agreement with the highest response was obtained instead. The coefficients for all five campuses were then averaged, producing an overall estimate of reliability for each variable. The range of these estimates was .72 to 1.00, with a mean of .89.

Analysis and results

Because initial findings suggested that support for SL various by type of institution (see Table 1), the effects of other variables were examined only after accounting for the influence of institutional structure. Hence, a two-stage multiple regression procedure was used. The dependent variable was the Index of Institutional Support (IIS), derived from a count of the number of specific steps taken in organizing and maintaining its service learning activities. One point was awarded for each item checked and the total score for each institution was computed as the sum of the standard scores of the two checklists, a procedure accessitated by the different length of each checklist.

Table 2
Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), and Item Synopsis

Item synopsis (Coding)	Mean	SD
Index of Institutional Support (IIS) (See Appendix A for contents)	0.00	1.84
Enrollment	3530	5088
Control (0=private, 1=public)	0.61	0.49
Highest Degree (0=Associate, 1=Bachelors or Graduate)	0.48	0.50
Integration of SL into curriculum (1=nine, 2=some, 3=much)	1.88	0.66
Number of faculty teaching SL units 1=0-5, 2=6-10, 3=11-15, 4=16-20, 5=21 and up)	1.75	1.20
Goals for SL: (Derived from open-ended items; 0=not mentioned, 1=mentioned)		
Academic development	0.21	0.41
Career development	0.11	0.31
Psychological development	0.26	0.44
Social/ethical/religious development	0.32	0.47
Other development	0.16	0.37
Institutional service to community	0.23	0.42

The means and standard deviations for the IIS and all other variables in this analysis are included in Table 2.

The independent variables entered into the regression equation in two stages. Bloc A comprised three structural characteristics: Enrollment, Public Control (coded 1 for public institutions and 0 for private campuses) and Highest Degree, a dichotomized version of the Carnegie classification, with institutions split nearly evenly between those awarding only Associate degrees (that is, community and junior colleges) and those that award baccalaureate and graduate diplomas. Bloc B consisted of five items, that, in a analysis not otherwise reported here, showed significant zero-order correlations with the IIS. These included both of the short answer questions—which were labeled Integration (of SL into the curriculum) and Number of Faculty (using SL in their classes)—as well as three of the six goal statements for SL: Academics, Social/Ethical/Religious, and Other Development.

Results of the multiple regression analysis are displayed in Table 3. When the structural variables in Bloc A were entered into the equation by themselves, they collectively accounted for one-third of the variance in the outcome measure. The addition of Bloc B raised the model's R^2 statistic by 30 points, thus indicating that variations in institutional support for SL were influenced not only by structural forces, but also by educational policies and goals. It is

noteworthy that while the Other Development goal and the Public Control variable also show significant beta coefficients, the strongest predictors of institutional support for SL both have to do with academics—namely, an emphasis on academic goals for SL and the number of faculty who incorporate sl units into their classes.

Table 3
Regression of Index of Institutional Support (IIS)

Independent Variable	B	S.E.B.	Beta
Step 1: Bloc A only			
Highest degree	-1.08	0.63	-.29
Enrollment	0.00	0.00	.29*
Public control	-0.98	0.66	-.26
Step 2: Bloc A and Bloc B			
Highest degree	-0.18	0.54	-.05
Enrollment	0.00	0.00	-.03
Public control	-1.14	0.54	-.30*
Integration	0.26	0.30	.09
Social/ethical goals	0.61	0.36	.15
Other development goals	1.03	0.48	.20*
Academic goals	1.42	0.45	.31**
# of faculty teaching	0.57	0.53	.37**

Note: R^2=33 for step 1: R^2=.63 for step 2.
*p <.05; ** p<.01;***p<.001

Discussion

The results of this study can be regarded favorably by those who believe that colleges and universities should actively promote student service and integrate it with the academic curriculum. And while some degree of caution should be exercised in attempting to generalize from the results of a study of institutions located in a single state, there nonetheless appears to be considerable convergence between the present set of results and ideas about SL now circulating at the national level and beyond. Especially noteworthy in this respect if our finding that SL is more likely to be institutionalized if it addressees one of the core purposes of higher education—namely, students' academic development. Thus, the idea that student service projects are grassroots activities designed and directed largely by students themselves (see, for instance, Serow, 1991) has begun to give way to a vision of service as an essential component of the postsecondary educational process. Included in this vision is the possibility that SL will be one of several innovations that institutions undertake to meet the call of legislatures, governing boards, and accrediting associations for increased attention to student needs and to the needs of the local community. Seen from this vantage point, SL projects can be a vehicle through which colleges and universities form partnerships with community agencies, while at the same time affording students the direct but guided experience that Schon (1983) and others have argued is essential to the education of professionals.

Another noteworthy conclusion emerging from this study centers on the surprisingly strong role placed by faculty members in institutionalizing SL. Customarily, faculty members have been described as taking a skeptical stand towards public service projects, in part because service is not adequately rewarded by IHEs, but also because their own highly specialized fields of interest are perceived as better-suited to scholarly work than to community outreach (Boyer, 1990; Lynton, 1995). Here, too, however, there have been suggestions for merging student and faculty service with other institutional functions, so that the lines separating service from research and instruction no longer hinder individual or institutional commitments to public-spirited enterprises (Plater, 1995).

Conclusion

In identifying some of the factors associated with institutional support for service-learning, this article provides evidence of the ongoing transformation of one of the major student movements of the past decade. While these finding

plainly indicate that institutional interest in SL centers on its prospect for enhancing student development, there is nonetheless some risk that a more structured approach will strip student service programs of the very rewards that attracted students in the first place. Foremost among these are autonomy, or the chance to play a meaningful role in the selection and design of a project, and efficacy, or the sense that one's own efforts have had a positive effect on other people (Serow, 1991). One goal for future research, therefore, will be to examine the success of institutionalized SL programs, as measured not only by the extent of student involvement, but also by such qualitative indicators as the degree of autonomy and efficacy that these programs afford.

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Appendix A
Index of Institutional Support (IIS)

Checklist 1 (Promotion):
In what ways does your institution promote service-learning efforts? (Check as many as apply):

( ) service program in first-year orientation
( ) volunteer fairs
( ) community service projects
( ) discuss service-learning in faculty orientations
( ) service requirements for student organizations
( ) consider service in faculty tenure evaluations
( ) listing of community agencies/publications
( ) publicity for service in university publications
( ) publicity for projects in local news awards for student service
( ) listing of campus-based service projects
( ) community service newsletter
( ) listing of service-learning courses
( ) other (please describe)

Checklist 2 (Training and Evaluation):
Which of the following does your service program provide? (Check all that apply)

( ) training in leadership development
( ) training in conflict resolution
( ) training in community building
( ) training in specific skills
( ) reflection materials
( ) reflection seminars/workshops
( ) self-evaluation of volunteers
( ) conference to discuss service
( ) evaluation from student volunteers
( ) evaluation from service recipients
( ) sponsor research on community service

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IMPLEMENTING SERVICE LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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In a recent article, "Creating the New American College," Ernest Boyer challenges higher education to reconsider its mission to be that of educating students for a life as responsible citizens, rather than educating students solely for a career. By doing so, the "New American College" will take pride in connecting theory to practice in order to meet challenging social problems, particularly those faced by universities in urban settings. As Ira Harkavey of the University of Pennsylvania Center for Community Partnerships has noted, "Universities cannot afford to remain shores of affluence, self-importance and horticultural beauty at the edge of island seas of squalor, violence and despair" [5, p. A48]. Emphasizing service has the potential to enrich learning and renew communities, but will also give "new dignity to the scholarship of service" [5, p. A48].

Universities have valuable resources (for example, students, faculty, staff, classrooms, libraries, technology, research expertise) that become accessible to the community when partnerships address community needs. They also have a tradition of serving their communities by strengthening the economic development of the region, addressing educational and health needs of the community, and contributing to the cultural life of the community [12, 23, 27]. Emphasizing the value of community involvement and voluntary community service can also create a culture of service on a campus [for example, 17, 26].

From a programmatic perspective there are two salient means through which universities support and promote community partnerships: (a) extracurricular and (b) curricular. On campus a significant number of college students actively participate in extracurricular community service through student organizations, the activities of student service offices, and campus-based religious organizations [for example, 1, 24]. Many faculty, staff, and students, particularly those at urban campuses, are involved in their communities (for example, neighborhood development, community agencies, churches, youth work) independent of the university.

Academic programs can also engage students in the community. Professional schools in particular create a variety of experiential learning opportunities for their students (for example, clinicals, internships, co-op programs, field experiences, practica, student teaching). However, the learning objectives of these activities typically focus only on extending a student's professional skills and do not emphasize to the student, either explicitly or tacitly, the importance of service within the community and lessons of civic responsibility.

We view service learning as a credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility, Unlike extracurricular voluntary service, service learning is a coursebased service experience that produces the best outcomes when meaningful service activities are related to course material through reflection activities such as directed writings, small group discussions, and class presentations. Unlike practica and internships, the experiential activity in a service learning course is not necessarily skill-based within the context of professional education. Service learning provides an additional means for reaching educational objectives, and academic credit is appropriate for service activities when learning objectives associated with the service are identified and evaluated. Faculty who use service learning discover that it brings new life to the classroom, enhances performance on traditional measures of learning, increases student interest in the subject, teaches new problem solving skills, and makes teaching more enjoyable. In addition, service learning expands course objectives to include civic education. Benjamin Barber, of the Walt Whitman Center for the Culture and Politics of Democracy, Rutgers University, considers service learning to be an indispensable method for citizenship education through which students learn the arts of democracy [2, 3].

Research has supported claims that have been made for the value of service learning in higher education. Markus, Howard, and King [21], using procedures that closely approximated a randomized control-group design, found that students in service learning sections had more positive course evaluations, more positive beliefs and values toward service and community, and higher academic achievement as measured on mid-term and final examinations. Other research supports the contention that service learning has a positive impact on personal, attitudinal, moral, social, and cognitive outcomes [4, 7, 8, 15].

The recent interest in service learning has been strengthened by the work of national organizations interested in combining service and education (for example, Campus Compact, American Association for Higher Education, Council of Independent Colleges, Council for Adult Experiential Learning, National Society for Experiential Education, National Youth Leadership Council, Partnership for Service-Learning), and the National Community Service Trust Act of 1993. Universities are particularly well suited to become national leaders in the development of service learning.

Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis is an urban university that has invested resources and personnel to establish an Off-ice of Service Learning. In doing so, we (a) participated in Campus Compact's Summer Institute for the Project on Integrating Service with Academic Study and the Stanford Summer Institute on Service Learning, (b) attended national and regional conferences on service learning and experiential education, (c) reviewed the extant service learning literature, (d) collected information from many programs which were in various stages of institutionalizing service learning, (e) reviewed materials from eight university-based centers focusing on service, and (f) participated on the University of Colorado at Boulder listserv on service learning (Internet: SL@CSF. COLORADO.
EDU). On the basis of this work, we developed the following model for implementing and institutionalizing service learning within higher education.

Comprehensive action plan for service learning (CA PSL)

Developing service learning at the institutional level has been characterized as a cycle that includes awareness, planning, prototype, support, expansion, and evaluation [20, pp. 37-38]. This model of institutional change was based on the 44 institutions that participated in the three-year Campus Compact Project on Integrating Service with Academic Study. Based on our examination of service learning programs nationwide and our discussions with many more experienced persons, we have expanded this model and have applied it to additional constituencies. The resulting model, the Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning (CAPSQ, identifies four constituencies on which a program for service learning (for example, an office of service learning) needs to focus its principle activities: institution, faculty, students, and community. Although this is not an exhaustive list of constituencies to be considered in service learning programming, these four constituencies must be included for the initial efforts to be successful.

Table 1

Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning (CAPSL)

	Institution	Faculty	Students	Community
Planning				
Awareness				
Prototype				
Resources				
Expansion				
Recognition				
Monitoring				
Evaluation				
Research				
Institutionalization				

CAPSL also identifies a sequence of activities/tasks/outcomes to be pursued for each of the four constituencies (see Table 1). Following initial planning, activities need to increase awareness within each constituency concerning the general nature of service learning. This educational process is helped by having at least one concrete example or pro-

totype course available. An office of service learning can then expand the development of service learning by gathering resources and designing activities for each constituency. The office also needs to document the implementation of service learning (monitoring) and the outcomes of service learning (evaluation). The results of all these efforts should be recognized publicly in the media and through scholarship and research published in professional journals. Finally, evidence of growth and maturity will be reflected in the degree to which service learning becomes institutionalized.

The sequence of activities identified by CAPSL represents a heuristic that can focus attention on important steps of planned change and program development. Although the activities are presented as a linear sequence, in practice the pattern will seldom be linear. Instead, there may be numerous cycles back and forth across activities. However, as Wood [33] observes, even though change is not linear or uniform, "what is important is to maintain the direction, to keep to the course" (p. 53). CAPSL provides that direction by identifying a sequence of actions for strategic planning by prioritizing activities and providing a basis for monitoring progress. There is a rationale to the ordering of tasks in CAPSL which presumes that an activity may be premature if other previous tasks have been neglected. For example, faculty development efforts mentioned under expansion (for example, service learning course development stipends) will be of limited effectiveness if faculty do not understand service learning. Nor should the sequence of tasks be considered lock step such that an earlier step needs to be accomplished in its entirety before the next step is attempted (for example, all or most faculty do not need to understand service learning in order to proceed with expansion, only enough to justify those efforts). It is not assumed that progress across the constituencies goes at the same pace. Programmatic development will typically occur unevenly in a mix of small increments and a few big jumps.

Institutions

CAPSL describes a model for the development of service learning in universities at the institutional level (see Table 2 for examples). A small group of key individuals (administrators, faculty, students, staff, community leaders) with the appropriate interest, motivation, and skills is needed to execute the critical first steps. As Wood [33] points out, "Educational programs...need champions. Those champions must be found in the faculty if an innovation is to be profound and long-lasting. Administrators should not be shy about seeking out faculty champions" (p. 53). The planning stage needs to include a self-assessment on the following items: (a) where the institution is and where it is going; (b) the institutional, student, and faculty culture, climate, and values [3 1]; and (c) the resources and obstacles for developing service learning in the institution. Individuals in this group will benefit from discussions with individuals at institutions with more mature programs and at conferences that include service learning as a topic. A strategic action plan for implementing service learning can then be developed [for example, 19, 301 and institutional commitments (for example, budget, office space, personnel commitments) can be secured. As Schmidtlein [28] points out, the key to successful change is, "adapting planning practices to the institution's unique characteristics" (p. 85). One of the best ways for a university to do this is with the help of Campus Compact's regional institutes that target institutional development.[1]

At some point in these early steps it is necessary to identify a person to assume leadership and administrative responsibility for subsequent program operations and to establish an office of service learning. The office of service learning will need to communicate to staff, students, faculty, and community agencies its mission and planned activities. As Rubin [26] notes, this is a more formidable task at a commuter university than at a small liberal arts college because of "the lack of personal relationships and informal networks" (p. 48).

Farmer [13] cautions that some educational change is ephemeral because "too often, change agents focus too much on implementing change and too little on sustaining it" (p. 16). Thus, the efforts and investments devoted to initiating service learning must be complemented with the resources to sustain and expand the program. Institutions should examine their faculty reward structures and determine how they facilitate and inhibit faculty involvement in service learning. With development and maturity, service learning will become a significant component of the curriculum, and faculty, and staff will participate in service learning organizations, share their success with other institutions, and contribute to professional conferences.

The university, as an institution, can be both the means of and the object of data collection that monitors program development, evaluates institutional outcomes, and publishes +the results of this research in professional journals. The off-ice of service learning should facilitate this research, which is critical to strengthening the knowledge base to promote and expand service learning within academia [16].

Academically, the prevalence of service learning courses is initial evidence that service learning is important to the institution. An additional sign of growth and maturity occurs when service learning transcends a collection of

Table2
Examples of Institutional Activities

	Institution
Planning	Form a planning group of key persons
	Survey institutional resources and climate
	Attend Campus compact Regional Institute
	Develop a Campus Action Plan for service learning
	Form an advisory committee
Awareness	Inform key administrators and faculty groups about service learning and program development
	Join national organizations (e.g., Campus Compact, National Society for Experiential Education, Partnership for Service-Learning)
	Attend service learning conferences
Prototype	Identify and consult with exemplary programs in higher education
Resources	Obtain administrative commitments for an office of Service Learning (e.g., budget, office space, personnel)
	Develop a means for coordinating service learning with other programs on campus (e.g., student support services, faculty development)
	Apply for grants
Expansion	Discuss service learning with a broader audience of administrators and staff (e.g., deans, counselors, student affairs)
	Support attendance at service learning conferences
	Collaborate with others in programming and grant applications
	Arrange campus speakers and forums on service learning
Recognition	Publicize university's service learning activities to other institutions
	Participate in conferences and workshops
	Publish research
	Publicize service learning activities in local media
Monitoring	Collect data within institution (e.g., number of courses, number of faculty teaching service learning courses, number of students enrolled, number of agency partnerships)
Evaluation	Compile annual report of Office of Service Learning
	Include service learning in institutional assessment
Research	Conduct research on service learning within institution and across institutions
Institutionalization	Service is part of university mission statement and service learning is recognized in university publications
	Service learning is an identifiable feature of general education
	Service learning courses are listed in bulletins, schedule of classes, and course descriptions
	University sponsors regional or national conferences on service learning
	Hardline budget commitments to sustain service learning programs

courses. For example, coordinated course sequences in service learning, service learning being integral to general education, and an entire curriculum organized around service learning [for example, 22] reflect increasing levels of programmatic development and maturity. Administratively, evidence that service learning is institutionalized would include having service and service learning as explicit parts of the institution's mission, long-range plans, institutional assessment, and hard-line budget allocations.

Faculty

Faculty involvement is critical because service learning in its most common form is a course-driven feature of the curriculum. Therefore, the work of an office of service learning must focus on interesting faculty in service learning and providing them with support to make the curricular changes necessary to add a service learning component to a

course. Some faculty may already be using experiential learning activities that are similar to service learning. Identifying and involving interested and experienced faculty in planning (for example, forming a faculty advisory committee) is important to later activities (see Table 3 for examples). This needs to include formal and informal forums, for as Wood [33] points out, "the absence of such conversation virtually guarantees maintenance of the status quo" (p. 53).

Table 3
Examples of Faculty Activities

	Faculty
Planning	Survey faculty interest and service learning courses currently offered
	Identify faculty for service learning planning group and advisory committee
Awareness	Distribute information on service learning (e.g., brochures, newsletters, and articles)
	Identify a faculty liaison in each academic unit
Prototype	Identify or develop prototype course(s)
Resources	Identify interested faculty and faculty mentors
	Maintain syllabus file by discipline
	Compile library collection on service learning
	Secure faculty development funds for expansion
	Identify existing resources that can support faculty development in service learning
	Establish a faculty award that recognizes service
Expansion	Offer faculty development workshops
	Arrange one-on-one consultations
	Discuss service learning with departments and schools
	Provide course development stipends and grants to support service learning
	Focus efforts on under represented schools
	Develop faculty mentoring program
	Promote development of general education, sequential, and interdisciplinary service learning courses
Recognition	Publicize faculty accomplishments
	Include service learning activities on faculty Annual Report forms
	Involve faculty in professional activities (e.g, publications, workshops, conferences, forums)
	Publicize recipients of the faculty service award
Monitoring	Collect data on faculty involvement (e.g., number of faculty involved in faculty development activities, number of faculty offering service learning courses)
Evaluation	Provide assessment methods and designs to faculty(e.g., peer review, portfolios)
	Evaluate course outcomes (e.g., student satisfaction, student learning)
Research	Facilitate faculty research on service learning
	Conduct research on faculty involvement in service learning
Institutionalization	Service learning is part of personnel decisions (e.g., hiring, annual review, promotion and tenure)
	Service learning is a permanent feature of course descriptions and the curriculum
	Service learning is an integral part of the professional development of faculty

Creating a common understanding of what constitutes service learning at a particular institution will pay dividends later. This can be accomplished through brochures, news releases, faculty workshops, brown bag talks, and presentations at departmental meetings. These activities can be helped by having a prototype course that provides a local example which includes a syllabus to read, an instructor who can share wisdom and advice, examples for how course components such as reflection and evaluation can be structured, and a group of students who are advocates for service learning. In addition, syllabi that provide examples of service learning courses across the curriculum can be collected from other institutions.

A primary task of an off-ice of service learning will be to facilitate course development. As a change agent, the office of service learning can expect to play many of the multiple roles identified by Farmer [13]: (a) catalyst, (b) solution

giver, (c) process helper, (d) resource linker, and (e) confidence builder. A particularly important role is providing the opportunity for experienced faculty to meet one on one with interested faculty. The office can also gather resources (for example, syllabi, literature), provide support (for example, grants, faculty stipends), and plan faculty development activities (for example, workshops, campus speakers) that lead to the expansion of service learning courses. The office should regularly publicize the successes on campus and in the community.

Beyond those faculty who are initially curious, how can additional faculty be drawn to explore service learning? First, claims about service learning must be realistic, otherwise disenchantment and resentment will develop. Faculty are willing to explore change, including service learning, when the promise of the innovation leaves them feeling more efficacious and more competent as teachers [10] and when the investments to achieve these outcomes are modest. Therefore, effective faculty development must include presenting a clear understanding of service learning, the expected benefits from service learning for the faculty and student, and the requisite investments of time.

In addition, ways can be found to involve faculty in activities that are related to service learning but fall short of developing a new course.

For example, faculty can be asked to conduct reflection sessions for student groups who have completed service projects. This provides the opportunity for faculty to observe and guide some of the lessons learned from the students' service experience. Faculty can also be asked to participate in short-term community service projects so that they become more familiar with opportunities for learning from service in the community. Also, faculty can be asked to team-teach in an existing service learning course.

The office of service learning can also develop a program of faculty development in service learning. One such curriculum for faculty [6] offers a series of workshops on the general nature of service learning, reflection, building community partnerships, student supervision and assessment, and course assessment and research. These seminars can be presented over a semester, an academic year, a summer, or during an intensive period of instruction (for example, a week). Faculty development workshops can also be coupled with extrinsic incentives (for example, course development stipends) and support (for example, grants for student assistants, experienced faculty who serve as mentors) to overcome obstacles. Faculty are also sensitive to the value of enhancing student learning and satisfaction, recognition during personnel review, and publication of articles in scholarly journals about their work on service learning. Therefore, an office of service learning should help faculty to achieve these professional goals.

Our belief is that faculty respond best to these initiatives when the office reports directly to an academic officer (for example, academic dean, academic vice president) because such an arrangement provides academic leadership and academic integrity to service learning. However, regardless of the administrative arrangement, collaboration with an active student volunteer program within Student Affairs can facilitate the development of service learning. The successes of the Haas Center at Stanford, the Center for Social Concern at Notre Dame, and the Swearer Center at Brown University reflect the benefits of having both efforts (that is, service learning and student volunteer services) housed together in a central location.

An office of service learning will also be in a position to collect information that monitors faculty activities and the resulting growth in service learning courses on campus. As a service learning program matures, it will develop the means through which it can collect evaluation data that detail student and faculty outcomes resulting from service learning courses. The work by Barber [2] and Giles and Eyler [14] to develop scales specifically designed for service learning courses is an extremely important step in the evolution of research on service learning. Determining *why* particular outcomes occur requires, in addition to adequate outcome measures, sophisticated experimental designs and data analysis procedures.

Academically, service learning that is an integral part of the curriculum and is not dependent upon a small group of faculty reflects institutionalization. Administratively, institutionalization of faculty commitment to service learning is demonstrated when service learning is recognized and used in personnel decisions (hiring, promotion and tenure, merit reviews).

Students

Students are in a paradoxical position with regard to service activities. On the one hand, some students are involved

in voluntary service through campus organizations. Campus Compact provides ample evidence of the vigor that student-initiated and student-led service programs can display. Furthermore, students may be actively involved in their communities independent of the campus, particularly nontraditional students at urban campuses. On the other hand, students are dependent upon others for service learning opportunities. Service learning typically occurs only if a faculty member develops a service learning course., the course is approved, the course is offered, and the course is appropriate for a student (for example, meets degree requirements, prerequisites). Faculty are also dependent upon students in that a service learning course will be successful and repeated if students enroll in the course and if it results in a successful educational experience.

Astin's [1] research shows a sharp decline in student volunteer activities between high school and college. Furthermore, in comparison to residential campuses, nonresidential urban universities are learning environments that are disproportionately classroom oriented, with fewer campus activities occurring outside the classroom. As Schuh, Andreas, and Strange [29] note about urban universities that are commuter campuses, "People can come and go so freely that it is difficult for the institution to develop traditions, bonds with students, and a sense of belonging" (p. 67). Our research [321 found that, for our commuting students, academic credit related to service activities increased the attractiveness of students getting involved in service. Thus, service learning, with the incentive of academic credit for service associated with the classroom, provides an important means for increasing student participation in community service and enhancing the community service experiences for those already involved. Furthermore, service learning can provide an important function for students at urban universities by integrating their multiple life roles on campus and in the community [18] with support services and academic credit.

As Schuh, Andreas, and Strange [29] point out, universities that "promote students' involvement in out-of-class experiences that are educationally purposeful" (p. 66) create a powerful learning environment and a greater sense of belonging. This is particularly important to a commuter campus, which can too easily regard students impersonally. Successful service programs, including both voluntary service and service learning, can build a greater sense of community on campus. This is consistent with Astin's [1] finding that rates of peer interactions and faculty/ student interactions were both strongly related to participation in volunteer work.

It is important in planning a service learning program to know the nature of the student climate and culture, including student attitudes toward voluntary service activities (individual or through student groups) and student attitudes toward service learning course development (for example, Is service learning more attractive in freshman courses, in the major, only in certain disciplines, only for additional credit?). In addition, it is valuable to have students involved in planning activities (for example, as members of service learning advisory committees, writing grant proposals) in order to develop campuswide support (see Table 4).

Although service learning is becoming more prevalent in K–12 curricula, many students, and particularly nontraditional students, do not know about service learning. On small campuses, formal and informal communication can quickly and effectively solve this problem. However, at large universities, informing students about the nature of service learning courses is much more difficult. Providing information about course offerings to counselors, descriptions in course schedules, articles in school newspapers, and using students from past service learning classes as advocates can help inform others. As students become more experienced with service learning, some can assume leadership roles in courses as student assistants and site coordinators and participate in the design and execution of action research that focuses on needs assessment, program evaluation, and advocacy. Recognition of students' involvement in voluntary service and service learning is important. This recognition should start with designing effective service learning courses so that students have successful experiences that result in enhanced learning. In addition, recognition can include internal and external publicity, scholarships that reward past service or include a service requirement, nominations for regional and national service awards, and cocurricular transcripts that summarize service and service learning experiences that typically are not recorded on academic transcripts.

The office of service learning should collect information that reflects growth in enrollment in service learning and its impact on students. In addition, research may also be directed at student outcomes (for example, cognitive, affective, behavioral, social) that document the impact of service learning.

One effective means for expansion of service learning is the "4th credit option" implemented at Georgetown University and the Lowell Bennion Center at the University of Utah. This allows students to propose a contract with any

instructor to do service learning for additional academic credit on an individual basis. This option empowers students to initiate service learning experiences and encourages faculty to experiment with service learning on a small scale.

Table 4
Examples of Student Activities

	Students
Planning	Survey student involvement in service activities (e.g., individuals and student groups)
	Survey student attitudes toward service and service learning
	Identify students for service learning planning group and advisory committee
Awareness	Distribute information about service learning (e.g., newspaper articles, posters, brochures, student orientation)
	Inform counselors about service learning
	Arrange presentations to student organizations
Prototype	Recruit students for prototype course(s)
Resources	Publicize service learning courses (e.g., class schedule, counselors)
	Establish service learning scholarships
	Secure money for service learning course assistants and site coordinators
Expansion	Establish a broad offering of service learning courses, including required general education courses, sequential courses, and interdisciplinary courses
	Include past students from service learning courses in the recruitment of new students
	Create course assistant and site coordinator positions for students
	Develop 4th credit option for students to design "independent" service learning components
	Offer service learning minor
	Involve students in the development of service learning courses and related activities (e.g, workshops, focus groups, state organizations, conferences)
Recognition	Publicize recipients of student scholarships that recognize service
	Write letters of recommendation for students involved in service
	Nominate students for local, regional, and national recognitions and awards
	Create co-curricular transcript
Monitoring	Collect data on student involvement (e.g., enrollment, withdrawal rates)
Evaluation	Evaluate service learning courses (e.g., student satisfaction, learning outcomes, retention)
Research	Conduct research on student service learning experiences
	Promote student involvement in action research
Institutionalization	Consistently high enrollment in service learning courses
	Widespread use of 4th credit option
	Service learning is part of student culture

Delve, Mintz, and Stewart [11] provide an example of a student development model that identifies the following five phases of involvement in service learning: (a) exploration (naive excitement), (b) clarification (values clarification), (c) realization (insight into the meaning of service), (d) activation (participation and advocacy), and (e) internalization (the service experience influences career and life choices). A mature service learning curriculum will promote this type of student development through coordinated course sequences and assessment of student outcomes [22].

Institutionalization of service learning for students is reflected in extensive use of the 4th credit option, widespread faculty interest in service learning and student enrollment in service learning classes, curricula integrated around service learning, student assessment related to service learning activities, service learning that is part of the institution's general education curriculum [221, student recruitment to the campus because of service learning curricula, increased retention of students due to service learning, and a student culture that accepts and promotes service and service learning.

Community

Although interactions between the university and their communities are integral to any university [9, 25], building

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these interactions into partnerships is a matter of time and commitment of resources [12]. According to Ruch and Trani [27], three characteristics identify effective university-community relationships: (a) the interaction is mutually beneficial to the university and the community, (b) the interaction is guided by institutional choice and strategy, and (c) the interaction is one of value and import to both partners. Universities must provide strong leadership, articulate clear goals, and maintain supportive institutional policies to develop these partnerships [27].

Community representatives need to be involved in planning service learning programs (see Table 5). However, representation is difficult because it prompts such questions as, "Who should be represented? Which communities? Agencies? Funding sources? Clients? Neighborhoods? Government?" The appropriate constituencies may not be identifiable prior to program and course development. Under these circumstances, those who are planning service learning programs must make their best approximation at representation and acknowledge that adjustments may be necessary as the program evolves. Staff from agencies with extensive volunteer support programs and with experience in service learning (for example, prototype course) may be good choices. Agency staff are assumed to be adequate representatives of the communities and clients served by that agency. However, if only agency personnel are represented, an additional concern is that there may not be adequate representation from clients and community members.

Table 5
Examples of Community Activities

	Community
Planning	Survey existing university/community partnerships
	Identify community representatives for service learning planning group and advisory committee
Awareness	Distribute information on service learning (e.g., newsletter, brochure)
	Initiate meetings and site visits with agency personnel
	Educate agency personnel on differences between voluntary service and service learning
Prototype	Collaborate with agency personnel to develop prototype course(s)
Resources	Compile list of agencies interested in service learning
	Compile community needs assessments (e.g., United Way community needs assessment)
	Secure money for site-bases student coordinators
	Write a community agency resource manual on the university's policies and procedures for service learning courses
Expansion	Initiate community workshops and discussions on service learning
	Increase involvement of agency personnel in course design and university-level service learning activities
	Explore new service learning opportunities
	Collaborate with community agencies on programming, grant proposals, and conferences
Recognition	Sponsor recognition events for agencies and agency personnel
	Publicize community partnerships in local media
Monitoring	Monitor training and supervision of students at agency
	Maintain records of student and faculty involvement at agency
Evaluation	Assess impact of service learning activities on meeting agency and client needs
Research	Collaborate with agencies on action research projects
Institutionalization	Faculty are formally involved with agency (e.g., consultant, board of directors)
	Agency personnel are formally involved with university (e.g., team teach course, campus committees)
	Agencies allocate additional resources to support and train student volunteers

Even community agencies that have extensive experience with volunteers may not know about the nature of service learning and how the differences between service learning and voluntary service are important to their responsibilities. Thus, formal and informal education about service learning is important for site supervisors, directors of volunteer services, and agency directors.

