



CURRENTS IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

VOL. 7 NO. 1, FALL 2014

EDITORIAL	Service-Learning as Social Change: Does Higher Education Have a Larger Purpose? Joyce Mandell, Mark Wagner, and Ana Pérez-Manrique	1
ESSAYS	Empowering Communities or Reproducing Stereotypes: Negotiating Power and Knowledge in Service-Learning Involving Youth Ahmed Allahwala, Jessica Mustachi, Keli Bellaire, and Kim Leah Yuyitung	6
	Service-Learning with Students of Color, Working Class and Immigrant Students: Expanding a Popular Pedagogical Model Vivian Price, Gregory Lewis, and Vanessa Lopez	23
	Benefits and Best Practices: Service-Learning in Counselor Education Nathan Gehlert, Andrew Graf, and Lauren Rose	37
	Using Goal-Based Learning to Understand Why Service-Learning Improves Cognitive Outcomes Pamela Steinke and Peggy Fitch	50
	Utilizing Critical Service-Learning Pedagogy in the Online Classroom: Promoting Social Justice and Effecting Change? Evan Ashworth and Tiffany Bourelle	64
TEACHING REPORTS	Who is Being Served by Academic Service-Learning? Distinctions from the Public Liberal Arts College Jamie White-Farnham and Jenice Meyer	80
	Howard University Service-Learning Projects Arvilla Payne-Jackson, Ajeenah Haynes, and Kathy Scott	89
	'A Lot of Life Ahead': Connecting College Students with Youth in Juvenile Justice Settings through Service-Learning Michelle Inderbitzin	100
	Reducing Stigma through Contact: Three Examples from the Sociology of Mental Illness Helen Rosenberg	108
	Good Sociology and Good Service-Learning: Designing a Collaborative Relationship to Accomplish Mutual Goals Dana Walsh and Heather Perry	117
	Utilizing Critical Service-Learning to Ease College Transitions Karen M. Ganss and LeeAnn Baker	131
	Introducing Service-Learning in International Student Education: In Response to John Eby on 'Why Service-Learning is Bad' Julie Miller	143



CURRENTS IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

VOL. 7 NO. 1, FALL 2014

TEACHING REPORTS	Multimodality in the Service-Learning Classroom Chip Duncan and Karen Forgette	156
CURRENT CLIPS & LINKS	Websites Related to Teaching and Learning Shannon Curran and Ana Pérez-Manrique	166
BOOK REVIEWS	The DNA of Effective Service and Civic Engagement Mark Wagner	167
	Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal's <i>Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership</i> Shelley Nicholson	170
THE BACK PAGE	About Us, Subscriptions, Submissions, Inquiries	174

Service-Learning as Social Change: Does Higher Education Have a Larger Purpose?

Joyce Mandell, Mark Wagner, and Ana Pérez-Manrique

This special edition of *Currents in Teaching and Learning* points a wide-angle lens on the pedagogy of service-learning. In 2008, the Association of American Colleges and Universities identified service-learning, or community-based learning, as a key high-impact educational practice. The growth of service-learning centers at university campuses nationwide and an increasing body of research, supported in part through the International Association for Research on Service-learning and Community Engagement, indicates further growth in American higher education. Despite the current promise of this pedagogy to teach about and address social inequities, the future of service-learning is not assured or clear. Developments in digital educational technology and the “culture of assessment,” drivers of current higher-education theory and practice, minimize practices associated with social justice and new learning.

The articles presented here provide a view of theory and practice of service-learning that may clarify some issues while raising further questions about others: It is acceptable for service-learning students to pass out food at a local food bank. Would it still be acceptable if students organized collectively with community members to build a community garden or to fight for livable wages? We count student hours as service in the community. Will we also begin to “count” the teaching hours our community partners provide our students in the field? Can we begin to see community as teacher, not just as an effective practice, but as one with the promise of bringing about social change? Universities can show a strong commitment to service-learning by providing the resources and staffing for service-learning centers and by recognizing service-learning faculty through promotion and tenure decisions. Can we restructure higher education—particularly public higher education—in ways that give faculty the time and research support to effectively guide students as they engage with community partners and governmental structures?

Several articles in this volume promote the use of critical service-learning, where students work to understand and change fundamental structural inequalities. Students also come to see how privilege is often shaped by the complex interplay of race, class, gender, and other factors. Instead of a “feel good” activity in which students simply help the poor, critical service-learning for social change becomes an uncomfortable activity as students and communities ask deeper questions about power, knowledge and unequal distri-

bution of resources. As co-editors of this volume and proponents of critical service-learning pedagogy, we see service-learning as a key vehicle for student and community transformation and offer these essays as a way to disseminate information about effective practice and to provoke collective discussions, both locally and globally.

Those who design service-learning course components must be fully aware of the unspoken power assumptions which promote the university as the center of knowledge in addressing community problems and downplays the power of experiential knowledge communities bring to the table. Part of the deeper learning requires a full assessment of how power and privilege can reinforce negative stereotypes of the community and the university. In “Empowering Communities or Reproducing Stereotypes: Negotiating Power and Knowledge in Service-Learning Involving Youth,” Ahmed Allahwala, Jessica Mustachi, Keli Bellaire, and Kim Leah Yuyitung give the readers a case study of how co-researchers, community youth, and college students can work together as equal partners to assess neighborhood safety and violence. Service-learning encounters offer continuous opportunities to negotiate the questions of who has power and knowledge, and what kinds of power and knowledge they have. From planning to implementation, the participants were very conscious to research process decision making power between the instructor and community partners, between the instructor and university students, and between university students and community youth. Even the writing of this article demonstrates the equal importance of each partner in the knowledge creation of this project, since the authors include community partners, a student, and the professor of the course.

On a similar note regarding power and class relations, most of the literature on service-learning focuses on the experiences of middle class white college students encountering low income community members.

In “Service-Learning with Students of Color, Working Class and Immigrant Students: Expanding a Popular Pedagogical Model,” authors Vivian Price, Gregory Lewis, and Vanessa Lopez ask the reader to consider the impact of service-learning on low-income, first-generation students of color. Service-learning has often attracted middle-class students who live on campus, who do not have to work full-time, and who have limited outside family responsibilities. For immigrant students, there may be additional obstacles because their families may not see the connection between “service” and the cultivation of real world professional skills and, thus, may not support their children’s engagement in service-learning. The authors describe a labor studies practicum class with a service-learning component that entailed organizing a large scale social justice fair on campus. This service-learning had multiple benefits for low income, first generation students in the practicum: learning network and organizing skills, enhancing student cultural and social capital, and increasing awareness of roots of social inequality.

In our third essay, “Benefits and Best Practices: Service-Learning in Counselor Education,” Nathan Gehlert, Andrew Graf, and Lauren Rose make the case that service-learning has increasingly become a part of counselor education curricula and this trend should be encouraged and supported. The essay gives a dynamic overview of service-learning in counselor education and presents reasons as to why service learning and the helping professions are a natural fit. While service-learning has often focused on social issues such as poverty and literacy, the authors present ethical, theoretical, and empirical justifications for incorporating service-learning in counselor education as a way to build multicultural competence, self-awareness, and understanding of counseling techniques and theories. In this context, service-learning also serves as a robust pre-practicum training tool for exposing students to

real-life situations and pre-professional practice in an area that has grown substantially in recent years.

In “Using Goal-Based Learning to Understand Why Service-Learning Improves Cognitive Outcomes,” Pamela Steinke and Peggy Fitch pose what might be considered the crux of the problem when contemplating service-learning: it should not surprise us if faculty is reluctant to invest time and energy into new programs or teaching strategies if the implementation might lead to ineffective or even harmful teaching. How do we know that service-learning is an effective teaching tool? Steinke and Fitch suggest that one of the main reasons high-quality service-learning is so successful is its inherent incorporation of Goal-Based Learning (GBL). Their essay illuminates how GBL needs to be relevant to the student and how students genuinely care about achieving for reasons that go beyond external factors such as grades.

Traditional service-learning, in which students provide top-down service in the form of “charity,” is in direct contrast to critical service-learning, where students come to understand structural inequalities in order to challenge the *status quo*. The authors of our final essay, Evan Ashworth and Tiffany Bourelle, not only advocate the importance of the latter social-justice style of service-learning, but in their essay, “Utilizing Critical Service-Learning Pedagogy in the Online Classroom: Promoting Social Justice and Effecting Change?,” they promote the benefits of online critical service-learning or e-learning, which enables students to go beyond face to face community groups to work on a global level with activist groups worldwide. Though the ultimate goal of critical service-learning is for students to address social inequalities and understand the root causes of social problems, the authors argue that even if students only begin to develop awareness of these issues by the end of the course, they have at least been given a good start that may lead to deeper learn-

ing. As professors dedicated to critical service-learning pedagogy, we must start by knowing our students.

Continuing with our first teaching report, in “Who is Being Served by Academic Service-Learning? Distinctions from the Public Liberal Arts College,” Jamie White-Farnham and Jenice Meyer showcase a project that challenges the interrelation of power structure, class division, and disenfranchised communities that is often associated with service-learning. In this particular case, the students *are* the community, and they assist “the very agencies that they rely on and will be charged with the care and advancement of, as employees, when they graduate.” The project, embedded in a business and professional writing course, is designed to meet several student learning outcomes, such as engaging in research, adapting communication across audiences and contexts, working collaboratively, and producing functioning texts in real-life settings.

In “Howard University Service-Learning Projects,” our next teaching report, Arvilla Payne-Jackson, Ajeenah Haynes, and Kathy Scott outline two decades of a wide array of service-learning projects addressing various issues such as literacy, domestic violence, and the reintegration of ex-offenders. Their report provides an overview of select projects conducted in undergraduate and graduate level anthropology courses at Howard University with an emphasis on the implementation processes and reciprocal impact that service-learning has on students and the communities in which they engage.

Michelle Inderbitzin writes of her experience partnering with state agencies in an effort to engage current college students and connect them with troubled youth in “A Lot of Life Ahead’: Connecting College Students with Youth in Juvenile Justice Settings through Service-Learning.” Some potential benefits of this partnership include that delinquent youth may begin to see other futures as a possibility and the college students may realize heightened per-

sonal development and social engagement arising from contact. Throughout her study Inderbitzin supplies quotations and reflections from her students that show their broadening understanding of social issues involving juvenile justice and issues of inequality.

Also aware of the difficulties in teaching students about marginalized and stigmatized groups, Helen Rosenberg has designed and incorporated into her courses several service-learning projects, three of them described in “Reducing Stigma through Contact: Three Examples from the Sociology of Mental Illness.” Through these various projects, following a three-step process that requires preparation, contact, and reflection, the author aims to reduce stigma, develop awareness, and modify people’s views towards those suffering from a mental illness. These projects’ outcomes also include developing the ability to connect theory with reality and gaining competence in effective collaboration.

As critical service-learning sociologists, in our next teaching report Dana Walsh and Heather Perry describe a social policy course they designed with three learning goals: to move students from individual to societal explanations for poverty, to promote critical inquiry, and to increase students’ awareness of social-justice issues. In “Good Sociology and Good Service-Learning: Designing a Collaborative Relationship to Accomplish Mutual Goals,” the authors compare the use of multiple partner stakeholders with the use of just one community agency and invite us to consider the positives and negatives of both types of association.

Acknowledging the benefits of service-learning projects to the community, Karen M. Ganss and LeeAnn Baker explore in “Utilizing Critical Service-Learning to Ease College Transitions” the positive impact that the implementation of these critical service-learning projects had on a particular student body, first-year honor students. In this teaching report, the authors describe their project, “Morning of Service,” which was “designed to create social connections between new

students, to develop leadership skills in site leaders, to introduce values of the school to new students, to promote critical service-learning, and to foster a sense of service in the local community.” Ast and Baker argue that initiatives like this one can improve student retention and graduation rates.

In “Introducing Service-Learning in International Student Education: In Response to John Eby on ‘Why Service-Learning is Bad,’” Julie Miller weighs the opportunities and limitations of integrating service-learning in the coursework of international students who spend one or two semesters at U.S. universities. Besides offering an opportunity to improve their language skills and establish connections with local communities, the author argues, service-learning projects can help the international students’ understanding of social issues and social structure in the U.S. and ultimately lead towards an empowerment mindset. However, as data collected through students’ blogs and surveys reveal, limitations such as the possibility of feeding into stereotypes and paternalistic attitudes also exist. After exploring both sides of the issue, the author suggests three key steps to maximize the benefits and make service-learning a meaningful experience.

Last but not least, in our final teaching report, “Multimodality in the Service-Learning Classroom,” authors Chip Duncan and Karen Forgette, cite the challenges of designing methods of reflection that improve students’ ability to connect the service-learning content with the classroom components of the course. In a world where engaged citizens with dynamic relationships must also navigate and evaluate different forms of multimedia, they advocate going beyond the written word for students to focus on “multimodality”: the use of images and alternative media in their reflective activism. In the authors’ first-year service-learning composition course, they taught students how to use multimodality tools (photo essays, digital presentations, podcasts, blogs, videos, music, and even dance) as a way

to reflect on their service and course learning. Duncan and Forgette also provide clear assessment guidelines to evaluate student work for professors who wish to incorporate multimodality in courses.

As always, we close this editorial by expressing our sincere gratitude to the whole team behind the scenes--referees, copyeditors, APA reviewers, and web experts. Farewell and a heartfelt thank you to two key collaborators of *Currents* since its very early days: Sean Goodlett, our book-review editor, who is moving on to a new adventure after seven years of continuous support and hard work; and our dear Ruth Haber, referee, copyeditor, and Advisory Board member. We wish them the best in all their future professional and personal endeavors. Also, in no particular order, thank you to Frederick Dotolo, Stephanie Chalupka, Pennie Ticen, Jim Henry, Tom Conroy, Colby King, Pamela Ludemann, Vincent Ferraro, Micki Davis, Erika Briesacher, Jesse Kavadlo, Don Vescio, Kim Hicks, Maria Fung, John Chetro-Szivos, MaryLyn Saul, Amanda Wittman, Christina Bebas, Jennifer Schulz, Bonnie Kanner, Josna Rege, Ramon Borges-Mendez, Aimee Lutz, Matthew Johnsen, Nathan Dickman, Rahim Al-Kaleem, David Marlow, Fatima Serra, Aeron Haynie, Mariana Cecilia Calle, Elizabeth Duclos-Orsello, Amy Ebbeson, James Bailey, Jennifer Berg, Mary-Ellen Boyle, Kisha Tracy, Brandi Silver, Francisco Vivoni, Ruth Haber, Dan Shartin, Charles Cullum, Cleve Wiese, Amy West, and Karl Wurst. Finally, thank you, congratulations, and good luck to our editorial assistant, Shannon Curran, who completed her graduate studies this past December.

We hope you enjoy the issue. 

Empowering Communities or Reproducing Stereotypes: Negotiating Power and Knowledge in Service-Learning Involving Youth

Ahmed Allahwala, Jessica Mustachi, Keli Bellaire, and Kim Leah Yuyitung

Abstract

If not designed with critical attention to the uneven distribution of institutional and individual power between university, community, and project participants, service-learning initiatives run the risk of reinforcing the belief that institutionalized knowledge carries more weight than community-based forms of knowing. Especially when working in marginalized communities or with vulnerable populations, failing to address dynamics of power, privilege, and oppression may lead to the reproduction of negative stereotypes and assumptions about the community in which the project takes place. Based on our collective experience as partners and participants in a service-learning project around issues of community safety and violence involving youth, we discuss both challenges and opportunities for critical service-learning and strategies to engage in processes of self-reflection and the creative debunking of negative stereotypes.

Keywords

Service-learning, critical pedagogy, participatory action research, community engagement, youth

Introduction

Universities are increasingly encouraging instructors to incorporate service-learning pedagogies or other forms of community-based learning into their teaching practice. Often, these community-based courses are taught in neighborhoods that are considered ‘underserved’ or otherwise ‘in need,’ so they run the risk of reinforcing paternalistic attitudes and negative stereotypes (Cipolle, 2004; Hess, Lanig, & Vaughan, 2007; Marullo & Edwards, 2000; Pompa, 2002). In fact, many service-learning initiatives are built on the implicit assumption that a marginalized community and its various institutional actors – non-profit organizations, social-service providers, or resident groups – could benefit from the engagement of university students, and particularly the knowledge situated within the university setting. From the outset, these initiatives between the university, community, and social-service providers are often built on differ-

Ahmed Allahwala is a Senior Lecturer in the City Studies Program at the University of Toronto Scarborough (UTSC). He holds a Ph.D. in Political Science from York University in Toronto and his research focuses on urban social policy, planning, and community development in Canada. He teaches a wide variety of courses on issues including urban planning, urban politics, and community-based research.

Jessica Mustachi is the Safety Coordinator at METRAC. She trains both adults and youth in how to conduct safety audits in their neighbourhoods and works with a wide range of community organizations and government officials to create safer communities and cities. She holds an MSc in Health, Community and Development from the London School of Economics and Political Science.

Keli Bellaire is a Housing Counsellor at Jessie’s Centre. She previously worked at METRAC as the Youth Program Coordinator. She has been working with youth in Halifax and Toronto for more than 10 years.