Communities need to participate in guiding the identification of service activities at a macro level (for example, United Way community needs assessment) and a micro level (for example, a particular course). An office of service learning provides an important function of cataloging and linking constituencies and resources as service learning courses are developed. In turn, the office should monitor and evaluate community placements. As previously mentioned, the aspiration is that the university and segments of the community develop partnerships. Evidence that a stable, meaningful, and mature partnership is evolving would include continuity in the relationships across time, consensus that mutual needs are being met, collaboration in advocacy and grant proposals, formal and informal participation by the agency staff in the university context (for example, team teaching), and formal and informal participation by the faculty, alumni, and students in the agency (for example, advocacy, board of directors, consultant).

Conclusions

Virtually all universities are interested in committing their resources to develop effective citizenship among their students, to address complex needs in their communities through the application of knowledge, and to form creative partnerships between the university and the community. Service learning provides one means through which students, faculty, and administrators can strive toward these aspirations.

The Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning (CAPSL) provides a heuristic for guiding the development of a service learning program in higher education. It does so by concentrating efforts on four constituencies that must be considered in implementing a service learning program and by providing a means for developing strategic plans that address each constituency. In addition, CAPSL provides a means for assessing, for each constituency, the developmental status of a service learning program. Although this agenda may appear daunting, assembling a team from the constituencies and prioritizing objectives can make the work more manageable.

As a general guide, CAPSL only specifies the goal at each step (for example, increase awareness among students). This is both an advantage and a disadvantage of the model. On the positive side, it is general enough that the execution of each cell can be tailored to local conditions. Unfortunately, for the same reason, it is not possible to detail how each step can be successfully accomplished at a particular university, although some suggestions and examples are provided. It is possible to take the sequence of activities from the whole CAPSL model (that is, planning through institutionalization) and apply it to any cell in the matrix (for example, research by faculty). Regardless of how CAPSL is used, it does provide guidance for planned development and evaluation of service learning programs.

Notes

[1]Campus Compact, c/o Brown University, Box 1975, Providence, Rhode Island 02912 (401) 863-1119.

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4

Institutional Trends and Issues

Integrating Service and Academic Study:

Faculty Motivation and Satisfaction in Michigan Higher Education

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Advocates of service-learning have long urged greater integration between service and academic study, yet little attention has been paid to those faculty who utilize service-learning. This study, conducted as a part of the author's dissertation, presents preliminary findings from a survey of Michigan faculty who have incorporated service into their courses. The paper focuses on faculty motivation, satisfaction, and the intersection of the two.

In the prologue to his 1993 book, *A Call of Service,* Robert Coles uses the words of a Pueblo boy to poignantly describe the tension between the idealism of service and the methodology of education. The young boy questions the motives of the VISTA volunteers who have come to assist the teachers in his village school, relating, "My dad said the VISTA people want to change the world, and the teachers just want to teach, so there's a difference" (p. 25).

There is evidence of the same "difference" at work in higher education today. Student involvement in community service projects has long been viewed primarily as an extra-curricular activity on most college campuses (Kendall & Associates, 1990; Lieberman & Connolly, 1992). However, an increasing number of educators are calling for greater integration of service and study through courses which incorporate service learning (Barber, 1989, 1991, 1992; Nathan & Kielsmeier, 199 1; Newman, 1992; Stanton, 1987, 1990; Wieckowski, 1992). Indeed, the literature on service-learning is burgeoning with exhortations for faculty participation in student service activities. And yet, "Little attention has been given to the faculty role in supporting student service efforts" (Stanton, 1990, p. 1).

Politicians, practitioners, and philosophers offer many arguments on behalf of service-learning in the formal curriculum (Bok, 1982,1986; Boyer, 1981, 1987; Boyte, 1992; Bradfield & Myers, 1992; Levine, 1989; Stanton, 1987). This chorus of support for service learning is generally rooted in a commitment to volunteerism and has three recurrent themes: service learning contributes to the vitality of the college or university; service learning promotes civic responsibility which strengthens the nation; and service-learning contributes to the solution of problems in the wider society (Agria, 1990; Barber, 1992; Conrad & Hedin, 1987; Delve, Mintz, & Stewart, 1990; Fitch, 1987).

However, no matter how persuasive advocates of community service and service-learning may be, it is the faculty who control the curriculum including instructional methods (AAUP, 1966; Bowen & Schuster, 1986). Research studies describe faculty as independent workers who are motivated by the intrinsic rewards of research and teaching (Austin & Gamson, 1983; Bess, 1982; -Bowen & Schuster, 1986; Cross, 1990; Csikszentmihalyi, 1982; Deci & Ryan, 1982; McKeachie, 1982; Rice, 1986). Yet, these faculty motivations are rarely referenced in the service learning literature, nor are they utilized to inform service learning advocacy on campuses.

Therefore, instead of asking the familiar question, "Why don't faculty utilize service-learning?", this study identifies the faculty who have utilized service learning, and seeks to understand their motivations and experiences. The implications of this research are both scholarly and practical. An exploration of service learning faculty motivations enhances our understanding of the scholarly profession by clarifying the circumstances under which faculty may modify their teaching to include a service component. At the same time, a better understanding of the experiences of faculty who integrate service and teaching provides a base for extending and improving the quality of the enterprise.

Methodology

In the fall of 1992, the Curriculum Development Committee of the Michigan Campus Compact (MCC) commis-

sioned a study of service learning to gain insight into the initial motivations of faculty who had incorporated service in their academic courses. This study adopted the definition used by the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE) and the Campus Compact: "Service-learning represents a particular form of experiential education, one that emphasizes for students the accomplishment of tasks which meet human needs in combination with conscious educational growth" (Kendall & Associates, 1990, p. 20). The study was designed to (1) identify faculty in Michigan colleges and universities who were integrating service into academic courses, (2) develop a faculty network to encourage the flow of information between such individuals, (3) gather information about the structure of courses which incorporate service learning, and (4) determine the factors which have motivated and encouraged or discouraged faculty who have integrated service and academic study. This article provides results related to the fourth objective of the study, focusing on faculty motivations for adopting service-learning, and on their satisfactions and dissatisfactions with the resulting courses.

A preliminary survey of the major colleges and universities in the state of Michigan was conducted in January of 1993. Personalized letters were sent to presidents, academic administrators, and campus service coordinators, asking their assistance in identifying faculty who were utilizing service as a component of an academic course. 23 institutions responded: eight were small, private, liberal arts colleges; six were mid-size public universities; three were research universities; three were community colleges; two were law schools; and one was a theological seminary. In total, these institutions provided 250 faculty names which served as the survey population for the second phase of the study.

A questionnaire was designed to gather baseline data about the characteristics of the faculty and the courses they were teaching, and to answer the theoretical questions about faculty motivation. The 7page instrument had three parts: 1) characteristics of service-learning courses, 2) support for service learning, and 3) developing a faculty profile. A pilot test of the survey instrument was conducted to refine the instrument prior to distribution.

The survey was distributed to the 250 faculty who were initially identified as having incorporated service into their academic courses, either as a central focus or as an ancillary component. From these 250 faculty members, a total of 163 (65.2%) responses were received, 130 of which yielded quantifiable results for the purpose of this study. This response rate is compatible with the findings of Eble and McKeachie (1985) who found "50 to 70 percent returns usual in the study of faculty members" (p. 164).

The responses to this questionnaire yielded extensive data about the practices and perceptions of faculty who utilized service-learning. In addition to frequency distributions, an analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether responses to particular items varied significantly from each other. When appropriate, paired t-tests were used to determine if the mean scores differed significantly from each other. The Chisquare test, a nonparametric statistical test, was used to determine if a significant relationship existed between various responses. For this article, all entries are significant at the .05 level, according to the chi-square tests.

Results

Who utilizes service-learning in their courses in Michigan? What motivated them to incorporate a service component? Are they inclined to continue and/or expand their involvement in the future? The data presented below affords some insight and understanding about a faculty population that has been previously unpolled.

Demographic Information

Professional Profile. Respondents were almost evenly divided between four-year public (47.2%) and four-year private (46.4%) institutions (which included the law schools and theological seminary), with the remainder (6.4%) coming from two-year public institutions. Respondents represented 44 disciplinary areas, with the highest concentration (23%) in education related fields.

Service-learning faculty were relatively well established in their institutions. More than a quarter were full professors (32.2%) and 41.4% were tenured. Most respondents (74.2%) had been teaching for ten or more years. Nearly all respondents (98.4%) held a graduate degree and the majority (58.%) held the Ph.D.

Teaching was a high priority for survey respondents. Most (82.9%) ranked teaching as their most important professional responsibility.

There was evidence of a relatively strong commitment over time by the respondents to the integration of service and academic study. Fewer than 10% of the respondents reported having utilized service-learning only once, and a substantial majority (63%) indicated that they had utilized service-learning in their course four or more times.

Personal Profile. Consistent with the general demographic profile of faculty (Bowen & Schuster, 1986), a majority of the faculty identified in this study are male (53.5%) and the vast majority (88.8%) are white. Most (79.7%) are over the age of 40.

A chi-square analysis revealed a significant relationship between gender and three other demographic features: age, academic degree, and academic rank. Male respondents were older, held more advanced academic degrees, and held higher academic rank than female respondents in this study.

Faculty Motivation and Satisfaction

General Findings. Taken in their totality, three conclusions can be drawn from the survey responses: (1) There were significant differences with regard to faculty motivations for using service-learning; (2) Responses of service-learning faculty in this study were consistent with the general research on faculty motivation, satisfaction, and dissatisfaction, and (3) There was a relationship between the initial motivation of faculty to incorporate service and their subsequent satisfaction with such endeavors. The findings presented below are organized around these three findings.

Motivation. The survey questionnaire listed 24 possible motivations for adopting service learning pedagogy. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which each factor influenced or motivated them to incorporate a service component into their coursework. Table 1 provides mean scores for each of the 24 items. The choices are divided according to personal motivations, co-curricular motivations, and curricular motivations.

Table 1

Factors Motivating Faculty to Use Service in a course: Mean Scores

Statement	Mean
Utilizing the scale below, please indicate the factors that motivated/influenced you to incorporate service-learning in your courses.	
Personal Motivations	
I am currently involved in community organization(s) and/or in community service	2.12
In my youth service was an important aspect of my family life.	2.58
Today, service is an important aspect of my family life.	2.31
I was involved in service during high school.	2.82
I was involved in service during college.	2.69
I enjoy working with students in co-curricular settings.	1.79
Service is an important component of my personal faith.	2.10
Service enables me to affect social change.	1.88
Service-learning is a way of helping people in need.	1.75
Co-Curricular Motivations	
Service-learning is a valuable tool for civic education.	1.85
Service-learning promotes civic involvement.	1.88
Service-learning develops the moral character of students.	1.87
Service-learning prepares students for employment.	1.69
Service-learning fosters a sense of community.	1.73
Service-learning helps students develop a meaningful philosophy of life.	1.72
Service-learning promotes multi-cultural understanding.	1.71
Curricular Motivations	
Service-learning is an effective way to present disciplinary content material.	1.61
Service-learning teaches critical thinking.	1.71
Service-learning encourages self-directed learning.	1.54

Service-learning brings greater relevance to course material.	1.31
Service-learning provides professional (or pre-professional) training.	1.72
Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education	1.49
Service-learning improves student satisfaction with education.	1.61
Service-learning is a departmental requirement for this course.	2.94
I was required to teach this course as a part of my teaching load.	3.19

Note. Response options were: Strong Influence (1), Moderate Influence (2), Little Influence (3), No Influence (4), Not Applicable (5)

An analysis of variance revealed that significant differences did exist in the strength of the responses, based on a comparison of the means. For example, the mean score of 3.19 for "I was required to teach this course as a part of my teaching load" and a mean score of 2.94 for "service-learning is a departmental requirement for this course" both reflect that faculty were not motivated by such external factors. In fact, the strongest motivators for the faculty in this study can be found in the curricular motivations grouping, including: "brings greater relevance to course materials (mean = 1.31)," "encourages self-directed learning (mean = 1.54)," "improves student satisfaction with education (mean = 1.61)," "is an effective way to present disciplinary content material (mean = 1.61)," and "is an effective form of experiential education (mean = 1.49)." These responses are consistent with faculty's general investment in teaching as demonstrated in both this study (82.94% ranked teaching as their most important professional responsibility) as well as others.

Satisfaction. Researchers who have studied academic culture have discovered that faculty satisfaction depends on three primary conditions: (1)sufficient freedom, autonomy, and control; (2) the belief that the work itself has purpose and meaning; and (3) feedback which indicates that their efforts are successful (Austin & Gamson, 1983; Bess, 1982; Deci & Ryan, 1982; McKeachie, 1982). The importance of these three conditions is reflected in the faculty responses in this survey as well. First, respondents had freely chosen the service component: over 90 percent (90.4%) ,,strongly agreed" or "agreed" with the statement, "I was free to develop this course as I felt appropriate." Course approval was readily given by the necessary curriculum committees and/or administrative authorities and few respondents (9.4%) perceived curricular policies as impediments to their efforts.

Second, faculty found purpose and meaning in their experiences in several ways, although responses here were mixed. The majority (91.4%) believed that the service undertaken did meet a community need and a comparable number (92.1 %) reported that their goals for the course had been fulfilled. Although 80% of respondents believed that service-learning contributed to their academic discipline, they were more evenly divided about the outcomes of their service-learning endeavors as measured in traditional scholarly terms. While 62.5% strongly or moderately agreed that service-learning contributes to their scholarly research, only 45.7% reported that their work in service-learning had led to any publications, exhibits, or performances, either completed or in progress.

With regard to the third dimension of faculty satisfaction-sufficient positive feedback-participants reported that feedback from students, colleagues and community agencies convinced them that their efforts were successful. Over 83% indicated that they were "significantly" or "moderately influenced" to attempt service-learning because they enjoyed "working with students in co-curricular settings." Student appreciation for the willingness to undertake such ventures was evidenced by the recognition accorded to these faculty members: 80% of the faculty who had received recognition for their efforts in service learning identified students as the source of their rewards. Over three-quarters of the respondents (76.4%) indicated that faculty colleagues supported their efforts in service-learning, although a smaller majority (58.3%) indicated that their faculty colleagues shared their interest in service learning. Because service-learning initiatives are often seen as administrative initiatives, faculty were asked to assess the level of support that they received from their department chair, dean/provost and president. Although most respondents strongly or moderately agreed that they had received support from the administration, this support declined as the rank of the administrator climbed: department chairs were seen as very supportive while the institutions' presidents were perceived as much less so.

As previously noted, most respondents (63%) indicated that they had used service-learning in their course four or more times, an implicit indicator of faculty satisfaction with service-learning. In fact, this was the case: 96.1 % of respondents reported that they were "very satisfied" or "satisfied" with the overall effectiveness of their course. Moreover, 92.2% of respondents planned to retain a service component in their course, and slightly more than half (50.2%) intended to expand service activities into other courses.

Given the high overall rate of satisfaction (96.1 %), one might assume that the responses of those who were satisfied would be identical to those of the total sample. However, the chi-square analysis revealed five items for which the response of those who were "satisfied" or "very satisfied" indicated significantly stronger agreement than the responses of the total group. First, those who were satisfied were more likely to see service-learning as a component of their scholarly research. In fact, 81.6% of those who had produced scholarly work or who were in the process of producing such work through their service-learning efforts were "very satisfied" or "satisfied" with their courses. Second, the satisfied respondents were more certain that students had gained professional skills through participation in their course. Third, the faculty who were satisfied felt more strongly that they had been able to develop a good working relationship with the community agency involved; and fourth, they perceived their educational institution as having gained community support as a result of their students' involvement in community service. Finally, those who were satisfied with their service-learning experience were more likely to report that their goals for the course had been achieved.

The Relationship between Motivation and Satisfaction. We found a significant relationship between nine of the 24 motivation items from Table 1 and the faculty member's satisfaction with the course. This relationship is depicted in Table 2. According to this Table, those who were ,'very satisfied" with their service-learning course were more strongly influenced by these nine factors than were those in the population as a whole.

Table 2

Correlations between Motivation and Satisfaction: Mean Scores

Motivation	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	All Responses
Today service is an aspect of my family life.	1.87	2.33	2.09
In my youth service was an important aspect of my life.	2.36	2.71	2.53
I was involved in service during high school.	2.62	2.92	2.78
I enjoy working with students in co-curricular settings.	1.60	1.92	1.74
Service-learning is a way of helping people in need.	1.59	1.83	1.71
Service-learning prepares students for employment.	1.44	2.00	1.67
Service-learning provides pre-or professional training.	1.47	1.88	1.65
Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education.	1.34	1.58	1.45
Service-learning improves student satisfaction with education.	1.33	1.81	1.56

Note. 1 = Strong Influence, 2 = Moderate Influence, 3 = Little Influence, 4 = No Influence.

Table 2 indicates that faculty who were "very satisfied" with their efforts in service-learning had been more strongly influenced by pedagogical motivations than they had been by personal or cocurricular motivations. For example, faculty who were "very satisfied" with their efforts in service learning indicated that they were "moderately" to "strongly influenced" by the desire to improve student satisfaction with the course (mean = 1.33), while their prior involvement in service during high school was only of "little" to "moderate influence (mean = 2.62)" in their decision to incorporate service into their teaching. In fact, 3 of the 4 strongest influences for faculty who were 11 very satisfied" with service-learning were pedagogical—"professional training," "experiential education," and "improving student satisfaction."

The data presented in Tables 1 and 2 demonstrate that it is possible to separate and compare the factors which have influenced faculty to utilize service learning. Furthermore, the data show that a statistical relationship exists between the factors which motivate faculty to adopt service learning and their subsequent satisfaction with their experience.

SOURCES OF FACULTY DISSATISFACTION

Faculty who utilize service-learning acknowledge the challenges of this unique pedagogy. While experiential education has long been accepted in vocational education, it continues to be regarded with suspicion in traditional academic settings (Smythe, 1990); therefore, faculty who endorse such methods may feel compelled to justify this teaching orientation. Although institutions may adopt the rhetoric of service learning, the smaller class size and greater commitment of resources required for such courses may present yet another hurdle. According to Agria (1990), "The gap between a traditional curriculum with a disciplinary classroom, laboratory, and library orientation, and associated

teaching methodologies, and curriculum and teaching/learning styles appropriate to service and leadership preparation is, or appears to be, so wide that resistance to change is very high" (p. 18).

Although respondents report a high degree of satisfaction and commitment to service-learning, they acknowledged that such efforts are not without difficulties. Issues of time and task drew the greatest response from faculty as factors which make service-learning more difficult than traditional teaching methods. 71 % reported concern about the difficulty of coordinating many people; 65.8% reported concerns about increased time demands; and 47% reported concerns about the coordination of many tasks. It is not surprising that 91.5% of respondents strongly or moderately agreed that service-learning requires more time and energy on the part of the faculty.

Pedagogical difficulties also troubled survey respondents. 41 % of respondents indicated that it was more difficult to adjust for differing levels of student readiness in service-learning courses, and 34% reported significant challenges in evaluating student work.

While tenure did not seem to be a major concern for participants, only 20.2% strongly or moderately agreed that involvement in service learning would be an asset in the tenure promotion process.

Survey results indicate that little actual monetary support was channeled to service-learning. Only 5.5% of respondents received additional compensation for teaching a course with a service component; 7.3% were allocated graduate assistant support; 9.7% were permitted released time to develop the course; and 11.2% were permitted released time to teach the course. Significantly more respondents (41.5%) indicated that the size of the course had been adjusted to account for the additional faculty time necessitated by the service component. Some faculty indicated that lack of financial support was a barrier to utilizing service-learning: a quarter of the respondents identified inadequate funding to cover course costs as an issue and 10.3% identified inadequate compensation as a significant difficulty.

Discussion

In the book, *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America,* Ernest Boyer (1987) asserts that, "Service must be something more than 'dogoodism.' College sponsored programs must be as carefully thought out and as rigorously evaluated as are the academic programs" (p.216). Furthermore, Boyer asserts that the need to enrich the service dimension cannot be left to the students alone:

> For the faculty, there exists the triad of responsibilities: teaching, research and service. Almost every college we visited recited these functions almost as a ritual. And yet, we found that service is often shortchanged in favor of the other two. Even when the obligation is acknowledged, service is often defined in narrow, uninspired ways... We believe the quality of campus life would be enriched if faculty service became more than a catchword (pp.217-218).

Perhaps part of the difficulty rests in positions such as that advocated by Lynton and Elman (1987), "It is of utmost importance to make a distinction between faculty members' activities as scholars and professionals, on the one hand, and what they do in their capacity as citizens of the institution and community, on the other" (p. 148). Such distinctions implicitly emphasize the link between research and service, while minimizing the link between teaching and service. Furthermore, firm lines between one's personal and one's professional interests may create an unnecessary distance between the issues which may be of true concern to a teacher and those which will count as "acceptable" service by the institution.

The faculty who participated in this study have attempted to bring the service dimension of higher education to their teaching. Their role in linking service to the curriculum is critical in order to ensure that students serve effectively, that they learn from the experiences, that civic education, civic participation, and social responsibility are placed squarely within the academic mission of higher education, and that the disincentives to such student participation are removed (Stanton, 1987). As they set the research and teaching agenda, faculty are in a strategic position to increase the quality of the service experience and provide continuity and consistency in the experience (Leiberman & Connolly, 1992). Furthermore, faculty involvement in service provides a valuable role model for students and enhances the credibility of service within the institution. A better understanding of the experiences of faculty who have adopted service-learning affords us the opportunity to consider whether this pedagogy might allow faculty

members an opportunity to integrate service and teaching, perhaps even allowing an integration of personal commitments with professional expertise.

Conclusion

This study has attempted to contribute to the modest literature on faculty involvement in service-learning by exploring the factors which influence faculty to utilize service-learning, and by articulating the elements which contribute to their satisfaction and/or frustration.

Although this survey provided insight about many other facets of the faculty approach to service-learning, the evidence offered in this paper has focused on motivation and satisfaction. From the data we can conclude that faculty who choose to become involved in service-learning tend to be driven more by curricular concerns than by personal or co-curricular issues. Furthermore, the faculty in this study derived satisfaction from their academic freedom to choose service learning, from the sense of meaning and purpose associated with their efforts, and from the positive feedback they receive from students and colleagues. Respondents reported that they were less satisfied with the interface between service learning and their scholarly pursuits, the greater time and task requirements of service ventures, having to adjust for differing levels of student readiness, and the challenges in evaluating student work.

Continuing to discover faculty motivations and sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with service-learning will strengthen our efforts to advance the service-learning agenda at colleges and universities across the nation.

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5

Outcomes Assessment

Faculty Assessment of Student Learning:

OUTCOMES ATTRIBUTED TO SERVICE-LEARNING AND EVIDENCE OF CHANGES IN FACULTY ATTITUDES ABOUT EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION

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This article endeavors to answer two questions: does combining service and learning in college level courses contribute to the learning outcomes desired for the course, and what explains why faculty have moved from skepticism to affirmation concerning the answer to the first question? In the past ten years, faculty in a wide variety of post-secondary institutions and virtually all disciplines have begun to integrate field study in the form of service-learning into their courses. The article argues that faculty assessment is one of the best proxy measures available to answer the question of whether learning outcomes derive from service-learning and that their positive assessment of that question can be explained contextually, empirically and experientially, using both quantitative and qualitative measures. This exploratory study reviews findings from a sample of 48 faculty from sixteen different disciplines from across the nation.

Introduction

Research is a serendipitous thing. You start out with one question and a method in mind, and often both the question and the method change. I began this research a number of years ago with an elaborate research design and have found myself fortunate to become a collaborator with Janet Eyler, Dwight Giles, and their associates in the FIPSE funded effort to operationalize the research agenda outlined in the Wingspread gathering in 1991 (Giles, Honnet, & Migliore, 1991). But an article by Jim Ostrow (1994) and a conversation with Chris Hammond (1994) shifted my attention to a more qualitative inquiry I had also begun, namely interviewing faculty who had become involved in course embedded service learning. This led me to a more triangulated research design and a conviction that faculty assessment of the learning they perceived in their classes could be viewed as more valid and reliable than the less than ideal samples, controls and measures that seemed available in my focus on student produced data (Whitaker, 1989).

Then, I discovered a study which revealed faculty attitudes toward experiential education in the early 1980's (Eyler, 1995). That led me back to an earlier interest in the work of Angelo and Cross (1987; 1993) on the faculty as "classroom researchers." They, along with Joseph Katz (1986) and others, posit that faculty are quite capable of assessing what is happening in their classrooms and assessing the quality of learning that has transpired. As a result, the following article focuses upon what faculty report about the learning outcomes of course embedded service learning and how faculty attitudes toward field based experiential education have done a significant "about face" in the past decade.

Literature review

STUDENT LEARNING

As Shumer (1991) notes, most research on experiential education through the mid-80's consisted of studies conducted primarily as program evaluations, driven by a need to justify program existence, noting that "few efforts have been made to determine how experience outside the classroom contributes to such intellectual growth" (p. 2). That has begun to change in the 1990's since the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE), in cooperation with the Johnson Foundation and the MacArthur Foundation, convened a group of researchers and experiential educators to "set a research agenda for combining service and learning." Dwight Giles and Janet Eyler are leading a FIPSE

funded research endeavor which addresses the gaps which Shumer and Anderson, Hughes, and Permaul (1984) documented. They are leading efforts to address the "scarcity of replicable qualitative and quantitative research on the effects of service-learning on student learning and development, the communities in which they serve, or on educational institutions" (Giles, Honnet & Migliore, 1991, p. 2). In one of the most comprehensive reviews of the literature, Giles and Eyler (1993) underscore the lack of research in the field, finding that most is anecdotal and focused upon self-report data, and rarely documents the learning outcomes. Miller (1994) notes the paucity of studies available that actually document the learning outcomes that can be attributed to service-learning or experiential education in general (Conrad & Hedin, 1992; Hamilton & Zeldin, 1987; Markus, Howard, & King, 1993; and McCluskey-Fawcett & Green, 1992). In the first edition of this Journal, Miller underscored how difficult it is to measure and identify outcomes and Hammond (1994) documented that faculty who engage in service-learning reported that they derive satisfaction from service-learning's effectiveness as away to present disciplinary content material, enhancement of critical thinking, and relevance to course material. Cohen and Kinsey (1994) reported that teaching assistants from Stanford were more likely to report service-learning courses as superior to non-service-learning alternatives with regard to the amount of learning, although the students themselves reported comparable or lesser learning outcomes. Conversely, Crim (1995) reports strong student support for service-learning "integrating learning into behavior" (91%) and disagreement that more could be learned by more time in class instead of in service in the community (90%) in a sample of 506 at the University of Utah. Clearly, the jury is still out, but there is emerging evidence that learning is taking place. Preliminary results from the Eyler, Giles, Braxton et al research are still forthcoming.

But are we naively searching for the "silver bullet" that will confirm the outcomes associated with service-learning? As Giles and colleagues identified in 1991, there are a myriad of potential effects to be derived from combining service and learning in the educational enterprise, depending upon whether one focuses upon the participants, the community, or the institution. The variables to be controlled are almost infinite, and the variations among program models and practices seem to expand with each day. Giles, Honnet, and Migliore (199 1), Hedin (1989), and Miller (1994) have all emphasized the extensive variety and complexity of activities under the service-learning umbrella. As Schon (1983) emphasized, learning in the "real world" is messy and hard to untangle.

Given this complex reality, this researcher begins with the assumption that faculty assessment of student learning is a valid and reliable measure that must be explored more fully.

Faculty Perception and Assessment

What a difference a decade makes. In the early 80's faculty interest in combining service and learning appears to have ebbed after the high water marks of the Urban Centers which sprung up all over the U.S. in the '60's and '70's, the widespread state internship programs in the southeast U.S., the extensive Urban Corps network (utilizing work-study finding), University Year of Action in the early 70's, and a large number of experimental and experiential programs around the nation, including the creation of the 4-1-4 academic year. Murphy and Jenks (1981) documented faculty interest in their now "forgotten" book, *Integrating the Community and the Classroom: A Sampler of Postsecondary Courses.* In her introduction to that volume, Jane Permaul of UCLA noted that the "use of community activities for teaching...has grown rapidly on college and university campuses in the last decade. Yet, the thought of using experiential education still raises the hackles among many academicians" (p. 3). In general, most liberal arts faculty were still not convinced that internships and service-learning were effective or appropriate ways to achieve the goals of higher education (Gore & Nelson, 1984).

In the mid-80's you could fit the Faculty Special Interest Group (SIG) of NSEE and other experiential education organizations into very small rooms. When faculty were invited to meetings to explore the possibilities of combining service and learning, few made the effort. For example, in 1989, an invitation to all Minnesota colleges and universities drew less than ten faculty (and four of us were the convenors). However, in April of 1995, with less than a month's notice, a similar invitation to Minnesota faculty drew over 75 faculty to a half day conference on "Integrating Service-Learning into the Curriculum." Other indicators, to be discussed below, suggest that something is definitely changing.

Methodology

The assumption underlying this exploratory research is quite straightforward: faculty are in a position to assess the learning that has taken place when a service-learning component is included in a course. Few, if any, would argue that it is the faculty's professional responsibility to evaluate the learning in every course that they teach and "go on

record" concerning the quality and quantity of learning that takes place. Every time faculty read students' papers, journals, exams, or listen to the quality of discussion in a seminar, they are responsible for discerning whether learning is taking place. This is not to say that what is done is always a valid or reliable measure of the learning, but faculty have as their professional responsibility to make those judgments and the entire teaching establishment rests in one way or another on the validity of those ongoing assessments.

The research done herein was done in conjunction with focus group interviews and one on one interviews during the Spring of 1994. Faculty from five different geographic regions and types of colleges were sampled purposively in an attempt to gather data from a wide variety of institutions and disciplines. The sample includes faculty from eight independent liberal arts colleges across the nation (N=27), a community college in the southwest (N=6), a business college in the east (N=9) and a state university in the midwest (N=6), with sixteen different disciplines represented.

Prior to the focus groups or interview, each faculty member was asked to complete a brief questionnaire with fixed and open ended questions. More recently, faculty from Council of Independent Colleges (N=13) have been invited to complete the questionnaire without the accompanying interviews or focus group activity, resulting in a total sample of 48, with other surveys returned as this article is being written.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Faculty, as professional assessors of learning outcomes, conclude that both liberal arts learning and disciplinary learning derives from field study and service-learning.

Table 1

Liberal Arts Learning Outcomes as Reported by Faculty

To what extent do you think that the community service experience has enabled students in your course(s) to:	5	4	3	2	1	DK
	[Reported in percentages]					
Learn about a culture/cultures different from their own	25	44	19	10	-	-
Critically reflect upon their own values and biases	20	50	26	4	-	-
Improve their written communication skills	14	30	27	27	2	-
Improve their oral communication skills	6	36	47	11	-	-
Improve their critical thinking/analytical skills	17	57	26	-	-	-
Improve their problem solving skills	14	39	41	6	-	-
Understand how communities and cities work or function	33	26	28	11	-	-
Increase their commitment to service after graduation	17	33	17	2	2	28

Note. Response options consisted of a 5-point scale: "very extensively" (5), "extensively" (4), "somewhat" (3), "Very little" (2), "none" (1) (N=48).

LIBERAL ARTS LEARNING

A perusal of Table 1 reveals overwhelming support for Hypothesis 1 as regards liberal arts outcomes. When educators speak of liberal arts learning today they generally include awareness and a capacity for dealing with a broad range of knowledge, critical thinking, cross-cultural diversity, and the tools and commitment to lifelong learning (Gamson, 1987; Knefelkamp, 1988). Sixty-nine per cent of the 48 respondents perceived that their students "learned about another culture/cultures that were different from their own" either "extensively" or "very extensively". Seventy per cent reached that same conclusion on "critically reflect upon their own values and biases" at that level, and seventy-four percent concluded that the community service learning had ,'very extensively" or "extensively" improved "their critical thinking/analytical skills." Over half gave that same level of rating to "improving problem solving skills" and "understanding how communities and cities work or function." This suggests an appreciation for the contribution that service-learning makes to the higher order learning we refer to as critical thinking, systemic thinking and problem-solving. Furthermore, faculty seemed to be discriminating between the response categories. This seems clear when one notes that writing and oral communication were more problematic, as was the judgment about future service involvement, where there was more of an inclination to report "don't know" or "somewhat" or "very little."

If this sample is at all representative of faculty involved in community service learning (and my involvement in faculty workshops, NSEE, and Campus Compact leaves me convinced that it is), then this data demonstrates that faculty are clearly willing to attribute the achievement of general liberal arts goals and outcomes to the service learning ele-

ments of their courses.

Learning of Disciplinary/Course Concepts

As the research proceeded, it became apparent that a more explicit question regarding learning associated with the specific course/disciplinary concepts was needed. That question was inserted and answered by slightly less than half of the sample. Table 2 reveals how 21 of the liberal arts faculty in the sample assess the extent to which they "think that community service experience has enabled students... to understand the key concepts and ideas of the course." Seventy-six per cent indicated that service-learning "extensively" or "very extensively" contributed to conceptual and course content learning outcomes. Only five percent thought it was "very little." This subsample from liberal arts colleges reveals that faculty are seeing solid evidence that the concepts and ideas of the course are being met with this pedagogical approach.

Table 2

Student Learning of Key Concepts and Ideas of Course, as Reported by Faculty

To what extent do you think that the community service experience has enabled students in your course to:	1	2	3	4	5	DK
Understand the key concepts and ideas of the course	33%	43%	14%	5%	-	5%

Note Response options consisted of a 5-point scale: "very extensively" (5), "extensively" (4), "somewhat" (3), "very little" (2), "none" (1).

N=21 (subsample of faculty from liberal arts colleges)

This question and the focus group interviews reveal that faculty using a service- learning component in their courses are coming to the conclusion that this rediscovered, experiential approach to teaching and pedagogy is resulting in the desired learning outcomes they have for their courses. "When I grade their exams and read their papers, I am seeing a quality and level of analysis that was not there before I introduced the field study/service-learning component..."; "I am finding more evidence that my students are able to apply the concepts of the course when they have the service-learning experience component and the opportunity to connect that experience to the readings and lectures..." [quotations from focus groups and interviews].

Subsequent research will need to specify and clarify the extent of these learning outcomes and the types of requirements that tend to lead to the desired learning. For example, what kind of class discussions, journals and papers best enable students to make the desired connections and applications? The focus group interviews make it very clear that faculty who are most pleased with the learning outcomes also tend to be those who give careful thought and planning to how the experiences can be planned, structured and integrated into the course. In other words, these outcomes do not "just happen." They come about for faculty who seem to self-consciously or intuitively apply "good practices of experiential education" and what is now known about effective teaching and learning (of. Kendall, Cross, et al).

Table 3

Overall Assessment of Quality of Learning Deriving from Course With Community Service Compared to Learning in Course Without Service Component

In general, how does the quality of learning with the community service option compare to what your students were learning previously [circle the best response]?					
5	4	3	2	1	DK
Much Better	Better	About the same	Less	Much less	
35%	48%	8%	-	-	8%

[N=48]

*4 reported that they had not taught this particular course before and could not compare.

Comparisons With Previous Teaching Methods

The results depicted in Table 3 are probably the strongest evidence for the learning outcomes. Respondents were asked to compare the "quality of learning with the community service option" to what they were doing in the course previously without a service component. In an overwhelming response, over a third (35%) said "much better" and

nearly a half (48%) indicated "better." Thus, 83% of the 48 faculty respondents went on record that the service-learning version of the course was strengthening the quality of learning relative to what they were doing in the past. So, for Hypothesis 1, there seems to be preliminary evidence that faculty who utilize course embedded service-learning are overwhelmingly positive, based upon their own respective assessment criteria for student learning outcomes. While the student self-report data and the more elaborate experimental designs being conducted at present offer some hope for assessing the impact of service-learning and experiential education in general, it is the conclusion of this action researcher that evidence of the nature conducted in this pilot research is equally if not more valid and reliable than most of the data being collected directly from students. The work being done by Miller (1994), Markus, Howard, and King (1993), and Eyler and Giles (1994) is very impressive and will add a great deal to our understanding of how the teaming takes place and the types of serviceteaming pedagogies that have the most impact.

However, this researcher is convinced that the face validity and generalizability of faculty assessment is a more valid proxy of student teaming outcomes and should be a major focus of attention as we continue to assess the outcomes of service learning, field study, and experiential education in general. At this point in time, faculty assessment of teaming appears to be more valid and reliable than self-report data. The extensive work on "teacher as a classroom researcher" (Angelo & Cross) and the work of Joe Katz (1988) suggests that faculty do have the capacity to assess whether teaming is taking place and to compare the quality of teaming to other forms of pedagogy that they have used previously.

In addition, this researcher hypothesizes that, while always problematic, faculty assessment may even be more reliable and valid than pre-test/post-test quantitative paper and pencil tests. Furthermore, my extensive one-on-one interviews with faculty from a wide range of institutions, coupled with my own use of course embedded service-learning in five different courses, leaves me convinced that faculty assessment of essays, journals, papers and other evidence used to determine grades is a valid way to measure the teaming that results from using service-learning. Perhaps the next stage would be to invite other faculty colleagues to read and assess these same papers, as well as for us to conduct more controlled "experiments" like those of Miller (1994) and Markus, Howard and King (1993) in order to control for the Hawthorne effect biases on the part of the faculty.

In a subsequent journal article, the author will elaborate on the qualitative answers to the openended questions: "What are the most important concepts and ideas and teaming which you think students derive from the service experience" and "what have you learned from adding a service component?" But it appears that these 48 faculty do not share the skepticism about experiential education that Gore and Nelson discerned in the early 80's. Though these are faculty who are involved in a new pedagogy and "movement" and therefore affected by the "Hawthorne" effect, their answers are still very convincing support for the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: There has been a fundamental shift among faculty from skepticism to positive affirmation concerning the use of experiential education and field study as a part of courses across the curriculum, particularly as regards service-teaming.

Although the general conclusions from the data reported above show that almost all of the faculty who were interviewed implicitly support the acceptance of the second hypothesis, the selectivity of the sample from among current practitioners and its lack of randomness prevent us from saying that the hypothesis is confirmed. While these data do not in themselves adequately confirm the second hypothesis, they are strong evidence that faculty in much larger numbers, ranging from full professors to beginning instructors and from all types of institutions have begun to embrace service-learning and experiential education at a level never before seen.

When one introduces other evidence in a triangulation methodology, there is ample evidence to accept the second hypothesis on a conditional basis. Among the strongest evidence is the large scale participation of faculty in faculty development workshops and institutes on service-learning/experiential education. For example, nearly 500 faculty have participated in Campus Compact National and Regional Summer Institutes, over 400 faculty attended the 1995 Council of Independent Colleges National Institute, 120 faculty applied for the Invisible College openings, and NSEE consultants have conducted over a hundred campus based faculty workshops on experiential education/ service-learning since 1990. Colorado Campus Compact produced a reader documenting "service-learning in the academic disciplines," with articles by over 25 faculty from different fields (Kraft & Swadener, 1994), adding to the syllabi collections by COOL (Lieberman & Connolly, 1992) and Campus Compact (Cha &Rothman, 1994).

Hammond(1994) was able to identify 250 faculty in Michigan who had incorporated service into their academic courses and Augsburg College, where I teach, offered 36 courses with a service-learning component in the 1994-95 academic year. Surely the skepticism and negative attitudes of faculty (Gore and Nelson, 1984) and the disinterest that let Borzak's classic *Field Study: A Source book for Experiential Education* (1981) go out of print have become a thing of the past.

Hypothesis 3: Changes in pedagogy favoring experiential education/service-learning can be explained by the contextual changes that have marked higher education and society during the past decade and the actual experiences of faculty as "classroom researchers" who explicitly or implicitly view themselves as experiential learners as they refine their teaching.

The evidence presented above suggests very dramatic changes from the assessments of Kendall (1981) and the research findings of Gore and Nelson (1984), when the norms and practices of faculty in higher education were mostly negative about the effectiveness or appropriateness of experiential education, in general, and service-learning, in particular.

As one who has been fortunate enough to be a participant-observer and benefactor of the "sea change" that has taken place during the decade from 1983 to 1993, I would suggest that there are at least ten identifiable factors or "causes" that explain the current widespread practice of experiential education/service-learning:

1. Increasing sophistication in theory and practice in the field of experiential education, led by Jane Kendall and her colleagues associated with the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE), with active support from FIPSE (Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education) from the 1970's to the present time;
2. The plethora of research and theory on effective teaching and learning at the post-secondary level during the 1980's led by Russ Edgerton, Pat Cross, Bill McKeachie, Richard Light, and others, with its fundamental emphasis on active modes of learning by engaged learners;
3. The emergence of the Faculty Development "movement" under the leadership of Joe Katz, AAHE, the Washington Center (WA), Zelda Gamson, and others;
4. A rediscovery of community service and "bully pulpit" leadership role of the college and university presidents who founded and have led the Campus Compact and other initiatives related to community and public service;
5. The growing concern about the demise of community and civic virtues, captured by Bellah and his associates in Habits of the Heart;
6. The parallel rediscovery and support of public and community service by major foundations, particularly Ford, Kellogg, DeWitt Wallace, and others;
7. The emergence of a strong student voice and leadership, as represented by the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) and others;
8. The emergence of political support from a wide range on the political spectrum, from the Points of Light Foundation (Bush) to AmeriCorps (Clinton);
9. The emergence and reaffirmation of a corps of service-learning professionals who could and have assisted faculty in identifying and coordinating sites and relationships in the community that were appropriate for classes and internships in community and public service (often made possible by external grants from FIPSE, Literacy Corps, AmeriCorps, etc.); and
10. Faculty becoming experiential learners, knowingly or unknowingly.

All ten of these broad factors or variables are highly interrelated and have influenced each other, with the resulting "social construction" of a new understanding and legitimacy for combining service and learning. In short, during the 1980's there was a fundamental change in the way faculty and administrators in higher education viewed experiential education, the teaching enterprise, and the importance of service and citizenship as embedded in most college and university mission statements. Needless to say, this did not happen accidentally.

From 1983 to 1989, the consultants trained by the National Society for Experiential Education, with support from FIPSE, worked with over 500 faculty and administrators to "strengthen experiential education" theory and practice. The publication and widespread use of *Strengthening Experiential Education Within Your Institution* (1986) and the

3 volume *Combining Service and Learning: A Resource Book for Community and Public Service* (1987; 1990) offered a sound empirical, theoretical and historical basis for experiential education and service- learning. *Strengthening...* laid out the thesis that service learning (and all experiential education) programs must be firmly rooted in the mission of the institution, involve faculty, be integrated into the curriculum, and be grounded in sound theory and pedagogical practice. Building on three decades of service-learning (of. Signion, 1979; Stanton, 1987) and in consultation with 75 national and regional groups, NSEE and the Johnson Foundation convened a working group at Wingspread which produced the "Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning" (Honnet & Poulson, 1989). These seminal developments ran parallel to and synergistically connected to the research on effective teaching and learning (of. Bok, 1986; Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Cross, 1987; Edgerton, 1988; and Katz, 1988). Many of these researchers synthesized their consensus in the now famous "Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education" which stressed active modes of learning in which students learn best when they are actively engaged, practicing what they are trying to learn and understand, and have high, but achievable, expectations, coupled with extensive interaction between students and with faculty.

These efforts and foundational research were given strong and symbolically important support by students (of. COOL), the presidents of some of the most prestigious universities in the United States who founded Campus Compact, e.g., Brown, Stanford, Notre Dame, University of Michigan, etc. (with the strong support of Frank Newman, who spoke at the 1987 NSEE Annual Conference, and the Education Commission of the States), leading political figures from President Bush and Governor Bill Clinton, and the publication of *Habits of the Heart.* These convergent forces and realities have literally redefined the social and cultural realities within which faculty teach and carry out their professional roles. Indeed, this decade is a classic example of the social construction of reality and knowledge.

The first two Campus Compact Summer Institutes on Linking Service and Academic Study were held at Stanford and Brown, two of the most prestigious institutions in the U.S. and were led by one of the NSEE consultants with a long history in experiential education and field study at Cornell and Stanford. As was reported in the last edition of this journal, Tim Stanton (1994) designed the seminar to "stimulate faculty interest in connecting student public service with academic study and...provide participants with the knowledge and resources necessary to design courses that implemented this pedagogy" (p. 7). The legitimacy which these institutions, coupled with the sophistication of the consultant, brought to service-learning and experiential education cannot be overstated.

At the same time, COOL, Campus Compact and NSEE were collecting and disseminating syllabi that demonstrated how faculty across the disciplines were integrating service into specific courses, clearly modeling how disciplinary and liberal arts objectives could be addressed and met by integrating community service field study into courses. Many of the NSEE consultants and others led faculty workshops across the nation, combining learning theory, research on teaching and learning and "syllabi sampling," making use of what NSEE (1 98 1; 1986; 1990), Campus Compact (Cha & Rothman, 1994), and COOL (Lieberman & Connolly, 1992) had been bringing together and catalyzing during this formative period.

Beginning in the late 1980's FIPSE lent its prestige and funding support to several hundred colleges and universities, with the express purpose of strengthening or developing community service programs closely integrated with the academic mission of higher education. This funding enabled the hiring of new staff or supporting existing staff who worked closely with faculty in the development of sites and community contacts that were appropriate for their courses and the academic and student development mission of their institutions. Several states, e.g., Minnesota and Pennsylvania, appropriated funding as well.

All of these developments made operational the basic principles developed and illustrated in *Strengthening Experiential Education Within Your Institution* (1986), as discussed above, and reflected in the "Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning." The two volumes, Praxis I & 11 (1993), and the many publications of Campus Compact, the National Youth Leadership Council, COOL and others powerfully illustrate the coming together of the many forces identified above, i.e., research and learning theory, faculty, foundations, and a decade of "experiential education" practice by faculty, staff and students.

Conclusion

This brings me squarely back to Hypothesis 3. The results of this initial survey and the data that continue to arrive

from other colleges and universities can be best explained by understanding and seeing faculty who are becoming "classroom" experiential researchers and learners within the context of an environment and legitimacy brought on by the forces discussed above. Faculty have become "reflective practitioners" (Schon, 1983) and "experiential learner-educators" (Kolb, 1984) who are increasingly aware of the power of active modes of learning and experiential education. Stimulated by the NSEE FIPSE consultants, Campus Compact Institutes, active pressure from students and COOL, and the research and theory associated with effective undergraduate teaching and learning, faculty began to introduce field study experiences into their own teaching, often with the assistance of service-learning staff and colleagues.

Like our students, we, too, have become actively engaged in a "learning cycle" (Kolb, 1984). We try out new experiences/pedagogies such as introducing community service field study into a course(s). We observe and reflect on the experience and then make "abstract generalizations", leading to revisions in our previous understanding of teaching and learning. By continuing to actively experiment with changes of sites, critical reflections tools, and other experiences that enhance the learning outcomes, we, as well as our students, have become practitioners and beneficiaries of experiential education. In addition, we have become more fully engaged with our students and the community in something of a Venn diagram, a collaborating community of learners (Hesser, 1990).

The data reported here, coupled with my observations as a participant observer in this renaissance of experiential education and combining community involvement and learning, lead me to conclude that course embedded service-learning has given faculty the stimulus and support to discover the power of experiential education (Keeton, 1994; Kendall, et al, 1986). Faculty, students, deans and presidents are all tributaries, along with the other forces, converging into this river of service-learning, a movement still in its adolescence, but clearly with a life of its own, resting on solid ground and the confining evidence of experience, as validated in the data reported here. The evidence is strong that this *praxis of reflective practitioners* is here to stay because it is on common ground with the sound theory and research that has and is emerging in this new social construction of reality called higher education.

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6

Outcomes Assessment

Integrating Community Service and Classroom Instruction Enhances Learning:

Results From an Experiment

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To help inform discussion of the educational value of community service, we report results of an experiment in integrating service-learning into a large undergraduate political science course. Students in service-learning sections of the course were significantly more likely than those in the traditional discussion sections to report that they had performed up to their potential in the course, had learned to apply principles from the course to new situations, and had developed a greater awareness of societal problems. Classroom learning and course grades also increased significantly as a result of students' participation in course-relevant community service. Finally, pre-and postsurvey data revealed significant effects of participation in community service upon students' personal values and orientations. The experiential learning acquired through service appears to compensate for some pedagogical weaknesses of classroom instruction.

Interest in integrating community service into high school and collegiate education has mushroomed since the publication in 1980 of the report of the National Commission on Youth, entitled *The Transition of Youth to Adulthood.* The commission, chaired by James Coleman and sponsored by the Kettering Foundation, recommended that service to one's community and nation be utilized as a means to "bridge the gap" between youth and adulthood. Two reports sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation, one written by Frank Newman in 1985 and a second authored by Ernest Boyer 2 years later made the case even more forcefully. Newman wrote:

> If there is a crisis in education in the United States today, it is less that test scores have declined than it is that we have failed to provide the education for citizenship that is still the most important responsibility of the nation's schools and colleges. (p.31)

Responding to the call, a group of college and university presidents established Campus Compact as a vehicle for encouraging volunteer service among undergraduates. Within a few years, over 250 campuses had joined the compact, and to date 11 states have established their own compacts of institutions of higher education within their boundaries. As collegiate administrators were working from their end, Wayne Meisel, a recent Harvard graduate, was engaged at the grassroots level with undergraduates in the northeast to form the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) to promote and support student involvement in community service. By 1992, COOL was working with thousands of undergraduates at more than 600 colleges and universities and 250 nonprofit voluntary organizations nationally. The boom in interest in community service was further fueled by President George Bush's signing of the National and Community Service Act of 1990, which provided funding for programs encouraging community service by students in schools and colleges. On March 1, 1993, President Bill Clinton proposed a new national program, modeled after the G.I. Bill, through which individuals could offset the costs of higher education and job training through voluntary service. Six months later, the president signed into law the National and Community Service Act of 1993, a somewhat scaled-down version of his original proposal.

Volunteer and "service-learning: centers that pair undergraduates with local agencies are currently active on hundreds of campuses. In many instances, academic credit may be earned for community service. Less frequently, service is

directly coupled with more traditional academic courses and classroom learning. One of the most ambitious of such service-learning projects is located at Rutgers University, where the Civic Education and Community Service Program was established in 1989 (Barber, 1992; Barber & Battistoni, 1993).

Secondary education has also joined the movement. The Detroit school system recently passed a high school graduation requirement of 200 hours of community service. Atlanta enacted a similar rule, as have many smaller public school systems. In 1992, Maryland became the first state to enact a community service graduation requirement for all high school students, a development that received front page coverage in the *New York Times* (DeWitt, 1992). Beginning with the 1993 school year, all Maryland students must complete 75 hours of volunteer service between the eight grade and the end of their senior year in high school in order to receive a diploma.

Charles Moskos's book *A Call to Civic Service* (1988) surveys this movement and promotes legislation calling for a national service program for all young adults. U.S. senators and members of Congress from both major parties have endorsed the idea. Whether or not anything as far-reaching as mandatory national service becomes a reality any time soon (if ever), there is no denying that voluntary service is fast becoming an integral part of the secondary and collegiate educational experience.

Outright opposition to the idea of community service as a component of education is rare. Proposals to *require* such service as a condition of high school or college graduation—even to devote significant shares of tight education budgets to promoting service among students—are *very* controversial, however (see Evers, 1990). In Maryland, the state teachers' union, many school principals and teachers, and perhaps a majority of students opposed the service requirement. Some—particularly school administrators-questioned the costs and the increased administrative burdens for staff and teachers. Others balked at the seemingly contradictory notion of mandatory voluntarism. Many argued that incorporating community service into schools ran the risk of diverting the institutions from their basic academic mission. In the *Times* article, Maryland school board vice president Jack Spraque was quoted as characterizing student service as "fluffy, feel-good stuff." He continued:

> I can't, in the reading I've done, find one iota of scientific research that says that this has made a difference in a student's education,...and I'd rather concentrate on making sure our students are getting a good grounding in the basics.

Mr. Sprague had a point. A sympathetic review of research on the educational value of community service concluded recently that while qualitative evidence of positive effects of service-learning is plentiful, "only rarely does participation result in higher scores on tests of general knowledge, with the clear exception of academic achievement scores for students in the role of teacher or tutor" (Conrad & Hedin, 1991, p. 747).

The present study is for Mr. Sprague. We report here on the results of an experiment in complementing classroom learning in a large undergraduate political science course with learning gained through students' experiences working with community service agencies.

Methods

PARTICIPANTS

Participants in the study were 89 University of Michigan undergraduates, predominantly sophomores and juniors, enrolled in "Contemporary Political Issues" at the University of Michigan in winter semester 1992. Participants included 53 males (60%) and 36 females (40%).

MEASURES

Effects of the service-learning experiment were assessed in a variety of ways. At the beginning and end of the course, students completed a brief self-administered questionnaire inquiring about their social and political beliefs and values through a set of Likert-scale items.[1] These surveys contained student identification numbers so as to permit individual-level comparisons of pre-and postcourse responses. The postcourse version of the survey also included nine Likert-type items by which students indicated the extent to which they perceived that the course had influenced their personal orientations toward service and their community. At the end of the semester, students also provided their assessments of the course via a standard evaluation questionnaire developed by the university's Center for Research on Learning and Teaching (CRLT). That questionnaire included a battery of items with 5-point Likert-type response

options as well as space for written comments. The CRLT course evaluation questionnaires were anonymous, identifying students only as being in either treatment or control groups. Finally, we have course grades and some information on class attendance.

Procedures

"Contemporary Political Issues" is offered in a lecture/section format. The course is aimed at a broad audience of undergraduates regardless of major and focuses upon their roles as citizens in a representative democracy, the conduct of political campaigns, and important policy controversies of the day, such as the federal budget deficit, welfare reform, racism, and the environment. The class meets twice weekly as a group in 50-minute lecture sessions. In addition, students meet twice weekly (50 minutes per session) in small discussion sections of fewer than 25 students each. The discussion sections are taught by political science doctoral students.

Prior to class registration for winter term 1992, two of eight discussion sections were randomly designated as "community service" sections, in which students would be assigned to engage in 20 hours of service with their choice of one of a number of designated community agencies over the 13-week semester. The service opportunities included working at a homeless shelter, a women's crisis center, or the Ecology Center, and tutoring at-risk primary or high school students. Time in section meetings was regularly devoted to discussions about what students were learning from their service experiences and how their experiences related to course readings and lectures. Near the end of the semester, students in the service sections also wrote short papers and presented brief oral reports based on their experiences.

The six "control group" sections used a traditional format, in which section meetings were devoted largely to discussions of the readings and lectures. Students in the control sections were required to write longer term papers based on library research intended to take an amount of time and effort equivalent to that expended by students in the service sections.

To minimize potential self-selection biases, students had no knowledge during course registration about the intended experiment or about which sections were to be treatment or control groups. Postregistration comparisons of sections in terms of demographic factors (sex, race, and year in school) and student responses to a questionnaire about personal attitudes and values that was distributed early in the semester revealed no significant differences between treatment and control groups.[2] Nor did the groups differ in terms of mean student self-ratings of the strength of their "desire to take this course" (t = 03,ns). Four graduate teaching assistants were assigned to the course, one of whom led the service discussion sections while the other three led the traditional discussion sections. The four graduate assistants were all doctoral students with comparable levels of teaching experience.

At the first lecture meeting of the course, students were informed in general terms that we would be experimenting with different types of teaching methods in the course and about the differing requirements associated with the two kinds of discussion sections. They were also informed that in order to prevent possible biases in the study, transfers between community service and traditional sections were not permitted. A total of 52 students had enrolled in discussion sections using the traditional format, and 37 students had enrolled in the service sections. During the first 2 weeks of the semester, the university's Office of Community Service Learning assisted in placing treatment group students with local agencies. The graduate teaching assistant for the treatment groups visited each agency over the course of the semester and contacted the agencies periodically to ensure that students were fulfilling their time commitments and that the work to which students were assigned was consistent with the goals of the course.

Results

Regardless of assignment to treatment or control sections, all students attended the same lectures, were assigned the same course readings, and took the same midterm and final examinations, graded according to a common set of standards. Hence students' evaluations of those aspects of the course should not have exhibited any significant between-group differences, and they did not on any of the 10 relevant CRLT evaluation questionnaire items.[3] That is, the course evaluations revealed absolutely no evidence that students in the treatment groups felt that they were being treated "specially" in terms of lectures, readings, or examinations. In addition, all four graduate assistants received comparably high student evaluations in terms of fairness and conscientiousness. These results reinforce our confidence that uncontrolled potential sources of bias in the study were minimal and that any systematic differences observed in criterion measure of students in treatment versus control sections are attributable to the presence or

absence of the community service requirement.

Table 1

Statistical Significance of Student Pre- to Postcourse Change in Beliefs and Values, by Type of Discussion Section

Belief or value	Traditional	Service-learning
Indicate the importance to you personally of the following:		
a. working toward equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens	ns	.04
b. developing a meaningful philosophy of life.ns	ns	
c. becoming involved in a program to improve my community.	.01	.03
d. being very well off financially.a	ns	.01
e. volunteering my time helping people in need.	ns	.04
f. giving 3% or more of my income to help those in need.	ns	ns
g. finding a career that provides the opportunity to be helpful to others or useful to society.	ns	.05
To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?		
h. Adults should give some time for the good of their community. country.	ns	.01
i. Having an impact on the world is within the reach of most individuals.	ns	.01
j. Most misfortunes that occur to people are frequently the result of circumstances beyond their control.	ns	ns
k. If I could change one thing about society, it would be to achieve greater social justice.	ns	ns
l. I make quick judgments about homeless people.a	ns	.03
m.People, regardless of whether they have been successful or not, ought to help those in need.	ns	ns
n. People ought to help those in need as a "payback" for their own opportunities, fortunes, and successes.	.02	.04
o. I feel that I can make a difference in the world.	ns	ns

Table 2

Mean Postcourse Ratings of Students in Traditional and Service-Learning Sections to Items Referring to Changes in Attitudes and Values

Attitudes or value	Traditional	Service-learning	"Effects" coefficient
Indicate the degree to which participation in this course has increased or strengthened your;			
intention to serve others in need.	1.91	2.86*	.97
intention to give to charity to help those in need.	1.59	2.64*	1.09
sense of purpose or direction in life.	2.19	2.18	.00
orientation toward others and away from yourself.	1.91	2.21*	.40
intention to work on behalf of social justice.	2.21	2.46	.26
belief that helping those in need is one's social responsibility.	2.14	2.71	.70
belief that one can make a difference in the world.	2.00	2.68*	.66
understanding of the role of external forces as shapers of the individual.	2.77	2.89	.12
tolerance and appreciation of others.	2.9	2.82*	.52

Note. Response options consisted of a 4-point scale ranging from "not at all" (1) to "a great deal" (4). The "effects" coefficient in the last column is the difference between the two means divided by the (pooled) standard deviation (see, e.g., Wolf, 1986, pp. 23-28). Cohen (1977) suggests this rule of thumb for effects coefficient values: .2 = small effect, .5 = medium effect, .8 or larger = large effect.

*$p < .05$.

On many measures of course impact, students in the community service sections differed markedly from their counterparts in the traditional sections. For students in the traditional sections, paired t tests comparing pre- and postcourse scores on a battery of beliefs and values items showed significant individual-level change on only 3 of the 15 items, as shown in Table 1. Among students in the service-learning sections, in contrast, 8 of the 15 items exhibited significant individual-level pre- to postcourse change. For example, students in the service-learning sections displayed significant increases in their ratings of the personal importance they attached to "working toward equal opportunity for all U.S. citizens," "volunteering my time helping people in need," and "finding a career that provides the opportunity to be helpful to others or useful to society."

As compared with their counterparts in the traditional sections, students in the service-learning sections also provided higher mean ratings of the degree to which they thought that participation in the course had increased or strengthened their "intention to serve others in need," "intention to give to charity," "orientation toward others and away from yourself," "belief that helping those in need is one's social responsibility," "belief that one can make a difference in the world," and "tolerance and appreciation of others" (see Table 2).

Most people would probably agree that increasing college students' tolerance of others or enhancing their desire to find socially useful careers is worthwhile. However, some (though not we) might question whether changing student orientations in these ways is central to the academic mission of an educational institution.4 Indeed, attitudinal changes such as these could be regarded as examples of just the sort of "fluffy, feel-good stuff" some skeptics have in mind when they deride service learning. Are there indicators of other, more "academic" effects of integrating community service with classroom learning?

There are. As Table 3 illustrates, data from the CRLT course evaluations showed that students in service-learning sections were more likely than students in traditional sections to agree that they performed up to their potential in the course.

Table 3

Mean Ratings of Students in Traditional and Service-Learning Sections to Items in the CRLT Course Evaluation Battery

	Traditional	Service-learning	"Effects" Item coefficient
I learned to apply principles from this course to new situations.	3.87	4.42*	.66
I developed a set of overall values in this field.	3.67	4.08*	.43
I developed a greater awareness of societal problems.	4.13	4.42*	.40
I reconsidered many of my former attitudes.	3.20	4.04*	.84
I developed a greater sense of personal responsibility.	3.57	4.00*	.56
I fell that I am performing up to my potential in this course.	330	3.75*	.48
I deepened my interest in the subject matter of this course.	4.10	4.21	.13
I learned a great deal from this course.	3.93	4.08	.16

Note: Response options consisted of a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). One- tailed prob-values for the differences between means are reported. The "effects" coefficient in the last column is the difference between the two means divided by the (pooled) standard deviation.

*p <.05.

Students in service-learning sections were also significantly more likely than those in the control group to report that they "learned to apply principles from this course to new situations" and "developed a set of overall values in this field," to mention two illustrative items. A multi-variate analysis of variance revealed a statistically significant difference between the profiles of means on the eight items in Table 3 for students in the traditional versus service-learning sections, $F(8,45) = 2.19$, $p<.05$. We also took attendance on two occasions at random toward the end of the semester, once in discussion sections and once at the lecture meeting. In discussion sections, attendance rates were 78% for traditional sections versus 85% in service-learning sections. At lecture, the comparable rates were 58% and 65% for traditional and service-learning students, respectively. (Lecture meetings were held at 9 a.m., an unthinkably early hour for some undergraduates.) Although the differences in attendance rates do not approach statistical significance they are in the expected direction.

Finally, consider what some may regard as the ultimate "bottom line"—course grades. Recall that all students took the same mid-term and final examinations and that the examinations were graded according to a common set of standards. On a grade scale of 9 = A, 8 = A-, 7 = B+, and so forth, students in the traditional sections had a mean course grade of 6.42 (between a B and a B+), while students in the service-learning sections averaged 7.47 (between a B+ and an A-), a statistically and substantively significant difference ($t = 2.66$, $p<.01$).

EXPANDING THE SERVICE-LEARNING COMPONENT COURSEWIDE

In light of the positive results achieved in the pilot experiment, the service-learning component of Contemporary Political Issues was expanded the following semester (fall 1992). As in the previous term, the service commitment was for 20 hours over the course of the semester. This time, however, all 150 enrolled students were assigned to work with an off-campus agency or organization in the public sector. Another important change in the course was that the range of service-learning options was expanded to include assignments of an overtly political nature, including work with local party organizations voter registration drives, and issue advocacy groups (e.g., abortion rights) during the fall election campaigns. Approximately half the class selected one of these new options, while the other half chose from among the service agencies that had been utilized the previous semester.

Some might question whether work on behalf of a political party, candidate, or issue is "service." Our response is that service-learning should not be viewed solely as "an exercise in altruism," to use Barber and Battistoni's phrase (1993, p. 237). Instead, the purpose of service-learning (particularly in a political science course) is to educate students about their public responsibilities and their roles as citizens—to have them come to understand that in a democracy, politics is the work of the citizen. Thus, when students are active in political party organizations and issue advocacy groups they are indeed performing worthwhile public-oriented "service," an appellation that should not be bestowed solely upon work with "needy" groups.

As in the previous semester, section meetings provided an occasion to link students' experiences outside of the classroom to the subject matter of course readings and lectures. The graduate teaching assistants and the instructor met weekly to share information about what students were accomplishing in the community and how well the service experiences were meshing with other aspects of the course. One side-benefit of integrating service-learning into the course was that the graduate assistants found the discussion sections more interesting to lead and they gained experience with new approaches to teaching.