Kim Leah Yuyitung was a UTSC undergraduate student participating in the service-learning project outlined in this paper and a graduate of the University of Toronto. She is a longtime Scarborough resident and an active community member working with children and families living in and around the Kingston-Galloway/Orton Park neighborhood.

ing understandings of the location of knowledge and power, and an uneven access to material and intellectual resources. The common belief that institutionalized knowledge carries more validity and power than the experiential knowledge of communities can greatly affect community-based service-learning initiatives (Boyle, 2007; Hess et al., 2007). Openly addressing and challenging power and authority in knowledge creation is an important concern in service-learning, particularly when working with communities that may be marginalized or stigmatized (Boyle, 2007; Butin, 2005; Cipolle, 2004).

In this paper, we discuss our experiences negotiating knowledge and power based on our involvement in a service-learning and youth engagement project on violence and community safety that brought together a group of undergraduate students from the University of Toronto Scarborough (UTSC) and youth residents from the Kingston-Galloway/Orton Park (KGO) neighborhood, a low-income community in Toronto's inner suburbs.

This paper is a case study based on primary qualitative data collected throughout and after the project, using thematic network (Attride-Sterling, 2001) and content analyses (Mayring, 2000). The data collected included direct observations (by all authors of the article), individual written feedback forms from both community youth and university students, informal discussions by project partners (community partners and university instructor) with the university students and community youth, and over 100 student journal entries written over the course of the 12-week project. Themes from both sets of analyses were grouped, organized, and discussed to identify the organizational themes addressed in this paper.

As service-learning initiatives gain increasing popularity on campuses across North America, we hope to point to some of their challenges, especially when those initiatives occur in and with marginalized

communities. Simply having good intentions when developing service-learning projects with low-income and racialized communities, "at-risk" youth, and people who are homeless is not enough. As Mitchell (2008) notes,

Without the exercise of care and consciousness, drawing attention to root causes of social problems, and involving students in actions and initiatives addressing root causes, service-learning may have no impact beyond students' good feelings. In fact, a service-learning experience that does not pay attention to those issues and concerns may involve students in the community in a way that perpetuates inequality and reinforces an "us-them" dichotomy. (p. 51)

With this article we hope to contribute to discussions about privilege and knowledge in community service-learning and to offer insights on how to creatively expose – and transform – power in and through critical service-learning practices. More specifically, we identify a series of conflict potentials, processes of Othering, and differences in knowledge and learning that emerged in our project, and we offer suggestions for how service-learning partners can respond to these challenges by actively promoting dialogue, self-awareness, and critical self-reflection, and by building trust and reciprocity.

Four participants, each with a different stake in the project, have co-authored this paper: one university instructor, two community-based service-learning partners, and one university student. The story we share here has emerged through group discussions, personal notes, workshop debriefings and evaluations, more than 100 written student reflections, and formal and informal feedback from students and youth residents. The project partnership was based on the principle of decentralization of knowledge and power between partners, and the philosophy that *everyone is an expert*, which brought a unique perspective to the learning

environment and which we continued to adhere to in the collective writing approach that shaped this essay.

The Project

The initiative was a partnership between the instructor of an undergraduate service-learning course titled *Urban Neighborhoods and Communities* offered through the City Studies program at UTSC¹, METRAC,² and the Neighborhood Action Partnership (NAP) in the KGO community, a municipally initiated multi-sector partnership formed to coordinate local services with an emphasis on service delivery in youth training, employment, safety, and resident engagement. Since 2005, the City of Toronto has identified the KGO community as one of 13 ‘priority neighborhoods,’ characterized by disproportionately high levels of social need and below-average social service provision, and earmarked for increased social investment, resident engagement, and community development.

Our project was designed to engage youth from the KGO community and City Studies students in a

participatory action research project to learn about violence and community safety, to identify safety issues of concern for youth residents, and to present the findings to local stakeholders and relevant decision-makers, including elected officials, school representatives, and police. The launch of the City’s priority neighborhood strategy coincided with what is commonly referred to as the ‘Summer of the Gun’ in 2005, during which gang-related gun violence increased in Toronto’s inner suburbs. Increased policy attention to spatially concentrated gun violence and youth gangs added an important layer to the discursive construction of priority neighborhoods (Community Safety Secretariat, 2004; Janhevich, Johnson, Vézina, & Fraser, 2008; Strong Neighborhoods Task Force, 2005).

The Neighborhood Action Partnership had done initial work on the issue of community safety and was seeking research support from the university to enhance community advocacy around safety and violence and, importantly, to involve youth in the process. Before the program sessions started, a meeting was held with community workers, parents and youth in the community, the university instructor, and the facilitators from METRAC to discuss the project and learn about the community’s interest and possible concerns. This information was used to ensure both that there was community buy-in for the project and that community needs were heard and addressed.

The project was structured around 12 weekly meetings over the course of the university’s fall semester in 2011, and involved 23 university students and 20 middle- and high-school level youth from the KGO neighborhood. The youth from the community were recruited through the Neighborhood Action Partnership Youth Committee. Project participants were primarily divided by age: the majority of the youth from the KGO community were aged 12–17 years, while most university students were aged 19–23 years. The weekly two-hour long meetings took place in the

1 In 2008, the City Studies program entered into a partnership with various community organizations in the KGO neighborhood, in close proximity to the UTSC campus, in an effort to enhance its course offerings areas such as community development and social planning. The main partner agency is the East Scarborough Storefront, a community development organization and social service hub in the KGO community. Three courses are offered within this partnership: a community-based participatory research course, a more traditional service-learning course in which students are placed in participating agencies for four hours per week, both taught by university faculty, and a course on the practice of community development co-taught by a team from the East Scarborough Storefront.

2 METRAC works with individuals, communities and institutions to change ideas, actions and policies with the goal of ending violence against women and youth. Delivering relevant and boundary-breaking services and programs, the organization focuses on education and prevention and use innovative tools to build safety, equity and justice (www.metrac.org).

late afternoon when the youth participants from the community had finished school for the day. The university students received credit for the successful completion of the course, and the community youth would get credit for volunteer hours, as required by the Ontario high-school curriculum.

The research methodology for the course project was based on and adapted from METRAC's Youth Safety Audit Training, a nine-hour, three-part training program. This training involves a participatory framework that stresses that 'everyone is an expert of their own sense of safety' and addresses issues of violence and safety from a social justice and anti-oppression perspective. In 2008, METRAC's community safety audit was internationally recognized by the *UN-HABITAT Safer Cities Campaign* and identified as a best practice for addressing community safety (UN HABITAT 2008). METRAC's youth programming encourages the use of a peer-to-peer and popular education framework, with the goal of breaking down the separation between 'teacher as expert' and 'youth as empty vessel' and challenging mainstream educational practices in which people in power (generally wealthy, White, heterosexual, male) develop the content (usually based on Eurocentric values and norms), and youth are taught by 'experts' who usually represent these same dominant social groups.

The first class session for university students was used to introduce students to the nature of service-learning, the project's community partners, roles, and course and project expectations and objectives. The following two sessions initiated METRAC's Youth Safety Audit Training and were dedicated to anti-oppression training and provided the community youth and university students with the information they would need to conduct safety audits of the KGO area. During these sessions activities and discussions were facilitated to allow both the community youth and the university students to gain a broader understanding of what safety

and violence are and how people with different social identities are differently impacted by violence based on power and social location. During weeks four and five, audit groups comprised of university students and community youths conducted their safety audits and gathered their observations about violence and safety in the community. During weeks six and seven, these groups presented their observations to all project participants. METRAC facilitators also led the whole group in participatory mapping activities to further explore and understand the observations from the audits, and they discussed potential ways to take action based on the results. In addition, during sessions two, three, six and seven, an hour was built into the session (before the community youth arrived) in which discussions were facilitated with the university students to try to reinforce the importance of learning from and listening to the community members, developing critical self-reflection, and helping to break down stereotypes which the university students may be bringing with them into the project. Discussions were also facilitated on how the university students could support the community youth and to listen to the knowledge the community youth would be bringing to the project.

After each session, the project partners took time to debrief and discuss any issues that may have arisen. This occurred in various ways, including informal discussions to share observations of the session directly after each session, reviewing session feedback forms from both university students and community youth, and going over information shared in informal discussions with community youth and university students. In addition, as part of the course requirement, university students submitted biweekly reflections based on assigned class readings and project experiences. The remaining four sessions of the semester were used to compile a report of all of the safety audits conducted and to prepare a video presentation highlighting the main findings of the safety audits.

The project concluded with the university students and youth organizing a community event to share the results of the project. The event was attended by approximately 50 people including various community stakeholders including representatives of the office of the Municipal Member of Parliament (MPP), a local police representative, staff of some community organizations, and residents who live in the area. At the event the university students presented some of the results of the project, which included sharing the video that was created about the project, and also delivered the report findings to the representative from the MPP's office. Community youth were presented with certificates for participating in the project.

Power and Place in Service-learning

Traditional and critical approaches to service-learning differ in that the former rarely acknowledge uneven

power relations or structural inequalities between the university and community. We see the main distinction between the two approaches in that traditional service-learning “emphasizes service without attention to systems of inequality,” while a more critical approach combines service with “the aim to dismantle structures of injustice” (Mitchell, 2008, p. 50). A key objective of critical service-learning is transformation, specifically encouraging students to reflect on their own social location and on questions of power and structural inequality. The literature on transformative learning often describes the process of transformation as one of perspective transformation. This can be a change in the way we see ourselves, a form of psychological transformation; the way we see the world, a convictional transformation; and as a result (3) the way we do things, a behavioral transformation (Mezirow, 1978).

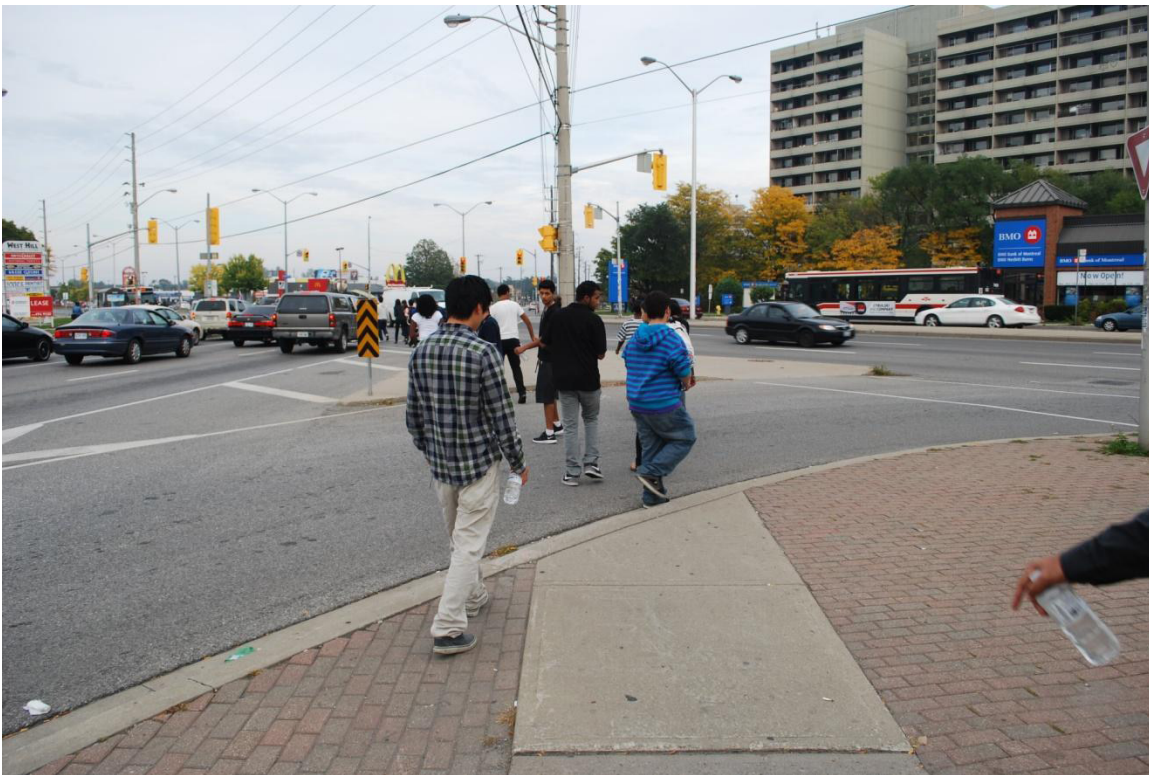


Figure 1- Project participants at a typical intersection in the KGO community during one of the safety audits.

This opens important questions about power and the differences between service-learning and charity or philanthropy (Hoppe, 2004). If this critical reflection does not occur, service-learning runs the risk of reinscribing existing power relations (Boyle-Baise, 2007; Marullo, 1999; Masden-Camacho, 2004; Wade, 2000).

From the outset, our objective in this service-learning project was to work from a perspective of social change and social justice. Values such as reciprocity and shared authority were central to all stages of the project, as exemplified during the initial development of the project: the professor and community service organizations engaged in discussions about the project's scheduling and outline and acknowledged the differences in power that might emerge between the university students and community youths. The course project had

two interrelated goals. From a course perspective within the City Studies program, the goal of the course was to engage students in a community-based study of urban communities and neighborhoods with a particular emphasis on questions of social planning, place-based social policy, and community development/organizing in partnership with local community organizations. From a project perspective, our goal was to encourage all participants (university students and community youths) to develop a critical awareness of the systemic and institutionalized nature of violence and structural inequality and to assess the level of community safety and violence in an effort to create awareness and advocate for positive change in the community.

However, even with this attention and the preparatory work to address these issues, conflicts arose



Figure 2– University students and community youths engage in a participatory mapping exercise.

between the project's purpose and university students' perceptions.

The course and project's designation as a "service"-learning course that took place in what is defined as a "priority neighborhood," coupled with a general assumption that urban planning (the intended profession of many City Studies student) by its very definition exists to "improve" communities and neighborhoods may have contributed to creating a separation between community residents and university students. This was frequently reflected in journals early in the term in which students made reference to "helping" or "fixing" community by using the expertise of the university and academic knowledge.

Some students, despite unpacking this during the anti-oppression training, continued to approach their engagement from a rather uncritical, that is traditional, perspective, which allowed them to distance themselves from the community and the research findings by retreating to the safe position of 'objective researcher' rather than critically reflecting on their own assumptions, stereotypes, and subjective feelings and experiences of violence and safety. This is exemplified in the reflections of one student:

"I found troubling that at the end of the workshop when everyone was asked to say what their thoughts were, a couple of UTSC students made a clear differentiation between "us" (UTSC students) and "them" (youth)... If we consistently make clear distinctions between "us", the UTSC students as researchers and "them", the youth as our research subjects, it will reinforce the power dynamics which we are trying to avoid."

This raises the important point that students enter educational programs with varying commitment to questions of social change and social justice (Dewar & Isaac, 1998). Many students enter the City Studies program in hopes of building careers in planning consultancy or the development industry, while only

a relatively small number of students identify being interested in working in advocacy or finding employment in non-profit community organizations as among their reasons for participating.

Following Iris Marion Young's (1990) argument that power exists only in action and is articulated, realized, and contested in and through social relationships, we suggest here that the service-learning environment is an important site for the articulation and contestation of power: it can act as a site of domination as well as a site of empowerment. Throughout the project, power and knowledge needed to be constantly negotiated in creative ways. This negotiation involved two fundamental questions: *who* holds legitimate knowledge and *where* is this knowledge located?

A service-learning environment is greatly affected by how a community is socially constructed. For example, critical service-learning practice in marginalized neighborhoods needs to incorporate how places are (symbolic) representations and spatial manifestations of deep and historically entrenched structural inequalities of society, and use this knowledge to develop strategies to counter or deconstruct spatial stigma and associated stereotyping of residents. These negative representations of place – what Wacquant (2007) referred to as a 'blemish of place' – are often so entrenched that they resurface in the service-learning context.

Neighborhoods are more than territorially bounded spaces; they are symbolic places with often-powerful meanings attached to them. The KGO community is located in the former city of Scarborough, which itself has received widespread and often quite negative media attention over the past decade, most infamously in the article "The Scarborough Curse," published in the widely-read magazine *Toronto Life*:

Scarborough remains a symbol of a certain kind of alienation. When it was a homogeneous suburb in the 1960s and '70s, it symbolized drab conformity, a largely white unhappiness that was sneered

at. Now it's diverse and a symbol of a different kind of alienation, one that carries a hint of menace rather than complacency. The spectre of ethnic gangs, of sectarian tension, floats through it. Like the old cliché of Scarberia (a term that was coined in the 1960s, connoted exile and has now gone out of use, it seems), this new Scarborough (whose occasional appellatives Scarlem and Scartown imply race or violence and haven't been adopted with any widespread enthusiasm) is a combination of truth and caricature. (Gillmor, 2007)

This image of Scarborough, and the KGO community in particular, as home to various gangs was further entrenched by Toronto Star reporter Betsy Powell's book, *Bad Seeds: Boys: The True Story About Toronto's Galloway Street Gang*:

By 1998, Toronto police estimated there were 180 gangs in the city with varying levels of organization. But with fluid memberships, defining and identifying them was difficult. Some – though not all – gangs were violent. A Toronto police map from that time identified dozens of territorial-based crews, posses and gangs throughout the city, largely concentrated in poorer areas with public housing complexes [...] In Scarborough, the map showed a cluster of groups called “Kingston/Galloway,” the Mornelle Court gang and Malvern Posse. (Powell, 2010)

If a community is primarily defined as being in need of help or repair, and university students or the service-learning project are defined as being in a position to ‘fix’ and ‘help,’ power will remain in the hands of the academic partners – both students and faculty (Cooks, Scharrer, & Paredes, 2004). The initial journal reflections submitted by university students showed that negative perceptions and attitudes towards the KGO neighborhood were pervasive. Indicative of this perception, one university student stated:

“Even though I have attended class everyday in for the past 4 years, I have never actually explored the area solely because of its reputation. It came as a shock when I realized I was not comfortable walking the 15-20 min to the class’ meeting place from campus. I knew ahead of time what neighborhood we would be examining, but it did not occur to me that I had to explore the area outside of class even for a small amount of time”.