As for the students, their assessments of the course through the postcourse evaluation questionnaire, their written and oral comments about their experiences in the community, and, especially, their performance in the classroom and on examinations all indicated that service-learning can be successfully introduced into even fairly large courses. For example, in their responses to the postcourse evaluation questionnaire, 45% of the students "strongly agreed" with the statement, "Overall, this is an excellent course," and another 45% "agreed." Fully 51% strongly agreed with the statement, "I learned a great deal from this course," and another 40% agreed.

Discussion

Our experiment in integrating service-learning and classroom instruction within a large undergraduate political science course demonstrated, as have other studies, that students' participation in community service can have a significant effect upon their personal values and orientations toward their community. If preparing students to assume responsibilities of citizenship is part of the mission of higher education, and it assuredly is, then such effects are important and ought not be disparaged. We also found that students' *academic* learning was significantly enhanced by participation in course-relevant community service: As compared with students taught by traditional methods, students in service-learning sections got higher course grades, were more emphatic in their judgements that they were performing up to their potential in the course, and were more likely to affirm that they had learned to apply principles form the course to new situations. How did that happen?

From a pedagogical standpoint, service-learning is one form of experiential learning, in contrast to the "information-assimilation model" that typifies classroom instruction (Coleman, 1977: Dewey, 1938). Both methods have their advantages and disadvantages. The information-assimilation model emphasizes a "top-down" approach to learning, in which principles and facts are presented symbolically (4.g., through books, lectures, or videotapes), and specific applications of principles are learned primarily through deductive reasoning or "thought experiments" rather than through direct experience with real world situations. The advantages of the information-assimilation method are that

it can transmit large volumes of information within a short time span and that it emphasizes logical, coherent cognitive organization of that information. The method's weakness is that students' actual acquisition and long-term retention of information are problematical.

Experiential learning is more of a "bottom-up" methods, in which general lessons and principles are drawn inductively from direct personal experiences and observations. This approach is less efficient than readings and lectures in transmitting information, and general principles can be slow to emerge. On the other hand, experiential learning counters the abstractness of much classroom instruction and motivates lasting learning by providing concrete examples of facts and theories, thereby "providing connections between academic content and the problems of real life" (Conrad & Hedlin, 1991, p. 745).

Thus, when community service is combined with classroom instruction, the pedagogical advantages of each compensates for the shortcomings of the other. Or as President Clinton put it in his speech at Rutgers University (March 1, 1993), "community service enriches education" because students "not only take the lessons they learn in class out into the community, but bring the lessons they learn in the community back into the classroom."

Students' written comments on their course evaluation forms support these conclusions:

> The community service project was the most valuable part of the course. It made the issues discussed in class so much more real to me. It made me realize that there are social problems—but that they are not unsolvable. The community service gave me first-hand knowledge of the issues discussed in class. I also think my experience will make me a better citizen.
>
> The community service project was a very good idea. I'm even working (at the shelter association) again this week. It provided me with a better understanding of the homeless problem.
>
> I really enjoyed the community service aspect of this course, even though I didn't expect to like it. I actually saw the concepts we had discussed in lecture come to life. I think it should be continued.

Conclusion

Community service has many laudable purposes and outcomes—fulfilling civic responsibilities to one's community, helping persons in need, gaining an insight into one's values and prejudices, developing career interests and job skills, and so on, all of which are important. From the standpoint of an educational institution, however, community service will be valued primarily to the degree that it can be demonstrated to be of direct *academic* benefit to students. We found that the academic payoffs of having students engage in community service are substantial when the service activity is integrated with traditional classroom instruction. The key word here is *integrated*. The kinds of service activities in which students participate should be selected so that they will illustrate, affirm, extend, and challenge material presented in readings and lectures. Time in class meetings should be set aside regularly for students to reflect upon and discuss what they are learning in the community. These recommendations are consistent with conclusions of others who have studied service-learning (e.g., Barber, 1992; Hedin, 1989; Stanton 1990).

Because ours was a course in politics, we particularly encouraged students to reflect upon the political implications of what they observed and experienced in their service activities rather than get caught up entirely in the person-to-person aspects of their work. This is an important point. Well-intentioned community service programs often invoke hortatory references to enhancing students' understanding of their "civic obligations" and the "responsibilities of citizenship," but it is not uncommon for such programs to be apolitical or even antipolitical in practice. For example, Serow (1991) found in his study of four public universities that the norms surrounding community service encourage students "to become directly engaged with the problems of vulnerable individuals rather than viewing them in terms of broader, abstract social or political phenomena" (p.553). He concluded:

> Applied specifically to community service, the message from the campuses is that students can combat their own alienation by bypassing official channels and finding one person or program that needs their help. Thus in the words of a national volunteer organizer, students "would rather teach English in a Spanish speaking neighborhood than work for a political action group. They would rather visit a senior citizen than get involved in city politics." (pp. 555-556)

Harry Boyte of the university of Minnesota's Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs concurs. Boyte (1991a, p. 766) has found that students in community service programs "usually disavow concern with larger policy questions, seeing service as an alternative to politics." In a related article he argued:

> Most service programs include little learning or discussion about the policy dimensions of the "issues" (such as poverty, homelessness, drug use, illiteracy) That students wrestle with through person-to-person effort. Volunteers—usually middle-class and generally white—rarely have occasion to reflect on the complex dynamics of power, race and class that are created when young people go out to "serve" in low income areas. (Boyte, 1991b, p. 627).

It is doubtful that such programs do much to advance students' understanding of, experience in, and commitment to participation in the political work of citizens. There is, however, no good reason why community service programs must inevitably be apolitical or antipolitical in practice. If students are working at a homeless shelter, for example, they should be encouraged to consider the broader social and political dimensions of the issue of homelessness: Why do substantial numbers of American go without adequate food and shelter within the world's richest nation? Is this matter a proper responsibility of government, or is it better left to charities, religious institutions, and private individuals? Why? How are such questions decided in the United States? What power do citizens have in helping shape such decisions? Such questions can be discussed both in the classroom and in the community setting.

We hope that others will replicate this study, and in many different disciplines. We are aware of instances in which course-relevant community service has been incorporated into college courses in engineering, natural resources, English, history, and psychology, to name just a few disciplines. Integrating service-learning into a traditional classroom-oriented curriculum requires a nontrivial investment of time and resources, especially the first time around. The investment is one worth making, however, because as this study has shown, classroom instruction and community service combine synergistically to enhance learning.

Notes

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[1] The items in this "Social Responsibility Inventory" were developed by Jeffrey Howard and Wilbert McKeachie.

[2] See Table 1 for the text of the beliefs and values items.

[3] The course evaluation items that, as expected, exhibited no significant differences ($p > .20$) in mean postcourse ratings of students in treatment versus control groups are listed below. Response options consisted of a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5).
Overall, the instructor is an excellent teacher.
The instructor delivered clear, organized explanations.
The instructor made class interesting.
The instructor showed a genuine concern for students.
This course required more work than others of equal credit.
The grading system was clearly defined.
Grading was a fair assessment of my performance in this class.
Reading assignments are interesting and stimulating.
Examinations cover the important aspects of the course.

[4] See Hedin (1989) for a cogent response to those who question whether such attitudinal and value changes are relevant to the academic mission.

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Outcomes Assessment

EFFECTS OF AN UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM TO INTEGRATE ACADEMIC LEARNING AND SERVICE:

Cognitive, prosocial cognitive, and identity outcomes

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Abstract

The present study investigated the effects of key characteristics of service-learning experiences (e.g. autonomy, instructional support for the experience etc.) on the cognitive, moral, and ego identity development of undergraduates. Participants in service-learning courses and control students wrote pre and post responses to social problems. Service-learning students also completed weekly journals and an evaluation of their experiences. Results revealed significant gains for the service-learning participants on certain cognitive dimensions, e.g. awareness of multidimensionality. Aspects of the experience predicted cognitive gains as well as gains in prosocial reasoning. Paired t-tests revealed significant increases in prosocial decision-making, prosocial reasoning and identity processing.

This paper describes the effects on undergraduates of a program to integrate academic learning and service. In 1991, Alma College initiated a program of curricular reform to stimulate the development of public responsibility, social conscience, and civic participation. Courses developed have represented a variety of disciplines including Education, Environmental Science, English, Exercise and Health Science, Gerontology, Political Science, Psychology, and Religion. Service work with community placements or individuals typically accounted for one-third to one-half of the credits in the service-learning courses; each of these courses also included opportunities for individual reflection and group discussions concerning the service experiences. Service components included such activities as assisting in Head Start classes, literacy tutoring, leading poetry workshops for seniors and prisoners, designing and implementing alcohol abuse prevention programs, and investigating environmental issues.

Research on service-learning indicates that it has generally positive but modest effects on students' psychological, social, and cognitive development. Participants in service-learning programs demonstrate gains in self-esteem (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Luchs, 1981). They show greater increases in social responsibility and moral reasoning than their counterparts in traditional school programs (Cognetta & Sprinthall, 1978; Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Newmann & Rutter, 1983; Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988). Involvement in service-learning leads to more positive attitudes toward adults and groups with whom participants interact (Luchs, 1981; Conrad & Hedin, 1982). While the results of studies of service-learning impacts on cognitive development are mixed, some studies report a relationship between community service participation and increases in subject matter knowledge and self-reported learning, as well as multiple perspective-taking and social problem solving (Hamilton & Zeldin, 1987; Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Hursh & Borzak, 1979).

Despite these sorts of findings, the recent report on the "Research Agenda" for service-learning (Giles et al., 1991) contrasts the substantial "anecdotal evidence" of service-learning benefits with the relative scarcity of empirical research documenting such benefits. In a review of the outcome literature, Conrad and Hedin (1991) similarly report a "gap" between the significant gains suggested by qualitative and observational studies, and the outcomes reported in the quantitative research.

As the Research Agenda report indicates, methodological problems are probably a major cause of the gap between the oft-noted promise and the empirically demonstrated results of service-learning. The report's authors point to the difficulties in such studies of identifying and defining relevant variables, controlling confounds, and finding suitable instruments. The overarching purpose of the various parts of the present study is to explore ways of addressing some of these methodological problems. The study is guided especially by Conrad and Hedin's (1989) suggestion that service-learning researchers attempt to integrate qualitative and quantitative procedures. Such an integration, in the

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form of new instruments applied to qualitative data might allow measurement of some of the more complex variables described in the qualitative and observational literature.

One reason for the relatively small effects reported in many of the previous studies may be that various factors mediate the influence of service-learning experiences. In their review of 27 experiential learning programs, Conrad and Hedin (1982) found that a number of program characteristics affected student outcomes; e.g., the presence of a seminar allowing reflection on the service experience, a collaborative relationship between students and on-site supervisors, and students' autonomy at the service site. The present study, therefore, includes as independent variables not just service learning per se, but also some of these potentially mediating variables.

Controlling potential confounds is, indeed, a thorny issue, as Giles et al. (1991) suggest. Random assignment of subjects to different courses or experiences was not possible in the present study. Instead, following the example of Hamilton and Zeldin (1987), subjects' pre-service-learning standing on each dependent measure was controlled statistically by the use of hierarchical multiple regression procedures. To attempt to control for the influence of student maturation and instructors' influence, students in service-learning courses were compared with students in similar courses taught by the same instructors.

Thus, guided by the previous literature, attempts were made in the present study to use relevant variables, to control some of the potential confounds, and to develop useful new instruments. Three types of outcomes were selected as dependent variables: cognitive approaches to social problems; prosocial moral development; and, identity development.

Some of the previous research on cognitive outcomes has had methodological problems (e.g., the lack of a control group in Keen, 1990). In addition, the instruments used in the research to date do not seem to capture all of the dimensions of complex thinking that experts (e.g., Morse, 1990; Newmann, 1990; Stanton, 1990b) suggest are influenced by service-learning. Hamilton and Zeldin (1987), for example, used an objective test of knowledge of specific facts about local government as an outcome measure. Such measures are, of course, important, but for the present study an attempt was made to construct a measure that could reflect some of the hypothesized changes in the quality of thought about social issues.

In their review of the research, Conrad and Hedin (1991) point out that participation in community service programs is typically linked to gains on Kohlbergian measures of moral reasoning (e.g. Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Cognetta & Sprinthall, 1978). However a number of researchers (e.g. Gilligan, 1977; Eisenberg-Berg, 1979) have criticized Kohlberg's stage typology and methodology. In particular, Eisenberg (Eisenberg-Berg, 1979; Eisenberg et al., 1983) has noted that, in focusing on "prohibition-oriented" reasoning (i.e., reasoning in response to conflicts in which law or societal authority predominate), Kohlberg's approach neglects the development of more "positive" aspects of morality, e.g. cognitions related to issues of altruism or responsibility. Furthermore, Eisenberg's (1976) research indicates that these two dimensions of moral reasoning are relatively independent. Since it seems probable that involvement in community service would have an impact on prosocial reasoning or reasoning concerning another's needs, one purpose of the present study was to examine the influence of service-learning and of particular characteristics of service-learning experiences on students' positive moral cognitions. Two specific areas of prosocial cognition were evaluated in students' written journals: decision-making in response to another's need and level of reasoning utilized in prosocial decision-making.

Eisenberg (1986) has developed a model which delineates the role of altruistic emotion, cognition, and other factors and their interactions in prosocial decision-making. The model addresses one particular type of prosocial decision: the decision to aid another in need. In Eisenberg's model, deciding to assist another begins with conscious attention to another's need. In most situations of need, motivational processes follow the attention phase and are then weighted in light of the individual's hierarchy of personal goals for that situation. The outcome of this analysis then determines whether the individual will make the decision to assist or not. The link between an intention to assist and prosocial behavior is mediated by additional factors, such as the perceived utility of helping for the individual. For this study, Eisenberg's model was utilized to assess the degree to which students included elements of prosocial decision-making in their service-learning journals.

Eisenberg and her colleagues (Eisenberg-Berg, 1979; Eisenberg-Berg & Roth, 1980; Eisenberg et al., 1983; Eisenberg

et al., 1987) have also constructed a five-level theory of the development of reasoning about positive moral conflicts (hedonistic orientation, needs-oriented, approval-interpersonal/stereotyped, self-reflective empathic, and internalized). A series of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies conducted by Eisenberg and her colleagues provides support for this developmental sequence. These studies demonstrate that hedonistic reasoning is the predominant form of reasoning among preschool children. In elementary school, the use of hedonistic reasoning declines and children demonstrate increases in both needs-oriented and approval-interpersonal/stereotyped reasoning. In high school needs-oriented and approval-interpersonal/stereotyped reasoning decline and adolescents' reasoning begins to reflect the influence of self-reflective empathy processes and internalized values. One purpose of the present study was to examine the influence of the service-learning program and features of the service-learning experience on the level of prosocial reasoning reflected in students' journals.

A final goal of the study was to investigate the influence of service-learning on occupational identity development. Researchers have documented effects for community service participation on adolescents' career exploration (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Luchs, 1981). However little attention has been directed at understanding the impact of service-learning on adolescents' construction of an adult occupational identity. Nevertheless, Hamilton and Fenzel (1988) argue that one rationale for involving youth in service is to assist them in mastering the tasks of adolescence, including the formation of an identity.

Grotevant (1987) has developed a model of the identity formation process which delineates the identity exploration process in detail. In this model, identity exploration is viewed as a type of problem solving in which the individual attempts to resolve adult role questions in a variety of domains, e.g. occupation, religious ideology. Two key components of identity exploration are the exploration process itself, in which the individual engages in a variety of activities to gather information about potential identity options, such as seeking information about that option, and weighing the risks and benefits of a potential identity choice. Once identity exploration is complete, the individual engages in investment, a process which is marked by indicators of commitment such as the allocation of time, money, or emotional energy to a particular role option. A final goal of this study was to utilize Grotevant's model to examine the effects of service-learning on the process of occupational identity formation. In particular, the investigation examined the extent of occupational exploration and investment processing reflected in students' journals.

This study tests the hypothesis that students' perceptions of characteristics of service-learning courses are significant predictors of changes in cognition, prosocial cognitive development, and identity development. The availability of a comparison group for the cognitive measures allowed the testing of the additional hypothesis that participation in service-learning courses would, by itself, influence cognitive change. Changes in prosocial reasoning and identity processing were examined by pre-post t-tests. Finally, it was hypothesized that cognitive changes would appear not only in response to situations relevant to the courses (as found by Conrad and Hedin, 1982) but also in response to situations not directly addressed by the respective courses.

Methods

SUBJECTS

226 students were recruited from undergraduate classes at a small, midwestern, liberal-arts college. 96 of these students participated in the comparison of the effects of service-learning and non-service-learning courses on the cognitive variables. 48 from this sub-sample were in service-learning courses, and 48 were from courses which were similar in content and taught by the same instructors, but which did not include service-learning components.

INSTRUMENTS

For the Responses to Situations (RS), subjects were asked to write for thirty minutes about how they would respond to two problem situations described on the form. These situations cast the students in the role of a public authority asked to deal with a woman's concern about her elderly father's drinking, to deal with child abuse in the community, or to initiate a community recycling program. Students were told to select the one situation related to their courses and one other situation (in order to assess generalization beyond the specific subject matter of the course). RS responses were scored on 8 dimensions (see Table 1) constructed to reflect the "higher-order", complex thinking frequently hypothesized (e.g., by Stanton, 1990) to increase during service-learning.

Journal entries were scored for prosocial decision-making, level of prosocial reasoning, and occupational identity processing. The assessment of prosocial decision-making involved an analysis of journal entries to determine whether

Table 1
Dimensions of Thinking About Social Problems

Dimension	Description
Complexity	Number of distinct subjects, actions, targets of action, and reasons for actions.
Multidimensionality	Number of dimensions of the situation (e.g. economic, ethical, legal, political, etc.)
Obstacles	Number of potential obstacles (e.g. inabilities, resistances) foreseen.
Coping	Number of ways proposed to deal with potential obstacles
Differentiation	Number of subgroups or other instances of differentiation of elements of the stimulus situation (e.g. writing about physical and emotional abuse rather than abuse generally).
Uses of differentiation	Number of explicit reasons for noting differentiated elements (e.g. proposing different actions to deal with different subgroups).
Uncertainty/Resolve	Statement of resolve to act despite explicitly acknowledged uncertainty of the success of the action (scored "Yes" or "No").
Information-gathering	Number of plans to gather more information (e.g. about the nature or causes of the problem, possible strategies, etc.).

they included a discussion of a person or group's needs at the placement site. Journal entries involving discussions of need were classified according to the Prosocial Decision-Making scoring scheme shown in Table 2. The number of statements in each category was summed to yield a Prosocial Decision-Making score.

Table 2.
Categories of Prosocial Decision-Making

Type of statement	Description
Interpretation of Need	Reference to circumstantial or behavior~ characteristics which suggest a need, but no direct statement of need, e.g. "Terry's mother seems too busy for her."
Statement of Need	Explicit description of a need, e.g. "She craves adult attention."
Identification of Helpful Action	Reference to an action that would provide assistance (not necessarily performed by the writer), e.g. "Her parents need to spend more time with Terry."
Ability to Assist	Acknowledgement of own competence to perform a helpful action, e.g. "I can help Terry with her schoolwork."
Motivational Responses	
a. Affective motivations	Expression of sympathy or personal distress in response to another's need.
b. Cognitive motivations.	Cognitive analysis of situation of need, e.g. an analysis of the costs vs. benefits of helping or attributional analysis concerning the causes of another's need.
c. Value statements	Expression of values related to the situation, e.g. "These prisoners are human beings also."
Intentions	
a. To assist	
b. To learn more to assist in future	
Report of a Prosocial Action (beyond those required by the course).	

Statements of values from students' journal entries were further analyzed to identify the level of prosocial reasoning utilized in responding to a need. The levels of prosocial reasoning were adapted from Eisenberg, et al., 1983 and are described in Table 3.

Following classification, the percentage of value statements at each level of reasoning (Hedonistic; Needs-oriented; Approval and Interpersonal and/or Stereotyped; Self-reflective Empathic; or Internalized) was determined for each journal entry. In addition a Composite Score was assigned using a method designed by Eisenberg et al. (1983), in which the percentages of reasoning at each level are weighted and weighted percentages are summed. The system for assigning weights was as follows: Hedonistic reasoning = 1; Needs-oriented reasoning; Approval and Interpersonal and/or Stereotyped Reasoning = 3; Self-reflective Empathic and Internalized Reasoning = 4.

Table 3
Levels of Prosocial Reasoning

Level	Type of reasoning	Description
1	Hedonistic, self-focused	Reasoning reflects evaluation of potential self-gain.
2	Needs-oriented	Reasoning reflects simple identification of physical or psychological needs with no evidence of role-taking or sympathy.
3	Approval and Interpersonal and/or Stereotyped	Issues discussed reflect concern about another's approval or disapproval and/or stereotyped images of good vs. bad behavior.
4a	Self-reflective Empathic	Reasoning reflects sympathy; role-taking; reference to shared humanness; or positive or negative affect related to helping or not helping.
4b-5	Internalized	Reasoning reflects internalized values, or norms; concern for the betterment of society; emphasis on contractual obligations; the need for equal treatment and respect for human worth; or positive or negative affect related to the expression of writer's values.

Table 4.
Occupational Identity Processing

Type of Identity Processing
1. Occupational Identity Exploration
a. discussion of alternative career choices
b. discussion of the perceived benefits and risks of alternative careers
c. report of attempt to gather information about a career
d. report of attempts to deal with new learning about a career, even negative learning
e. reexamination of the positive and negative aspects of a career
f. plan of how to implement a career choice
2. Occupational Identity Investment
a. report of time, money, or emotion invested in career
b. attempt to relate career-related learning to other areas
c. report of plans to invest time, money, or emotion in a career
d. statement of values specifically pertaining to career choice

Occupational identity processing was evaluated by analyzing journal entries for statements in which students discussed occupational concerns. These statements were analyzed (see Table 4) to determine whether they were reflective of occupational identity exploration or investment processes, according to Grotevant's (1987) description of the identity exploration process. The number of Occupational Identity Exploration and Investment statements was summed to yield an Occupational Identity Processing score.

The Evaluation of Service-Learning (ESL) was constructed to assess aspects of service-learning that are hypothesized (e.g. by Hedin & Conrad, 1990) to mediate the effects of service-learning. The ESL includes seven Likert-format items assessing students' perceptions of aspects of the service-learning experience (See Table 5).

PROCEDURE

Subjects in both the service-learning and comparison classes completed the RS in class during the first week and again during the last week of the term. Subjects in the service-learning courses kept weekly journals concerning their service experiences and completed the ESL. All identifying information (course name, and pre vs. post status) was removed from the RS responses and journal entries prior to scoring. Student assistants scored the RS responses and the journals. Interrater reliability coefficients ranged from .77 to .93. (The majority of coefficients were above .88).

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Table 5
Aspects of Service-Learning in the ESL

Aspect	ESL Question
Autonomy	I could make my own choices about important aspects of the service-learning experience.
Role Clarity	My role in the service-learning experience seemed clear to me.
In-Class Reflection	The course (in-class discussion, readings, journals, etc.) helped me to think about, and to learn more from my experiences during the service-learning.
Instructor Support	The course instructor helped me to adjust to and deal with the service-learning experience.
Relationship to Site Supervisor	Off-campus supervisors or other staff in the agency in which I worked helped me adjust to and deal with the service-learning experience.
Perceived Contribution to Recipient	During the service-learning experience, I felt I "made a difference" and was of real help to others.
Potential Contribution to Recipient	Regardless of how well my particular experience actually went, the service-learning component was an opportunity in which a student could "make a difference" and be of real help to others.
Instructional Quality	Combination of Autonomy, In-class, Reflection, and Instructor Support.

Results

Hierarchical multiple regression procedures were used to test the contributions of the evaluation dimensions to the cognitive, prosocial cognitive, and identity outcomes, and the contribution of service-learning involvement to the cognitive outcomes. Subjects' scores on the dependent measures during the first week of their courses were forced into the equations as the first independent variables in order to control statistically for the possible confound of pre-course differences.

The evaluation scores were subjected to principal component factoring followed by varimax and oblique rotations. Both rotations showed Autonomy, In-class Reflection, and Instructor Support loading highly (> 0.70) on Factor 1 with no loadings greater than 0.25 on a secondary factor. Scores for these questions were therefore combined. The In-class Reflection and Instructor Support variables seem clearly to relate to academic aspects of the service-learning experiences. The Autonomy question could also be viewed as related, because the ability to select aspects of the service-learning experience, in this study, was under the control of the instructor. For these reasons, Factor 1 was labeled Instructional Quality. All significant results reported have $p<.05$ or slightly better.

Cognitive variables: Service-learning vs. non-service-learning courses. Participation in service-learning courses had a significant effect on Multidimensionality, Differentiation, and Uncertainty/Resolve in the responses to the situations which were relevant to the courses. After controlling for the effects of the pretest scores, the partial correlations for service-learning involvement were 0.232 ($F = 6.832$) for Multidimensionality, 0.24 ($F = 7.353$) for Differentiation, and 0.183 ($F = 4.153$) for Uncertainty/Resolve (df = 1,121 for each).

On both the situation relevant to the course and the irrelevant situation, service-learning had a significant impact on Differentiation (partial correlation = 0.212, $F = 8.23$) and Uncertainty/Resolve (0.157, $F = 4.40$) (df = 1,176 for each).

Cognitive variables: Effects of evaluation dimensions. Hierarchical regression analyses of responses to the situation relevant to the course showed significant relationships between Instructional Quality and Uncertainty/Resolve (0.305, $F = 7.18$); Site-supervisor Relationship and Differentiation (.25, $F = 4.65$); Perceived Contribution of the Service-Learning Activity to the Recipient and Differentiation (-0.264, $F = 5.18$); and Perceived Contribution and Uses of Differentiation (-0.317, $F = 7.817$) (df = 1,71 for all partials).

For the responses to both situations, the following were significantly related: Site-supervisor Relationship and log of Complexity (transformed to produce a more linear relationship) (0.173, $F = 5.07$); Instructional Quality and

Obstacles (.193, F = 6.36); Instructional Quality and Coping (.163, F = 4.47); and Site-supervisor Relationship and Uncertainty/Resolve (0.182, F = 5.65) (df = 1,165 for all).

Instructional Quality, the combination of the first, third, and fourth ESL questions, was significantly related to a number of outcomes. To better understand these relationships, the individual questions were also entered separately into regression equations for both relevant and non-relevant situations. Instructor Support significantly related to Obstacles (.213, F = 7.816), but there were no other significant partial correlations of these questions with the outcome measures. In the initial correlation matrix, the third and fourth ESL questions had the strongest relationship. Scores on these two questions were, therefore, combined. In-class Reflection and Instructor Support related significantly to Obstacles (.202, F = 6.97), and to Coping (.155, F = 4.04.).

Prosocial Cognitive Variables: Effects of Evaluation Dimensions. In the regression analysis of prosocial decision-making, students' initial journal entry scores were entered as the first step. No additional factors (aspects of the service-learning experience) entered into the equation.

In the regression analyses of the two measures of prosocial reasoning (Composite score and the combined percentage of Self-Reflective Empathic/Internalized reasoning), the partial correlations for Factor 1 were .243 (F = 4.812) and .222 (F = 3.995) (df = 1,78) respectively after the initial journal entry scores were removed.

Occupational Identity Processing: Effects of Evaluation Dimensions. In the regression analysis of the Occupational Identity Processing score, after removing the first journal entry score, no additional variables entered into the analysis.

T-test Results

A series of paired t-tests compared students' mean Prosocial Decision-Making, Prosocial Reasoning (as indicated by Composite scores and percentage of Self-Reflective Empathic and Internalized Reasoning) ,and Occupational Identity Processing scores on later journal entries with their first journal entry scores. These tests revealed a significant increase in Prosocial Decision-Making in students journals (t= 4.406, df=110). Additionally, there were significant increases in students Composite Prosocial Reasoning scores and the percentage of Self-Reflective Empathic and Internalized Reasoning (t= 6.949 and 6.596, respectively, df=110). Finally students' Occupational Identity Processing scores significantly increased in later journal entries (t=2.061, df=101).

Discussion

The present study examined the effects on undergraduates of a program to enhance civic involvement, social responsibility, and social conscience. A primary purpose of the study was to address some of the methodological limitations of previous investigations of service-learning. In order to address the discrepancy between the results of anecdotal and objective data, the study applied quantitative scoring to narrative data from students, i.e. essays and journals. The use of several regression equations, the modest size of the partial correlations, and the absence of control groups for the journal analyses mean that the findings must be regarded as suggestive. Nevertheless the new instruments developed for the study seem to have produced several potentially interesting findings.

Participation in service-learning courses influenced a number of aspects of students' thinking about social problems. Two features of the study suggest that it was the service-learning, per se, that caused these influences: students were compared to peers in similar courses which lacked a service-learning component, thus suggesting that the cause was not simply maturation or a semester of instruction. Also, pre-existing differences among students probably do not account for the outcomes since the regression procedures allowed statistical control of these differences.

These results suggest that some of the complex cognitive variables described in the theoretical and anecdotal literature are affected in measurable ways by service-learning. Service-learning students demonstrated greater resolve to act in the face of acknowledged uncertainty and greater awareness of the multiple dimensions and variability involved in dealing with social problems. In contrast to Conrad and Hedin's (1982) findings, there was some evidence of generalization of cognitive change to situations not directly related to the content of the courses.

The relationships between the cognitive outcomes and the ESL dimensions are consistent with previous suggestions (Conrad & Hedin, 1982) that both on-site and academic factors are important mediators of service-learning out-

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comes. High-quality on-site supervision seems to increase general complexity of thought and awareness of variability, while the quality of on-campus instruction influences the awareness of obstacles and of ways to address these obstacles.

The negative relationship between the students' feelings that they were "of real help to others" and their differentiation of the situation and uses of differentiation was surprising. Campus supervisors of practica suggest, however, that students frequently become attached to the models provided in their first helping experiences. Those students who felt that they had been the most helpful might, then be less likely to think of or address variability in the situation.

The results indicated that Instructional Quality (Factor 1) was related to the level of prosocial reasoning in students' journals. This finding is consistent with studies (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Hamilton & Zeldin, 1987) which have found that classroom aspects of experiential learning programs influence their impact on student gains. The effects of instructional quality also reinforce the consistent recommendation in the service-learning literature that service-learning courses provide participants with a guiding interpretive framework for their experiences based, in part, on reflection-generated insights.

An analysis of Instructional Quality into its components indicated that autonomy was the strongest predictor of prosocial reasoning. This finding supports cognitive developmental theories of morality (e.g. Piaget 1932/1965; Kohlberg, 1976) which suggest that independence from the constraints of authority figures stimulates the development of more mature forms of moral reasoning.

The findings that neither the relationship with the on-site supervisor nor the perceived value of the service to the recipient predicted prosocial reasoning scores was unexpected. These results conflict with Conrad & Hedin's (1982) discovery that a collegial student-site supervisor relationship predicted gains on the Defining Issues Test of moral reasoning. However the relatively short duration and group character of several of the service-learning experiences may have made it difficult for the on-site supervisor to exert a strong influence.

The finding that characteristics of the service-learning experience did not significantly predict Occupational Identity Processing suggests that the features of the service-learning experience isolated in this study may not have been ones which prompted students to examine vocational issues pertaining to self-identity. Perhaps other aspects of the service-learning experience, such as an explicit effort by the instructor to relate the experience to career options, would have stimulated this examination.

Despite the absence of strong relationships between many features of the service-learning experiences and the journal variables, students' tendency to engage in prosocial decision-making , use of advanced types of prosocial reasoning, and tendency to explore occupational identity issues increased significantly during the courses. These results extend the findings of prior investigations (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Cognetta & Sprinthall, 1978) which have shown an impact for service-learning on the use of principle-based considerations on "prohibition-oriented" measures of moral reasoning. In addition, the t-test findings are congruent with prior studies showing an effect for service-learning on self and vocational development (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Luchs, 1981).