As Jones notes, “there is some likelihood of service-learning experiences actually reinforcing the negative stereotypes and assumptions that students bring with them to the class environment” (2002, p. 10). This was evidenced during the presentation of safety audit results. Although groups were comprised of both youth from the community and university students, the presentations often focused on issues the university students saw during the audits, which biased some of the presentation results. KGO being a priority neighborhood generated biases and assumptions, such as that gangs and drugs were widespread, and not all students were able to connect their research findings to the larger socioeconomic and structural realities of the community. For instance, during one discussion following an informal in-class presentation of audit findings, university students made assumptions about a group of youth who were gathered in front of a plaza, labeling them as ‘gang members,’ although there was no evidence to support this claim. Despite preparation of students through course reflection assignment, readings and METRAC training, it became clear that some students’ limited experience in the community continued to hamper their perception and attitudes towards it.

Furthermore, comments during some of the in-class presentations of audit findings referred to the neighborhood as being crime-ridden and having little community involvement or community willingness to improve the area. For example, during one walk, a student was quick to point out cigarette butts in a pathway

as evidence of illicit activity, rather than using the more objective interpretation that the cigarette butts showed evidence of loitering. At times, the community's perceptions of safety concerns were not heard or taken seriously, which led to the Othering of the community members involved in the project. For example, during one presentation of the audit findings, one student claimed with an air of authority that the 'Bloodz' graffiti displayed in a photo was only a copycat act, and that this gang does not exist in Toronto. A community youth countered that this gang and their dealings in the neighborhood are very real threats, not just bravado as implied by the university student (Figure 3).

At other times, some presenters appeared to blame the community for many of the safety issues observed, rather than recognizing the social and historical roots of these problems. For example, in one presentation a group of students discussed exposed electrical wires

and stated that this showed a lack of engagement and commitment among community members to keep their community safe: they assumed that no-one had called the authorities to fix the problem. However, a senior resident at this student presentation commented that they had actually called the authorities about that specific location, but that the repairs had not yet been done.

These examples demonstrate how some of the university students' assumptions about the area affected their perception of safety issues in the community. They also illustrate the conflicts of power and knowledge between students and community members and particularly the difficulties some students had in accepting/acknowledging the knowledge that community members held. It was easy for students to identify problems within the area, however it was difficult for some to



Figure 3- "Bloodz" graffiti on fence.

hear and understand the realities and reasons why some of these issues exist.

Negotiating Power and Knowledge in the Service-Learning Environment

Throughout the project, power needed to be creatively negotiated at various levels, and a series of *productive tensions* emerged at the levels of (1) the community partnership, (2) instruction, and (3) student engagement. We believe these tensions were productive in that they created crucial opportunities for collaborative learning and the development of trust and reciprocity through dialogue and critical self-reflection.

1. Power and Knowledge between Instructor and Community Partners

At the community partnership level between instructor and community partners, all participants were willing to identify and discuss the various ways in which power

affected the project from the outset. The instructor and METRAC facilitators were committed to self-reflection about the different ways we held power in the project, both in terms of the location of our respective organizations (community vs. academic) and in terms of personal social locations (race, gender, class, etc). This openness allowed us to predict, prepare for, and collectively address power imbalances as they emerged throughout the project. Taking the time to debrief after each session was essential in negotiating power between us as project partners, and in working together to address power imbalances between participants. All partners were receptive to each other's feedback about the structure of the project and recognized areas of expertise, which built a solid foundation of respect for each other's input.

This mutually supportive role among partners greatly assisted in project programming and implemen-



Figure 4– Exposed wires in cable box.

tation. For example, as is often the case in community work, the project plan and structure had to evolve throughout the project based on constant assessment of youth and student participants' needs and emerging project constraints. The willingness to be flexible and open to change along with the trust that was created between METRAC and the instructor contributed to the project's success. All partners understood the fluidity of working in communities and with youth, and our ability to change the project (sometimes at the last minute) was a sign of how partners perceived the project: a learning process for everyone involved.

2. Power and Knowledge between Instructors and University Students

The negotiation of power and knowledge at the instructional level, i.e., between METRAC facilitators and the course instructor on one hand, and between the instructor and university students on the other, was more challenging. At the beginning of the training, METRAC representatives explained their role as facilitators as one not of expertise, but of creating space for people to participate in the sharing and co-construction of knowledge. Throughout the training sessions, facilitators intentionally named ways we experience oppression, privilege, safety, and violence, showing how sharing personal information acts as a two-way exchange of trust. We deliberately chose activities that would disrupt power imbalances between facilitator and participant: focusing the training on the opinions and ideas of people from the community, inviting participants to discuss how safety and violence are rooted in power, and validating participants' experiences of oppression as important knowledge. We provided participants with ongoing opportunities to give feedback about the sessions through anonymous evaluations, and we used this feedback to adjust and strengthen our facilitation skills to better meet the group's needs.

A critical role in the negotiation of power and knowledge was played by the course instructor. Many

of the students had no prior experience in community-based work, and from the outset, the instructor emphasized that the course would be different from the traditional lecture courses offered at the university. As is the case in most community-based learning projects, the course instructor had to give up part of his power to other project partners, in this case METRAC representatives, as a result of their expertise in safety audit methodology, anti-oppression training, and youth engagement work. The instructor also gave up some of his power and positioned himself as a partner during the process of collective knowledge production, as the project structure required students to take on leadership roles in different aspects of the initiative.

One strategy the instructor used to equalize power was to ask community youth and university students to call him by his first name. This was an effective way to shake up the traditional power structure, but it also unsettled many of the university students, who had become used to addressing him more formally in previous courses. Only about half of the university students addressed him by his first name, and, interestingly, some switched back to his last name after the project ended. Notably, about half of the university students embraced a more egalitarian relationship among project participants. These students were also more willing to engage in self-directed and self-initiated learning and project coordination. This was particularly noted in the way individual students and audit teams engaged the community youth in conversations in de-briefings after the walking audits and in the preparation of the in-class presentations.

During situations of project ambiguity, students were more likely to demand that the instructor intervene more actively and perform a traditional instructor role. One of the most common complaints from university students during these moments was that the class seemed "disorganized" and they perceived the sessions as lacking "academic rigor." Discomfort with a new

learning style was also exemplified by some remarks by university students, e.g., that METRAC's youth audit training was not a scholarly methodology and hence not designed for a university class. Later on in the course, icebreaker activities facilitated by METRAC, along with the structure of the session (team meetings, classroom setup, etc.), encouraged the university students to take more initiative in aspects of decision-making about the direction of the project and to adjust to its unique elements. As reflected in the biweekly learning journals, the level of comfort with self-directed learning and project management increased as the semester progressed, and the frequency of complaints about the course's presumed disorganization gradually diminished. As students were able to develop relationships with the youth and become accustomed to the non-hierarchical structure of the course, they gained confidence in their own skills and abilities to complete the project.

3. Power and Knowledge between University Students and Community Youth

The final level at which power was negotiated was the student engagement level between the university students and community youth. Most participants were within METRAC's definition of youth (younger than 30), but the majority of university students, many in their third or fourth year of university, did not self-identify as youth. They perceived themselves as being older and more educated and therefore as having more authority, knowledge, experience than the youth from the community. This created a significant division within the group. Over time, the project revealed that the term *youth* does not refer only to age, but also to self-perception, self-identification, and how one wishes to be seen in the world. This issue was discussed in one of the first joint workshops held early in the semester, and it became clear that the dynamic between university students and community youth would not necessarily be one of solidarity, i.e., as young people with a

shared experience. This was reinforced when students expressed that they associated the term "youth" with immaturity and other negative connotations, which acted as a barrier to the university students and community youth participants in finding common ground. The community youth, in contrast, used the term "youth" to refer to young people in general and saw it as a potential connection between them and the university students. However, we did see a gradual shift in attitudes among university students towards the community youth as reflected in the journals:

"After today's workshop I became more confident that the youth will actively participate in the safety audit ... the activities allowed for UTSC students and the youth to work together and interact in a very informal manner."

"Comparing with the first time we met with the youths in the neighborhood, we have built connections with them and they are more willing to speak up and to voice their opinions."

At the beginning of the project, time with the university students was purposely set aside to address how their positions as university students and also being older than the majority of the youth from the community could affect the project. We explored the assumptions they might have held about the community and youth as well as their role as allies to support community members throughout the training and audits. When discussing these issues from a theoretical standpoint, students seemed to be interested, specifically about how they could be more open and inclusive when working with the youth in the community. However, as the project unfolded, it became clear that many university students were not interested in exploring their individual positionality and privilege, nor were they willing to deconstruct the ideas they held about the KGO community. This was clearly seen in some of the examples noted above, whereby the university students did not acknowledge their own biases when

identifying why certain safety issues were occurring in the area.

Lessons Learned

If not planned and executed with care, service-learning projects involving marginalized communities run the risk of re-inscribing existing hierarchies of knowledge and power differentials, especially when the university and university students are seen as being in a position to “fix” the problem in the community. This may derive from City Studies being closely associated with career paths in urban planning, a professional field that is by definition framed in practical and normative terms centered around ideas of “improving” cities and communities. Moreover, if a neighborhood is identified as “in need” or “lacking” social infrastructures, then the urban planning imperative to “improve” easily becomes an intention to “fix.” This attitude can be further entrenched through course requirements and assignment that focus primarily on *output* rather than foster a reflection of *process*. The instructor modified the course syllabus in the subsequent year by including a series of readings that encourages students to reflect critically on their subjective positions within the service-learning context and when working in and with marginalized communities, in particular sources that deal with questions of stereotyping in community practice -- including primarily feminist methodological readings that help students to observe while being mindful of the risk of reproducing preconceived representations of the community (for example, Abramovitz, 1995; Fine, 1994; Krumer-Nevo, 2002; Krumer-Nevo, 2009; Lal, 1996; Pickering, 2001).

Most service-learning involves crossing boundaries between the different social spaces of the university and the community, and it can play an important role in their re-production or potential transformation. As a socially transformative practice, critical service-learning requires reflection about its own role in the social

reproduction of power and knowledge and about the need to interrogate how interpretations of the places service is provided in can reflect uneven power between the university and the community.

Since the completion of the METRAC project in 2011, the course Urban Communities and Neighbourhoods Case Study has continued to work on issues of youth and youth engagement. UTSC students are currently working with the Boys and Girls Club of East Scarborough and in partnership with local youth on a youth development strategy for the community. Lessons learned during the METRAC project have been incorporated in the structure of the course. For instance, students meet with youth primarily outside of class time to engage in research and consultation activities. Classes have resorted to being more traditional academic seminars.

The strongest aspect of this project was its flexibility and the working relationship among project partners. Each partner brought different resources to the table: space, material resources, facilitation skills, academic knowledge, or time. Partners worked together to allow each to lead in their areas of strength, to create learning opportunities for each other, to provide feedback, and to support each other's work throughout the project. University students also noted the strength of the partnership, as reflected in one comment:

“It is a good opportunity to have the class in the neighborhood we are studying at, which helps to build a stronger partnership between the school and the community. It also reflects how bonds of trust are developed through the activities. Comparing with the first time we met with the youths in the neighborhood, we have built connections with them and they are more willing to speak up and to voice their opinions. I feel delighted and impressed by how one small move can make big changes.”

Partners involved in the project agreed that they had learned many lessons, were able to practice and hone many skills, and were very inspired by each other's work. Youth and university student participants also referred to many ways they had benefited from being part of the project: improved knowledge about violence and community safety, and skills in addressing safety and community work. Some students discussed these benefits in their journals, with comments such as "This course has enhanced my hands-on skills in working with communities on top of the lectures we usually have at school" and

"These experiences were all unique to me and also something that can be applied beyond the academic realm. The project that was undertaken has strengthened my commitment to the community and most importantly helped me realize the different ways in which the university can give back to the community. What most intrigued me about this course in general was that I did not only learn concrete course material which I learn in most of my other courses but more abstract skills such as professionalism, leadership, reflection and most importantly community involvement."

The participants successfully completed all parts of the METRAC Safety Audit Training program: the training, audit walkabout, community mapping, data collation and analysis, making recommendations for addressing safety concerns, and presenting highlights to the community and local stakeholders. Students and youth participants alike were clearly dedicated to the project and to ensuring its success, and participants felt a sense of accomplishment.

Coming to understand one's own power and privilege is a long process. It is also important to acknowledge that some students are unwilling to engage in critical self-reflection and introspection, and this can cause challenges in the service-learning environment. Therefore, engaging in these issues through-

out the duration of service-learning projects is critical for reinforcing the importance of self-awareness and for critically acknowledging and assessing how one's position and perceptions affect both community work and the co-creation of knowledge. By reflecting on our collective experience as participants in a service-learning and youth-engagement project, we realized how important it is to outline and define all participant roles and responsibilities at the beginning of the project, including those of youth participants and university students, and to ensure that everyone involved understands each other's needs and motivations. We found it helpful to schedule assessments throughout the project, to check how everyone felt about their own role and to make adjustments if necessary. One of the key elements of success is being explicit with students about the differences between the structure and content of community-based learning and regular university classes, the potential challenges they may encounter, and ways to address these challenges. We also realized how important it was to schedule a mid-project check-in and debriefing with all project partners.

Time was a major constraint of the project. Our two-hour sessions were sometimes not long enough to include everything that needed to be done. This was exacerbated by purely logistical constraints, such as community youth often coming late to the weekly sessions. Despite the time built into the project for discussion and reflection, the allocated two-hour window was sometimes not sufficient. Extending the duration of the sessions to three hours, or running the project as an intensive course, may be strategies to increase the available time. Another possibility might be to partner directly with local schools and integrate the service-learning project not only into the curricula for university students, but also for community youths.

Youth recruitment and retention was a major obstacle in our project. The university students had a clear incentive to attend the weekly meetings, but many

of the community youths attended only sporadically. This challenge is a reality in any youth engagement work. Although a few youths from the community attended all of the sessions, the majority attended only two or three, which resulted in a different group of youths at each session, with the number of youth participants declining throughout the project. It is important not to blame the youths for this, but rather to identify and address potential barriers to future projects. University students outnumbered the youth from the community during audits and in-class workshops, and this shaped classroom discussions and dynamics in significant ways. It is therefore important to develop a detailed plan for recruiting, engaging, and retaining community participants. In service-learning projects, this recruitment should ideally be done in consultation with community members, as they know best how to reach their peers. When working with youth it is vital to engage them from the very beginning of the project so that the design is youth-centric and builds on the experiences and needs of participants. Some university students recommended exploring more formalized forms of mentorship as one aspect of the relationship between community youths and university students for future service-learning projects. One student wrote in her journal,

“One of the youths was very quiet up until this week when he approached me and started engaging in a conversation about post-secondary education, I think it’s important to create a structure for communication and collaboration between students and youth outside of class time.”

The partnership between UTSC, METRAC, and the NAP in the KGO community was an innovative and exciting experience for all involved. It was an important step toward increasing the university’s presence in and relationship to its surrounding communities and the youth who live there, demonstrating that universities can play vital roles in providing resources and

support for community efforts for change, and serving as an example of the potential for these partnerships. By designing projects that consider the expression and negotiation of power at various levels of the service-learning project, practitioners can greatly reduce the risk, inherent in service-learning, of reproducing existing power dynamics, and work creatively to bring together different ways of knowing and learning in an effort to create rich and rewarding learning experiences for everyone involved. The instructor and community partner’s experience during this service-learning project helped us identify various strategies for transcending the traditional image of ‘server’ and ‘served,’ and helped us work toward a partnership of equals among all participants. This result was not easy to accomplish, but it was well worth the effort. ■■

References

- Abramovitz, M. (1995). From tenement class to dangerous class to underclass: Blaming women for social problems. In N. Van Bergh (ed.), *Feminist practice in the 21st century* (pp. 211–231). Washington: National Association of Social Work Press.
- Attride-Sterling, J. (2001). Thematic networks: An analytical tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 1(3), 385–405.
- Boyle, M. (2007). Learning to neighbor? Service-learning in context. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, 5, 85–104.
- Boyle-Baise, M. (2007). Learning service: Reading service as text. *Reflections*, 6(1), 67–85.
- Butin, D. (2005). Service-learning is dangerous. *National Teaching & Learning Forum*, 14(4), 3–7.
- Cipolle, S. (2004). Service-learning as counter-hegemonic practice: Evidence pro and con. *Multicultural Education*, 11(3), 12–23.

- Community Safety Secretariat (2004). Community Safety Plan. City of Toronto. Retrieved from http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/io_view.php?io_id=120&io_page_id=527
- Cooks, L., Scharrer, E., & Paredes, M. C. (2004). Toward a social approach to learning in community service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 10(2), 44-56.
- Dewar, M., & Isaac, C. (1998). Learning from difference: The potentially transforming experience of community-university collaboration. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 17(4), 334-47.
- Fine, M. (1994). Working the hyphens: Reinventing self and other in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 70-82). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Gillmor, D. (2007). The Scarborough curse. *Toronto Life* (December).
- Hess, D. J., Lanig, H., & Vaughan, W. (2007). Educating for equity and social justice: A conceptual model for cultural engagement. *Multicultural Perspectives*, 9(1), 32-39.
- Hoppe, S. L. (2004). A synthesis of theoretical stances. In B. W. Speck & S. L. Hoppe (Eds.), *Service-learning: History, theory and issues* (pp. 137-49). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Janhevich, D., Johnson, H., Vézina, C., & Fraser, J. (2008). *Making cities safer: Canadian strategies and practices*. Ottawa: Institute for the Prevention of Crime.
- Jones, S. R. (2002). In over our heads: The underside of service-learning. *About Campus*, 7(4), 10-15.
- Krumer-Nevo, M. (2002). The arena of othering: A life-story study with women living in poverty and social marginality. *Qualitative Social Work*, 1(3), 303-318.
- Krumer-Nevo, M. (2009). From voice to knowledge: participatory action research, inclusive debate and feminism. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 22(3), 279-295.
- Lal, J. (1996). Situation locations: The politics of self, identity, and 'other' in living and writing the text. In D. L. Wolf (ed.), *Feminist dilemmas in fieldwork* (pp. 185-214). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Marullo, S. (1999). Sociology's essential role: Promoting critical analysis in service-learning. In J. Ostrow, G. Hesser, & S. Enos (Eds.), *Cultivating the sociological imagination: Concepts and models for service-learning in sociology* (pp. 11-27). Washington DC: American Association of Higher Education.
- Marullo, S., & Edwards, B. (2000). From charity to justice: The potential of university-community collaboration for social change. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 43(5), 895-912.
- Masden-Camacho, M. (2004). Power and privilege in community service-learning in Tijuana. *Service-learning and Anthropology*, 10(3), 31-42.
- Mayring, P. (2000). Qualitative content analysis. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 1(2).
- Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective transformation. *Adult Education*, 100-110.
- Mitchell, T. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 14(2), 50-65.
- Pickering, M. (2001). *Stereotyping: The politics of representation*. New York: Palgrave.
- Pompa, L. (2002). Service-learning as crucible: Reflections on immersion, context, power, and transformation. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 9(1), 67-76.

- Powell, B. (2010). *Bad Seeds. The true story of Toronto's Galloway boys street gang*. Mississauga, ON: Wiley & Sons.
- Strong Neighborhoods Task Force (2005). *Final Report*. Toronto: City of Toronto & United Way of Greater Toronto.
- UN Habitat (2008). *Women's safety audits. What works and where?* Nairobi, Kenya: UN Habitat.
- Wade, R. C. (2000). From a distance: Service-learning and social justice. In C. R. O'Grady (Ed.), *Integrating service-learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities* (pp. 93-111). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates
- Wacquant, L. (2007). *Urban outcasts. A sociology of advanced marginality*. Walden, MA: Polity Press.
- Young, I. M. (1990). *Justice and the politics of difference*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Service-Learning with Students of Color, Working Class and Immigrant Students: Expanding a Popular Pedagogical Model

Vivian Price, Gregory Lewis, and Vanessa Lopez

Abstract

What can a service-learning class for students of color, working-class, low-income, first-generation, and immigrant students contribute to the literature on high impact practices? Most research on service-learning analyzes the experiences of white students from relatively affluent backgrounds working in non-university settings with less affluent populations. A social-justice empowerment model directed at underrepresented students provides insight into mixed campus and off-campus fieldwork that cultivates students' social and cultural capital and social awareness by enhancing leadership, networking, and organizing skills while building understanding among students and community organizations.

Keywords

Critical service-learning, low income, students of color, working class, first generation, social awareness, consciousness, social and cultural capital

Introduction

"I liked that I was being held accountable. Not just because it was a class project, but because it was a collective effort to make change."

"I never expected to be changed from this experience by being a team player in organizing the yearly Labor Studies Club fair. The Labor Studies fair showed me the true definition of teamwork.... I felt a great spirit of generosity all day during the fair. All of my comrades were ready for battle to teach others how to be heard and they did this simply through kindness of the spirit.... My experience with the fair showed me that we all need each other to be successful."

How does reflection on a service-learning class (SL) for working-class, low-income, first-generation, and students of color contribute to the literature on high impact practices?¹ Most research on service-learning analyzes the experiences of white students from relatively affluent backgrounds working in

Vivian Price is a filmmaker and professor who worked in factories, refineries, and in construction before returning to school to obtain her Ph.D. in Politics and Society and teaching at California State University, Dominguez Hills. Her films include *Hammering It Out*, *Transnational Tradeswomen*, and most recently, *Harvest of Loneliness* (a collaboration on the Bracero Program with Gilbert Gonzalez).

Gregory Lewis completed his B.A. in Sociology with a minor in Labor Studies in 2014 from California State University, Dominguez Hills. He worked as an intern for the California Faculty Association and as an organizer for the Service Employees International Union and the California Student Union Project.

Vanessa Lopez completed her B.A. in Labor Studies with an Art History minor in 2013 from California State University, Dominguez Hills. She worked for the Service Employees International Union, Warehouse Workers United, California Faculty Association, the American Federation of Teachers, College Guild, and is an organizer for the California Student Union Project.

1 Thanks to Jorge Cabrera for his suggestions and for providing a strong example of popular education, as well as to professors Kimberly King and Janna Shadduck-Hernandez for their inspiration and feedback during a presentation based on this article and their

non-university settings with less affluent populations. Depending on the pedagogical methods, there is a tendency for SL classes to create a dichotomy between the server and the served in which the former is framed as having value and knowledge, while the latter is deficient and a passive receiver. Butin (2005) argues that “service-learning is a culturally saturated, socially consequential, politically contested, and existentially defining experience” (p. x). He points out that because SL offers a different approach to learning, it disturbs the status quo, threatens to empower bottom-up change, and destabilize assumptions of power and knowledge, but paradoxically, it can also reinforce, normalize and extend the patterns of inequality and privilege. In a recent review of the literature, Mitchell (2008) observes that when she examined service-learning, she found “an unspoken debate that seemed to divide service-learning into two camps—a traditional approach that emphasizes service without attention to systems of inequality, and a critical approach that is unapologetic in its aim to dismantle structures of injustice” (p. 50). Critical service-learning (CSL) offers alternatives to the traditional SL, such as a collaborative model that posits community members as co-teachers, for example. Such a practice not only deconstructs concepts of authority; it also offers support to the non-dominant student who may find herself torn between the academy and the community as sources of knowledge.

This study considers the concepts of CSL and their application to working with non-dominant students, while also addressing contradictions that arise from designing and conducting CSL with these groups. It reflects on the experiences of teaching a service-learning class that promotes the development of leadership skills and social awareness of labor and social justice organizing, and does so for a course that consists

of a majority of working-class, immigrant, and first-generation students primarily from communities of color. Some scholars refer to this group as low income and first generation (LIFG), and we will adapt this acronym for the sake of brevity, adding communities of color (LIFGCC) to it, but will spell out the full meaning from time to time to reduce objectification of these groups (which themselves are heterogeneous). CSL provides LIFGCC students the opportunity to use the experience of service and reflection on their lives in conjunction with class readings to consider ways to address injustice in their own and similar communities.

The literature on CSL provides different models, yet most of the ideas are still predicated on the academy as a site for students raised in a dominant-group family working with a non-dominant community, although structured in a way to be more collaborative. The value of this study is that it combines an analysis of a CSL methodology with a targeted student population that is seldom discussed but whose survival demands creative action, and whose achievements demand recognition.

While LIFGCC students may benefit from participating in the more traditional service experiences, the results can also be negative or alienating. Swaner and Brownell (2010) note that the deficit model “may alienate and further disempower students from under-represented groups, whereas service-learning operating from a civic or communitarian perspective may empower students for learning, identity development, and community action” (p. 61). In fact, students of color are reported to avoid service-learning courses (Coles, 1999). “Service-learning is often selected by those students who have the additional time to involve themselves in service – which often means residential students who do not work, or who work part time on campus. Those students who commute, work off-campus, and/or have family responsibilities may have less time and inclination to participate in a service experience that is not required for academic credit”

work in our joint roundtable at the 2014 17th Annual Continuums of Service Campus Compact conference in Hawai'i.

(Swaner & Brownell, 2010, p. 77). For students outside that group, service may connote something they already do in their churches, or their communities, that is not part of an academic program. Discussing the negative reputation of SLCs to immigrant parents, a colleague observed that parents who saved money to send their children to college would rather see classes “developing professional skills than have their children folding clothes at the Salvation Army.”

Paradoxically, service-learning is prominently listed as a high-impact practice that enhances academic education and civic engagement (Swaner & Brownell, 2010). Researchers find that students from families who have not gone to college benefit from added peer interaction, extracurricular events, leadership experience, and community service (Kuh, 2008; Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, & Terenzini, 2004; Ting, 2003). As graduation rates of low-income, students of color, first-generation, immigrant and working class students are lower than middle- and upper-class students, pedagogy that addresses the needs of these students is vital, and it is incumbent on educators to learn how service-learning can be relevant to their interests.

Designing a CSL Class for LIFGCC Students

The Labor Studies Practicum class was developed at a university primarily attended by low-income first-generation students, a majority African American, Latina/o, and Asian American student body. While this class was grounded in Labor Studies, the readings are interdisciplinary and draw in students from Criminal Justice, Business and Public Administration, World Cultural and Gender Studies, and Education. The basic structure could be adapted to many other disciplines, positioning the community engagement piece to the kinds of experience and skills the course was intended to meet.

Most often, service-learning is framed as intrinsically an off-campus experience. However, Wendy

Hesford (2005), an English professor, documents her students’ engagement with No Sweat and the Living Wage Campaign on the campus of Indiana University, conceptualizing campaigns on the university campus as a site for service-learning. “The goals of No Sweat to unite community workers and university students, staff, and faculty through shared political critiques of economic justice and human rights might provide a better model for service-learning and its interventionist potential than charity models or the figure of the public intellectual or critical ethnographer” (Hesford, p. 195). The class included space for critical readings of the labor campaigns, so that students were able to be both inspired by as well as question the meaning of a missionary rhetoric that seemed to frame the personal journeys of the on-campus organizers. Hesford does not lay out the kinds of assignments she created for her service-learning class that was situated in the English department, but others have elaborated on how they designed their classes so that students can deepen their understandings of their discipline while investigating civic engagement and building relationships with community (Handley, 2001; Kinefuchi, 2010; Oden & Casey, 2006).

The service-learning dimension of the Labor Studies Practicum was originally designed to accommodate students with constraints on their off-campus activities while still providing a substantial form of community engagement. The common service component all the students engaged in centered on organizing a large-scale campus event featuring labor and community organizations. In the Labor Studies Practicum students are asked to read and interpret theories and histories of labor, community, campus, and environmental organizing for social change. Guided by relevant readings and class discussion, students experience directed fieldwork and practice self-reflection through action, observation, and analysis. Self-reflection becomes a useful tool to keep developing their own

consciousness and resist “the unacknowledged binaries that guide much of our day-to-day thinking and acting” (Butin, 2007, p. 4). This practice stems from Paolo Friere’s concept of “conscientization,” or “critical consciousness,” which starts by those involved asking probing questions about social reality, engaging in action, and then reflecting, in order to create a continuum of thoughtful and collaborative social interaction and critical thinking (Aronowitz, 2009).

The service dimension of the class requires students to develop the knowledge and skills to interact with representatives from one or more social justice organizations in order to build the culminating event on campus. Groups involved tend to be ones that address root causes of labor rights, representation, fair employment, immigrant rights, fair housing, criminal justice, and environmental problems. Most of these organizations are based on empowering their constituencies to demand their rights as well as advocating for policy changes. Depending on their interests, students choose the groups they want to work with, or invite to campus, and build a timeline and a means of communication to obtain group involvement. However, they may fulfill their service-learning hours relying only on on-campus activities. It is through these interactions, in conjunction with the readings and discussions and their activities in the campus event, that the class provides opportunities for students to learn about organizations that are working for social change and assess their activities.

This design made it possible for many of the students who have multiple family and work obligations, and some who rely on public transportation, to dedicate themselves to commitments beyond the classroom. However, requiring limited interaction between students and the target organizations also raised questions about achieving projected student learning outcomes of the practicum. The discussion below is based on the findings from year five, with preliminary thoughts on the redesign of year six. But before turning to the find-

ings, a discussion of the approach to the class, and its relationship to the literature on service-learning and underrepresented students is useful.

Approaches to Service-Learning

Service-learning has been broadly defined “as a pedagogical model that intentionally integrates academic learning and relevant community service with a focus on developing relationships of reciprocity and mutual learning across communities and campuses” (Rhoads & Howard, 1998 as cited in Shadduck-Hernandez, 2006, p. 70). How this pedagogical method is deployed rests within the politics of teaching and learning. Boyle-Baise and Langford (2004) refer to a social justice approach as

- (1) student-centered and experiential, as students’ experiences are recognized and valued as part of the curriculum;
- (2) collaborative, as students work together to serve, learn, grapple with social problems, and effect change;
- (3) intellectual and analytical, as students engage in inquiry and seek out multiple perspectives;
- (4) multicultural and value-based, as students address issues from diverse perspectives and recognize possible value conflicts;
- and (5) activist, as students engage in action that helps create more just conditions. (p. 56)

The Labor Studies Practicum uses a social justice, community building, and empowerment approach. This method is particularly relevant to students from underrepresented groups. Since they may come from similar neighborhoods and may have experienced similar problems as the people they are working with, they are more apt to recognize the structures that shape inequality and to want to be involved in more than charity solutions. In the case of the practicum, students’ organizing efforts are directed towards their fellow students and local high schools, encouraging them to learn about social justice movements, mobilizing around student debt, the school-to-prison pipeline, rights of undocu-

mented students, or other relevant educational issues, as well as meeting the organizers and members of labor and community organizations.

Discovering Sameness and Negotiating Difference

Several studies specifically theorize or at least describe how students of color experience community-service classes in contrast to white middle-class students (Boyle-Baise & Langford, 2005; Coles 1999; Henry, 2005). Students of color in service-learning classes that are majority white express a spectrum of feelings from tokenism and alienation, to becoming cultural translators, to describing their satisfaction of “giving back,” to critically inserting their own ideas as feedback to change the way the classes are structured (Chesler & Vasquez Scalera, 2000).

Shadduck-Hernandez (2006) is among the rare scholars who analyze a service-learning experience that was designed for students of color and immigrants. University students who were foreign-born multi-ethnic immigrants shared stories related to their own personal, historical, community, racial, ethnic, and national identities in class with refugee youth partners. The class used critical ethnography to organize social interactions among the participants in an experience grounded in situated learning theory. Reflecting on the class, Shadduck-Hernandez explains that critical ethnography offers students access to the richness of their cultural and linguistic backgrounds, while “situated-learning theory stresses the social and cognitive value of learning with peers and mentors in a particular setting through action and reflection” (p. 73). University students learned about contemporary and historical issues related to their various communities while creating photography with other youth. They shared thoughts about the contradiction between the ideologies of equality they’ve been taught and the reality of discrimination, poverty, and racism, and they became passionate about their creative and artistic potential to learn

from one another and influence others. Shadduck-Hernandez concludes that her study “offers an example of reframing traditional notions of service-learning where ethnically and racially diverse university students work directly with communities of color to develop collaborative and creative projects” (p. 82). The collaborative projects provided space for students to question the power structures influencing their lives, and expressed their own truths about the causes of inequality. Myers-Lipton (2002) noted that her students of color “related differently to clients because they see part of themselves in the people with whom they are working. This insight about ‘sameness’ may also lead students of color to explore their own ethnic identity as well as develop a strong commitment to racial and social justice” (p. 216). Both Shadduck-Hernandez and Myers-Lipton see personal experience and discovery of “sameness,” as propelling LIFGCC students into involvement in social change. Exploring “sameness” can also mean that students challenge each other’s stereotypes about language and racial and ethnic meanings. Beyond feeling empowered by being helpful and providing a service, as in traditional service-learning, students develop social awareness by recognizing parallel oppressions that require more than individual acts to create real change. They develop more systemic analysis of the forces that shape their lives.

Identifying Outcomes

Yeh (2010) studied LIFG (low-income first-generation) students in majority white classes. Her questions about the value of SL for these students connect the practical issues of gaining academic success with the experiences of developing social awareness and a sense of purpose. She characterizes the benefits the LIFG students acquire as social and cultural capital that increases their capacity to complete their education. Interpreting Bordieu’s concepts, Yeh writes, “[c]ultural capital’ refers to a person’s cultural knowledge,

skills and/or goods, which can vary significantly by social class, while ‘social capital’ describes the types and amount of resources one can access as a member of a group or social network” (p. 52). Since parents who are college graduates tend to already possess the social and cultural capital that higher learning institutions value, first-generation students need alternative structures to help them navigate and become integrated into the university.

Beyond the practical benefit of academic retention for underrepresented groups in higher education, Yeh argues for an alternative model of retention for LIFG students. This model “emphasizes student empowerment and institutional transformation... and proposes three components that are important for the persistence of students of color: (a) developing knowledge, skills, and social networks; (b) building community ties and commitments, and (c) challenging social and institutional norms” (p. 52). As these themes represent potential student benefits to students of color and working-class students, Yeh’s analysis together with Shadduck- Hernandez’s observations influence core indicators for our study.