Conclusion

Participation in a college service-learning program facilitated student development in several areas. Service-learning participants made greater gains than students in traditional classes on several dimensions of thinking about social problems, such as multidimensionality. Service-learning appears to have influenced participants' use of prosocial decision-making and advanced forms of prosocial reasoning as well as their tendency to reflect on occupational identity issues. Finally, the quality of on-site and of classroom support and instruction was significantly related to gains in several aspects of higher order thinking and prosocial reasoning.

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8

Outcomes Assessment

The Impact of a College Community Service Laboratory on Students' Personal, Social, and Cognitive Outcomes

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This exploratory study attempts to answer the question: can a required service-learning experience of limited intensity and duration have an impact on the development of college students as participating citizens of their community? Students who provided community service as part of a one credit "community service laboratory" showed a significant increase in their belief that people can make a difference, that they should be involved in community service and particularly in leadership and political influence, and in their commitment to perform volunteer service the following semester. They also became less likely to blame social service clients for their misfortunes and more likely to stress a need for equal opportunity. They indicated that their experience had led them to more positive perceptions of the people they worked with.

Introduction

With renewed attention on national service, colleges and universities are increasingly providing required or optional programs of community service for their students; many of these programs take the form of orientation experiences for freshmen or similar programs which involve large numbers of students in programs of limited duration and intensity'. While commitment to service-learning is growing, there is limited evidence of its impact on participants. This exploratory study attempts to answer the question: can a required service-learning experience of limited intensity and duration have an impact on the development of college students as participating citizens of their community? Using the research themes developed by the recent Wingspread Conference report, (Giles et al., 1991), the study examined personal values, social learning, and cognitive change as possible outcomes of a semester-long Community Service Laboratory offered as part of a university curriculum.

One of the most frequently expressed goals of service-learning programs is the increase of social responsibility in adolescents. Sustained citizenship participation is thought to rest on the values, attitudes and beliefs about service that make up 'social responsibility'. Given the emphasis on this as a program goal of secondary and post-secondary service -learning programs, understanding of social responsibility, is emerging as an area of policy discussion and a critical research topic. (Giles et al., 1991; O'Brien, 1993; Sagawa and Halperin, 1993; Markus et al., 1993). This first phase of an ongoing study examined components of social responsibility before and after student participation in the course. This included looking at students' sense of their own competence to contribute, their beliefs in the importance of participation and service, their perceptions of the individual and social dimensions of human need, and their actual commitment to participation.

Community service and social responsibility

Because this is an emerging area of research, a review of the literature yielded little direct evidence of an impact of service on social responsibility outcomes at the post-secondary level (Eyler and Giles, 1993). While the research literature is thin, there is a presumption in the program literature and in anecdotal evidence that participation in community service programs leads to increased commitment to service, (Kendall et al., 1990; Sagawa and Halperin, 1993). During the preliminary analysis done for this study, we listened to student reports in class sessions at the end of a semester of service-learning. Repeatedly, students said that the experience of community service in this course had led them to commit themselves to return to do more service.

Common to varying conceptions of social responsibility in the service learning literature is the central element of an orientation toward others as the basis of citizenship. This orientation contains personal values that go beyond self-fulfillment to values about civic involvement and social obligation, (Conrad and Hedin, 1982; Hamilton and Fenzel, 1988; Astin, 1991; Giles et al. 1991). Overall, the literature suggests that personal and social development are the

best documented outcomes of secondary school sponsored community service programs, (Conrad and Hedin, 1989; Williams 1991) More evidence is needed to establish these outcomes for college students.

One aspect of social responsibility which is particularly relevant to college students is the evidence which shows that volunteer service drops during the college years (Astin, 1991). It would be helpful to know if structured service - learning courses, such as the one studied here, can reduce this drop in community service participation that occurs in late adolescent college populations. While tracking actual, long-term, volunteer behavior is beyond the scope of the initial phase of this study, the fundamental values, attitudes and perceptions that underlie this behavior are not.

While these personal and social developments of service-learning are generally acknowledged, it has largely remained marginal to the college curriculum because of a lack of confidence in its impact on student learning. (Gore and Nelson, 1984). Because the primary commitment of college staff is to cognitive growth, if these programs are to become established, it is important to assess learning as well as attitudinal outcomes. Most studies which have attempted to assess the impact of service on learning have relied on student self report; students generally "like" service assignments and claim to "learn more than I did in the classroom" (Crowner, 1992). There have been, however, few attempts to define and directly measure learning that occurs in service settings. A recent study at the University of Michigan suggests that service connected to specific courses can enhance the learning of the course content, (Markus et al., 1993). What we don't seem to know is what students learn about themselves, social problems, and the role of volunteer participation in a democratic society. Part of the failure to document this impact results from the difficulty in identifying appropriate learning outcomes. Community service provides diverse experiences for students; simple measures of fact acquisition are clearly inappropriate and more complex measures are still being developed.

Recent work by cognitive psychologists, who have emphasized the importance of contextualized knowledge and of learning within multiple applied settings in order to create useful rather than inert knowledge, suggests a fruitful direction for our work in service-learning (Bransford, 1991). A study of college political interns found that these interns had a more nuanced understanding of the legislative process than those who studied it solely in the classroom; the two groups did not differ in simple factual knowledge about the political process (Eyler and Halternan, 1981). Student volunteers within community settings would be expected to have a more complex understanding of social problems and how communities are organized to meet needs and be less judgmental about their clients need for service. Greater understanding should lead to more effective participation and service. This change in how participants thought about social service clients was found in a major study of high school service learning programs and we would expect a similar cognitive change in post secondary participants (Conrad and Hedin, 1982).

Personal, social and cognitive outcomes

There is a strong consensus that social responsibility means sustained involvement In community life; this view is reflected in the National and Community Service Act of 1990, in President Clinton's statements on service and society, and in the literature on the purposes of service, (NSIEE, 1989; Giles et al., 1991; Farland and Henry, 1993; Sagawa and Halperin, 1993). Because social responsibility is ultimately measured by the behaviors of citizenship over a lifetime, studies such as this, and others in the literature, are forced to use short-term, proximate predictors of long-term behavior. The questions we asked in this phase of a longitudinal study are related to the attitudinal, conceptual and short-term behavior components of long term social responsibility.

A sense of personal efficacy has long been an important predictor of citizenship involvement. At a personal level, this includes the faith that one can make a difference, a sense of being rewarded for involvement, and some connection to personal beliefs about change. Without a sense that they can be effective, it is unlikely that adolescents will develop a sense of social responsibility and participate in the community (Jennings and Niemi, 1981).

In addition to the sense that one can make a difference, there is the attitude that one should make a difference. Indicators of this category include a sense of value in helping others and a commitment to do so. This development of an orientation toward others as well as self is what Pascarella et al. have called "humanitarian and civic values" (1988).

Social responsibility is also rooted in a cognitive dimension; a complex and less individualistic view of people's problems and needs is consistent with a commitment to community service. This dimension includes a reduction in

stereotypes, development of empathetic understanding, and a stronger sense of the social, structural elements of opportunity and achievement. Based on high school studies, we expected students who participated in service-learning to have greater empathy for the people they work with and be less judgmental about their need for service (Conrad and Hedin, 1982).

In addition to these outcomes, we looked for a specific commitment to continue service once the program was over. This commitment would provide evidence for the role of service programs, even those of limited duration and intensity, to help reverse the decline in volunteer service that has been observed during the college years.

Design of the study

Population

Study participants were 72 undergraduate students who took this one credit "Community Service Laboratory" as one of the requirements of their interdisciplinary major in Human and Organizational Development during the spring semester of 1993 at Vanderbilt University. The course is described as "Seminars and field experiences designed to help students explore their values about community service and their responsibilities to other people. Students are involved in values clarification activities and volunteer work in the community." It is designed as an early immersion in service that will reinforce previous service commitments, and that informs subsequent classroom work on organizations, interpersonal relations and social issues. During this semester 54% of the students were freshmen, 18% sophomores, 12% Juniors, and 16% seniors. Female students were 66% of the class. Racial makeup was 15% African American, 83% Caucasian, and 2% Asian American.

Students spent the first 5 weeks of the semester in small seminar groups talking with representatives of social service agencies. These speakers described their work and the opportunities they had for student volunteers. During the remaining 8 weeks they volunteered 3h per week at their selected site. Academic requirements for the course included written critiques of the guest speaker sessions and final oral and written reports on their experience. The rest of their time was spent in a full academic course load.

Data Collection

We used a questionnaire to gather data during the first class session, again at 5 weeks after students had surveyed the field and selected their sites, and after the completion of the community service at 13 weeks. We have a set of three complete questionnaires for 56 of the students. In this exploratory phase of the study we did not use a control group. Most of the data reported here are the pre-post data.

Measuring Outcomes

Personal values and social responsibility were assessed with scales used in the Michigan study of "Social responsibility outcomes for students in service learning" (Markus et al., 1993). Some of these items were derived from the national college outcomes studies, (Pascarella et al., 1988; Astin, 1992). Student conceptions of the problems faced by various client groups were obtained by asking open-ended questions about these groups. We also asked open-ended questions about learning expectations and later, perceptions of outcomes for self and client. Students also wrote assessments of how and why they had changed and which elements of the total service- I earning had the most impact. Finally we asked if they planned to return to their service site as a volunteer the next semester; how many hours they intended to volunteer, and if they had any other specific plans to continue to do community, service. For data analysis, we did content coding on the open ended items; the scales were scored on a 5-point interval scale.

Results of the study

Can a required service- learning experience of limited intensity and duration have an impact on the development of college students as community participants? Does this participation build confidence in personal effectiveness, increase commitment to service and participation, and are students actually more likely to do community service once the structured program is over? In this exploratory study we found reason for optimism about the impact of such programs. Also, we found some suggestion of why these programs might be effective in increasing citizenship commitment and participation.

Developing a sense of social responsibility

An important predictor of citizenship involvement has always been a sense that this involvement could make a real difference; without a sense of efficacy why participate? The students in the Vanderbilt community service laboratory

Table 1.
Comparison of pre-post measures of efficacy and social responsibility

Measures	Mean		SD		t Value	Significance
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test		
Community involvement importance ††	3.11	3.32	0.62	0.58	2.70	0.005
Important to volunteer my time	3.38	3.31	0.56	0.60	-0.90	0.200
Become community leader ††	2.43	2.70	0.93	0.81	2.20	0.016
Should give time ††	4.45	4.64	0.57	0.52	2.70	0.005
Help those in need	4.29	4.30	0.56	0.74	0.20	0.435
Work for equal opportunity †	3.07	3.25	0.76	0.77	1.94	0.029
Social justice most important	3.57	3.70	0.74	0.78	1.19	0.120
Important/influence social values	2.93	3.11	0.76	0.71	1.53	0.067
Important/influence politics ††	2.16	2.45	0.87	0.81	2.53	0.007
Possible to impact the world ††	3.84	4.09	0.89	0.81	2.24	0.015
I can make a difference	4.13	14.97	0.91	0.67	1.27	0.100
Misfortunes due to circumstances †	3.07	3.34	0.93	1.01	2.08	0.020
Misfortunes due to laziness *	2.46	2.34	1.01	1.01	0.87	0.200

* = reverse score value; † = $p<0.05$, ††$p<0.01$ = means on 5 pt Likert Scales.

began their volunteer experience with a strong sense of personal effectiveness, e.g. even before their experience the mean score for "I can make a difference in my community" was 4-13 on a 5 point Likert-type scale. While the increase by the end of the semester to 4-27 was not significant, their response to the companion efficacy item describing the impact that "most people" can have an Impact rose significantly.

While confidence that "people can make a difference" is an important prerequisite for action, even more Important is the belief that people should try to have an impact on their society. Although participating only a few hours a week for about half a college semester, the students who participated in the community service laboratory were more likely to endorse the importance of involvement in the community after their service than before. More importantly, this commitment went beyond simply becomIng involved and contributing time; participants also were significantly more likely to aspire to leadership roles and to endorse the importance of having an impact on the political system subsequent to their participation. The disaffection of American college students with the political process is well documented. There has been a tendency for students to divorce "politics" from "good citizenship" (Creighton and Harwood, 1993). In the pre-test, the item testing the "Importance of influencing politics" received the lowest score; with a mean of 2-16, participants actually rejected the relevance of the political process to their lives as citizens. Although the post-test score of 2-45 is still low, it shows a decided and significant shift after a brief exposure to the difficulties faced by the service clients. This increased sense that involvement in the political process is important occurred without any overt instruction about government agencies and policy; it does suggest that service-learning may contribute to citizenship development by helping students find relevance in the political process for addressing important social issues.

Changing views of social service clients

Perhaps part of the reason for an increased commitment to volunteer action, leadership and political influence, comes from the changing perceptions that students had of the causes of personal hardship and the nature of the people they tried to help. Students were significantly more likely to attribute misfortune to circumstances beyond the control of the service clients, and were also significantly more likely to endorse the need to give priority to equal opportunity after they had served in the field. If the need for service is believed to result from the lack of effort by the servIce client, then students may feel that society has no responsibility to provide services and structural solutions. These students had a more empathetic response to the misfortunes of others after their experience and felt more responsible for social change.

These beliefs about the reasons for misfortune and the need for equal opportunity were consistent with the responses they made in open ended questions about their expectations of clients and how those expectations had changed over time. One continuing theme was that "they (the people being served) are just like anyone else". The majority of the student participants indicated that their preconceptions had been changed by experience and these subsequent per-

ceptions appeared to be much more positive. These patterns are described in Table 2. For example, one student had expected the disadvantaged children that she worked with in a day care facility to be "very bad children who didn't want to accomplish anything except to be thugs". She found them to be "intelligent and kind and I made some great friends when I got to know them personally and stopped stereotyping". Another student had assumed that disadvantaged children had parents who were negligent and uncaring. She found that "they were lower class families and many broken homes, however many of the parents I saw do care about their children and are interested in their kids engaging in worthwhile and productive activities".

Table 2.
College students' perceptions of how their views of service clients changed during course of volunteer service.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Negative to no change	0	0.0
Negative to positive	43	75.4
Positive to no change	12	21.1
Positive to negative	2	3.5
Total	57	100.0

Table 3.
College students' perceptions of why their views of service clients changed during course of volunteer service.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Involvement exposure	43	75.4
Critical incident	1	1.8
Increased knowledge/understanding	5	8.8
No change	8	14.0
Total	57	100.0

Ethnic stereotypes were also changed. A student who worked at a Jewish facility remarked that "I expected Jewish people to be a bit disagreeable. I agreed to volunteer there because I wanted to learn about their culture. I see them much differently now. Having some first hand experience with Jewish people helped change my stereotypes".

Why did their views of the service clients change? Nearly all of the students attributed this change to their personal involvement with the people they were assisting. Typical were responses from a student who worked with a homeless project, "I had never been completely immersed in a situation like (the project). There was no way to ignore the problem". And a student who worked with children in a housing project, "I see them very differently now, because I got to know them and care about them as people". Another noted "I got to know people and learned the truth instead of basing my judgments on stereotypes". When perceptions of social problems change as a result of experience, we might also expect action as well as attitudes to change. And this also appears to be the case.

Reversing the decline in volunteer activity

Attending college removes students from the web of activities and organizations that have tied them to their communities. Perhaps this uprooting contributes to the dramatic decline in volunteer service that has been noted between high school and college (Astin, 1991). This same pattern was noticed in the students who participated in the community service lab. Although these students have chosen an interdisciplinary major which values community participation and 81% were active in such projects during high school, only 39% of our sample had been involved in such activity during the semester preceding the lab. One consequence of the lab participation appears to be an increased commitment to providing service in the following semester. The students who were counted as 94planning to participate after the project" were those who either indicated that they would continue working in the volunteer setting to which they were assigned during the community service lab or identified some other specific project. While some students were vague in their commitments, 71% indicated an interest in returning to the same placement and 78% gave an estimated figure for the number of hours they would spend either there or in another setting.

Table 4.

Participation: comparison of volunteer participation in high school, in the college semester before the service program, and intended participation the semester after the program.

	High School	College semester before program	Intended Participation After program
Volunteer participation	51	22	55
Non-participation	5	34	1

X2 = 63.85; df = 2; p < 0.000; n= 56.

While we will need to follow up participants to see if intentions become real participation, this apparent reversal of the decline in intent to participate is encouraging. Much high school participation occurs as part of school, religious or social groups; students rarely seek out service opportunities independently. One particular function of a required "freshman volunteer experience" or other limited program like the community service lab may be to provide an organizational context for reattaching students to service opportunities. Another function may be to help students include "volunteer service" as part of their frame of reference as they think about how they will spend their college years.

What students valued about the community service lab

When students were asked to describe what they had learned, what were their personal accomplishments, and what surprised them about the experience, there were some things that stood out. Consistent with the scale findings on social responsibility, 29 of the 57 students indicated that the most important thing they learned was a commitment to social service. Consistent with our findings on changed perceptions of service clients, 15 of the other respondents described a reduction in stereotyping. When asked about their greatest personal accomplishment, 23 felt it to be providing service while another 19 described an increase in their skills at providing service or their knowledge about social issues. While these two items were split between serving and knowing, i.e. a social development or a cognitive outcome, the final item "what surprised you" combined the two. Thirty of the 57 discussed their increased understanding of the people they worked with, while 13 described their increased understanding of volunteer service.

While a community service laboratory or other limited opportunity cannot be expected to have a major impact on the values or cognitive development of students, it is clear that even limited experience may help reshape the way students think about obligations and opportunities for service and about people who need social services. The experience may also provide opportunities for forging new ties with the community and help reverse the decline in volunteer activity from high school to college.

Discussion

As we noted above, these results suggest some optimistic conclusions about the intended, positive impact of a limited service-learning intervention. Our confidence in the results is bolstered by the consistence, and direction of the results and by the congruence with the high school studies and with the anecdotal evidence in the field.

At the same time, the limits of this study need to be considered. We did not use a control group and thus are not able to rule out other causes such as maturation effects, or other events in the students' lives that might have been responsible for the changes we observed. On the continuum of weak-strong interventions in service-learning, this one would probably be in the first quartile, i.e. stronger than a one-day freshman orientation in community service, but not as powerful as a full semester internship. A further limit is, that except for students' self report of what they thought was responsible for changes in their thinking about issues and clients, we were not able to disentangle the effects of service from the effects of classroom work related to the community service laboratory. In addition, our open ended items on how students viewed their clients were developed for this study and need further refinement and validation. While students were able to describe changes in their perceptions of clients in some detail at the end of their experience, this shift in perspective was not apparent in the pre- and post-test descriptions. This suggests a need for more sensitive measures and more sophisticated content coding.

All of these limitations point to the major methodological issues in doing service-learning research, (Giles et al., 1991; Eyler and Giles, 1993). The major gap in our knowledge is in the cognitive elements of social responsibility and the cognitive impact of service-learning. Future research needs to go further in specifying these elements and in developing better ways to measure them.

In subsequent phases of this study, we will employ control groups and a longitudinal design. Both of these are critical if we are to establish outcomes which can be confidently attributed to such programs and to determine if the effects are lasting. The ultimate goals of sustained community participation by program participants makes assessment of the relationship between current and future service and between intentions to serve and actual service crucial. Future studies also need to consider the elements of service and structured reflection separate]y and in varying combinations to test the assertions central to the service ice- learning field, namely that service and learning are enhanced when combined.

Finally, we did not assess the effects of service o n those being helped; while it is often assumed that students are doing "good" when they do volunteer community service, we have found no evidence in the literature that this is the case. This community impact research will be even more critical as national policy evolves which relies more on community service as a way to meet societal needs, finance higher education, and foster citizen development.

Note

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The Impact of Service-Learning on College Students

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While service-learning programs have become popular on college campuses across the country there has been relatively little empirical data about their effects on students. The Comparing Models of Service-Learning research project has gathered data from over 1500 students at 20 colleges and universities to attempt to answer some of the pressing questions about the value added to students by combining community service and academic study. The study has found that students who choose service learning differ from those who do not in the target attitudes, skills, values and understanding about social issues. And participation in service -learning has an impact on these outcomes over the course of a semester

Introduction

"Service, combined with learn adds value to each and transforms both- (Honnet and Poulsen, 1989). This quote captures the core of widely held practitioner belief about what is unique in service-learning, i.e. programs which combine community service with study of particular subject matter. Learning improves the quality of service today and more importantly helps sustain it throughout a citizen's life by developing attitudes toward community and a commitment to making a difference. Service transforms learning, changing inert knowledge to knowledge and skills that students can use in their communities. And this practitioner wisdom about effective learning is consistent with a long tradition of experiential teaming theory from Dewey to modem cognitive scientists. Addressing authentic problems in the field and bringing critical analysis to bear encourages students to generate and answer real questions and helps them develop a nuanced understanding of issues in situational context. (Giles & Eyler, 1994)

This belief has led to a virtual explosion of postsecondary service-learning programs (O'Brien, 1993). While the political support on campuses for such programs has grown, there is very little empirical research to go along with the social and theoretical justifications for service-learning, and what research there is has been mixed (Giles & Eyler, in press).

On many campuses there is debate about whether community service should be co-curricular or part of the curriculum. Some are requiring or considering requiring community service or are incorporating service activities into their student orientation. There is a growing demand for research information about the impact of service on students to assist decision-making. This national comparative study is among the first to focus on filling the most critical craps in the research literature, identified by practitioners and researchers in the 1991 Wingspread Conference—*Setting the Agenda for Effective Research in Combining Service and Learning in the 1990s* (Giles, Honnet, & Migliore, 1991).

Here we will address two critical issues for practitioners attempting to decide if service-learning should be included in the college curriculum. First, we examine whether students who choose service learning differ from those who do not in their attitudes, skills, perceptions and values. And second, we determine what impact service-learning has on those outcomes over the course of a semester.

The project

The Comparing Models of Service-learning project is a national study of the impact of serviceteaming programs on students' citizenship values, skills, attitudes and understanding. The data discussed here were gathered from over 1500 students at 20 colleges and universities during, the spring of 1995; students completed surveys at the beginning and end of their service learning experience. Colleges were selected which had a variety of service-learning activities and to represent different types and geographical locations. Included were six private universities, five small liberal arts colleges and eight public universities. Five were located in the east; six in the midwest; three in the south; and five in the west. All students in classes that agreed to participate in the study were surveyed. There were 1140 pre- and post-surveys from students who participated in service and 404 from classmates who did not select service classes or options within classes.

Classes included service internships, professional classes such as those in education and social work which included service-learning, and special service-learning, seminars, as well as traditional arts and sciences classes with a service-learning component. In the arts and sciences class sub-sample there were 616 students who participated in community service as part of their traditional academic course and 366 students who did not select that course section or option.

The arts and sciences sub-sample was analyzed because the role of service in the traditional liberal arts curriculum is the topic that has engaged academic policy-makers. There has not been a great deal of debate about including, service and other community based options in professional programs like education and social work. Even if service learning is not required within the liberal arts curriculum core, providing the option may encourage students to participate who would not otherwise seek out service-learning. It is a particularly easy way for students to become engaged in academically based service-learning. We were interested to see if service-learning students in those traditional courses were more similar to their counterparts than students in service and non-service options across the entire sample of diverse classes and experiences. If including service-learning in the core arts and sciences curriculum attracts students less inclined to seek out service or service-learning opportunities then the pre-test 'selectivity' differences should be less pronounced for these students than between service-learning and non-service learning students in the larger sample.

Outcome measures

For this analysis, we have focused on students' assessments of their citizenship skills, their confidence that they can and should make a difference in their communities, their community-related values and their perceptions of social problems and social justice. These are among the most frequently expressed goals of service-learning programs, (Giles, Honnet & Migliore, 1991).

Students' assessment of their political action skills, communication skills, and tolerance are based on items developed in an early version of a citizenship skill measure developed as part of the "Measuring Citizenship Project" of the Walt Whitman Center for the Culture and Politics of Democracy at Rutgers University (Whitman Center, 1993). Political action skills are measured with items that, for example, ask students to compare their ability to "lead a group" or "know whom to contact to get things done;" communication skills draw on items that refer to "listening" or "communicating with others;" tolerance items include "respecting views of others" and "empathetic to all points of view." These three scales had Cronbach Alphas ranging from .71 to .80. The ability to identify social issues and critical thinking skill are measured by single items, as are the values outcomes. Students' ratings of how they value such future roles as "careers helping people," "community leadership," and "influencing public policy" are drawn from measures developed by Markus, Howard and King (1993). The focus of these value items is on the students' own definition of how they will live their lives.

The citizenship confidence items include a sense of personal efficacy in affecting community issues, a belief that the community itself can be effective in solving its problems. and feeling connected to the community. These scales developed by Scheurich (1994) yielded alphas with this sample ranging from .46 for community connectedness to .64 for personal efficacy. In Scheurich's original development of the scale within one student population, the scales had somewhat higher consistency: the extreme diversity of this sample may have affected reliability.

Perceptions of social justice measures are designed to measure the complexity of students' conceptualizations of social issues, how these problems should be addressed and their empathy and openness to multiple points of view. This is a measure of what students think and how they think about social justice issues. Locus of community problems measures whether students take a systemic view of social problems, or tend to narrowly assign blame to the individuals facing the problem. The alpha for this scale was .72. Students' belief that social justice is a critical issue for the community and that changing policy is the most important approach were measured by single items; these both tap perception of the nature of the problem and commitment. Perspective-taking measures students' ability to put the self in the place of others; this scale had an alpha of .59 for this sample. The final scale in this set of measures focused on the tendency of students to quickly reach closure on an issue or to remain open to other views and information; this scale had an alpha of .50.

Questions addressed in this analysis

In order to address the concerns about selectivity and service-learning impact we are addressing the following questions:

Will students who choose service-learning differ significantly in pre-test measures of citizenship skills, service oriented values, citizenship confidence and perceptions of social justice from those who do not participate [Table 1]?
Will this difference also be found within arts and sciences courses where students have the option of choosing service or another assignment [Table 2]?
Will service-learning be a significant predictor of these outcome measures over the course of the service-learning semester [Tables 3, 5, 7, 9]?
Will service- learning also be a predictor of these outcomes within arts and sciences courses [Tables 4, 6, 8, 10]?
Will a close relationship with faculty members outside of the service-learning experience also be a predictor of outcome measures over the course of the semester [Tables 3- 10]?

We included the measure of closeness to faculty because research demonstrates that such interactions significantly affect various student attitudes and values. From their extensive review of research, Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) conclude that interactions between faculty and students positively influence sociopolitical attitudes and values, academic and social self-concept, intellectual orientation, and general maturity. Such effects parallel outcomes expected from engagement in service learning and offer a competing hypothesis. We have also shown mean differences in response to this item: In classes or activities other than community service, "I have developed a close relationship with at least one faculty member" in Tables I and 2, which compares pre-tests of those who participate in service-learning during the semester with those who don't.

Table 1

Comparing Pre-test Measures of Student Attitudes, Values, Skills and Understandings Between Service-Learning Students and Those Who Did Not Select Service Options in the Total Sample.

	Pre-test mean Service-Learning	Pre-test Mean Other Students
Citizenship Confidence Scales:		
Personal Efficacy	4.0	3.7***
Community Can Solve Problems	3.5	3.3***
Feel connected to Community	4.1	3.9***
Believe Service Should be Required of Students	3.5	3.3**
Important that Individuals Volunteer	4.3	4.0***
Citizenship Values: Personal Values:		
Career Helping Others	4.1	3.6***
Volunteering Time	4.1	3.6***
Be A Community Leader	3.3	3.1***
Influencing Policy	3.2	3.0*
Being Very Wealthy	3.4	3.8***
Citizenship Skills Scales:		
Political Action Skills	3.5	3.4*
Communication Skills	3.7	3.6*
Critical Thinking Skill	3.7	3.7
Issue Identification Skill	3.8	3.6**
Tolerance	3.8	3.7*
Perceptions of Social Justice:		
Belief in Systemic Causes of Social Problems (Locus)	3.7	3.5***
Importance of Changing Public Policy to Solve Problems	3.1	2.9**
Importance of Social Justice as Goal of Change	3.7	3.5***
Ability to Take Perspective of Others	3.7	3.6
Openness to New Information and Views	3.0	2.9
Close Relationship to at Least One Faculty Member	3.5	3.1***

Note: All scales are based on Likert type items with a 5 point response range. Scales combine between 2 and 6 items; some variables are based on a single item e.g. value items. This analysis was based on pre-test responses of 1544 college students: 1140 participated in service-learning: 404 did not. Significance levels were *** p<.01, *p<.05.

Table 2

Comparing Pre-test Measures of Student Attitudes, Values, Skills and Understandings Between Service-Learning Students and Those who Did not Select Service Options in Arts and Sciences Classes

	Pre-test mean Service-Learning	Pre-test Mean Other Students
Citizenship Confidence Scales:		
Personal Efficacy	4.0	3.7***
Community Can Solve Problems	3.4	3.3**
Feel connected to Community	4.1	3.9***
Believe Service Should be Required of Students	3.5	3.4**
Important that Individuals Volunteer	4.3	4.1***
Citizenship Values: Personal Values:		
Career Helping Others	4.1	3.6***
Volunteering Time	4.0	3.6***
Be A Community Leader	3.2	3.1*
Influencing Policy	3.1	3.1
Being Very Wealthy	3.5	3.8***
Citizenship Skills Scales:		
Political Action Skills	3.4	3.4
Communication Skills	3.6	3.6
Critical Thinking Skill	3.7	3.7
Issue Identification Skill	3.7	3.6*
Tolerance	3.8	3.7
Perceptions of Social Justice:		
Belief in Systemic Causes of Social Problems (Locus)	3.7	3.5**
Importance of Changing Public Policy to Solve Problems	3.0	3.0**
Importance of Social Justice as Goal of Change	3.7	3.5**
Ability to Take Perspective of Others	3.7	3.7
Openness to New Information and Views	3.0	2.9
Close Relationship to at Least One Faculty Member	3.5	3.1***

Note: All scales are based on Likert type items with a 5 point response range. Scales combine between 2 and 6 items; some variables are based on a single item e.g. value items. This analysis was based on pre-test responses of 982 students in arts and sciences classes: 616 were participants in service-learning experiences: 366 were not. Significance levels were *** p<.001, **p<.01,*p<.05.

Methods of analysis

T tests for independent samples were used when comparing service and non-service students on the pre-test measures. The statistical procedure used for the analysis of service-learning impact over the course of the semester was hierarchical linear multiple regression. Because subjects were not randomly assigned service-learning and nonservice options but selected by extant groups as part of a quasi experimental design. group equivalence was achieved by statistically controlling for rival hypotheses to service- learning impact. Focus is on the effects of service and interaction with faculty above and beyond the influence of such factors as: gender, race, parent's income, age, and the student's own previous college volunteer experience, as well as the pretest measure of the focal outcome factor. By controlling for background factors as well as the pre-test measure the unique effects of service-learning and closeness to faculty on the outcome variables can be isolated.

Results of the study

SELECTIVITY: HOW SERVICE AND NON-SERVICE STUDENTS DIFFER

As summarized in Table 1, students in our total sample who chose to participate in service-learning, experiences and those who did not differ significantly on virtually every outcome measure at the beginning of the service semester. Students who chose these activities were already higher on each of these measures with the exception of valuing attaining great wealth; in many cases these differences prior to choosing service-learning are greater than any changes that subsequently take place during a relatively brief exposure to service-learning. If we hope that service-learning will contribute to students' skills and understandings, their values, their development of greater community involvement and a stronger sense of social responsibility, then we need to acknowledge that providing purely voluntary

opportunities through co-curricular options or curricular options through a handful of professional or specialized service-learning courses will not reach the students who have the most to (Yain. Students who choose service-learning are different from students who do not make this choice.

It is interesting to note in Table 2 that while this pattern holds for students in the core arts and sciences curriculum, there are fewer variables on which they differ significantly than in the larger sample. While many of these classes also made service optional, it requires much less initiative for students to select a service option from a menu of options in a class than to seek out a volunteer service experience or specialized course on their own. Students seeking to avoid a research paper assignment or influenced by their friends who have chosen service may become involved in service-learning, including service as a class requirement or even as an option within a required course may involve students who would not otherwise be engaged in community service.