Class Description

The Labor Studies Practicum is a service-learning class at CSUDH, a university whose student population in Fall 2013 was 17.7 percent African American, 54.5 percent Latino, 13 percent White students, 11 percent Asian/Pacific Islander, and less than 1 percent Native American. The class is a single semester upper-division course in the Labor Studies program; since the major is small, non-majors often constitute a majority of its participants. Many of the students are older than the average college student, are working part or full time, and have family responsibilities.

In 2013, the year of the study, eleven of the students were matriculated while three were either cross-enrolled from community colleges or were taking the

class through Open University which allows external students to enroll in university classes. The class consisted of seven women, seven men, six Latina/o, five African American, two White, one Filipino. Seven were under thirty years of age. Class status is especially difficult to ascertain, but it can be approximated by occupation, income, level of education, or even more importantly parents’ occupations, income, and level of education. These questions were not posed to the students, so gender, race and ethnicity are the main identifiers that can be analyzed for the class.

Readings included specific articles on: community, labor, and campus organizing; popular education; and environmental justice, as well as reflections from students who were involved in earlier versions of the class. Service assignments involved a commitment to completing at least one particular activity in preparation for the fair—although usually there were a series of things to do. Planning meetings included students from other classes and clubs, particularly the Labor and Social Justice club; several labor and community organizers occasionally came for these meetings as well.² Students worked on tasks in smaller groups, and nearly everyone volunteered on the day of the fair itself. Students developed flyers to advertise the event; made classroom presentations; worked with other clubs; visited high schools to invite students there; arranged workshops, music, dance, art and theater programming; and contacted labor and social and environmental justice groups. They worked on fundraising and press releases for the fair, coordinated with physical plant and catering, and made logistical decisions, often meeting as teams to make decisions. Academic and reflection

2 In some years, planning meetings also took place during daytime hours when many working students could not attend, but some were able to alter their work schedule to meet with community and labor representatives, and other university faculty and staff to discuss ideas for the fair. This was another way students grew more familiar with the other organizations and built leadership skills.

assignments included commenting on the readings and lectures in an online class website, responding to the views of other students, and writing a midterm and final reflection piece that applied ideas in the readings to student experiences over the semester. Pre- and post-experience surveys were given based on the student learning outcomes of the class.

Analysis: Process and Findings

How well did the Labor Studies Practicum succeed in providing students with the anticipated learning outcomes? In particular, in what ways did the class, first, provide skills that led to retention and academic success, and second, raise social awareness? Beyond these goals, in what ways was the class particularly useful to LIFGCC students? How can the class be strengthened on the basis of the evaluation?

Three of us came together during and after the class ended to do the research analysis. One was the faculty member teaching the class and the other two are Labor Studies students who were taking the class. The faculty member is white, Jewish, from a refugee family, raised middle class, with extensive experience in the labor movement. One of the students is a Mexican-American woman, a first-generation college student, from a working-class immigrant family. She has had experience with labor through observing her father's unionized warehouse job, and through firsthand organizing with a number of unions and student organizations prior to taking the class. The other student is an African American man who was raised in a middle-class neighborhood. He became active organizing students in college and then worked as a union intern before taking the class.

Case studies of a faculty member's reflections and data analysis of her or his class are not rare. Kinefuchi (2010) for example, published an intriguing analysis of her multicultural- education service-learning class, questioning whether her students had been able to shift

towards a critical interrogation of society and stereotypes during their traditional service- learning tutoring project. Having students involved in analyzing the class brings student perspectives into the analysis and is an extension of the idea of challenging hierarchy in the class itself.

Using key concepts from the literature on critical service-learning and high impact learning for LIFG students, our team began analyzing the data from the class. All the assignments were the subject of analysis: the pre- and post-course survey (Likert scale with one multiple choice); responses to readings and lectures in the form of an online discussion board; the midterm and the final. All the names of students were stripped and their work coded by number.

Our research team conducted an in-depth discussion about the processes of what we understood social and cultural capital and social awareness or critical consciousness to be. We each spoke about and questioned one another's assumptions about how first generation students cope and survive in college, as well as what indicators we thought manifested social awareness. We discussed our own educational journeys, and the effects of our labor and community organizing experiences. We talked about our own coming to understand our identities and status socioeconomically and the implications for our world outlook, and how becoming more aware of social, economic, and political roots of inequality shifted how we thought about our relationship to power and what we felt was a path to a more just society.

We adopted aspects of Yeh's (2000) rubric combining the criteria into two main categories: A) surviving and thriving, and B) the processes involved in developing social awareness, with subthemes in each category. The students created charts to organize our findings, and together we reflected on our process on a weekly basis for two months, writing up our analysis and editing it as we moved along.

For Category A, Surviving and Thriving, we identified comments or responses indicating how the class affected their college experience. Content analysis of the midterm and finals showed that between a third to half of the students felt that the service-learning brought their academic studies to life, indicated that service enhanced their understanding of the course, and helped them develop skills to succeed in college. Nearly all (92%) the students indicated that the course enhanced their leadership and networking skills. Many students observed that their capacity to successfully communicate to community members was enhanced because of tasks associated with conducting outreach for the fair. Outreach included tasks such as sending and following-up on invitations to organizations asking them to participate in the fair, going to board meetings, asking union leaders for donations, talking to fellow students around campus how to become involved, and going to high schools to encourage students to attend the fair. If the high school signed on to bring students, then students had to help arrange bus transportation, funding, and programming for these students. These were detailed tasks that required persistence and dedication from students who were mainly themselves just starting to be enthusiastic about the fair.

Several comments on the final epitomized the skills they developed, skills that directly relate to gaining the social and cultural capital students need to negotiate challenges:

“At times I was unsure if I can ask people to commit to an action, from attending a meeting to handing out fliers to their classrooms. The confirmations and rejections from the community gave me experience which has expanded the knowledge I now have thus giving me confidence and ease to future interactions with members, potential members, and the community.”

“When organizing this fair I knew that getting out there and making a push for getting high

school students out wouldn't be easy and sometimes I need to go outside of myself and make that jump.... Organizing, especially as a young person, is a constant learning process and the development of leadership I think is its ultimate reward.”

“There was teamwork from the lunch area to the registration booth and I viewed this fair as a learning tool for all of us to use in our personal and professional relationships.”

These comments demonstrate that students gained confidence in their communication skills and networking skills. They weathered the challenges of having to be persistent in contacting organizations and schools and following up on their outreach. Some of the students showed a willingness to criticize themselves and evaluate the basis of what they perceive as an area of potential growth:

“I was perhaps relying solely on my past experience to guide me through this event, instead of taking on this project as a different challenge. By not reaching my goal of the number of high school attendees and not fully putting together the schedule for the high school students, left some kind of guilt in not fulfilling the expectations of other organizers, and most importantly myself. Doing such organizing is more of a privilege than a job because I sincerely love getting youth involved in the community and into social justice. All in all, I have learned a lot about time management, communication, and not being afraid to be more demanding and persistence to turn something good into phenomenal and memorable.”

Strengthening their self-reliance and confidence through their actions, and being self-critical in a positive way earns students social and cultural capital that integrates them more into both academia and their professions.

More difficult to evaluate were the processes of developing and sharpening social awareness, Category B. Yeh points to two areas to consider: developing awareness of societal inequities, and questioning and critiquing societal structures. Shaddock-Hernandez (2006) adds the importance of students developing their own critical perspective, affirming their own identity, and recognizing their creative potential for social change. She also pointed to students' developing respect for learning from each other, and building trusting relationships and a safe environment for questioning the structures influencing their lives. In order to reach some agreement on indicators for this category, we re-read excerpts from the critical service-learning literature and talked about the differences between traditional service and social-justice service-learning in terms of three categories we felt were key: creating trust, building teamwork, and introspective learning.

Our research team discussed the various interpretations of "conscientization" in relation to the Labor Studies course objectives of becoming more familiar with labor and social justice organizations and with organizing skills. We talked about how people who become part of a collective project that is connected to social-change work and empowerment build a sense of solidarity.

From the student reflections, we identified indicators of what we called Awareness and Action. A majority (85%) of the students commented that they developed a sense of commitment and responsibility to the project; 69% referred to creating community, team building and trust; 54% made comments that we thought explicitly addressed social awareness. A substantial number (46%) showed indications of introspective learning (relating observations about the project to their own lives). Some (23%) offered societal critiques. Fewer (20%) felt that they had become deeply aware of what social justice and labor organizations do to make change. This last point was of significant concern, as

one of our goals had been to familiarize students with these groups.

Within Awareness and Action, the two areas with the highest correlation to students' experiences were what we saw as developing a Sense of Commitment/Responsibility and Creating Community (team building and trust). The sense of commitment and responsibility that students expressed was that of being part of a team and being responsible for getting the tasks done that were assigned to them in order to make the fair a successful event:

"I liked that I was being held accountable. Not just because it was a class project, but because it was a collective effort to make change."

This sense of commitment to the goals and purpose of the fair led a few students to return yearly to help organize the fair. Prior to the actual day of the fair, most students expressed their appreciation for taking part in meetings within which trust and respect were nurtured. Many stated that the key to this was the way in which the meetings were facilitated, i.e. that everyone was given the opportunity to express their opinions/ideas and that organizing the fair was truly a collaborative process:

"Here at CSUDH I have found a place where people believe in what I believe in and by building relationships I feel empowered....There are always several ways to do something but organizing is about collaboration and cooperativeness. I have come to believe that this is where leadership spawns."

Creating Community seems to correlate well with this commitment and responsibility that students developed. Once students had taken part in the fair and reflected on it, they expressed an appreciation for the way in which everyone was able and willing to help each other out.

A few students also saw the fair as part of a larger social justice movement and expressed commitment to taking part in the fair because they felt it was an impor-

tant tool to educating the community about social justice issues and to creating social change:

“We all felt that the social justice fair was necessary for the young and old to understand that is never too late to have your voice heard. We all stayed on course and combined together for a successful event because we believed in the cause and felt it was imperative to show others how to fight for social justice....We all believed in the fight and stayed on the path to help spread the word on campus this year.”

One example of what we identified as social awareness and critique was that some students expressed their concern for students whose academic fees kept rising. They believed the fair would give opportunities or information to students who partake in the fair or were supportive and concerned about students fighting back against budget cuts. Students in the class decided to create a workshop about these issues, in which high school, community college, and CSUDH students participated. For some of them, this was the first time they connected their anger about fee hikes to an interest in engaging in collective action.

These comments and actions indicate that students were interested in becoming agents of change rather than agents of service in the more traditional sense. Some students adopted a Freirian approach and analyzed their experiences, asked probing questions, and came up with ideas to develop actions and programming that involve even more of the students:

“Even though I think that we had great organizers working on our fair, however, I think that we need to reach farther into our CSUDH and community base to get more people involved. Our fair is important to each and every student and we need to creatively find ways to get our booth participants, our speakers and our student organizations more involved in getting more students to our fair. We need to evaluate and understand how this fair

touches every student on our campus and we need to reach out to them and get them to come visit the booths and participate in the workshops, listen to the music and most of all we need them to take something away that will impact their lives.”

This student viewed the fair as an important way to organize the campus community around its needs and use the event as a way to further their concerns. In a similar vein, another student observed that it is important for students to understand the values the fair reflects:

“I think the Labor, Social and Environmental Justice Fair represents every facet of a just cause that supports our vision for an egalitarian utopia, but I think we, as organizers of the fair, can do a better job by discussing with each other more deeply the fair’s values.”

Our analysis of the students’ work and observations led us to see areas where the class could be strengthened. Judging from the findings, we saw that students indicated that their social and cultural capital had been enhanced, that the service had been useful for bringing their academic materials to life. We also found strong indicators that many students developed a social awareness in the sense that they learned about building teamwork and creating community. Many were exposed to social justice organizations they were not aware of, although we also noted that this was the weakest outcome. More interaction in the field and in class was deemed necessary to achieve course objectives. More readings that addressed root causes of inequality and the role of organizations in addressing these needed to be incorporated.

We used these findings to restructure the class in 2014. The course was designed as a hybrid; class meetings of at least an hour and a half a week were mandatory, along with 20 hours of service at one of five labor or community organizations, in addition to organizing the fair.

We have a new faculty and student team ready to assess and compare the course outcomes from year five and six. Almost all the students in year six had strong ideas about how to redesign and strengthen the class again for next year, including providing bilingual information, and connecting the service hours more directly to the design of the fair. By the end of Spring 2014, we felt students were more familiar with social justice organizing, based on the observations from student reflections. The new changes also brought new challenges, and we continue to raise the question of how to work with organizations to structure pivotal experiences that provide Paolo Friere's type of action-reflection transformation towards social awareness.

The class is evolving, as is the vision of developing student of color, immigrant and working class leadership and critical consciousness through service-learning.

Conclusion

The literature on traditional and critical service-learning informs the SL learning outcomes for low-income, non-white, first-generation, immigrant, as well as working class students by providing a theoretical framework to consider. While SL itself is considered a high-impact pedagogy, how it is practiced may result in alienation or empowerment, particularly for students from underrepresented groups.

Service-learning, regardless of the participant, will likely offer the student some sort of social awareness. The SL for a course based on the privileged student serving the needy may give the student awareness about the "Other" they are working with. However, in critical service-learning, the goal is that students come out of the class with a social awareness of the community that surrounds them and the issues that they face together. Unlike the traditional service-learning class where students provide a service, students in the practicum, which was modeled in accordance with critical service-learning theories, planned and theorized about what

students and the community would enjoy and benefit from. They were able to be critical about the event they wanted to bring into being. Students who go through this model of service-learning find themselves more likely to address the root causes of the problem, which could lead to actual change, as opposed to the traditional charity model. This kind of empowerment model is especially relevant to LIFGCC students, although it has relevance to critical service-learning with other populations.

Students were self-reflective when prompted to write about their experiences and thoughts in their writing assignments. Many of them made connections between social inequality and the work that organizations were trying to accomplish. They also viewed the fair as a way for themselves and other students to learn about the social justice movements that they could join. A number of them connected the challenges they faced personally and that their families and communities faced with the kind of work the groups were undertaking. But we also saw that the exposure to the organizational work that the groups who came to the fair were engaged in was thin unless the students had previous experience. While low-income students have busy schedules, some form of off-campus fieldwork would give them more understanding of different forms of organizing. Having it be on-campus work was convenient for students, increasing student participation, etc. That was its plus, but the lack of depth of exposure to working with outside social justice organizations was its drawback.

Students gave examples of skills they gained that translate to social and cultural capital that many affluent students learn through their families. The skills of communicating with many different communities and accepting the rejections along with enjoying the successes of accomplishing a large project created a confidence level in many of the students, a sense of pride, as well as a strong sense of teamwork. Mature self-

criticism with a sense of future growth was also part of the reflective process.

Overall, we found that there were many ways that the class had succeeded in building community and trust that provides the important peer networks shown to be valuable for underrepresented groups, offered meaningful community service, and developed leadership and networking skills that helped them in their academic success and career paths. Students also became more aware about labor unions and social justice groups, and what they stand for. But student reflections and critiques of the class gave the research group a great deal to discuss to feed into the redesign of the following year.

In fact, the class learning objectives need to be strengthened in view of the findings from this research, especially if students are expected to develop a societal critique of their own. To meet the course objectives of familiarizing students with labor and social justice groups, we need to try to require some off-campus service.

The Labor Studies Practicum is interdisciplinary in nature, as it brought together literature drawing from Criminal Justice, Sociology, and Education, as well as from Labor Studies. Students from several of these disciplines participated in the course, and the event also brought many volunteers from across the departments of our university into the planning and activities of the fair. The service-learning activities of creating a class that has an on-campus event could be adapted by other disciplines, using various means of assignments and assessment to develop and measure the skills and knowledge gained from such an organizing activity. The fair is a special event bringing together social justice organizations and Sociology, Africana Studies and other departments that have a similar focus could create a CSL class that has a similar culminating activity. There are many other ways departments can engage with social justice organizational organizations

to develop profound service-learning experiences for students, such as empowering a team of students to organize a conference on campus that brings speakers, artists, performers, even films to enhance student learning. ■■

References

- Aronowitz, S. (2009). Forward. In S. L. Macrine (Ed.), *Critical pedagogy in uncertain times: Hope and possibilities* (p. ix). New York, New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Boyle-Baise, M. & Langford, J. (2004). There are children here: Service-learning for social justice. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 37, 55–66.
- Butin, D. W. (2005). Preface: Disturbing normalizations of service-learning. In D. W. Butin (Ed.), *Service-learning in higher education: Critical issues and directions* (pp. vii–xx). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Butin, D. W. (2007). Justice-learning: Service-learning as justice-oriented education. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 40, 1–7.
- Chesler, M., & Vasques Scalera, C. (2000). Race and gender issues related to service-learning research. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning*, 7(1), 18–27.
- Coles, R. (1999). Race-focused service-learning courses: issues and recommendations. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning*, 6(1), 97–105.
- Eyler, J. S., & Braxton, D. E. (1997). The impact of service-learning on college students. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 4(1), 5–15.
- Green, A. E. (2001). But you aren't white: Racial perceptions and service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 8(1), 18–26.

- Handley, G. B. (2001). The humanities and citizenship: A challenge for service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 8(1), 52–61.
- Henry, S. E. (2005). I can never turn my back on that: Liminality and the impact of class on service-learning experience. In D. W. Butin (Ed.), *Service-learning in higher education* (pp. 45–66). New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Hesford, W. S. (2005). Global/local labor politics and the promise of service-learning. In L. Gray-Rosendale, S. Rosendale (Eds.), *Radical relevance: Toward a scholarship of the whole left* (pp. 183–195). Albany: State University of New York.
- Kinefuchi, E. (2010). Critical consciousness and critical service-learning at the intersection of the personal and the structural. *Journal of Applied Learning in Higher Education*, 2, 77–93.
- Kuh, G. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Lee, J. J. (2005). Home away from home or foreign territory? How social class mediates service-learning experiences. *NASPA Journal*, 42(3), 310–325.
- Maldonado, D. E. Z, Rhoads, R., & Buenavista, T. L. (2005). The student-initiated retention project: Theoretical contributions and the role of self-empowerment. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(4), 605–638.
- Mitchell, T. D. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 14(2), 50–65.
- Myers-Lipton, S. J. (2002). Service-learning and success in sociology: Learning climates that cultivate racial and ethnic diversity. In J. Chin, C.W. Berheide, & D. Rome (Eds.), *Included in sociology: Learning climates that cultivate racial and ethnic diversity* (pp. 202–218). Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education and American Sociological Association.
- Novick, S., Seider, C., & Huguley, J. P. (2011). Engaging college students from diverse backgrounds in community service-learning. *Journal of College & Character*, 12(1), 1–8.
- Oden, R. S., & Casey, T. A. (2006). Power to the people: Service-learning and social justice. *Electronic Magazine of Multicultural Education*, 8(2), 1–19. Retrieved from http://jonah.eastern.edu/emme/2006fall/oden_casey.pdf
- Pascarella, E. T., Pierson, C. T., Wolniak, G. C., & Terenzini, P. T. (2004). First-generation college students: Additional evidence on college experiences and outcomes. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 75(3), 249–284.
- Shadduck-Hernandez, J. (2006). Here I am now! Critical ethnography and community service-learning with immigrant and refugee undergraduate students and youth. *Ethnography and Education*, 1(1), 67–85.
- Swaner, L. E., & Brownell, J. (2010). *Outcomes of high impact practices for underserved students: A review of the literature*. Prepared for the Association of American Colleges and Universities, Project USA, January 10, 2009, (Rev. 3/2010). Retrieved from https://www.aacu.org/inclusive_excellence/documents/ProjectUSALitReviewrevisedMar10.pdf
- Ting, S. R. (2003). A longitudinal study of non-cognitive variables in predicting academic success of first-generation college students. *College and University*, 78(4), 27–31.

- Tryon, E., Stoecker R., Martin, A., Seblonka, K.
Hilgendorf, A., & Nellis, M. (2008). The
challenge of short-term service-learning.
Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning,
15(1), 16–26.
- Yeh, T. L. (2010). Service-learning and persistence of
low-income, first-generation college students: An
exploratory study. *Michigan Journal of Community
Service-learning*, 16(2), 50–65.
- Wade, R. C. (2001). “...And justice for all”:
Community service-learning for social justice.
Education Commission of the States, Retrieved
from [http://www.ecs.org/html/Document.
asp?chouseid=2913](http://www.ecs.org/html/Document.asp?chouseid=2913)

Benefits and Best Practices: Service-Learning in Counselor Education

Nathan C. Gehlert, Andrew D. Graf, and Lauren A. Rose

Abstract

Service-learning has increasingly become a part of counselor education curricula (Baggerly, 2006; Burnett, Hamel, & Long, 2004; Jett & Delgado-Romero, 2009). This article describes the roots of service-learning in counselor education and the natural fit of service-learning in this helping profession. Moreover, the article presents ethical, theoretical, and empirical justifications for incorporating service-learning in counselor training programs. Service-learning has been found to help build multicultural competence, self-awareness, and understanding of counseling techniques and theories. It also serves as a robust pre-practicum training tool for exposing students to real-life situations. The article also describes best practices for implementing service-learning and makes suggestions for future research on service-learning in counselor education.

Keywords

Service-learning, counselor education, best practices, justifications, ethics

Introduction

The Mission Statement of the American Counseling Association (ACA) Code of Ethics requires counselors to promote diversity and the advancement of society through respect for all humans (ACA, 2014). Counselor educators are charged with the same task in training counselors (Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, 1990; Jett & Delgado-Romero, 2009). A growing trend in higher education has been the adoption of formal models of student immersion in community service experiences designed to enhance student participation and learning outcomes (Arnold & McMurtery, 2011). The roots of this pedagogical method, called *service-learning*, run deep in education and the helping professions. In the early 1900s, John Dewey and William Kirkpatrick proposed that learning could be enhanced by exposing students to activities such as community service (Conrad & Hedin, 1991). The modern concept of service-learning was formalized in the 1960s in the work of Robert Sigmon (1996), who advanced the idea of integrating community service into education.

Nathan C. Gehlert is Assistant Professor in the Department of Counseling at John Carroll University. He received his Ph.D. in 2011 from Loyola University Maryland. Dr. Gehlert keeps an active research agenda in the areas of couples therapy, motivational interviewing, and the psychology of religion and spirituality. He serves on the Government Relations Committee of the Ohio Counseling Association and is the faculty advisor of John Carroll's chapter of Chi Sigma Iota, the national counseling honor society.

Andrew D. Graf is a Clinical Mental Health Counseling graduate student in the Department of Counseling at John Carroll University. He is a clinical intern in the university's Services for Students with Disabilities Office. His primary interest is acculturation mitigation and examining how culture may impact cognition in the classroom. He is also interested in service-learning as a useful pre-practicum placement for counseling graduate students.

Lauren A. Rose is a Clinical Mental Health Counseling graduate student in the Department of Counseling at John Carroll University. She currently works with adolescents, adults, and couples combating mental health issues. Her clinical interests include generalized anxiety, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, and grief.

This ideology still holds true today, as it is widely hypothesized that serving others increases levels of academic and social development (Barbee, Scherer & Combs, 2003). Furthermore, requiring service-learning of students in higher education fulfills universities' civic obligation, helps stimulate students' commitment to social action, and can encourage, depending on placement site, students to become multiculturally competent (Baggerly, 2006). On a larger scale, service-learning can also revitalize the community (e.g. facilitates structural improvement to surrounding public schools) and strengthen ties between universities and communities (Baggerly, 2006). In a sense, service-learning already exists within all counselor education programs in the form of practicum and internship training. However, opportunities exist for broadening the inclusion of service-learning throughout counselor education curricula because it benefits students while simultaneously fulfilling ethical obligations encompassing competency in working with diverse populations (ACA, 2014). In this article, we present justifications and best practices for incorporating service-learning in counselor education programs, as well as growth opportunities in the counseling profession. We recognize that using the community as a classroom raises important ethical issues (Chapdelaine, Ruiz, Warchal, & Wells, 2005; Quinn, Gamble, & Denham, 2001) and address those issues as part of our evaluation.

Benefits of Service-Learning

Service-learning can be incorporated throughout the curriculum in counselor education programs. Because training programs already require students to engage in practicum and internship training, service-learning is often used in courses before these field placements as a pre-practicum experience (Baggerly, 2006; Burnett, Hamel, & Long, 2004; Jett & Delgado-Romero, 2009). In pre-practicum service-learning (PPSL), students are not delivering mental health services as counselors per

se, but rather are working in community partner sites with the aim of building multicultural competence, self-awareness, and understanding of counseling techniques and theories. As our review of the literature will show, service-learning has been shown to enhance student learning, deepen students' experiences in their field placements, and better prepare them to become professional counselors.

Learning Counseling Techniques and Theories

Many students have not had the opportunity to work in helping-related professional settings until they begin an internship as a counselor-in-training. It can be a significant leap for students to move from a course that teaches counseling skills and techniques into a practicum course where they begin applying the skills they have learned within their coursework. As a way to incorporate these skills and prepare students for their practicum training and future careers, we suggest that service-learning can be a highly effective way for students to connect theoretical concepts (e.g. expressing empathy and active listening) with tangible experiences. Students need not approach their service experiences as counselors in order to practice these essential micro-counseling skills. Arnold and McMurtery (2011) found that students without experience or involvement with 'real' people often felt apprehensive and ill prepared to work effectively in the counseling field.

Knowing how to join with clients is a fundamental and essential counseling skill that students need to master before beginning their clinical experiences. Joining is defined as adapting to, identifying with, and accepting a person (Rasheed, Rasheed, & Marley, 2009). As with many helping skills, it is one that must be practiced in order to be mastered. Service-learning provides students with abundant opportunities to practice this and other skills in non-clinical settings, often with people who are very different from themselves (Arnold & McMurtery, 2011; Baggerly, 2006; Burnett

et al., 2004; Jett & Delgado-Romero, 2009; Rasheed et al., 2009).

Service-learning can also be used to illustrate various theoretical orientations to counseling and has been found to help students make deeper connections between theory and practice (Arman & Scherer, 2002). Murray, Lampinen, and Kelley-Soderholm (2006) used service-learning in an introductory family systems counseling course to demonstrate application of family systems theory at a summer camp for children with medical conditions and their families. Beyond having the opportunity to experience the application of family systems theory while working with the families attending the camp, the students were able to observe the treatment system, which included camp directors, medical doctors, occupational therapists, and counselors (Murray et al., 2006). After completion of this service experience, students in the course reported deeper understanding of family systems theory and how difficult it could be to treat an identified patient when multiple systems are at play.

Multicultural Competence and Exposure to Diverse Populations

Service-learning can play an instrumental role in increasing students' exposure to multicultural issues and diverse populations (Arnold & McMurtery 2011; Baggerly, 2006; Burnett et al., 2004; Jett & Delgado-Romero, 2009; Lee, Rosen, & McWhirter, 2013). In the counseling profession, such exposure is beneficial for many reasons, most importantly because students will eventually work with diverse populations that may require them to use culturally sensitive interventions (ACA, 2014). Indeed, Burnett, Hamel, and Long (2004) found that service-learning enhanced counseling students' "multicultural knowledge, increased examination of cultural bias, increased community feelings of support and resulted in an [overall] powerful learning experience" (p. 180). Similarly, in a study of counseling students working at a substance abuse treatment facility

that predominately worked with African Americans, Arnold and McMurtery (2011) found that service-learning challenged students' biases and that students reported that they were increasingly able to recognize similarities between themselves and the individuals with whom they interacted. Beyond finding common ground, students also reported an increased sense of connection to their community (Arnold & McMurtery, 2011).

Exposure to Organizational and Community Needs

Within the counseling profession, advocacy has been characterized as a "professional imperative" (Myers & Sweeny, 2004, p. 466). Counselors often work as members of treatment teams with psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and physicians. These treatment teams often work in intra- and inter-agency networks that exist within larger community systems. Service-learning experiences often expose students to the complexity of these teams, networks, and systems (Murray et al., 2006). This exposure can help students begin to become familiar with the systemic circumstances they, as counselors, and their future clients may be facing (Murray et al., 2006). Service-learning also introduces students to the plethora of community resources they may need to access with future clients. Understanding community needs also allows students to begin to comprehend the ethical responsibility of advocating for clients and the removal of barriers to treatment at the organizational and societal levels (ACA, 2014; Murray et al., 2006).

Exposure to community needs and the complex and often wearisome nature of societal systems can be overwhelming to students. In a qualitative study of counseling students, Stewart-Sicking, Snodgrass, Pereira, Mutai, and Crews (2013), found that students experienced a phase of service the authors called *being overwhelmed*. In this phase, students experienced helplessness, the "messiness" of real people, and the flawed conditions at community partner sites. Students began

to wonder if deeply entrenched problems could ever be solved, and one student commented, “I found this situation extremely disheartening. Here was a client with a need and a program to address the need, but in his case the program did not have the comprehensive resources required to meet this client’s needs” (Stewart-Sicking et al., 2013, p. 54).

According to the authors, over time, however, students began to adjust their expectations in an *adjusting expectations* phase, which allowed them to emerge from their overwhelmed state. They realized that perfect solutions might not exist for many situations and that many small actions of advocacy could cumulatively effect change (Stewart-Sicking et al., 2013). This, then, enabled students in the next phase, *reconstructing counselor identity*, to recognize the limits of the traditional therapeutic hour and to embrace advocacy as an important counselor competency (Stewart-Sicking et al., 2013).

These findings highlight the importance in service-learning of systematically attending to the developmental needs of counselor education students. Course instructors should be prepared to help students in their development through these phases by helping them constructively to work through being overwhelmed, to normalize the process of readjusting expectations, and to reform a definition of counselor identity (Stewart-Sicking et al., 2013).

Promoting Student Well-Being

While exposure to the complex needs within a community can be disheartening, service-learning itself has been found to support student well-being (Arnold & McMurtery, 2011; Barbee, Scherer, & Combs, 2003; Batchelder & Root, 1994; Jones & Abes, 2004). This is especially germane among graduate students, who report a higher level of stress than the general population (Boren, 2013). The rigorous nature of schoolwork, coupled with the need to balance work, family, relationships, and leisure activities can lead to emotional

exhaustion and burnout (Boren, 2013). Furthermore, even in the general population, individuals aged 18-33 have higher rates of diagnosed anxiety and depression than people in any other age group (American Psychological Association, 2013). Rather than adding to the stressors of graduate training, service-learning can actually serve as a psychological buffer against the negative stressors experienced by students. Barbee, Scherer, and Combs (2003) found that a PPSL experience elicited a significant increase in counseling students’ perceived self-efficacy and a reduction of students’ anxiety. Service-learning has also been found to increase students’ self-confidence, self-esteem, self-awareness, autonomy, and openness to new ideas while encouraging participation in the community (Arnold & McMurtery, 2011; Jones & Abes, 2004). Service-learning has even been shown to improve cognitive processes, reasoning, and decision making skills (Batchelder & Root, 1994).

Vocational Choice, Remediation, and Gatekeeping

As a means of supporting student well-being, we propose that service-learning can be an important catalyst for either strengthening students’ commitment to the profession or helping them realize that they want to pursue a different vocation. As with other professions, some students who enter counselor education programs ultimately decide that the field is not a good vocational fit. Working with people outside the classroom can help students either confirm or refute their choice to train as counselors. It makes sense to expose students to these experiences early in their training; otherwise, they might not have the opportunity to work in professional settings with others until their practicum and internship courses toward the end of training. Service-learning can also help students decide which population they would like to later work with during their practicum and internship courses.

We also propose that service-learning can help faculty members identify students who need remedia-

tion before they begin working one-on-one with clients in practicums and internships. A faculty member might, for instance, learn that a student has met socially (e.g. as a friend) with a client at the community partner site. This would serve as an invaluable opportunity to work with that student around the ethical issues of dual relationships (ACA, 2014), which are to be avoided in both service and clinical settings. Additionally, service-learning provides an opportunity to discuss other issues with students, such as how to dress, act, and present oneself in a professional environment.

Professional standards require counselor educators to implement gatekeeping practices (ACA, 2014). Gatekeeping involves monitoring students' competence to enter the field as a professional counselor (Corey, Haynes, & Moulton, 2010). Gatekeeping first happens prior to matriculation during candidate selection and then on an ongoing basis as part of post-admission screening. In a study of counselor education faculty, Ziomek-Daigle and Christensen (2010) found that all participants indicated that interpersonal interactions with faculty members, site supervisors, and peers were important sources of data on interpersonal competence. We suggest that integrating service-learning into courses early in program curricula can provide additional data on students and facilitate earlier opportunities for gatekeeping.

Best Practices

As data to support service-learning continues to grow, we believe that an increasing number of counselor education programs will incorporate service-learning experiences into their curricula. Due to the highly individualized nature of these experiences, it would be impractical to apply a rigid set of guidelines when designing and implementing these learning opportunities. However, in addition to demonstrating the benefits of service-learning experiences, many studies have highlighted certain components that were especially

advantageous to student participants, university faculty, and the community at large.

Fostering Students' Commitment to Service

Helping students to understand and personally endorse the justifications for service is an important foundational component to the service-learning experience. Because service-learning takes place outside the classroom, it can be viewed by students as an additional burden in their already-full schedules. As with many course requirements, students are more likely to resist the idea of service when they do not understand why they are engaging in service-learning. Therefore, helping students develop their own motivation for participating in service is essential. As the body of literature supporting service-learning grows, one novel approach we suggest to help students develop a commitment to service is to require them early in the semester to create an annotated bibliography about service-learning in the counseling profession. Thus, the benefits of service are presented not only by the course instructor and service-learning staff, but also by a chorus of scholarly sources.

In addition to understanding what service is and why they are doing it, students should have a clear idea of what is expected from them while on site and in the classroom. Service should be presented as an ongoing commitment, so that students understand the importance of attending all sessions at the community partner site (M. Finucane, personal communication, December 3, 2013). Having clear guidelines can help to allay students' concerns or confusion and positions students to interact most effectively with community participants.

Pre-Practicum Service-learning

When developing program curricula, faculty members should consider when student needs best align with potential benefits of service-learning. Jett and Delgado-Romero (2009), in a review of counselor education literature, found that service-learning is typically

conducted before practicum training because of the opportunities for using service-learning to expose students to counseling theories and techniques, increase multicultural competence, and engage in remediation and gatekeeping. We suggest that service-learning is best employed at the beginning stages of student training.

PPSL can additionally serve as an introduction to learning mechanisms that are frequently used in practicum and internship training. For instance, having students work together in small groups to discuss their service experiences introduces students to an important structural resource (i.e. peer and group consultation) for working through issues that may arise when they later engage in their practicum and internship field placements. PPSL can be an excellent opportunity to help students experience the concept of use of self, which is the counselor's most important instrument in therapy (Corey, 2012). Beginning counselors often do not understand self-in-relation to others and lack an understanding of how to leverage it in therapeutic and other interpersonal relationships (Burnett et al., 2004).