THE IMPACT OF SERVICE ON STUDENT OUTCOMES

As summarized in Tables 3-10. participation in service-learning has a small but significant impact on many Outcome measures over the course of a semester. As expected. positive interaction with faculty outside of the service related experiences also contributed independently to many outcome measures, but these interactions did not wash out the effect of service on students. Even with pretest measures controlled, both faculty relationships and service-learning were often independent positive predictors of post-test scores. While most background characteristics were not significantly related to outcomes, previous college service often made a difference; it would appear that students who have participated continue to gain from that participation. Gender was also often an independent predictor of outcomes; women were more likely to show higher outcomes than men.

Table 3

Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Citizenship Confidence In the Whole Sample

	Personal Efficacy	Community Efficacy	Community Connectedness	Require Service	Should Volunteer
Minority	B .072	-.052	-.217	-.074	-.029
	β (.019)	(-.010)	(-.033)	(-.024)	(-.014)
Parental Income	B -.052	-.041	-.033	.001	-.031*
	β(-.045)	(-.027)	(-.016)	(.001)	(-.048)
Gender	B -.202**	-.170*	-.630***	-.110*	-.114**
	β(-.075)	(-.047)	(-.133)	(-.049)	(-.075)
Age	B .007	.021	.105	.029	.009
	β (.005)	(.011)	(.042)	(.024)	(.011)
Other College Service	B .079***	.085**	.165***	-.004	.049***
	β (.085)	(.069)	(.101)	(-.005)	(.094)
Pre-Test	B .058***	.448***	.389***	.582***	.479***
	β (.086)	(.437)	(.360)	(.619)	(.436)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B .058***	.068**	.008	.034**	.020*
	β (.086)	(.075)	(.007)	(.061)	(.052)
Service-Learning	B .417***	.461***	.525***	.080	.250***
	β (.136)	(.113)	(.098)	(.032)	(.145)

Note: Students in Service-learning n = 986 non-service students n = 388 *p<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

The Impact of Service-Learning on Citizenship Confidence. Table 3 and 4 show the relationship of participation in service-learning and closeness to faculty with students' increased belief that they can be personally effective in their community, that they are connected to it, that the community can be effective in solving its problems, the belief that service should be a school requirement and that citizens should volunteer to serve. In both the total sample and the arts and sciences sample, service-learning was a significant predictor on each of these attitudes controlling for pretest and background factors. Service-learning contributes to citizenship confidence. As one might expect, closeness to faculty members was an independent predictor of all but connectedness to the community. Actually doing service in the community was necessary to show an impact on this outcome.

Table 4

Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Citizenship Confidence in Arts & Sciences Sample

		Personal Efficacy	Community Efficacy	Community Connectedness	Require Service	Should Volunteer
Minority	B	.018	-.022	-.231	-.006	-.016
	β	(.004)	(-.004)	(-.032)	(-.002)	(-.007)
Parental Income	B	-.067	-.001	-.035	.031	-.024
	β	(-.053)	(-.000)	(-.018)	(.032)	(-.037)
Gender	B	-.235**	-.192	-.501***	-.118*	-.085
	β	(-.088)	(-.056)	(-.109)	(-.054)	(-.057)
Age	B	.009	.022	.096	.020	.008
	β	(.006)	(.012)	(.038)	(.017)	(.010)
Other College Service	B	.073*	.094*	.091	-.023	.057**
	β	(.073)	(.072)	(.052)	(-.028)	(.100)
Pre-Test	B	.365***	.426***	.386***	.555***	.449***
	β	(.362)	(.412)	(.348)	(.599)	(.403)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B	.080***	.076**	.034	.028	.025*
	β	(.111)	(.081)	(.027)	(.048)	(.061)
Service-Learning	B	.443***	.397***	.667***	.141*	.282***
	β	(.157)	(.108)	(.137)	(.061)	(.176)

Note: Students in Service-learning n=531 non-service students n=353 *p<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

The Impact of Service-Learning on Student Values. Tables 5 and 6 show the effect of service learning and closeness to faculty on students' values. In both the total sample and arts and sciences sample, service-learning was a predictor of valuing a career helping people, volunteering, time in the community and influencing the political system. While it seems clear that service might lead to increased valuing of future service, it is interesting that students who provide service in the community are also more aware of the need to become involved in the policy process; this is consistent with our other findings that students are more likely to perceive a systemic rather than individual locus for social problems and to be concerned with social justice issues when they work in the community.

Faculty-student interaction was more predictive of valuing, being a community leader and not predictive of a growth in valuing a career helping others.

The Impact of Service-Learning on Skill Outcomes. Tables 7 and 8 summarize the impact of service and of interaction with faculty outside of the service-learning experience on students' assessment of their skills of: political participation, communication, tolerance, issue identification and critical thinking. For the total sample. service learning was a predictor of the students' post-test assessment of their political participation skills and their tolerance for others. There was no significant impact of service on their assessment of their critical thinking, their issues identification or communication skills.

Students whose service was part of an arts and science class showed a similar pattern, except that serviceteaming also predicted issue identification skill over the course of the semester. Since many service-learning classes are in the social sciences, an increase in competence at identifying issues would seem consistent with such participation.

Since critical thinking is one of the goals of service-learning the lack of any impact is disappointing. It should be noted that service-learning and non service-learning students also did not differ on pre-test measures of this skill assessment. It is possible that students were not clear on the meaning of "thinking critically" when asked to compare themselves to others on this variable. It is likely that measurement of skills including this one, requires more intensive measures linked to substantive course material and the Comparing Models of Service-Learning project has, partly as a result of these findings, undertaken such study in a subsequent phase of the research (Eyler, Giles, Lynch & Gray, 1997).

Table 5
Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Citizenship Values in the Arts & Sciences Sample

	Career Helping	Volunteer Time	Community Leadership	Influence Policy	Wealth
Minority	B -.141*	-.045	-.001	-.037	-.024
	β(-.051)	(.018)	(-.000)	(-.013)	(-.008)
Parental Income	B -.035	-.026	-.046*	.000	.025
	β(-.041)	(-.035)	(-.057)	(.000)	(-.028)
Gender	B -.087*	-.176***	.007	.068	-.040
	β(-.043)	(-.100)	(.004)	(.033)	(-.019)
Age	B -.034	-.020	-.031	.001	-.054*
	β(-.032)	(.021)	(-.031)	(-.001)	(-.049)
Other College Service	B .052***	.085***	.034*	.020	.034*
	β (.075)	(.140)	(.052)	(.029)	(-.047)
Pre-Test	B .610***	.430***	.505***	.570***	.630***
	β (.595)	(.413)	(.509)	(.560)	(.631)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B .020	.019*	.041**	.053**	-.010
	β (.039)	(.044)	(.087)	(.105)	(-.019)
Service-Learning	B .195**	.300***	.097	.186***	-.095
	β (.085)	(.149)	(.045)	(.081)	(-.040)

Note: Students in Service-learning n = 986 non-service students n = 388 *p<.05 **P<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

Table 6
Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Citizenship Values in the Arts & Sciences Sample

	Career Helping	Volunteer Time	Community Leadership	Influence Policy	Wealth
Minority	B .082	-.002	-.051	-.044	-.029
	β(-.026)	(.001)	(-.018)	(-.015)	(.009)
Parental Income	B -.042	-.023	-.035	.031	-.046
	β(-.047)	(-.031)	(-.043)	(.036)	(-.051)
Gender	B -.150**	-.209***	-.021	-.079	-.078
	β(-.073)	(-.121)	(.012)	(.041)	(-.038)
Age	B .002	-.003	-.044	-.020	.046
	β(-.002)	(-.003)	(-.044)	(-.019)	(-.041)
Other College Service	B .022	.079***	.000	-.000	-.026
	β (.028)	(.121)	(.000)	(-.001)	(-.033)
Pre-Test	B .636***	.411***	.501***	.531***	.614***
	β (.607)	(.396)	(.505)	(.532)	(.606)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B .020	.035*	.044**	.056**	-.005
	β (.037)	(.076)	(.089)	(.107)	(-.009)
Service-Learning	B .176**	.333***	.078	.259***	.114
	β (.081)	(.182)	(.040)	(.126)	(.053)

Note: Students in Service-learning n = 531 non-service students n = 353 *p<.05 **P<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

Faculty-student interaction was associated with impact on all five skill measures. As expected, students perceive themselves to be more skillful when they have a close relationship with college faculty members.

The Impact of Service-Learning on Perceptions of Social Justice. Tables 9 and 10 reveal how students see social issues as well as how they think they should be addressed. It also captures the tendency of students to be able to place

Table 7

Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Citizenship Skills in Whole Sample

	Political Action	Communication	Critical Thinking	Issue Identification	Tolerance
Minority	B .073	-.076	-.000	-.063	.101
	β(-.007)	(-.008)	(.000)	(.027)	(.013)
Parental Income	B -.030	-.067	-.006	.004	-.112***
	β(-.010)	(-.023)	(-.009)	(.006)	(-.045)
Gender	B -.130	-.397**	-.029**	-.001	-.122***
	β(-.004)	(-.059)	(.071)	(.000)	(-.084)
Age	B .227***	-.046	-.039	.080***	.036
	β (.059)	(.013)	(.045)	(.090)	(.012)
Other College Service	B -.013	.010	.006	-.018	.051
	β(-.005)	(-.004)	(.011)	(-.031)	(.026)
Pre-Test	B .665***	.641***	.492***	.474***	.573***
	β (.662)	(.618)	(.493)	(.449)	(.547)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B .195***	.178***	.045	.025*	-.516***
	β (.107)	(.106)	(.028)	(.059)	(-.090)
Service-Learning	B .377*	.085	-.003	.072	.507***
	β (.046)	(-.011)	(-.002)	(.038)	(.077)

Note: Students in Service-learning n = 986 non-service students n = 388 *p<.05 **P<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

Table 8

Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Citizenship Skills in Whole Sample

	Political Action	Communication	Critical Thinking	Issue Identification	Tolerance
Minority	B .160	-.123	-.062	-.105	.073
	β (.015)	(.0128)	(-.026)	(.041)	(.008)
Parental Income	B .053	-.014	.016	.038	-.078
	β (.017)	(-.005)	(-.025)	(.052)	(-.031)
Gender	B -.108	-.379*	.039	-.033	-.453**
	β(-.015)	(-.056)	(.026)	(-.020)	(-.079)
Age	B -.186	.032	-.053*	.083**	.037
	β (.049)	(.009)	(.065)	(.094)	(.012)
Other College Service	B -.056	-.053	-.006	-.040*	.028
	β(-.021)	(-.021)	(-.011)	(-.065)	(.013)
Pre-Test	B .685***	.681***	.473***	.456***	.569***
	β (.674)	(.645)	(.472)	(.421)	(.531)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B .209***	.170***	.036**	.020	.123***
	β (.109)	(.093)	(.088)	(.044)	(.080)
Service-Learning	B .429*	-.092	.007	.122*	.521**
	β (.057)	(-.013)	(-.004)	(.071)	(.086)

Note: Students in Service-learning n = 531 non-service students n = 353 *p<.05 **P<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

themselves in the shoes of others and to remain open to new opinions and information. Service-learning was a positive predictor of each of these outcomes and this was somewhat more dramatic in the arts and sciences classes. Those who participated in the service experiences were more likely to see problems as systemic, to think that changing policy was a better approach than targeting individuals, to believe that improving social justice should be a priority for society, to be able to see things from the perspective of others and to be open to new ideas, even when controlling

Table 9
Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Perceptions of Social Justice in the Whole Sample

	Problem Locus	Change Policy	Social Justice	Perspective-Taking	Open to Views
Minority	B .164	.093	.085	-.167	-.245
	β (.018)	(.041)	(.035)	(-.025)	(-.033)
Parental Income	B -.080	-.018	-.033	-.044	-.133*
	β(-.029)	(-.026)	(-.043)	(-.022)	(-.050)
Gender	B -.605***	-.053	-.151***	-.390***	-.144
	β(-.094)	(-.032)	(-.085)	(.080)	(-.027)
Age	B .142*	-.019	.014	.034	-.082
	β (.042)	(-.022)	(.015)	(.013)	(-.029)
Other College Service	B .139**	-.002	-.015	-.004	-.021
	β (.063)	(-.003)	(.025)	(-.002)	(-.011)
Pre-Test	B .625***	.324***	.470***	.490***	.529***
	β (.612)	(.319)	(.467)	(.535)	(.558)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B .018	.013	.003	.057*	-.048
	β (.011)	(.032)	(.007)	(.047)	(-.036)
Service-Learning	B .855***	.102*	.120*	.360*	.470***
	β (.117)	(.055)	(.060)	(.065)	(.078)

Note: Students in Service-learning n=986 non-service students n=388 *P,.05 **P<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

Table 10
Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Perceptions of Social Justice in Arts & Sciences Sample

	Problem Locus	Change Policy	Social Justice	Perspective-Taking	Open to Views
Minority	B .052	.152	.137	.254	-.014
	β (.005)	(.063)	(.052)	(-.034)	(-.002)
Parental Income	B -.129	-.020	-.006	-.034	-.096*
	β(-.046)	(-.030)	(-.008)	(-.016)	(-.041)
Gender	B -.641***	-.019	-.191***	-.392***	-.254
	β(-.100)	(-.012)	(-.111)	(.081)	(-.047)
Age	B .121*	-.047	.031	.011	-.069
	β (.035)	(-.056)	(.033)	(.004)	(-.024)
Other College Service	B .127*	-.019	-.021	-.015	-.011
	β (.053)	(-.032)	(.032)	(-.008)	(-.005)
Pre-Test	B .636***	.306***	.436***	.495***	.539***
	β (.609)	(.308)	(.429)	(.515)	(.544)
Faculty-Student Interaction	B .074	.009	-.012	.032	-.048
	β (.043)	(.022)	(-.027)	(.025)	(-.033)
Service-Learning	B .956***	.113*	.130*	.431**	.562***
	β (.141)	(.068)	(.071)	(.084)	(.098)

Note: Students in Service-learning n=531 non-service students n=353 *P,.05 **P<.01 ***P<.001 Negative betas for gender indicate that women are more likely to score higher than men on outcome variable when controlling for all other variables.

for their higher pre-test measures. their relationship with faculty and other background factors.

Neither faculty-student interaction nor previous service were predictors of these outcomes, which suggests an arena in which service-learning makes a unique impact on college students. When students are directly involved with people experiencing the social problems they are studying or agencies working with these problems, they change the

way they think about these issues. This is consistent with Conrad and Hedin's work with high school students and recent work showing an impact of service-learning on how students analyze social issues (1981; Batchelder & Root, 1994; Eyler, Giles, Lynch & Gray, 1997; Eyler, Giles, Root & Price, 1997).

Implications of the research

Service-learning programs do appear to have an impact on students attitudes, values, skills and the way they think about social issues even over the relatively brief period of a semester. These findings are even more consistent in arts and sciences classes- While the effect is significant, it is small; few interventions of a semester's length have a dramatic impact on outcomes. What is impressive is the consistent pattern of impact across a large number of different outcomes; service- learning is a consistent predictor and often the only significant or best predictor beyond the pre-test measure of the variable. Service- learning does have an impact on students; our next task is to identify more clearly the types of service-learning experience that make the area test difference to students.

Given the significant differences in pre-test scores between those who choose service and those who don't, it seems clear that colleges which hope that community service will add to the educational value of their programs may want to consider integrating these opportunities into their core curriculum rather than making them co-curricular options or sequestering them in professional programs. Students who chose service-learning in traditional arts and sciences classes were more similar, particularly in their values and assessment of their skills to their non-service peers than students in the larger sample which included professional and specialized service classes. The ease of selection of a service option in a core class may increase the likelihood that students who are not service self-starters may experience the benefits of service-learning.

Being close to faculty members outside service-learning was also an independent predictor of many of these outcomes. which is consistent with the literature on student development. Service learning itself may also facilitate faculty-student relationships. It may provide opportunities for students to work closely with faculty members and to know them well, and this may have further long term benefits on student development. One topic for further exploration is the type of service-learning experiences that enhance faculty-student relationships.

It is also clear that while closeness to faculty is a positive predictor of most of the outcomes we examined, there was a consistent pattern in those that were not so affected. Feeling connected to community, seeing the systemic or political nature of social problems, feeling a need to give priority to greater social justice as well as increased perspective-taking capacity were uniquely affected by service-learning. Providing opportunities for students to link community service with their classroom experience adds value to their college experience and enhances qualities of understanding and commitment that lead to effective citizenship participation.

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10

Program Design

In the Service of Citizenship:

A Study of Student Involvement in Community Service

Robert A. Rhoads
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Introduction

> I learn more through my volunteer work than I ever do in any of my classes at school. Talking to people from diverse backgrounds provides so much insight that people just can't imagine. I study all these different theories in political science and sociology, but until you get a chance to see how the social world influences people's everyday lives, it just doesn't have that much meaning.
>
> I have been involved in volunteer work ever since I was in high school, and I'll probably continue to do stuff like Habitat [for Humanity] until I'm old and gray. I get a lot out of working to serve others, and it's a good feeling to know that I have helped someone even if it's in some small way. It helps me to cherish people more and understand what life is all about.

The preceding comments are from college students who discussed their involvement in community service and the meaning they derive from such activities. Both of these students give voice to a form of learning that may be termed "citizenship education" in that a concern for the social good lies at the heart of the educational experience (Delve, Mintz, & Stewart, 1990). These students are reflective of others described throughout this article who through participation in community service explore their own identities and what it means to contribute to something larger than their individual lives.

In recent years, the role of higher education as a source of citizenship preparation has come to the forefront. In this regard, higher education reflects a rising tide of concern for national service and the common good, as programs such as AmeriCorps, Learn and Serve America, Habitat for Humanity, and Big Brothers and Big Sisters have evoked our most prominent leaders as well as citizens across the country to commit themselves to the service of others. The influence this national movement has had on the academy is most apparent in the growth of organizations such as Campus Compact and Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) whose memberships and influence increased dramatically in the early 1990s (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993). Professional organizations associated with the academic enterprise also have added fuel to the growing concern over social responsibility and citizenship. For example, in 1997 the call for proposals from the American Association for Higher Education Conference on Faculty Roles and Rewards specifically identified an interest in how community service and service learning contribute to a more engaged faculty. The 1996 Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association was organized around the theme of "Research for Education in a Democratic Society," and at the 1995 American College Personnel Association Annual Convention, one of the keynote speakers, Dr. Robert Coles, addressed the issue of moral education when he called for greater commitment to service learning and community service.

Although it is hard to argue with calls to foster social responsibility among our students, our future leaders, there also is a tremendous need for clarification. With this said, the following key questions offer a guide for addressing some of the confusion revolving around community service: (1) Are community service and service learning interchangeable concepts or are there important differences? (2) What is the role of community service in engaging students as democratic citizens in a culturally diverse society? (3) Are there variations in the structure of service activities which produce different experiences for students? The first question is examined as I explore the relevant literature on community service and service learning. The second and third questions are addressed primarily through discussions of the theoretical perspective, findings, and implications. Thus, the latter two questions form the heart of the theoretical and empirical analysis offered throughout this article. In weaving theoretical and empirical work together to address these questions, I follow the tradition of critical theory and support the argument that all research is theoretically rooted: Sometimes the perspective of the author is spelled out (as in this case), while at other times it must be interpreted based on the assumptions undergirding the work (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). This is by no means a rejection

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of empiricism in favor of theory, but instead should be understood as an effort to bridge the gap separating the two.

Community service and service learning

Over recent years there has been an incredible growth in attention paid to community service and service learning (Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Kendall, 1990; Kraft, 1996; Kraft & Swadener, 1994; Rhoads, 1997; Waterman, 1997: Zlotkowski, 1995). The increasing interest in service reflects to a large degree a concern that institutions of higher education be more responsive to society and that higher learning in general ought to have greater relevance to public life (Boyer 1987, 1994; Study Group 1984; Wingspread Group, 1993). A convincing argument could be made that for American colleges and universities a commitment to service "is a movement whose time has come" (Rhoads & Howard, 1998, P. 1).

The issue to be addressed in this brief review of the literature concerns distinguishing community service from service learning. The primary difference between these two concepts is the direct connection service learning has to the academic mission. Typically, service learning includes student participation in community service but with additional teaming objectives often associated with a student's program of study. For example, a student majoring in social work may participate in service activities at a local homeless shelter in conjunction with a course of study on urban poverty. Specific activities designed to assist the student in processing his or her experience are included as part of the service learning project. The student, for example, may be expected to write a reflective paper describing the experience and/or there may be small group interactions among students involved in similar kinds of experiences. The learning objective might be to help students interpret social and economic policies through a more advanced understanding of the lived experiences of homeless citizens. Seen in this light, service learning seeks to connect community service experiences with tangible learning outcomes. Assessing such outcomes becomes a central concern of research and evaluation (Boss, 1994; Giles & Eyler, 1994).

Although service learning often is specifically tied to classroom-related community service in which concrete learning objectives exist, some writers suggest that student involvement in community service may be tied to out-of-class learning objectives and thus constitute a form of service learning as well (Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Rhoads, 1997). From this perspective, student affairs professionals who involve students in community service activities may engage in the practice of service learning when there are clearly articulated strategies designed to bridge experiential and developmental learning. The confusion between "classrelated" versus "out-of-class-related" service learning led Rhoads and Howard (1998) to adopt the term "academic service teaming" to distinguish the formal curriculum (largely faculty initiated) from the informal curriculum (largely student affairs initiated). Howard (1998), for example, defined academic service teaming as "a pedagogical model that intentionally integrates academic teaming and relevant community service" (p. 22). For Howard there are four components of academic service teaming. First, it is a pedagogical model and is therefore to be understood as a teaching methodology. Second, academic service teaming is intentional; that is, there are specific goals and objectives tying the service experience to course work. Third, there is integration between experiential and academic teaming. And finally, the service experience must be relevant to the course of study. As Howard explains, "Serving in a soup kitchen is relevant for a course on social issues, but probably not for a course on civil engineering" (p. 22).

From an educational standpoint, it makes sense to link community service activities with intentional teaming objectives whenever possible. Obviously, when student participation in community service can be connected to specific teaming activities involving reflection, group interaction, writing, and so on, the experience is likely to have a greater impact on student teaming and move into the realm of service teaming (Cooper, 1998; Eyler, Giles, & Schmiede, 1996).

In addition to varying degrees of connection community service may have to academic teaming objectives, there are also differing opinions on which goals of higher education service ought to address. Whereas Howard stresses the role of service as a pedagogical model used to assist in course-related teaming, others see service (community service and service teaming) as a key strategy for fostering citizenship (Harkavy & Benson, 1998; Mendel-Reyes, 1998; Rhoads, 1998). This vision of community service and service teaming is captured most pointedly in the philosophical work of John Dewey, in which education is fundamentally linked to the social good and what it means to exist in relation to others.

Theoretical perspective: Dewey, Mead, and Gilligan

This article is grounded in the philosophical work of John Dewey and his contention that education has a vital role to play in a democratic society. In his classic work *Democracy and Education,* Dewey argued that a democratic society demands a type of relational living in which one's decisions and actions must be made with regard to their effect on others. "A democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience. The extension in space of the number of individuals who participate in an interest so that each has to refer his own action to that of others, and to consider the action of others to give point and direction to his own" (1916, p.93). Dewey's vision of democracy challenges all citizens to take part in a form of decision,making that balances the interests of oneself with those of others. Democracy seen in this light demands that individuals understand the lives and experiences of other members of a society. How else can we weigh the effect of our actions if others remain distant and unknown?

Implied throughout Dewey's conception of democracy is an ethic-of-care philosophy akin to the work of feminist scholars such as Gilligan (1982) and Young (1990), in which caring for others forms a core component of identity (often discussed as the "relational self"). This is conveyed in Dewey's view of liberty: "Liberty is that secure release and fulfillment of personal potentialities which take place only in rich and manifold association with others" (1927, p. 150). Recent political theorists such as Battistoni (1985) also have recognized the importance of developing relational understandings of social life. For example, Battistoni supported Tocqueville's (1945) claim that American democracy is dependent upon "the reciprocal influence of men upon one another" (p.117). For Battistoni, reciprocal influence is fostered through participatory forms of education, which he claimed are more likely to foster citizens who see themselves as active participants in the political process. Similarly, in discussing the relationship between citizenship and education, Barber argued that citizens must recognize their dependence upon one another and that "our identity is forged through a dialectical relationship with others" (1992, p.4). Barber calls attention to the idea that citizenship is fundamentally tied to identity. Mead and Gilligan provide additional insight into the connection between citizenship and identity through their respective concepts of the "social self' and the "relational self."

Mead's (1934) idea of the social self derives in part from James (1890) and Cooley (1902), who both suggested that an individual's selfconception derives from the responses of others mirrored back to the individual. Mead argued that the self forms out of the interaction between the "I" and the "me." The "I" is the individual acting out some sort of behavior; the individual doing something such as talking, listening, interacting with others, expressing an idea. The "me" relates to the sense one has about the "I" who is acting out a behavior or set of behaviors. The sense we develop about the "I" derives from the interpretations we suspect that others have of us. We cannot develop an initial sense about ourselves without the help of others, who provide feedback and interact with the behaving "I." Through the imagined thoughts of others, we envision ourselves as a "me" as we become the object of our own thoughts.

According to Mead, an individual cannot develop a sense of self without the interactive context of a social group or a community. Therefore, the other, either the particularized or generalized other, is essential to the development of the self.

Feminist theorists such as Gilligan also have developed a conception of the self strongly rooted in otherness. Gilligan (1979, 1982) was one of the first theorists to point out that women often make moral decisions based on a sense of connection with others. She argued that women's moral decision making reflected a fundamental identity difference based on gender. Whereas men tend to seek autonomy and make moral decisions founded on abstract principles such as justice, women, in general, seek connectedness and weigh moral decisions based on maintaining or building relationships.

As a result of early child-parent interactions and ongoing gender socialization (which arguably begins at birth), relationships become central to the social world of women (Chodorow, 1974, 1978). For men, the relational quality of social life is often displaced by a strong sense of individualism. The other is fundamentally a part of women's experience and kept at somewhat of a distance for men. The development of the self for females may be characterized by connectedness. Male development may be characterized by individuation. These general patterns (which obviously vary in degree from one individual to the next) have significant implications for how males and females relate to others and how they understand themselves in the context of the social world.

Based in part on early feminist work, various scholars have argued that regardless of gender differences, society is

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likely to benefit when its members develop a commitment to caring (Larrabee, 1993; Noddings, 1984, 1992, 1995; Oliner & Oliner, 1995). This is poignantly noted by Sampson (1989), who argued,

> The feminist perspective should no longer be understood as developing a psychology of women but, I believe, is better seen as developing a psychology of humanity tomorrow. The real issue, therefore, does not involve gender differences per se, as much as it speaks to an emerging theory of the person that is appropriate to the newly emerging shape of a globally linked world system. (p. 920)

Of course, Sampson's point about the "globally linked world" reminds us of an earlier issue raised in this article concerning how cultural diversity might influence citizenship education (recall key question Number 2: What is the role of community service in engaging students as democratic citizens in a culturally diverse society?). Arguably, as a society grows increasingly diverse, communications are likely to become more challenging. Cultural differences, though they may be understood as a source of community for learning and sharing among citizens (Tierney, 1993), nonetheless pose a significant challenge to social interaction and an individual's ability to connect with the other, who, in the case of a heterogeneous society, is likely to be a diverse other.

Woven together, Dewey, Mead, and Gilligan, among others, provide insight into how citizenship education might encompass learning about the self, the other, and the larger society in which one exists. The "caring self' is the term I use to capture the synthesis of their work. The caring self is intended to convey the idea of a socially oriented sense of self founded on an ethic of care and a commitment to the social good. Furthermore, it is reasonable to assume that community service, with its focus on caring for others, would offer excellent settings to explore the development of the caring self. But is this the case, and if so, in what kinds of service contexts are the qualities associated with the caring self likely to be forged?

This brings me to the crux of my argument and what I intend to shed light on through a study of student involvement in community service. Arguably, unless individuals have a deep sense of caring for others, it is less likely that they will engage in interactions with diverse others in a meaningful way. Caring may be seen as the solution to the challenge presented by a postmodern society characterized by difference. In essence, I contend that fostering a deep commitment to caring is the postmodern developmental dilemma all of education faces, including higher education. If we are to promote democratic citizenship in these challenging times, then we must foster in our citizens a commitment to caring. Higher education has a major part to play in this process, and involving students in community service may be one vehicle for meeting this challenge. The question that needs to be asked then, is, How and in what kinds of community service settings is caring to be fostered? Before addressing this question through a discussion of the findings, I first clarify the methodology used in conducting the study.

Methodology

The primary goal of this article is to advance understanding of community service as a strategy for citizenship education. Through a qualitative study of college students involved in community service, I shed light on various facets of the service context that may be most beneficial to challenging students as caring citizens. The focus is not on student learning per se; instead, I target the kind of meaning students construct about their service encounters as a means to identify important aspects of community service associated with caring. I need to be clear here. This article does not attempt to assess developmental change by examining student involvement in community service. Although such a strategy is important and falls in line with the tradition of student outcomes research (Astin, 1979, 1993; Feldman & Newcomb, 1970; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991), this article takes more of a phenomenological direction in which the essence of community service is the primary concern. Hence, the kind of experiences students describe are important in this study, not as learning outcomes, but as indications of the nature of the service context.

The data for this article were derived from research and participation in community service projects conducted in conjunction with three universities: Pennsylvania State University, the University of South Carolina, and Michigan State University. Community service projects ranged from week-long intensive experiences requiring travel to distant out-of-state communities to ongoing student service projects in the local communities or states in which these universities are situated. I participated as a volunteer in many of the service projects described throughout this article. My role ranged from a staff supervisor in a few cases to that of a graduate student volunteer with limited responsibility in other instances. In every case, my primary role was as a volunteer and not as a researcher; the data I collected was more of an outgrowth of the community service experience and was not the central objective. The comments

here are not meant to shortchange the research strategy employed, but instead are intended to clarify for the reader the context of my interactions and involvement with the student volunteers. In fact, my role as a volunteer may actually add strength to the naturalistic strategies used in collecting data as I was able to engage in ongoing and meaningful dialogue with the research participants (Denzin, 1989).

Based on the methodological strategies associated with naturalistic inquiry, data were collected using a variety of techniques, including formal and informal interviews, surveys, participant observation, and document analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The principal documents used as a source of data were journals students were asked to keep as part of their community service experience. The use of multiple data collection techniques provides a degree of triangulation and offers the researcher an opportunity to confirm or reject tentative interpretations (Denzin, 1989).

The early phase of the study was conducted in conjunction with Pennsylvania State University and the data obtained was part of a formal evaluation of community service activities by students. This phase of the project involved surveys of students' experiences and was considered program evaluation and as such did not require human subject approval at Penn State. The second phase, which primarily involved interviews and observations, necessitated gaining human subject approval. Students were informed of the study and given the opportunity to participate or decline. It was during this phase of the study that student journals were used, but only with student approval.

During the six-year period (1991–1996) in which data were collected, 108 students participated in interviews, 66 students completed openended surveys, and more than 200 students were observed at various project sites in which participant observation was central. Approximately 90% of the students involved in the community service projects were undergraduates, and about 10% were graduate students. The vast majority (approximately 80%) of the undergraduates were traditional age students in the range of 18 to 24 years old. Females represented approximately 60% of the sample, and in terms of race, the majority were Caucasian (roughly 85%), with African Americans constituting the largest minority group-about 8 to 10% of the overall group.

Interview transcripts (from both formal and informal interviews), open-ended surveys, field notes from participant observation, student journals, and documents collected in conjunction with various service projects form the entire data base for the study. Once collected, the data were read repeatedly in an effort to identify important and relevant themes. The process followed the kind of analytical strategy stressed in the work of cultural anthropologists and interpretivists (Geertz, 1973; Rosaldo, 1989). Specifically, themes were identified based on their contextual significance and relevance to the overall goal of the project: *to better understand the context of community service and how such activities might challenge students' understandings of citizenship and the social good.* In a procedure described by Lincoln and Guba (1985) as "member checks," themes and interpretations were shared with several students as part of a process to obtain feedback and incorporate student reactions into the final manuscripts.

Based on the data analysis, several themes were identified. Three of those themes-students' explorations of the self, understandings of others, and views of the social good-form the basis for this article. Other issues, such as "student motivation" for getting involved in community service and "attitudes toward community service," are examples of additional themes that emerged from the data analysis but are peripheral to this article and thus are not discussed in any substantive way.

Findings

In keeping with the theoretical concern of democratic citizenship and fostering more caring selves, the findings are organized around three general concerns suggested by students in discussing their participation in community service: self-exploration, understanding others, and the social good. These themes are highly interactive and, in general, students' exploration in all of these areas contributes to understanding what I describe as the caring self.

SELF-EXPLORATION

Participation in community service is an educational activity that lends itself to identity clarification. For example, a student who was part of an intensive week-long community service project in South Carolina talked about identity issues and her participation in the project: "I'm kind of in a search for my own identity, and this trip is part of that search. I just don't know quite who I am yet. I'm struggling to figure it all out. These kinds of experiences help. I'm most genuine in these kinds of settings." Another student added, "Getting involved in community service helps me to get back in touch with who I really am. It reminds me that I have more to live for than merely myself." A third

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student offered the following comments:

> I've always done service work. During my freshman year at USC [University of South Carolina] I worked on the City Year project and the Service-a-thon. I believe service is an important part of leadership. It's important to give back to the community. The last four weeks I've been totally into myself, like running for vice president of the student body. I signed up for this project because I wanted to get outside myself for awhile.

This student saw the service project as an opportunity to connect with others and in her words "get outside" of herself For her, the service project offered a chance to become more other-focused and to contribute to her community.

A second student described her involvement in community service as part of a journey to better understand herself: "My work as a volunteer has really helped me to see that I have so much more to understand about myself in order to grow. I'm still on the journey and have a long way to go." And a third student discussed what he learned about himself: "I got involved in volunteerism because I wanted to learn more about myself. I've learned how to love a wide range of people despite differences between us. I've learned not to be judgmental." A fourth offered insight into the kind of soul searching students often go through as a result of service work:

> Sometimes I feel like I'm only fooling myself and that I'm really only into service so that I can help myself. I list this stuff on my resume and I feel guilty because I know it will help me get a teaching job. Is that why I do this? I know it makes me feel better about what I do in my spare time, but who am I really serving?

This student recognized, like others, the positive returns of service, not only in terms of experience helpful for landing employment, but for the feelings reflected back to the self.

Self-exploration through community service often involved a kind of self-interrogation that helped students to think more seriously about their lives. Listen to the following student as she recalled her volunteer work with troubled youth:

> I got involved in a lot of self-esteem work, primarily with teenagers. It helped me to think more seriously about my understanding of myself and how others think of me. I began to wonder about what kind of person I was and was going to be. I began to ask questions of myself. "Am I too judgmental? Am I open to others? Am I sensitive to how other people see the world?"

Once again, the role of community service in challenging one's sense of self is clear. Equally clear is how one's sense of self is tied to the social context and the views others hold of us.

Understanding Others

A significant learning experience associated with community service was the opportunity to better understand the lives students worked to serve. Students were able to put faces and names with the alarming statistics and endless policy debates about homelessness as well as rural and urban poverty. As one student explained,

> Expressing what it has meant to me to actually have the chance to engage in conversations with people who used to be total strangers is next to impossible. It has been eye opening. My understanding of homeless people was based on what I'd see on the news, in magazines, or on TV shows. They were not real people and I could easily turn my back on them and the problem m in general.

Similar comments were offered by Penn State and Michigan State students involved in community service projects working with homeless citizens in DC, Louisville, and New York City:

> Every homeless person has a name, a story.
>
> They just want to be recognized and treated as human beings. There are names behind the statistics.
>
> Working with the people of the streets has transformed "those people" into real faces, real lives, and real

friends. I can no longer confront the issue without seeing the faces of my new friends. This has an incredible effect on my impetus to help.

All the statistics about homeless people and the stories of people freezing to death in the winter never really sunk in until I made friends with Harry and Reggie. There are faces now.

Students who worked in rural areas with low-income families also derived benefit from personal interactions with those they worked to serve. One student commented on the general outcomes associated with having personal interactions in service settings: "The whole experience helps you to see that others are real people and have real problems and yet can come together to help one another....When you work with the people on their houses or in their back yard it adds to the experience. You get a chance to know the people. You have a face or a personality to go with the work." A second student stated, "The fact that we were able to interact a great deal with the people in the community added so much to the overall experience. I've done volunteer work in the past where I never really got the chance to meet with the people who I was actually trying to help." A third student, who participated in a week-long service project in a low-income rural area, added, "This week has taught me so much about other people and the problems they face in life. You can read about growing up poor, but getting to share a conversation with someone who has overcome so much during their lifetime is quite a different matter....It's made me much less judgmental of others and their place in life."

A common point made by students was the fact that community service work with people of diverse cultural backgrounds forced students to confront generalizations they had of the other. For example, students talked about various stereotypes they held about poor people and how such stereotypes were erased as a result of their service work. Several students noted how surprised they were to find so many intelligent and educated people without jobs or places to live. One student maintained that the only accurate stereotype relates to the amount of bad luck that most homeless people have experienced. A second added, "I learned that all people are innately afraid and that no one deserves to be without a voice and a safe place and that stereotypes can be more damaging than can be fathomed." A third student talked about how his preconceptions about homeless people had been shattered through his interactions with them. As he explained, "This experience gave my beliefs and convictions about the homeless a personal basis that I'll never forget."

Many of the preconceptions students had about the poor were rooted in their limited experience with cultural diversity. Although socioeconomic factors were the primary source of difference between students and community members, race was another factor. Interactions with a variety of low-income individuals and families often challenged students' conceptions of the diverse other. Because the vast majority of the student volunteers were Caucasians and many of the community members served by the students were African Americans, a number of racial issues emerged from time to time. A Penn State sophomore talked about the difference she felt between herself and the large number of homeless African Americans she encountered during her volunteer work in DC: "I definitely felt a major barrier between Blacks and Whites in this country. There were times working in the soup kitchens where I felt very uncomfortable: A college junior studying mathematics commented on a similar feeling: "It was an experience for me simply to be placed in the awkward environment of walking around in predominantly African American, poor neighborhoods. I want to remember that feeling of insecurity. It reminds me of the vast differences between races in our society."

Often, issues of race and class blended together and challenged students' prejudices in a multifaceted way. Listen to the following two students discuss their experiences:

There is something that I'm not proud of and I always considered myself open-minded and not prejudiced, but when I worked at Sharon's house [Sharon is an African American woman who needed repairs done to her home] it reminded me that some of my previous thinking about the poor had been based on stereotypes. I mean I've always kind of thought in the back of my mind that people become poor or destitute because they are not motivated or not as intelligent. But Sharon has a master's degree and is very articulate. I see now that there may be many causes or barriers that people face that can limit them. It was an eye opener and I see now that I was carrying this misconception about them being to blame for their plight.

Meeting homeless people and talking with them taught me that some of my stereotypes about the poor,

about Blacks, have been rooted in my own life of White, middle-class privilege. I have never had to work that hard to get a college education, for example, yet I've bought into the idea that others who have less than me are somehow lazy because they are poor. Heck, they may have worked twice as hard as I have. I've never really had my views of the poor challenged until this experience working with homeless people.

The generalizations and stereotypes to which students referred were seen by several as the by-product of the media. As one student, a senior in geography, pointed out, "I learned that my perceptions of poverty, crime, and homelessness are influenced and perhaps shaped by misconstrued images that I see on television." Another student also talked about how television had played a major role in how she had come to envision African Americans. She pointed out that in her rural Pennsylvania community, "there wasn't a single African American family. I never even met an African American until I attended college."

THE SOCIAL GOOD

As one might expect, given the context of caring for others, issues related to the social good often surfaced. Community service is ripe for such discussions and offers a context conducive to serious thought about the larger social body. One student offered an example of the kind of serious thought that may evolve from community service work:

There are a lot of people in this country who need help to make ends meet. You can choose to help them or you can turn your back on them. I want to help people, and I want those who choose not to help to know that there are consequences for walking away. There are children who will go hungry and people who will be living in the streets. I cannot live with that on my conscience.

For this student, the social good suggests a world in which no one starves or goes homeless. Giving up some of his own time and energy to help others "make it" is in line with his vision of social responsibility.

Other students offered similar remarks about the social good. For example, one student commented, "Intellectual exploration has been rewarding but also suffocating at times and so I find the desire to commit myself to experiential work. I found one way could be by working in a homeless shelter and understanding social issues from a political standpoint as well as from the perspective of those living and breathing poverty."

For another student, the common good included the role of education in assisting the poor. He saw service as important, but there were deeper issues underlying poverty. He explained,

Service activities are important, but we also have to help teach people how to fish. You just can't give people food or build houses for them without also helping them develop the skills to take care of their own lives and their own families....Part of my goal is to help others to develop their own abilities so that they can lead productive lives.

This student alludes to the idea that simply providing "bandages.' though important and necessary, may not heal deeper wounds. In this case, the student highlights how sometimes the problems rest with the poor and their limited skills.

Other students also concerned with the deeper roots of economic inequities chose to focus on social structure instead of individuals as part of their effort to make sense of the social good. For example, one student saw community service as a stepping stone to larger work for social change: "I need to be in community with people who are interested in radical social change. Together we can work and witness all kinds of changes, and perhaps come closer to finding some answers." Another student alluded to the structural aspects of poverty as she discussed her learning experiences:

Community service is something that I think everybody should get involved doing. You see a different side of our country when you see some of the struggles the poor face. You begin to understand the barriers to their economic situation and why it is so hard to get out of poverty. I talked to this one woman, and she explained to me how expensive day care is for her children and that in order for her to take a job she needs to make at least eight to ten dollars an hour. And no one will pay her that.

For the preceding student, community service experience helped her identify a structural problem that limits low-income workers—the lack of affordable day care.

Not everyone who participated in this study saw service as necessarily a positive force for improving society. Listen to the following student take issue with some of the general comments he heard about the positive aspects of service:

> To be honest, and it's hard to say this around all these "do gooders," I'm not sure all this volunteer stuff really does a whole lot of good. I know, I'm one of those volunteers too. But I keep asking myself a bunch of questions: "Am I doing this to help the homeless or am I doing this to help myself?. Who really benefits?" Maybe I'm being too skeptical, but I think most of the students here are like me but won't admit it. It makes them feel good to help feed someone, and that way they can go back to living their happy little lives without feeling too guilty.

Despite the biting cynicism of the preceding student's comments, he makes an important point that turns our attention back to the theoretical thrust of this article: The idea that one often develops positive feelings about oneself as a result of involvement in service reminds us that our sense of self indeed is tied to others. When warm feelings are shared with a student engaged in service, then logically, that student may see him or herself in a more favorable manner. The interactional context is one reason why community service is so critical to forging more caring selves. Through acts designed to serve others, students learn to feel better about themselves. At the same time, their relationship to others and to the larger social body is strengthened. Hopefully, reaching out becomes a way of life and the diversity that offers the potential to divide one from another becomes instead a source of sharing. This is the essence of the caring self.

Implications for structuring community service

As noted earlier, this study was phenomenological in nature. The study did not seek to determine whether students become more caring citizens as a result of their service. Instead, by approaching the subject phenomenologically, I was able to identify aspects of the community service context that might contribute to students' considerations of the self, others, and the social good. The underlying assumption of course is that such considerations are likely to contribute positively to one's ongoing development as a caring citizen. Thus, in thinking about the implications of the findings I was able to identify three structural components of community service that appear to be critical to advancing citizenship as defined in this article. These key components are mutuality, reflection, and personalization.

There are two aspects of mutuality I stress: One aspect relates to a recognition that both parties—4he so called "doers" and the "done to," in Radest's (1993) terms-benefit from the service encounter. Students involved in service receive incredible rewards for their work in the form of personal satisfaction. And, if their work is effective, community members also receive rewards in the form of a service provided. Thus, one might say that the experience is mutual.

The gifts that students receive through their community service offerings are not without complications. Students frequently expressed a degree of guilt for feeling good about themselves as a result of their service to others. A line from the great American poet, Delmore Schwartz, comes to mind here: "Nothing is given which is not taken." Taking or "receiving" the gifts offered by community members is something students engaged in service must learn to do. In fact, effective leadership training for students ought to prepare them to be recipients of the rewards of service. "In giving, one must learn to receive," noted one student who worked with homeless citizens in Washington, DC.

The second aspect of mutuality relates to the structure of the relationship between service providers and community members who may receive a specific service. Too often we are guilty of determining the needs of those to be served with little to no involvement on their part. For community service to be most effective for the development of caring citizens, then, the planning of such activities ought to include those to be served in an equal and empowering manner. After all, Dewey's conception of democracy entails each person taking others into consideration when making decisions affecting the public realm.

A second key to making community service most effective for citizenship development is the inclusion of reflection as part of the service work. By the term "reflection" I refer to activities designed to help students process their service experiences in a manner involving serious thought. Small-group discussions and writing assignments are common

tools used to foster student reflection. As is noted earlier in this article, community service that incorporates reflection moves closer to what is typically considered service learning in that the reflective activity helps to link service to an educational outcome.

Several of the service projects observed through this study did not involve structured reflection and the students' experiences suffered. One example occurred in New York City, where a young woman became so intimidated by her interactions with a homeless man who screamed profanities at her that she vowed to never again work with the homeless. The project she worked on was led entirely by students and there was no opportunity for guided reflection. in interviewing this student, I was left to ponder how her reaction might have been different had she been able to interact with an experienced facilitator. Would she have been able to work through her feelings and perhaps take something positive from the traumatic encounter?

Other examples from this study reveal the power of reflection. Recently, I accompanied a group of 23 students from Michigan State University to Merida in the Yucatan where we worked at a Salvation Army shelter for children, a low-income health facility, and a women's resource center. As part of helping MSU students process their experiences, staff volunteers facilitated reflection groups each evening after students returned from their work sites. At the end of the week, we evaluated the project and consistently students described the reflection activities as one of the highlights of their cross-cultural experience (despite the "educational" overtones such activities carried!).

Perhaps the most significant aspect of community service that I found to contribute to caring is what may be called the personalization of service. For community service to be challenging to a student's sense of self, it seems most beneficial for service to involve opportunities for meaningful interaction with those individuals to be served. Time and time again students discussed how significant it was for them to have the opportunity to interact with individuals and families on a personal basis.

Conclusion

The challenge of education to foster caring citizens has taken on enormous proportion in contemporary society as the struggle between individualism and social responsibility has taken on new meaning (Bellah, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985; Coles, 1993; Palmer, 1993; Parks Daloz, Keen, Keen, & Daloz Parks, 1996; Wuthnow, 1991, 1995). Community service is one option educators can select to enhance the development of citizens concerned with the social good. Caring is central to the effectiveness of community service, and thus students are challenged to give serious thought to what it means to care as they struggle to evaluate their commitment to the lives of others. Because the relationship between individuals and their obligation to one another is a cornerstone of democracy, community service may be seen to contribute to citizenship in a democratic society.

The students in this study highlight how cultural diversity poses additional challenges to one's development as a caring citizen. They described how community service often is an interaction between diverse others. This is the essence of Radest's (1993) argument when he maintained that community service may be seen as an "encounter with strangers" in which the challenge of service is that we each learn from the other and we each give as well as receive. From this perspective, community service represents a dialogical encounter with diverse others and serves as a bridge to build communal ties. Thus, community service offers one vehicle for preparing students to communicate in a culturally diverse world.

Finally, because service encourages students to see themselves as intimately connected to the other, a learning context is created in which the caring self is more likely to emerge. Fostering a sense of self grounded in an ethic of care is one of the central challenges of education and becomes increasingly important as our society grows more diverse. By fostering an ethic of care, higher education encourages the sense of otherness needed for democracy to survive and, indeed, thrive in a complex and fragmented social world.

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11

Evaluation and Research

An Assessment Model for Service-Learning:

COMPREHENSIVE CASE STUDIES OF IMPACT ON FACULTY, STUDENTS, COMMUNITY, AND INSTITUTION

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A comprehensive case study model of assessment developed at Portland State University responds to the need to measure the impact of service-learning on four constituencies (student, faculty, community, and institution). The case studies blend quantitative and qualitative measures in order to determine the most effective and practical tools to measure service-learning impact and to provide feedback for continuous improvement of practice. Insights from the design process and preliminary results have potential value for institutions with similar agendas for service-learning and community partnerships.

In this time of dramatic transformations in higher education, one very visible change on many campuses is the expansion of partnerships between colleges and universities and community agencies, organizations, and other constituencies. Those partnerships take many forms from campus to campus, but a typical connection is service-learning the integration of community service with the academic content of course work. Service-learning responds to the call for higher education to improve the quality and productivity of instruction and to "become more engaged in addressing the nation's many problems" (Edgerton, 1995). As more and more educational institutions heed the call, the need to evaluate and interpret both the outcomes and the impacts of service-learning has grown.

At Portland State University (PSU) service learning has long been present in the curriculum, but in fragmented forms with scattered visibility. When we revised our general education curriculum in 1993, our commitment to broad integration of service-learning became focused and supported, and clearly connected to our university mission. The first year (1994) of deliberate campus-wide focused service-learning was marked with high levels of enthusiasm and faculty claims of exciting impact. Aware that our enthusiasm and claims must give way to hard data and demonstrated outcomes, faculty and administrators held a series of meetings to develop an assessment plan uniquely targeted to service-learning courses. We began by searching for other models of assessment for service-learning and found that program evaluations dominated the literature (Shumer, 1991). We soon became aware that we were part of a larger national community seeking to ameliorate the "scarcity of replicable qualitative and quantitative research on the effects of service-learning on student learning and development, the communities in which they serve, or on the educational institutions" (Giles, Honnet, & Mighore, 199 1, p. 2). This paper describes our efforts to study and document the impact of service-learning and to develop an assessment model that contributes to service-learning practice. We were also committed to establishing a "culture of evidence" at Portland State University (Ramaley, 1996) to document our reform efforts.

Literature review

We began our conceptualization process by reviewing the theoretical and development literature on service-learning. Like PSU faculty, the proponents of service-learning in journals and other publications have been enthusiastic about its potential. Claims for its success include enhanced relevance of course content, changes in student attitudes, support for community projects and needs, and increased volunteerism (Erlich, 1995; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Harkavy, 1992). Those same supporters also acknowledged the gaps in our knowledge about the effects of service-learning and the difficulty in measuring those effects. As Eyler and Giles (1994) point out, the outcomes of service-learning have not been clearly conceptualized, nor is there agreement about the intent of service-learning. Such dissension and lack of clarity have contributed to the lack of significant progress in the development of assessment measures. We decided

to address the lack of clarity of outcomes as we began our assessment plan.

Another challenge to the assessment of service learning is that the benefits are spread among different constituencies: students, faculty, the community, and the institution. Colleges and universities have typically struggled with the assessment of student learning and institutional impact. Currently there are and have been multiple projects focused on student outcomes (Bringle & Kremer, 1994; Cohen & Kinsey, 1994; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Hesser, 1995; Markus, Howard, & King, 1993; Wechsler & Fogel, 1995), but the profession has concentrated little effort toward assessing faculty impact, and has only begun thinking about the process of assessing community impact. The issue of multiple constituencies is a major challenge to the task of assessing service-learning if institutions are to effectively evaluate the full ramifications of a commitment to integration of service-learning in the curriculum. This is especially important to the partnership concept that PSU embraces as the essence of its urban mission. Thus, the commitment to assessing the experiences and impact for multiple constituencies was a guiding principle of this study.

Context for development

Before describing the conceptual development of our assessment plan, it is important to acknowledge the context in which we worked. Portland State University, an urban institution, had recently reformed the undergraduate curriculum in an effort to fulfill our mission, to better accommodate our non-traditional student population, and to attend to research on effective teaching and learning. Service-learning was integrated throughout the new curriculum in freshmen experiences, service learning courses, and in graduation requirements. This comprehensive approach to the integration of community service influenced the design of an assessment model. The newness of our service-learning integration and its comprehensive impact across campus called for an exploratory and formative assessment approach. This meant that our model would have to ensure the collection of assessment data that could provide feedback for continuous improvement and sufficient breadth to serve the diverse forms of service-learning in our curriculum. The design would also have to honor PSU's commitment to mutually beneficial partnerships with the community, and therefore, provide data of value to our community partners.

Conceptual development of an assessment model

In response to the paucity of assessment approaches in the literature and with attention to our campus-wide service-learning approach, we decided to test the use of comprehensive case studies as a structural approach to the assessment and description of our service-learning courses. An additional objective was to develop assessment strategies that would be adaptable to other community service activities throughout our general education curriculum.

The comprehensive case studies were designed not only to assess and describe our service-learning courses, but to pilot multiple forms of assessment instruments. We needed to explore many mechanisms for measuring the impact of our courses in order to determine which approaches and tools would provide the best and most informative data. We were reminded by Giles and others (1991) that there was a "myriad of potential effects to be derived from combining service and learning in the educational enterprise" and by Hesser (1995) that the "variables to be controlled are almost infinite," (Hesser, 1995) so our intent was to be as comprehensive as possible for the draft of our case study model.

The first step in designing the case study model, that of defining purposes, attended to our commitment to a comprehensive approach directed by well-defined goals. Our purposes were:

1. To describe and assess the impact of service-learning courses on multiple constituencies.
2. To develop and pilot an exploratory case study model that integrates continuous improvement with educational assessment theory and practice, that measures a maximum number of impact variables for multiple constituencies, and that tests a broad range of potential measurement tools.
3. To monitor both data collection and data analysis to determine the most effective assessment approaches and tools to measure service-learning in order to develop a practical and valid assessment model for future use.
4. To consider the lessons learned from the comprehensive case studies in order to develop assessment models for other community service activities on campus.

As we proceeded from these purposes to the articulation of hypotheses for our study, we encountered the need to define outcomes of our community-based learning courses. Just as the literature described, our courses did not have clear or specific outcomes regarding effects of service- learning on participants. Much of our development work became the task of defining desired impact. If we claimed that service-learning courses had an impact on students or community or other constituencies, what did the impact look like? How could we establish that there was an impact?

Before designing measures, a comprehensive definition of impact was needed for each of the constituencies. A set of potential impact variables for each constituency was developed in a participatory fashion that considered each group's perspective. We conducted a series of reviews of the impact variables with members of the four constituencies (students, faculty, community, institution) and made recommended revisions until there was agreement on their

Figure 1
Student Variables, Indicators and Measurements

Variables	Indicators	Measurements
Awareness of community	Knowledge of community history, strengths, problems, definition	Interview, journal analysis, focus groups, survey
Involvement with community	Quantity/quality of interactions, attitude toward involvement	Interview, surveys, journal analysis, focus groups
Commitment to service	Plans for future service	Surveys, focus groups
Career choices	Influence of community placement job opportunities	Surveys, interview, focus groups
Self awareness	Changes in awareness of strengths, limits, direction, role, goals	Surveys, interview
Personal development	Participation in additional courses, extracurricular activities	Interview, journal analysis, focus groups, survey
Academic achievement	Role of community, experience in understanding and applying content	Interview, survey, grades, focus groups
Sensitivity to diversity	Attitude, understanding of diversity, comfort and confidence	Journal analysis, reflections, survey, interviews
Autonomy/independence	Learner role	Interview, class observation
Sense of ownership	Learner role	Class observation, interview
Communication	Class interactions, community interactions	Class observation, community observation

Figure 2
Faculty Variables, Indicators and Measurements

Variables	Indicators	Measurements
Involvement with community	Quantity/quality of interactions/ contacts	Logs, surveys, interview, journals
Awareness of community	Quantity/quality of interactions, attitude toward involvement	Interview, surveys journal analysis, focus groups
Level of volunteerism	Valuing personal volunteerism, actual volunteerism	Vita, interview, survey
Professional development	Influence of community-based learning in conference/seminar attendance	Vita, interview, journals
Scholarship	Influence of community-based learning in articles, presentations, etc.	Vita, artifacts
Teaching methods	Influence of community-based learning in class format, organization, interactions	Class observation, journals, surveys, teaching and learning continuum
Faculty/student interaction	Content, variety, frequency, direction	Class observation, teaching and learning continuum
Philosophy of teaching/learning	Faculty/student roles, outcomes, pedagogy, curriculum	Interview, class observation, syllabus analysis, journals, teaching and learning continuum
Role in community-based teaching	Self perceptions of role	Log, interview, survey, journals

inclusiveness. An example of an impact variable for students is "awareness of community." To measure the impact variables, we developed indicators and drafted appropriate tools to capture the existence of an indicator or measure changes in an indicator. Building on the previous example for "awareness of community," indicators were determined as "knowledge of community history, strengths, problems, and issues," as well as "definition of community." Our design suggested that those indicators could be measured by means of interviews, journal analysis, focus groups, and surveys. Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4 display the variables, indicators, and appropriate measurements for each of the four constituencies.

Figure 3
Community Variables, Indicators and Measurements

Variables	Indicators	Measurements
Nature of partnership	Present and future activities	Interview, syllabus
Involvement with community	Contribution to community, achievement of goals of the agency and course	Interview, survey, focus groups
Perceived capacity to serve clients	Number of clients services, value added	Interview, focus groups, survey
Economic benefits	Cost of services provided by faculty/ students, funding opportunities	Interview, survey
Social benefits	New connections, networks	Interview
New insights about operations/ activities	Changes in goals, activities, operations	Interview
Awareness of PSU	Changes in image, confidence, knowledge of programs	Interview, focus groups, CAE log
Establishment of ongoing relationships	Changes in levels, nature, breadth of contacts, future partnerships	Interviews, focus groups
Identification of prospective employees	Actual hirings	Interview, survey
Satisfaction with PSU interactions	Level of communication/interaction with students/faculty	Interview, Survey

Figure 4
Institutional Variables, Indicators and Measurements

Variables	Indicators	Measurements
Role in community	Numbers of types of requests for assistance from community, changes in enrollment and transfer patterns.	CAE log, IRP reports IASC interview
Orientation to teaching and learning	Number of faculty involved in community-based learning, focus/ content of professional development activities, focus/content of dissertations, enrollment and transfer patterns	CAE log, survey (ING), content analysis of grants, dissertation, class observations
Resource acquisition	Contribution levels, site visits by other campuses, grant proposals and awards related to service, changes in enrollment/transfer patterns	CAE log, Currently, IRP reports
Image in community (local, state, national, int'l)	Number of media reports, number of site visits by other campuses, number of publications, conference presentations, contributions	CAE log, Currently, PR reports

Once the range of impact variables for all four constituencies was determined, the case studies were designed to make a broad assessment of a maximum number of impact variables for all constituencies. Indicators and appropriate measurement of each impact variable directed the case study design to blend quantitative and qualitative approaches. Further, it was anticipated that the case studies could demonstrate the potential for linking teaching, research, and service. With the impact variables providing measurement direction, the resulting hypotheses of our comprehensive case study research were:

1. Participation in service-learning courses will have an impact on students.
2. Participation in service-learning courses will have an impact on faculty.
3. Participation in service-learning courses will have an impact on community.
4. Participation in service-learning courses will have an impact on the institution.
5. Participation in service-learning courses will transform the teaching and learning paradigm of the university from a traditional instruction model to an interactive learning model.

Our hypotheses were intentionally broad to support our comprehensive approach and the wide range of impact variables. The last hypothesis resulted from earlier exploratory observations in classrooms in which service-learning was integrated with course work.

Study methodology

As indicated earlier, the broad range of variables, indicators and appropriate measurement tools and approaches demanded a blend of quantitative and qualitative approaches. Some of the approaches were to be used in a pre-post format, others were to be used for ongoing assessment throughout a course, and others were to be used for a one-time measurement. An overview of the indicators and appropriate measurement revealed three major categories of mechanisms or data collection procedures. The categories are illustrated in Figure 5. They include: in-person assessment; independent reflection measures; and review of existing documentation. The in-person assessment is composed of: interviews of students, faculty, and community representatives; focus groups to be conducted with students and community groups; and bi-weekly classroom observations of service-learning courses. The independent reflection measures are meant to capture journalized reflections of faculty and students, and pre-post surveys of students, faculty, and community representatives. The review of existing documentation will include analysis of syllabi, review of faculty vitae, analysis of institutional reports (admissions data, alumnae surveys, etc.), and activity/contact logs.

Pilot study

During Winter quarter 1996 the comprehensive case study model was piloted in four service-learning courses at Portland State University. These courses were selected to ensure diversity of disciplines, faculty with previous experience in service learning, and variation in the kind of service. The courses being studied include a graphics design course in the School of Fine and Performing Arts, a public health course on programs for children and families in the School of Urban and Public Affairs, a technical writing course in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, and an introductory education course in the School of Education. Graduate research assistants assisted the project team with classroom and community observations, interviews of faculty, students, and community members, and focus groups with students and community members. Students, faculty, and the research assistants maintained reflective journals during the entire quarter.

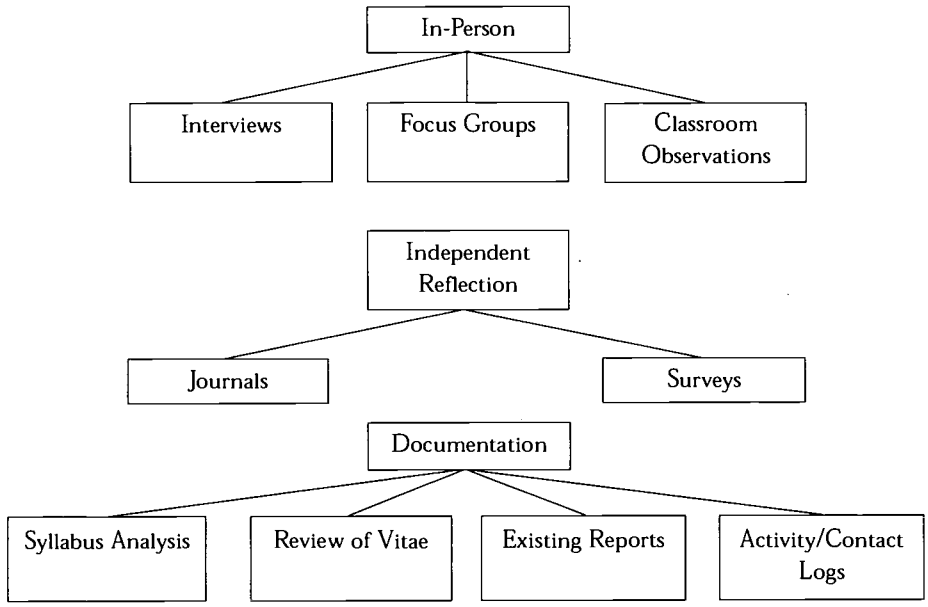
In the process of data collection, it was apparent that most of the assessment strategies were documenting impact for the four constituencies as well as providing formative assessment information, that is, feedback for continuous improvement of service-learning courses. Our classroom observations began to reveal a non-traditional paradigm of teaching in some of the classes. Faculty and student reflections in interviews and focus groups indicated affirmation of the value of service-learning experiences. Those general trends were immediately obvious in the process of collecting data, but there is an enormity of data to be analyzed before drawing final conclusions.

At the time of this writing, data analysis is only partially completed. Preliminary findings from student interview data show support for all of the predicted student impact variables, especially awareness of and involvement with community, self awareness, personal development, academic achievement, sensitivity to diversity, and independence as a learner. Community interviews also support the predicted variables, especially perceived capacity to serve clients, economic benefits, social benefits, new insights about operations, and awareness of PSU. There is strong support for the variable, satisfaction with PSU interactions, and additional related community impact variables emerged from

the data. Analysis of faculty vita indicate that community service teaching experiences have begun to influence scholarship in the form of research, conference presentations, and publications. It would be premature to draw any conclusions at this time, but we are encouraged by results from the partial analysis.

Figure 5

Mechanisms to measure impact



We predict that some of our assessment strategies will provide useful and significant information, and that some of our strategies will not. Our immediate intent is to use the results of our data analysis to refine the case study model for use with more courses during the 1996-97 academic year. Our long-term goal is to produce a practical and valid package of assessment strategies that can be embedded in all of our service-learning courses and adapted for other community service activities.