Personal Reflection and Class Discussions

As a means of increasing self-knowledge and understanding of use of self, written reflections are frequently employed in service-learning programs, and data suggest that in-class discussions, routine journal assignments, and periodic writing assignments are not only beneficial to students, but also allow university faculty and service-learning administrators to ensure an effective and appropriate exchange between students and community partners (Eyler, 2002; McCarthy, 1996). When students are trained to approach service-learning from a reflective standpoint, one in which they are encouraged to share their experiences in a safe, supportive environment, they are not only more likely to express personal concerns that may arise from interpersonal interactions (e.g. maintaining appropriate boundaries and knowing how to respond), but also are

able to make more meaningful and powerful connections between their service and coursework (Primavera, 1999).

The ability to reflect becomes especially important when students later undertake their clinical training in practicums and internships. Students who engage in service-learning prior to practicum and internship training tend to feel more at ease with the therapist-client exchange and can build rapport with clients more quickly (Burnette et al., 2004). Additionally, service-learning paired with written reflections increases students' enthusiasm for learning and enhances overall academic performance and dedication (Eyler, 2002; McKenna & Rizzo, 1999; Payne, 2000). Students who paired weekly reflections with their service reported higher levels of motivation both to interact with and to learn more about community participants (Jett & Delgado-Romero, 2009).

In order to strengthen the connection between students' service experiences and course materials, we suggest that instructors intentionally and frequently discuss service-learning in class. Journaling assignments and other various writing assignments that are routinely read by the instructor provide a wealth of material to bring into the classroom for discussion. For instance, a professor might read in several students' journal entries about difficult experiences with staff members at partner sites. The instructor could then initiate a discussion in class about managing collegial relationships. Furthermore, having the opportunity to raise questions and concerns that may arise on myriad topics in an encouraging environment can offer unparalleled guidance, support, and direction for students.

Exploring Ethical Complexities of Service

In addition to their personal reflections, students should be encouraged to explore the ethical complexities of service. Counselors are charged in the ACA Code of Ethics with the obligation to ensure that their professional relationships do not exploit others (ACA,

2014). We interpret that, for service-learning, this duty requires that counselor educators and students enter into service relationships that bring more benefit to those being served than to those providing service. To evaluate this balance, several questions should be examined: What motivates institutions of higher learning to engage in service? Do the goals of universities really align with the needs of the community? What impact does service have on the communities that students serve? Attempting to answer these questions is a fundamental task for administrators, faculty, and students and can center on an exploration of university motivation, benefits to communities, and ethical concerns.

University Motivations

In a survey conducted by *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (Fish, 2003), preparing students to become responsible citizens was selected by 65% of participants as the primary purpose of higher education. In very real ways, service-learning aspires to inspire responsible citizenship, expanding the classroom and broadening opportunities for learning. Service-learning takes place, in part, because universities have a moral obligation to provide students with opportunities to become “independent, productive, and critical thinkers” (Chapdelaine et al., 2005). Modeling responsible citizenship and training critical thinkers are the ends to which service-learning can serve as a means. However, on their own, these ends do not necessarily align with the actual needs of communities.

Benefits to Communities

Perhaps most quantifiably, communities benefit from the sheer number of hours of free labor provided by students (Baggerly, 2006). Students also offer new and fresh perspectives that elicit creativity, improvement to organizations, and expansion of services (Blouin & Perry, 2009). When implemented as a long-standing initiative, service-learning has the potential to structurally improve communities by sustaining and enhancing

organizational capacity (Baggerly, 2006; Harkavy & Hodges, 2012; Sandy & Holland, 2006). Ongoing collaborations allow community partners to begin to explore ways to improve their organizations administratively and structurally (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Sandy & Holland, 2006). Even after graduation, students who engaged in service continue to enhance the workforce for community partners by becoming staff, donors, and volunteers (Sandy & Holland, 2006). These benefits are very real, but they do not capture the whole picture of the complex service relationship.

Ethical Concerns

Because communities serve as a classroom for student participants, it becomes incumbent upon administrators and faculty members to ensure that service-learning provides equitable and meaningful assistance to the local community (Chapelaine et al., 2005). Does the act of engaging in service-learning really address the needs of the community? Do students perhaps gain more from the relationship than community partners?

Service-learning can leave students with a limited or inaccurate understanding of need. When not framed in the broader social context, need can be perceived as something deficient in the client or in the partner agency rather than something deficient in the broader social system (McKnight, 1996). Limited student preparation often leaves these and other stereotypes and misconceptions unchecked (Marullo, Moayed, & Cooke, 2009). Furthermore, students and faculty often have an inadequate understanding of how inequality influences how universities and communities might understand need differently (Eyler & Giles, 1999). This makes it challenging for universities to provide assistance that is actually needed.

Kenworthy-U'Ren (2008) describes the frequent response of service-learning programs as a “conspiracy of courtesy,” a response that is based on perceptions of need rather than an assessment of what is needed from within the community. Indeed, some institutions and

their faculty may be more concerned with whether service makes students feel socially responsible than with knowing that service addresses real need in the community (Wade, 2000). Additionally, both students and faculty often have limited understanding of how economic and political institutions impact the community, which also shapes and limits how universities choose to respond to need (Mott, 2005).

Framing Service-Learning as a Partnership

Given the aforementioned concerns, it is important to recognize that the way in which service-learning is approached and implemented is as equally important as its inclusion in a course. Service-learning is distinct from community service. In the latter, service is typically provided *for* others. Service-learning involves working *with* others. Through class discussions and readings about service-learning, this distinction should be made clear to students in order to increase the degree to which they are aware of and thus exposed to the social, political, cultural, and environmental aspects of community (Weah, Simmons, & Hall, 2000). When students approach service with the “missionary ideology” of working for others, it instills a sense that those who are capable are providing for those who are in some fashion incapable (Weah et al., 2000). This, in turn, instills a level of disconnect between helper and helpee from the beginning. Burnett, Hamel, and Long (2004) investigated the use of the partnership model of service in a multicultural counseling course. They found that it enabled students to interact with their community participants in a more meaningful and sincere manner. Furthermore, they found that as a result of framing service-learning as a partnership, students were able to move beyond personalized thinking and place themselves in a broader social context.

In counselor education, it is also important to help students understand that they are not working at community partner sites as counselors. For instance, it would be inappropriate for a student to enter into

a counseling relationship with a resident at a juvenile detention center if the goal of the program was simply to provide academic tutoring. This is a distinction that would be important for faculty members to monitor throughout the service experience.

Areas to Address in Future Scholarship

Many opportunities exist for the advancement of service-learning in counselor education. As we have demonstrated in this paper, there is a comprehensive body of both theoretical scholarship and classroom reports on the use of service-learning in counselor training. At the same time, there is a dearth of empirical scholarship on this topic. For instance, the model we advance here of PPSL has only been minimally researched and no empirical examination exists of PPSL and practicum training in the research literature (Jett & Delgado-Romero, 2009).

Counselor education research also lacks clarity about the proliferation of service-learning in training programs. Because attempting to survey counseling programs on their use (or not) of service-learning would contain sampling bias (i.e., programs that value service-learning would be more likely to respond to a survey on this topic), we pursued a different approach to quantify not only the number of universities employing service-learning, but also the importance of service-learning to universities. Under the assumption that counselor education programs use their websites to promote themselves and also the aspects of their programs they most value, we examined the websites of the programs at 250 universities that are accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs. Using an automated text search of each program’s website, we found that only 63 programs mention service-learning. While this is clearly not an empirical reckoning of the actual use of service-learning, we feel that it does reflect the value that counselor education places on this method of

training. Consequently, we believe that service-learning is undervalued in counselor education. Of course, an actual counting of service-learning use in training programs would be only a solitary point of data. We encourage future researchers also to develop a clearer taxonomy of the forms that service-learning takes in counselor education.

In this article, we have proposed the linking of remediation, gatekeeping, and PPSL. Currently, no empirical literature exists that examines this integration. We believe that PPSL serves as an important opportunity for counselor educators to use service-learning to fulfill their ethical obligation to marshal only competent counselors-in-training into the field at graduation. Studying our proposed link would be an important first step in understanding its implications.

Notably, the vast majority of counselor education scholarship on service-learning focuses on clinical mental health counseling. School counseling students could certainly benefit from service-learning just as much as clinical mental health counseling students and more scholarship is needed in this area. Scholarship on service-learning can also be found in other related professions, such as education (Chi-hung, Wong, & Judith, 2013; Meaney, Housman, Cavazos, & Wilcox, 2012), nursing (Foli, Braswell, Kirkpatrick, & Lim, 2014; Gillis & Mac Lellan, 2013), psychology (Cooke & Kemeny, 2014; Naudé, 2012), social work (Mink & Twill, 2012; Sossou & Dubus, 2013), and sociology (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Hochschild, Farley, & Chee, 2014).

Most scholarship is descriptive, involves self-report, and focuses on the benefits of service-learning to students and the educational process (Taggart & Crisp, 2011). This serves to further the notion that service is “a voyeuristic exploitation of the cultural other that masquerades as academically sanctioned servant leadership” (Butin, 2003, p. 1675). More research is needed that investigates the implications of service-

learning for both community partners and their clients (Baggerly, 2006; Blouin & Perry, 2009; Carpenter, 2011; Cruz & Giles, 2000; Harkavy & Hodges, 2012; Leiderman, Furco, Zapf, & Goss, 2003). Do service projects have a real, lasting impact on community partners and the communities they serve? How do community partners perceive student growth over the course of the service experience? What happens for them after students terminate their service? Is participation in service predictive of future civic involvement? How can service-learning pedagogy best be constructed to instill motivation to call for broader societal change rather than simply the need to help? Many important questions such as these could be investigated.

The community-based research (CBR) model is a popular service-learning model that addresses many of the shortcomings of service-learning projects and research (Marullo, Moayed, & Cooke, 2009). In CBR, faculty and students first undertake research projects with community organizations to discover needs identified by the community. The research itself is the focus of service, rather than directly participating in the delivery of client services within already-existing organizational structures (Marullo et al., 2009).

Finally, the links between service and student well-being could be investigated more deeply. As we have reported, correlational links have been found between service and the increase of self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-awareness, and autonomy in students (Arnold & McMurtery, 2011; Barbee et al., 2003; Jones & Abes, 2004). We recommend that future researchers employ experimental study designs in order to investigate the possibility of causal links between these constructs and service-learning.

Conclusion

As we have demonstrated, service-learning provides a unique opportunity to strengthen the training of students in counselor education. It is a powerful learning

tool that can enhance student well-being while enhancing students' multicultural competence, understanding of community needs, and knowledge of counseling techniques and theories. We advocate for the wider adoption of service-learning in counselor education programs. We recommend further study of service-learning so that implications of service for students, community partners, and their clients can be more clearly understood. ■■■

References

- American Counseling Association (2014). *2014 ACA code of ethics*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- American Psychological Association (2013). *Stress in America: Our Health at Risk*. Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/news/press/releases/stress/2012/full-report.pdf>
- Arman, J. F., & Scherer, D. (2002). Service-learning in school counselor preparation: A qualitative analysis. *Journal of Humanistic Counseling, Education, and Development*, 41, 69-86.
- Arnold, R., & McMurtery, R. F. (2011). Integrating service-learning into counselor education: Applications and implications. *The Researcher: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 24(1), 59-72.
- Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (1990). Standards and Procedures for School Counselor Training and Certification. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 29, 213-215.
- Baggerly, J. (2006). Service-learning with children affected by poverty: Facilitating multicultural competence in counseling education students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 34, 244-255.
- Barbee, P. W., Scherer, D., & Combs, D. C. (2003). Prepracticum service-learning: Examining the relationship with counselor self-efficacy and anxiety. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 43, 108-119.
- Batchelder, T. H., & Root, S. (1994). Effects of an undergraduate program to integrate academic learning and service: Cognitive, prosocial cognitive, and identity outcomes. *Journal of Adolescence*, 17(4), 341-355.
- Blouin, D. D., & Perry, E. M. (2009). Whom does service-learning really serve? Community-based organizations' perspectives on service-learning. *Teaching Sociology*, 37(2), 120-135.
- Boren, J. (2013). Co-Rumination partially mediates the relationship between social support and emotional exhaustion among graduate students. *Communication Quarterly*, 61(3), 253-267. doi: 10.1080/01463373.2012.751436
- Burnett, J. A., Hamel, D., & Long, L. L. (2004). Service-learning in graduate counselor education: Developing multicultural counseling competency. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 32, 180-191.
- Butin, D. W. (2003). Of what use is it? Multiple conceptualizations of service-learning. *Teachers College Record*, 105(9), 1674-1692. doi: 10.1046/j.1467-9620.2003.00305.x
- Carpenter, H. (2011). How we could measure community impact of nonprofit graduate students' service-learning projects: Lessons from the literature. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, (1), 115.
- Chapdelaine, A., Ruiz, A., Warchal, J., & Wells, C. (2005). *Service-learning code of ethics*. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Co.

- Chi-hung, L., Wong, B., & Judith, W. (2013). Conceptions of learning in pre-service and in-service early childhood education students and the impact of teaching experience. *Australasian Journal of Early Childhood*, 38(3), 57-67.
- Cohen, F., Melchior, A., Neil-Bailis, L., & Pineros-Shields, T. (2005). *Making knowledge productive: Skills and tools for evaluating community service-learning programs in Massachusetts*. Malden, MA: The Massachusetts Department of Education.
- Conrad, D., & Hedin, D. (1991). School-based community service: What we know from research and theory. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 72, 743-749.
- Cooke, C. A., & Kemeny, M. (2014). Student perspectives on the impact of service-learning on the educational experience. *Schole: A Journal of Leisure Studies and Recreation Education*, 29(1), 102-111.
- Corey, G. (2012). *Theory and practice of counseling and psychotherapy* (9th ed.). Independence, KY: Cengage.
- Corey, R., Haynes, G., & Moulton, P. (2010). *Clinical supervision in the helping professions: A practical guide*. Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.
- Cruz, N. I., & Giles, D. E. (2000). Where's the community in service-learning research. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 7(1), 28-34.
- Eyler, J. (2002). Reflection: linking service and learning – linking students and communities. *Journal of Social Issues*, 58, 517-534.
- Eyler, J., & Giles Jr, D. E. (1999). *Where's the learning in service-learning?* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Fish, S. (2003, May 16). Aim low. *Chronicle of Higher Education*. P. C5.
- Foli, K. J., Braswell, M., Kirkpatrick, J., & Lim, E. (2014). Development of leadership behaviors in undergraduate nursing students: A service-learning approach. *Nursing Education Perspectives*, 35(2), 76-82. doi:10.5480/11-578.1
- Gillis, A., & Mac Lellan, M. A. (2013). Critical service-learning in community health nursing: Enhancing access to cardiac health screening. *International Journal of Nursing Education Scholarship*, 10(1), 1-9. doi:10.1515/ijnes-2012-0031
- Harkavy, I., & Hodges, R. A. (2012). Democratic devolution: How America's colleges and universities can strengthen their communities. *Policy memo, Progressive Policy Institute, Washington, DC*. Retrieved from <http://www.compact.org/wp-content/uploads/2009/01/Democratic-Devolution-How-Americas-Colleges-and-Universities-Can-Strengthen-Their-Communities.pdf>
- Hochschild, T. R., Farley, M., & Chee, V. (2014). Incorporating sociology into community service classes. *Teaching Sociology*, 42(2), 105-118.
- Jett, S. T., & Delgado-Romero, E. A. (2009). Prepracticum service-learning in counselor education: A qualitative case study. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 49, 106-122.
- Jones, S. R., & Abes, E. S. (2004). Enduring influences of service-learning on college students' identity development. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45(2), 149-166.
- Kenworthy-U'Ren, A. L. (2008). A decade of service-learning: A review of the field ten years after JOBE's seminal special issue. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81(4), 811-822.

- Lee, D. L., Rosen, A. D., & McWhirter, J. J. (2013). Assessing changes in counselor trainees' multicultural competence related to service-learning. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 42, 31-41. doi:10.1002/j.2161-1912.2014.00042.x
- Leiderman, S., Furco, A., Zapf, J., & Goss, M. (2003). *Building partnerships with college campuses: Community perspectives. A Publication of the Consortium for the Advancement of Private Higher Education's Engaging Communities and Campuses Grant Program*. Washington, DC: The Council of Independent Colleges.
- Marullo, S., Moayed, R., & Cooke, D. (2009). C. Wright Mills's friendly critique of service-learning and an innovative response: Cross-institutional collaborations for community-based research. *Teaching Sociology*, 37(1), 61-75.
- McCarthy, M. (1996). *One-time and short term service-learning experiences. Service-learning in higher education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- McKenna, M. W., & Rizzo, E. (1999). Outside the classroom: student perceptions of the benefits of service-learning. *Journal of Prevention and Intervention in the Community*, 18, 111-123.
- McKnight, J. (1995). *The carefree society: Community and its counterfeits*. New York: Basic Books.
- Meaney, K. S., Housman, J., Cavazos, A., & Wilcox, M. L. (2012). Examining service-learning in a graduate physical education teacher education course. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 12(3), 108-124.
- Mink, T., & Twill, S. (2012). Using service-learning to teach a social work policy course. *Journal of Community Engagement and Scholarship*, 5(1), 5-13.
- Mott, A. (2005). *University education for community change: a vital strategy for progress on poverty, race and community building*. Washington: Community Learning Project.
- Murray, C. E., Lampinen, A., & Kelley-Soderholm, E. L. (2006). Innovative methods: Teaching family systems theory through service-learning. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 46, 44-57.
- Myers, J. E., & Sweeney, T. J. (2004). Advocacy for the counseling profession: Results of a national survey. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 82, 466-471.
- Naudé, L. (2012). At the cultural crossroads: Intergroup psychology among students in a service-learning program. *Current Psychology*, 31(3), 221-245. doi:10.1007/s12144-012-9142-5
- Payne, D. A. (2000). *Evaluating service-learning activities and programs*. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Education.
- Primavera, J. (1999). Unintended consequences of volunteerism: positive outcomes for those who serve. *Educating Students to Make a Difference*, 18, 125-135.
- Quinn, S. C., Gamble, D., & Denham, A. (2001). Ethics and community-based education: Balancing respect for the community with professional preparation. *Family Community Health*, 23(4), 9-23.
- Rasheed, J. M., Rasheed, M. N., & Marley, J. A. (2009). *Readings in family therapy: From theory to practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Sandy, M., & Holland, B. A. (2006). Different Worlds and Common Ground: Community Partner Perspectives on Campus-Community Partnerships. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 13(1), 30-43.