Summary

A comprehensive case study model of assessment developed at Portland State University responds to the concerns and questions about the impact of service-learning, accommodates the range of constituencies influenced by service learning, and seeks to address the paucity of approaches for measuring service-learning outcomes. In addition, for the PSU community, the case study approach has the potential to support and inform institutional efforts to monitor the role of service-learning in the fulfillment of the urban mission. The model was developed by a team of faculty and administrators, with input from students and community representatives. The case study design is a blend of quantitative and qualitative measures to assess the impact of a service learning course on faculty, students, community, and institution. Although analysis of the case studies is in progress, insights from the design process and from preliminary results have potential value for institutions with similar agendas for service learning and community partnerships.

Note

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Campus Compact Special Report

Advancing our knowledge of the impacts of service learning

What do we really know about the impact of service learning on students, faculty, institutions, and communities? What do we need to know to answer the skeptics and to spread its practice to benefit more campuses and communities? What methodologies should be used in conducting additional research? Equally as important, how should this vital research on the effects of service learning be encouraged and funded?

During the 1990s, the number of service learning courses offered in higher education has proliferated. In 1996, for instance, 75% of Campus Compact member schools offered service learning courses, up from 67% in 1992. Yet despite its growth, many remain unconvinced of the power of this pedagogy. Solid research is one essential ingredient in convincing the academy of the efficacy of service learning in teaching course content and civic skills to students and providing valuable assistance to communities.

Although our knowledge of service learning's effectiveness has exploded during the past decade, it remains very uneven. We know most about the powerful and lasting effects on students and least about its effects on faculty, on institutions, and on the communities being served. Only recently has there been work on the "skills of citizenship" that allows us to measure the impact of service in developing these skills.

In 1997, Campus Compact embarked on an effort to reassess the state of service learning research. Previous efforts were made by the National Society for Experiential Education in 1991 and Campus Compact in 1993. Thus, the Research Advisory Council, comprised of a highly skilled team of college presidents, administrators, service learning practitioners, and researchers, was formed. Its mission is to gather and disseminate current research and to identify the research needed to quantify the effectiveness of service learning upon students, faculty, campuses, and communities.

What follows is the outcome of their meetings in 1997. The first was held in July to develop a plan, the latter in November to identify research priorities as well as gaps in knowledge, and to devise strategic directions for research and specific action steps to carry out the priorities.

This report has been prepared to share the strategic directions with a wide audience in order to gather support for them, to encourage more research, and to learn of studies underway. Campus Compact welcomes your comments and suggestions.

Strategic directions for national research

On November 20, 1997, twenty six invited participants, primarily researchers, gathered in Denver for a two-day meeting hosted by the Education Commission of the States. Under the skilful facilitation of Dwight Giles of Vanderbilt University and Sherril Gelmon of Portland State University, the participants identified top research priorities to advance what is known about service learning and to develop an action plan to implement those priorities.

The participants identified a strong need for new research that not only involves the community as equal partners, but also measures the impact of service learning on a community's well being.

They stated that there are four key constituencies that need to be addressed: community, faculty, institutions, and students as well as the interrelationship among them. The term community is understood to include the K-12 education system. The group supported the use of a variety of research methods. They also cautioned that insufficient attention has been given to date to the sociodemographic factors of race, class, and gender and how they impact service learning.

What follows are twelve research priorities, grouped under common headings, which were identified by the participants in the two-day session. Their individual rank order, in terms of priority, is reflected in the parentheses following each initiative.*

Service learning research priorities

UNDERSTAND COMMUNITY IMPACT

- Investigate and document the community perspective on the impact of service learning. (1)
- Understand all aspects of how and why to involve the community in the "knowledge enterprise." (2)

IDENTIFY SERVICE LEARNING AND ITS IMPACTS

- Identify various forms of service learning and the outcomes expected from them. Define what service learning is supposed to impact. (3)
- Conduct comparative studies of service learning and other pedagogies to learn about the unique outcomes of service learning. (4)
- Clarify the concepts of citizenship and civic engagement. (1)

LEARN FROM HISTORY

- Conduct historical studies of the service learning movement to understand clearly where we have come from, learn from our past mistakes and capitalize upon our successes. (5)

ENCOURAGE THEORY-DRIVEN RESEARCH

- Encourage more theory-driven evaluation and research. (6)
- Review change theories in organizational and community development as research tools for understanding service learning and its institutionalization. (12)

ANALYZE FACULTY ROLES AND REWARDS

- Conduct comprehensive analyses of the faculty role in, and rewards for, service learning. Analyze campus leadership, culture, professional development opportunities, who is and is not involved in service learning. (7)

UNDERSTAND INSTITUTIONAL IMPACT OF SERVICE LEARNING

- Conduct in-depth investigations of campuses that have chosen service learning and civic engagement to reposition themselves. (9)

UNDERSTAND THE IMPACT OF RESEARCH

- Investigate the relationships of research, policy, power, and funding. (10)

*Participants used a weighted voting technique to research establish priorities; participants voted on multiple items and assigned different values to their priority items.

National meeting of service learning research: toward a national strategic plan

Below is the list of those invited to the national meeting on service learning research that was held on November 20 – 21, 1997 in Denver Colorado. Those attending have an asterisk (*) next to their name.

IRWIN ALTMAN*
Professor, University of Utah

ALEXANDER ASTIN*
Professor, University of California—Los Angeles

BENJAMIN BARBER
Director, State University of New Jersey—Rutgers

BROOKE BEAIRD*
Associate Director, Campus Compact

JILL BLAIR
Grantmaker Forum

DALE BLYTHE
Director of Strategic Initiatives, Search Institute

ROBERT BRINGLE*
Director, Indiana University—Purdue University Indianapolis

Barbara Cambridge*
Director of Assessment, American Association for Higher Education

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Campus Compact/Special Report, The Project for Public and Community Service

13

Evaluation and Research

Research Agenda for Combining Service and Learning in the 1990s

Dwight Giles, Ellen Porter Honnet, and Sally Migliore, editors
National Society for Internships and Experiential Education

Significance of developing a service-learning research agenda

In March, 1991, the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (NSIEE) and The Johnson Foundation, with support from the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation, sponsored a conference of more than forty educators, researchers, service learning practitioners, foundation representatives, government officials, students, and staff from national associations at The Johnson Foundation's Wingspread Conference Center to develop a research agenda for service-learning.

The conference resulted from recognition of:

- the growing number of service projects for students, due to increased student and teacher interest, greater community need, and growing political advocacy;
- anecdotal evidence that student community service promotes social responsibility and provides educational benefits; and yet the scarcity of replicable qualitative and quantitative research on the effects of service-learning on student learning and development, on the communities in which students serve, on educational institutions, and on society;
- a renewed emphasis on school reform by education officials who are asking many of the same questions about the relationship of student learning to social responsibility, increased citizen participation, and improved effectiveness in a global society as the service-learning movement grows, and an indication that research on service-learning may be helpful to the more general question of how to improve school effectiveness;
- and the capability of NSIEE,s Research Committee to draw together representatives of many constituencies to help develop the needed service-learning agenda.

Objectives of the service-learning research conference

Important objectives in the development of the research agenda included:

1) to agree on a working definition of service-learning;
2) to identify critical research questions needing further research;
3) to discuss methodological problems of doing service learning research;
4) to develop strategies for encouraging and supporting research on critical questions;
5) to identify ways to expand the dissemination of existing and future research;
6) to encourage action research models through the collaboration of researchers with teachers, community representatives, and students.

Definition of service-learning and research context

Service-learning has been variously defined over the past twenty years, but consistent through the more than one hundred recorded definitions have been assumptions that service-learning is both a program type and a philosophy of education. As a program type, service-learning includes myriad ways that students can perform meaningful service to their communities and to society while engaging in some form of reflection or study that is related to the service. As a philosophy of education, service-learning reflects the belief that education must be linked to social responsibility and that the most effective learning is active and connected to experience in some meaningful way.

One of the characteristics of service-learning that distinguishes it from volunteerism is its balance between the act of community service by participants and reflection on that act, in order both to provide better service and to enhance the participants' own learning. As the Preamble to "Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and

Learning" notes, "service combined with learning adds value to each and transforms both. Those who serve and those who are served are thus able to develop the informed judgment, imagination and skills that lead to a greater capacity to contribute to the common good." (See Appendix.) Service-learning therefore combines a strong social purpose with acknowledgment of the significance of personal and intellectual growth in participants.

This dual emphasis leads to two very different types of research questions--one focusing on the effect on the individual learner, the other on the effect on social institutions. We need to understand more about the relationship of service-learning activities to individual intellectual and moral development. At the same time, we need to understand how service-learning affects individual participants' development of habits of responsible citizenship. Likewise, we need to explore in what ways and to what extent students engage in service which is of direct and real service to the community, but also to understand more about the effect of service-learning on the creation of a democratic society. In a country in which individualism and community, reflection and action are always in creative tension, both research themes need to be explored more fully. This dual exploration is critical because both themes are ultimately linked to the broader relationships between education and citizenship, and between schooling and society.

Although service-learning has some special characteristics, it is a form of experience-based learning, a better-known pedagogy. Research on experiential learning over the past thirty years has focused on employment and training, career development, and personal life skills development and content mastery. Because much of the research has been conducted primarily for purposes of program evaluation, there exist few standardized studies of effects on participants. In addition, research on "real world" learning is particularly complicated. Variables are difficult to identify and define, control or comparison groups are not readily available, and few standardized instruments exist by which to measure program effects. Because students are not usually assigned to programs randomly, there is reduced opportunity to determine causality. Also, since effects on students and on communities take place over time, extensive longitudinal studies are needed. Researchers have typically looked at isolated factors involved in the experiential learning process, focusing primarily on useful issues of practice, not theory. While the result has not been a strong theoretical base, a set of issues rich in their potential to yield important insights about education and societal importance has evolved.

The research questions

Underlying all the specific research questions generated by the Wingspread conference are two broad thematic questions:

1) What is the effect of service-learning on intellectual, moral, and citizenship development of participants?
2) What is the effect of service-learning on the advancement of social institutions and democracy?

These two themes are parallel but differ significantly in focus. The first concerns the individual's ability and willingness to participate in a democratic society, while the second concerns the collective process of building a just and effective society. The following five categories of specific questions about service-learning, developed by participants, reflect these two focuses.

The Participant

What are the general effects of the service-learning experience on the individual student?

- What is the effect of service-learning on students as learners?
- What knowledge do students gain as a result of service learning?
- Does participation in service-learning affect the participant's perception of self and others, prosocial attitudes and behaviors, and view of the world?
- What is the effect of service-learning on participants as citizens?
- Do learner characteristics, such as age, socio-economic status, developmental stage, and family background and support lead to different social developmental outcomes?
- Do different models of service-learning lead to different types of world views, value constructions, or skill development in participants?

The Educational Institution

What is the effect of service- learning on the improvement of the educational system and on specific types of educational institutions?

- What are the outcomes of service-learning which contribute to institutional missions?

- How can service-learning lead to the effective integration of teaching, research, and service?
- How can service-learning be used as a vehicle for reform in areas of teaching effectiveness, curriculum design, teacher training, school mission and structure, and practical use of theories of learning and development?
- How can traditional subjects be taught effectively by incorporating a service-learning component?

The Community

What is the effect of service-learning on community improvement?

- To what extent does service-learning promote multicultural understanding within institutions, communities, and society?
- Does service-learning result in the development of longterm habits of participation in the community?
- What are the benefits and costs for communities as a result of service-learning?
- How does service-learning contribute to the collaborative development of democratic community?

Theoretical Bases

How can service-learning research contribute to the development of theories that can further undergird and illuminate service-learning?

- How can service-learning research contribute to the development of more comprehensive theories of human development?
- How can service-learning research contribute to the development of more comprehensive theories of community development?
- How can service-learning research contribute to the development of more comprehensive theories of epistemology and learning?
- How can human development, community development, and learning theories be used to increase our understanding of effective service-learning?

Program Models

What are the components and outcomes of various models of service-learning?

- Is there a difference in impact on students between programs which use systematic reflection and those that don't?
- What program characteristics have enhanced or deterred the institutionalization of service-learning?
- What program characteristics, such as duration, intensity, content, and mandatory or voluntary participation, promote various outcomes?
- How can service-learning be incorporated effectively into the curriculum at a variety of grade levels and throughout the disciplines?

Methodological issues

Purposes and Audiences

Wingspread participants discussed the need for clarifying the relationship between research purposes and audiences. Below are some examples of different purposes and audiences which might require different methodologies. Although a single study may address all three purposes and audiences, most would in all likelihood be oriented toward one or another, with methodologies varying accordingly.

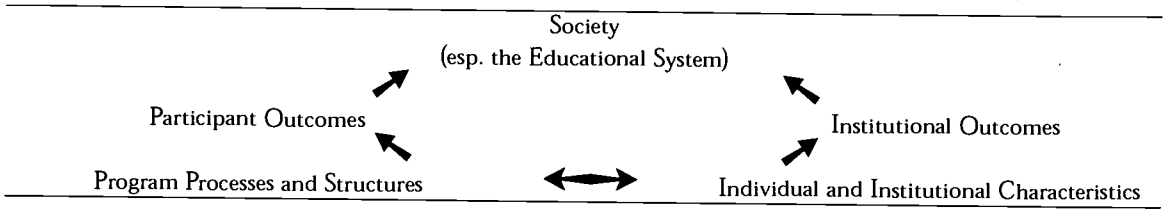
Figure 1

Purposes	Audiences
1.Strengthen program(s) locally	1.Program and academic administrators
2.Illuminate issues of human and community development (emphasis on understanding the interaction of process and outcome)	2.Faculty, program administrators, and community-based supervisors
3.Account for resource expenditure and linkage to institutional mission (emphasis for most is outcome-oriented but process also important)	3. Academic administrators, funders

The Relationship of Research to Practice

Research can never inform the practice of service-learning with precision because practice is so divergent. However research can benefit service-learning programs by yielding information about relationships between the variables involved in service-learning. While there are some inherent difficulties in applying current methodologies derived from the social sciences to practical problems, they nonetheless can be valuable tools for answering questions about cause and effect. The following chart organizes some of the variables implied by such questions:

Figure 2
Variables in Research on Service-Learning



The chart illustrates potential causal connections among variables. For example, program processes and institutional characteristics can have a direct effect on institutional or participant outcomes, which in turn can indirectly affect society. This chart can also be useful in organizing questions which combine an interest in cause-effect questions with other types of queries. Some research may focus on who participates in service-learning; what institutions sponsor it; how programs are structured; and how service-learning affects participants, sponsoring institutions, and the larger society. More ambitious studies might examine relations among these classes of variables (e.g., "How does participation in a tutoring program affect math and science majors' commitment to social justice?'~. However, studies concentrating on just one class of variables are also useful (e.g., "What are the varieties of service-learning found in American secondary schools and colleges?"). Note that "participants" can include both service-learners and acquirers of services, just as "institutions" can include both educational and community institutions.

Like most educational research, the above model is a social science model. In the short run, use of a traditional social science model is probably necessary in order to connect service-learning to the larger body of educational research. At the same time it is important to strive to incorporate other models and to develop new ones which will enable us to study service-learning comprehensively. For example, program outcomes related to value and ethical issues might benefit from methods derived from historical or philosophical approaches to research. Such research might form the basis for linking education and service to the concerns of contemporary American society. Development of new approaches is also needed in order to understand subtle effects which may appear weak or unmeasurable in currently used social science methods. Taken together, quantitative and qualitative methodologies can help researchers think about how their studies fit into a larger research enterprise and can suggest approaches for combining results from individual studies.

Service-learning research and the education improvement agenda

It is important that service-learning research be linked to the current discussion of the President's and Governors' national education goals because the hypothesized outcomes of service-learning may turn out to be crucial in helping to meet these goals.

The purpose of the national goals is to develop a knowledgeable, well-trained, competent, and responsible citizenry able to learn and develop new skiffs throughout their lives (from Introduction to National Goals for Education, 1990). The research questions outlined earlier in this document may help us to understand some of the variables involved in the attainment of several of the national goals: increasing graduation rates; enhancing subject matter competency; expanding literacy; and promoting citizenship as wen as multicultural and global understanding.

Since the mid 1980s, educational reform efforts have focused on fundamentally rethinking and restructuring the process of teaching and learning. At the center of current educational reform is attention to student outcomes-the knowledge and skills we want students to have as a result of their education. Service-learning may be shown to be an effective method of teaching which improves student learning through involvement in the community and through critical reflection on what is being learned in the service experience. Research may show that service-learning pro-

grams contribute to a reshaping of the curriculum by actively engaging students in their learning and by motivating them toward achievement of the knowledge and skills represented by the national goals. Research which can lead to greater understanding of the complexities involved when service-learning is integrated into the curriculum may therefore result in improved methods of teaching and more effective student learning.

Strategies for encouraging and supporting research

While it is necessary to ask significant research questions, it is more important to develop strategies for encouraging and supporting the research resulting in their answers. Among the suggestions coming from participant discussions were:

1) Researchers need help in writing research questions that are attractive to major universities, disciplinary groups, regional and national organizations, and funding sources.
2) Writers of grant proposals for service-learning programs need encouragement from funders to build research components into their projects.
3) The definition of "potential researchers" needs to be enlarged to include faculty, teachers, program directors and practitioners, research organizations, graduate students,undergraduate students, students in elementary and high schools, national and international youth service organizations, and national educational associations.
4) Researchers need encouragement to acquaint their colleagues with opportunities for doing service-learning research not only through professional associations but informally as well.
5) Service-learning research, with modest funding from the Federal government or foundations, could benefit from a research council composed of researchers, practitioners, and students. Such a council could:
   - act as a catalyst for the submission of research proposals;
   - coordinate research by promoting collaboration among funders, researchers, and practitioners;
   - encourage the business, government, and education sectors to support service-learning research;
   - respond to issues related to quality that are important to funders.

Disseminating research

There is an existing body of research about service-learning that needs to be identified, defined, and disseminated. As a first step, inventories of current research, including program practices and evaluation, need to be done. These reviews would build on the existing inventories identified by conference participants.

Although universities or organizations could undertake such dissemination independently, a national clearinghouse to provide technical assistance for disseminating current research and stimulating new research is particularly attractive. The National and Community Service Act of 1990 recognizes such a need by designating funds for the establishment of regional clearinghouses. The National Resource Center for Experiential and Service Learning, housed at the NSIEE headquarters, could readily be upgraded into such a resource. The Experiential Education Research Network (TEERN), now being developed by the NSIEE Research Committee, could include service learning research as well.

Because the needs for information and assistance vary considerably by constituency, from elementary school teachers to national policymakers, multiple vehicles for dissemination need to be identified and used. These would include newsletters of national educational organizations, conference presentations, computer networks, and inclusion in computerized data bases for literature searches.

Creating partnerships between researchers and practitioners

Wingspread participants emphasized the need for partnerships between researchers and practitioners for a variety of reasons, from solving community problems more effectively to democratizing expertise, and from encouraging schools to being more involved in their communities to serving as a form of community development. Most important, problem-oriented collaborative research was seen as a particularly suitable methodology for the complex questions raised by the conference. This approach would lead to better research by helping us learn more about community settings as well as program outcomes. Moreover, partnerships between researchers and practitioners would result in better practice and better theory.

The following suggestions for creating effective partnerships came from discussion of participants:

1) Focus on questions that are mutually beneficial to researchers and the communities in which projects are

being done, using significant local problems as a context or focus.

2) Create research teams which represent colleges and universities, schools, and community organizations. Ensure that appropriate representatives and leaders from these sectors are involved from the initial planning through the project's completion.
3) Encourage all involved in the research project to maintain a focus on the larger questions as well as on the immediate issues in the community.
4) Build in adequate time for planning so that the needs of the community group can be thoroughly assessed.
5) Recognize that parties involved have different needs, interests, and stakes.
6) Encourage scholars and practitioners to consider partnership opportunities for intellectual and career renewal.

Helpful resources

RATIONALES AND PROGRAM MODELS

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Delve, Cecilia I., Suzanne Mintz, and Greig M. Stewart, ed. 1990. *Community Service as Values Education.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers.

Kendall, Jane C., ed. 1990. *Combining Service and Learning: A Resource Book for Community and Public Service, Volumes I and II.* Raleigh, NC: National Society for Internships and Experiential Education.

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PRINCIPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE

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Conrad, Dan, and Diane Hedin. 1989. *High School Community Service: A Review of Research and Programs.* Madison, WI: National Center on Effective Secondary Schools.

RESEARCH NETWORK

The Experiential Educational Research Network (TEERN). For information contact Dwight Giles, Senior Lecturer, Field and International Study Programs, Cornell University, 170 MVR, Ithaca, NY 14853,607-255-6579.

Appendix

PRINCIPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE FOR COMBINING SERVICE AND LEARNING

The "Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning" resulted from extensive consultation with more than 70 organizations interested in service and learning by the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (NSIEE). In May, 1989, a small advisory group met at the Wingspread Conference Center in Racine, Wisconsin, to compose the Preamble and the language of the ten Principles.

Preamble: We are a nation founded upon active citizenship and participation in community fife. We have always believed that individuals can and should serve.

It is crucial that service toward the common good be combined with reflective learning to assure that service programs of high quality can be created and sustained over time, and to help individuals appreciate how service can be a significant and ongoing part of life. Service, combined with learning, adds value to each and transforms both.

Those who serve and those who are served are thus able to develop the informed judgment, imagination, and skills that lead to a greater capacity to contribute to the common good.

The Principles that follow are a statement of what we believe are essential components of good practice. We invite you to use them in the context of your particular needs and purposes.

The following is a list of the principles as well as some examples of how they are being implemented in various programs throughout the country (see "Helpful Resources" on page 22 of this report for reference to the full document).

1) An effective program engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good.
An example: College students from the United States help create a local primary school in Liberia; students in Ecuador work with foster and abandoned children; students in England care for mentally and physically handicapped persons; and in Jamaica, they work at a Human Rights Center and in literacy projects. In each of these cases, students are matched up with professional staff members of local agencies through the Partnership for Service-Learning, New York City.

2) An effective program provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience.
An example: As part of "Project Motivation" at the YMCA of the University of Minnesota, students are paired with 4th and 6th graders in need of "big buddies." Volunteers attend a retreat at the beginning of the program, and meet biweekly throughout the school year. They are assisted by school social workers who help them learn more about issues related to their work as volunteers and lead them in discussions of problems and successes they are having with their "little buddies."

3) An effective program articulates clear service and learning goals for everyone involved.
An example: Students from Hinesburg, Vermont, in the Champlain Valley Union High School DUO (Do Unto Others) service program design a learning program with their school supervisor and the agency in which they'll serve. This is done during each student's interview for the service opportunity. Activities and goals are agreed upon by all parties at that time, and are used in the evaluation process throughout the experience.

4) An effective program allows for those with needs to define those needs.
An example: The Murray State University YMCA in Murray, Kentucky, held a college day for sixth graders. After a full day of participating in classes, recreation, and meals, the sixth grade guests were given a needs assessment to identify what they felt to be critical needs and issues of their peers. Together with college student volunteers, they developed a plan for several program activities.

5) An effective program clarifies the responsibilities of each person and organization involved.
An example: Some business people and lawyers, in cooperation with a local Chicago youth agency (the Centre, Inc.), helped a group of urban young people follow through on their idea to organize a small storefront office supply business. Clear divisions of responsibilities were set out for all those involved. The business people and lawyers consulted with agency staff and advised the youth, who actually ran the business. The young people involved gained valuable skills and enhanced their sense of self worth and alternatives for their futures.

6) An effective program matches service providers and service needs through a process that recognizes changing circumstances.
An example: Hospital Auxiliary Aids in a midwestern community conduct a review after the first two weeks of volunteer service and monthly thereafter to be certain that the volunteer is comfortable in that position and is meeting the hospital's service expectations. In some cases, volunteers who have been assigned to emergency room admissions find that they would be more comfortable working in the gift shop; after working with people in the out-patient admissions area for several months, a volunteer may discover a gift for consoling families and may be placed in the hospice program.

7) An effective program expects genuine, active, and sustained organizational commitment.
An example: The Community Volunteer Center in Albion, Michigan, provides clerical and computer support, a meeting place, information, technical assistance, and training to meet a wide range of needs for volunteer organizations. Their program helps new volunteer organizations get started, and encourages support and participation within the community for both adult and student volunteers.

8) An effective program includes training, supervision, monitoring, support, recognition, and evaluation to meet service and learning goals.
An example: At Stanford University's Ravenswood tutoring project, tutors are required to take a one-day training session. Staff of the Tutoring Program provide students with support and resources to plan effective tutorials. Student Tutor Coordinators act as liaisons between teachers and tutors in each school. Stanford's Education Department offers a 2-4 unit course in tutor training; teachers from the Ravenswood schools lead math and reading workshops throughout the year; on campus there is a Tutor Resource Center and a monthly newsletter called Tutoring Times.

9) An effective program insures that the time commitment for service and learning is flexible, appropriate, and in the best interests of all involved.
An example: The Mellon Volunteer Professionals (MVP) Retiree Group generally places people in short-term projects without long-term, on-going commitments to a specific task in order to accommodate participants' travel and lifestyle schedules. Volunteers work on events such as intergenerational fairs, special events, and development campaigns for local non-profit organizations.

10) An effective program is committed to program participation by and with diverse populations.
An example: A group of largely Asian and Latino students in the "Learning Through Service" program in seven San Francisco area high schools perform after-school community service in their own ethnic communities. These students, many of whom were initially reluctant to volunteer, noted at a recent recognition luncheon that they had come to discover, in their own words, "the great rewards of serving."

Participants from the Wingspread Conference

Sponsored by the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education in cooperation with The Johnson Foundation, with support from the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation. The Wingspread Conference was held March 7 – 10, 1991 in Racine, Wisconsin.

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Appendix I

Service-Learning Instruments

Service learning instruments

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Appendix

Appendix II:

COMMUNITY SERVICE-LEARNING WEBSITES

National service-learning organizations

Several organizations offer annual conferences such as the National Society for Experiential Education. Please contact each organization about these options. Also, there are several organizations that you may want to contact or receive their publications since they are actively involved with integrating service into the college curriculum.

The National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE), founded in 1971, is an educational association that promotes and supports the effective use of learning through experience for students' academic achievement, civic and social responsibility, cross-cultural awareness, and ethical, leadership, and career development. Through NSEE educators, practitioners, policy makers, researchers, and business and community leaders gain access to vital information on best practices and innovations in experience-based learning, and participate in a national forum for the development, expansion, and improvement of their work. NSEE's work encompasses a wide spectrum of experiential approaches to teaching and learning, including service-learning, civic education, internships, school-to-work, cooperative education, and active learning in the classroom. NSEE provides training and technical assistance through on-site consulting, professional and leadership development institutes, national and regional conferences, publications, and a national clearinghouse.

The National Society for Experiential Education probably has the longest standing commitment to service learning. They have several publications as well as listservs, newsletters, and a national conference. The American Association for Higher Education has a new service learning initiative that will result in publications over the next few years. The University of Michigan Center for Learning through Service releases a journal that you may want to subscribe called the Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning. The University of Georgia began publishing the Journal of Public Service and Outreach in 1996, which often contains articles on service- learning.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES (AACC)
Service Learning Clearinghouse
One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 410
Washington, DC 20036-1176
Phone: (202) 728-0200
Fax: (202) 833-2467
Email: aacc@aacc.nche.edu

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION (AAHE)
One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 360
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 293-6440
Fax: (202) 293-0073
Email: aahela@gwuvm

AMERICAN COLLEGE PERSONNEL ASSOCIATION (ACPA)
One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 300
Washington, DC 20036-1110
Phone: (202) 835-2272
Fax: (202) 296-3286
Email: info@acpa.nche.edu

CAMPUS COMPACT: THE PROJECT FOR PUBLIC AND COMMUNITY SERVICE
c/o Brown University
Box 1975
Providence, RI 02912
Phone: (401) 863-1119
Fax: (401) 863-3779
Email: campus@compact.org

CAMPUS OUTREACH OPPORTUNITY LEAGUE (COOL)
1511 K St., NW, Suite 307
Washington, DC 20005
Phone: (202) 637-7004
Fax: (202) 637-7021
Email: homeoffice@cool2serve.org

CORPORATION FOR NATIONAL AND COMMUNITY SERVICE
1201 New York Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20525
Phone: (202) 606-5000
Fax: (202) 565-2781

Council of Independent Colleges (CIC)
One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 320
Washington, DC 20036-1110
Phone: (202) 466-7230
Fax: (202) 466-7238

National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA)
1875 Connecticut Ave, NW, Suite 418
Washington, DC 20009
Phone: (202) 265-7500
Fax: (202) 797-1157
Email: office@naspa.org

National Service-Learning Cooperative/Clearinghouse
c/o University of Minnesota
R-290 VoTech Ed Building
1954 Buford Ave.
St. Paul, MN 55108
Phone: (800) 808-7378
Fax: (612) 625-6277
Email: serve@maroon.tc.umn.edu

National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE)
3509 Haworth Drive, Suite 207
Raleigh, NC 27609-7229
Phone: (919) 787-3263
Fax: (919) 787-3381
Email: nsee@netstart.net
http://www.nsee.org

Partnership for Service Learning
815 Second Ave, Suite 315
New York, NY 10017-4594
Phone: (212) 986-4594
Fax: (212) 986-5039

United Negro College Fund (UNCF)
8260 Willow Oaks Corporate Drive
Fairfax, VA 22031-4511
Phone: (703) 205-3400
Fax: (703) 205-3574

Appendix

Appendix III

Community Service-Learning Organizations

The CSF Service-Learning Page
http://csf.colorado.edu/sl/
This page provides articles, resource links, and discussion groups revolving around the issue of service-learning. There are useful links for educators at all levels as well as notification of pertinent conferences and events within the academic community.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Service-Learning: Higher Education Links
http://www.nicsl.coled.umn.edu/links/hied.htm
The ERIC page provides educational information regarding community service. Their list of higher education links is a useful resource in finding service-learning organizations.

Partnership for Service-Learning
http://www.studyabroad.com/psl/pslhome.html
This page offers information on International service-learning programs provided by the organization. It explains the details of the program as well as financial and academic considerations.

Campus Compact National Center for Community Colleges
http://www.mc.maricopa.edu/academic/compact
A resource aimed at Community Colleges, Campus Compact is a membership organization which encourages community service on the part of students, faculty, and staff at colleges across the country. Their website provides links and publication resources on the issue of community service-learning.

American Association of Community Colleges Service-learning Program
http://www.aacc.nche.edu/spcproj/service/service.htm
Provides links, workshops, and general information on the AACC's Service-Learning Program.

Service-Learning Research and Development Center
http://www-gse.berkeley.edu/research/slc/service learning.html
Information on what service-learning is, provides National and California service-learning resource links, and highlights UC-Berkeley's Service-Learning Center.

Corporation for National Service
http://www.cns.gov/
Provides information on National service projects like Americorps, Learn & Serve, and Senior Corps.

The Big Dummy's Guide to Service-Learning
http://www.fiu.edu/~time4chg/Library/bigdummy.html
A guide to faculty and program issues involved in community service-learning. The site chooses a collection of questions and concerns, and then provides ideas on how to combat those concerns.

Citizenship and Service Education Homepage
http://www.scils.rutgers.edu/case/case.html
Examines the details of the CASE Program and provides useful community service links. Also provides information on national and international service-learning programs, and internship and grant information.

Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL)
http://www.cool2serve.org
COOL is a non-profit organization that works to improve community service programs on college campuses. This site provides information on their programs, as well as other national community service-learning programs.

American Association of Higher Education
http://www.aahe.org/service/srv-lrn.htm
Provides information on the AAHE's multi-year initiative for community service-learning. This document highlights the goals and methods of their initiative.

The Invisible College
http://www-adm.pdx.edu/user/invcol/ic.htm
The Invisible College is a network of staff and faculty and various colleges and universities who are attempting to more fully integrate community service-learning programs into college curriculum. This page outlines their ideas and provides national community service-learning links.

National Society for Experiential Education
http://www.nsee.org
Looks at different experiential education programs including service-learning, internships, school-to-work programs, and other programs designed to bring students into their communities.

Quest International
http://www.quest.edu
Provides educators with resources and information designed to help them organize and maintain community service-learning programs.

San Francisco Urban Institute
http://www.sfsu.edu/~urbins/projects/ocsl/ocsl.html
This page is for the Office of Community Service at the San Francisco Urban Institute. It not only provides information on the service projects at the Institute but also provides links to other California resources for service-learning.

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