- Sigmon, R. L. (1996). A service-learning timeline. In R. L. Sigmon (Ed.), *Journey to service-learning: Experiences from independent liberal arts colleges and universities* (pp. 158-166). Washington, DC: Council of Independent Colleges.
- Sossou, M., & Dubus, N. (2013). International social work field placement or volunteer tourism? Developing an asset-based justice-learning field experience. *Journal of Learning Design*, 6(1), 10-19.
- Stewart-Sicking, J. A., Snodgrass, J. L., Pereira, R., Mutai, W. W., & Crews, R. (2013). A grounded theory investigation into the process and effects of service-learning in counselor education. *The International Journal of Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement*, 1(1), 47-60.
- Taggart, A., & Crisp, G. (2011). Service-learning at community colleges: Synthesis, critique, and recommendations for future research. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 42(1), 24-44.
- Wade, R. C. (2000). From a distance: Service-learning and social justice. In C. R. O'Grady (Ed.), *Integrating service-learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities* (pp. 93-111). New York: Routledge.
- Weah, W., Simmons, V. C., & Hall, M. (2000). Service-learning and multicultural/multiethnic perspectives. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 81, 673-675.
- Ziomek-Daigle, J., & Christensen, T. M. (2010). An emergent theory of gatekeeping practices in counselor education. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 88(4), 407-415.

Using Goal-Based Learning to Understand Why Service-Learning Improves Cognitive Outcomes

Pamela Steinke and Peggy Fitch

Abstract

This paper highlights the promise of Goal-Based Learning (GBL) as instantiated in service-learning. Through an examination of the components of GBL including intrinsic student goals and real-life impact, we address the question of why service-learning improves cognitive outcomes. GBL is defined and compared with Problem-Based Learning (PBL) and supporting research from the fields of personality, cognitive, and educational psychology is discussed and applied to service-learning. Characteristics of GBL are also discussed including constructivist learning environments, case-based reasoning, and transfer. This examination results in insights for service-learning faculty who wish to improve cognitive outcomes of service-learning.

Key words

student goals, cognitive outcomes, goal-based learning, problem-based learning, service-learning

Introduction

Academics with an interest in using best practices to improve teaching and learning can have a difficult time understanding why some faculty are reluctant to utilize new teaching strategies even when research clearly supports the effectiveness of these strategies. Of course, one can always blame factors such as lack of teaching preparation in graduate education, current institutional politics, an overemphasis on research to the detriment of teaching, or lack of institutional support for faculty development in teaching and learning. None of these answers, however, seems entirely satisfactory. We believe that it is often unclear why specific teaching strategies work, and in the absence of this understanding, faculty tend to rely on “theory, lore, and intuition” (Brown, Roediger, & McDaniel, 2014, p. 8). Thus it should not surprise us if faculty are reluctant to invest time and energy into new programs or teaching strategies if the implementation might lead to ineffectiveness or even harmful teaching, because the elements necessary for success of the strategy had not yet been identified.

Pam Steinke is Assessment Coordinator at the University of St. Francis, IL. She earned her A.B. from University of Michigan-Ann Arbor and her Ph.D. from University of California-Davis. Previously a tenured faculty member in Psychology, over the past 10 years she has held leadership positions in Assessment. Her scholarly interests include assessment and cognitive outcomes of service-learning.

Peggy Fitch is Vice President for Student Development and Professor of Psychology at Central College, IA. She earned her B.A. from Stephens College, M.A. from University of Maryland-College Park, and Ph.D. from University of Kansas. A developmental psychologist by training, she teaches and leads the student development division at Central College. Her scholarly interests include intellectual and intercultural development as outcomes of service-learning.

This may be particularly true of strategies that can require faculty to go beyond their comfort zone and connect student learning with community action. As Schank (1996) writes, in education “there has always been a great deal of lip service given to the idea of learning by doing, but not much has been done about it” (p. 295). He contends one reason that learning by doing has not been more popular is because “educators and psychologists have not really understood why learning by doing works, and thus are loathe to insist upon it” (p. 295). This is the question Dewey (1938) pondered when he wrote:

A primary responsibility of educators is that they ...recognize in the concrete what surroundings are conducive to having experiences that lead to growth. Above all, they should know how to utilize the surroundings, physical and social, that exist so as to extract from them all that they have to contribute to building up experiences that are worthwhile. (p. 40)

Research on the positive impact of service-learning on cognitive outcomes would benefit from a framework for understanding why it works. Faculty are very interested in enhancing cognitive outcomes in their students and may be more willing to adopt service-learning if they could articulate the characteristics that make it successful. Research over the past 20 years has consistently found a positive relationship between service-learning and cognitive outcomes such as critical thinking and problem solving (e.g., Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Novak, Markey, & Allen, 2007; Steinke & Buresh, 2002). In a review of the literature Fitch, Steinke and Hudson (2012) discuss the important role service-learning can play in enhancing outcomes both in intellectual development and in cognitive processes associated with critical thinking, including metacognition, transfer, and problem-solving. These are all characteristics of learning defined by Brown, Roediger, and McDaniel (2014)

as “acquiring knowledge and skills and having them readily available from memory so you can make sense of future problems and opportunities” (p. 2). They are also the skills necessary to develop “Higher Learning,” as articulated by Hersh and Keeling: “A central goal of higher education is to strengthen students’ explanatory capabilities – to increase their understanding of the world’s complexity rather than to reduce that complexity to fit ideology and/or naïve understanding – by helping students to construct, rather than simply to receive, coherent meanings across encounters with different disciplines, people, ideas, languages, and perspectives” (Hersh & Keeling, 2013, p. 6).

Service-learning research has also identified a number of factors that represent high-quality service-learning, including quality of placement, depth of reflection, and relevance of course material to the service project (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Similarly, research on high-impact practices has identified key elements of effective high-impact practices (including service-learning) and some of these elements overlap with the service-learning research, such as investing time and effort in the practice, interacting with faculty about substantive course material, and structured reflection (Kuh & O’Donnell, 2013). Much of the service-learning and high-impact practice research provides some direction for instructors by identifying how service-learning enhances outcomes, but it still leaves open the question of why it enhances them.

Goal-Based Learning (GBL)

We propose that one of the main reasons high-quality service-learning is so successful is its inherent incorporation of what we define as Goal-Based Learning (GBL). GBL is learning that occurs in pursuit of an intrinsically interesting goal that has real-world impact and is necessary for either achieving this goal or understanding why attempts at goal achievement have failed. Breaking down this definition illuminates how GBL

is not typical of current educational practices. First, an intrinsically interesting goal is one that has meaning to the student; it must be a goal defined in a way that is relevant to the student and that the student genuinely cares about achieving for reasons that go beyond external factors such as grades. Second, the goal must have real-world impact in the sense that it could potentially make a change in the world beyond the student. In other words, the goal must be defined by the student in such a way that achieving it matters in a real sense, for example, by leading to social change or solving a larger problem. This impact could be in the form of an academic paper or presentation, however, the student must define the goal as having a social impact. Finally, the academic learning that occurs must be crucial for the student to be able to make a serious attempt at achieving the goal. In GBL, students' motivation to learn is inextricably tied to achieving the intrinsic, meaningful goal.

We support Eyler and Giles' (1999) assertion that service-learning "should include a balance between service to the community and academic learning" (p. 4) with reflection providing the vital link between service and learning. Ideally, this approach represents a balance between engaging students in goals that they find interesting and meeting goals identified by the community. These goals go beyond the learning objectives of the academic assignment yet are accomplished through the fulfillment of these objectives. In this sense, service-learning at its best is inherently goal-based.

A cognitive science approach similar to GBL has used Goal-Based Scenarios (GBSs) to support the importance of reforming the traditional classroom with a focus on purposes or goals (Schank, 1994, 1996; Schank & Cleary, 1995; Schank & Joseph, 1998). Schank and colleagues' interdisciplinary approach to improving the way people learn emphasizes the importance of GBSs, which involve using goal-based simulations designed to help students practice target

skills and use relevant content knowledge in pursuit of a goal. According to the GBS approach, the focus of education should be on student goals that are intrinsically interesting and applicable to the development of real-life skills. While it shares many key characteristics with GBL, the GBSs approach does not require goals to have real-world impact. GBL's effectiveness depends on goals that are both intrinsically interesting and have real-life impact. While one could argue that few instructional strategies are truly goal-based in this sense, service-learning is clearly not the only one. Other examples could be found in well-designed entrepreneurship projects or in undergraduate research.

Intrinsic Student Goals

The GBSs approach is based on the assumption that motivation to learn begins with a goal and that learning occurs as a result of what happens as a student attempts to achieve that goal (Schank et al., 1994). Failure is inevitable when goals are challenging. Students learn through explaining failures with the support and feedback of instructors who have more expertise; content is not the focus of learning, rather it becomes relevant for achieving goals and explaining failures (Schank, 1994, 1996; Schank & Cleary, 1995; Schank & Joseph, 1998). Covington (2000) makes a similar point when he argues that academic failure should be defined as failure to meet a goal of a student, not how a student compares to other students, and that students should receive tangible, intrinsic rewards for learning, such as the opportunity to share their work with others, as is the case with service-learning.

Dewey (1916, 1938), Schank (1996) and Covington (2000) all agree that goals should be meaningful and intrinsically interesting. Previous service-learning research has found that students' choice regarding their service as well as students' meaningful connection to the community (accountability) are important predictors of learning in service-learning (Steinke, Fitch, Johnson, & Waldstein, 2002), and that

a high quality placement in which faculty, student, and agency needs are brought together fosters student learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

This line of research supports the importance of ensuring that students identify clear goals in their learning environments and that they are personally invested in reaching these goals. It also suggests that an ideal learning environment is one in which goals are socially relevant (i.e., they have meaning beyond the self) and are arranged in a way that students need to acquire the course content and skills to achieve the goal or understand their failure to achieve it.

Real-life Impact

Dewey's (1916, 1938) work highlights the importance of socially relevant goals for learning. He advocates for flexible educational goals that originate from activity undertaken jointly between individual action and social relationships. Similarly, Schank (1996) argues that goals must not only be intrinsically interesting, but must also be centered on processes that have clear real-world relevancy. He identified three universal processes – communication, human relations and reasoning – and argues that these universal processes, not the acquisition of specific facts, should be the focus of education. This is best accomplished by acquiring knowledge in the context of its potential real-world use, as is the case with service-learning. Schank (1996) also emphasizes the importance of developing explicit functional knowledge (i.e., cognitive knowledge that can be put directly to use). Acquiring content knowledge in the context of real goals or in the context of what students want to know enhances functional recall or “being able to recall it at the precise moment that it might be of use” (p. 327). To develop explicit functional knowledge of a domain, students must use that knowledge to make decisions, and in the decision-making process they must engage in reflection and discussion that encourages them both to discriminate among features of the situation and to articulate why they made the decision

they did. Schank's recommendation here is consistent with research on expert knowledge and the role of quality instruction and reflection activities in service-learning courses (Ash & Clayton, 2009; Eyler & Giles, 1999).

This line of reasoning and research suggests that in an ideal learning environment students will engage in structured reflection that encourages them to articulate how their learning of course content can help with everyday decision making. The focus of the reflection will be on the application of course content to real-world experiences and situations related to students' actual decisions. As mentioned previously, GBL goes further than GBSs in stressing the importance of real-world relevancy. In GBL, the goal must be something expected to make an impact on the world, not just be relevant to real-world skills. For this reason, Schank's use of simulations does not go far enough to be considered an instantiation of GBL, which is also one distinction between GBL and Problem-Based Learning (PBL).

Distinguishing GBL from Problem-Based Learning (PBL)

Problem-Based Learning (PBL) is also relevant to GBL and has already been applied to service-learning. In PBL the goal is defined as solving the immediate problem; in this sense it can sometimes be an example of GBL. PBL began in the medical field with McMaster University in the late 1960s. Since then, PBL has been integrated into a variety of postsecondary education programs (Schwartz, Mennin & Webb, 2001). At all levels of education to which PBL has been adapted the curricula are designed around real-life problems. PBL not only encourages the cognitive processes of knowledge acquisition and problem solving, but also encourages self regulation through its focus on metacognitive awareness of the learning process (Hmelo & Evensen, 2000). For example, in a review

of the research on self-directed learning in medical school PBL curricula, Blumberg (2000) concluded that in comparison to students in a traditional curriculum PBL students report that they are more self-directed, more active library users, and employ study strategies that result in deeper processing.

While the medical model of PBL from McMaster University involved simulated cases, the critical skills program from Education by Design at Antioch New England Graduate School applied both these principles and the principles of situated learning to real-world problems in developing Problem-Based Service-learning (PBSL) (Gordon, 2000). As such, PBSL is one example of GBL. At the heart of PBSL is student responsibility for helping to solve real community problems with the goals of increasing students' engagement in their learning and in the promoting of higher order critical thinking skills. The promise of PBSL is captured in the field guide for assisting faculty with integrating PBSL into their courses as follows:

The essence of Problem-Based Service Learning (PBSL) is to fully engage students in their learning process. When done well, PBSL is designed to promote student responsibility for and ownership in their learning. This, in turn, results in greater student initiative, curiosity, pride, and enthusiasm to pursue further learning in class and beyond. (Gordon, 2000, p. 15)

One important component of PBSL is setting goals. In PBSL, goals focus on skills necessary for success beyond college (Gordon, 2000). Another important component is that within the context of a supportive environment, students are expected to experience disequilibrium and to make mistakes. The PBSL approach recognizes that most learning that really changes student thinking requires a period of disequilibrium as "old ideas are brought into question and new perspectives come to the fore" (Gordon, 2000, p. 43). Consistent with King and Kitchener's (1994, 2000)

Reflective Judgment Model, students develop more reflective thinking when asked to solve an ill-structured problem that challenges their previous expectations. It is the job of the instructor to "create an environment in which students feel safe to try out new thinking patterns and behaviors, learn from their mistakes, and collectively celebrate success" (Gordon, 2000, p. 43). More information about PBSL can be found on the [Campus Compact website](#).

While PBSL attempts to align intrinsic student goals with socially meaningful goals, PBL, unlike GBL, does not explicitly include the component of social impact. In addition, by focusing solely on a problem, there are several reasons why the focus of PBL can be too narrow in its effort to maximize learning outcomes. First, by defining the problem ahead of time, students are not being taught to recognize when problems exist, which is a key component of successful intelligence. As Sternberg (1997) writes, "Successfully intelligent people don't wait for problems to hit them over the head: They recognize their existence before they get out of hand and begin the process of solving them" (p. 158). Second, the identification of relevant problems to be solved will change as individuals' goals change. For example, instructors may not identify their reliance on lecturing as a problem until they shift their teaching goals toward a more student-centered approach. Or in medical curricula, a shift toward prevention may lead to the recognition of problems that can arise with over reliance on medication. Third, in real-life situations, the goal is never to just solve the immediate problem. Many times service-learning practitioners lament over how their students have not recognized the wider societal goals (e.g., provide equal educational opportunities, change attitudes toward aging) that would help address community needs because students have focused too narrowly on solving the problem at hand (e.g., providing tutoring for underserved students, relieving the loneliness of institutionalized elderly). Finally, shifting

the focus from PBL to GBL can lead to an increased awareness of the importance of goal-directed behavior in humans and the role it plays in student learning and development.

The Goal-based Nature of Humans

The importance and complexity of human goals has been well documented in the psychological literature. Research from personality, cognitive, and educational psychology all highlight the elevated status of goals in human motivation, thinking and learning.

Personality Research

Many personality researchers in the area of positive psychology have emphasized both the nature of humans as goal-directed and the importance of goals to well-being and happiness (Seligman, 2001; Sinnott, 2013). For example, hope theory (Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002) is based on the assumption that “hopeful thought reflects the belief that one can find pathways to desired goals and become motivated to use those pathways” (p. 257). In hope theory, goal-directed thought is essential for emotional survival and well-being. Csikszentmihalyi’s (1997) experience of “flow” as a “sense of effortless action” during which “what we feel, what we wish, and what we think are in harmony” (p. 29) occurs only in situations in which a person has clear goals. Having a clear goal and feedback structure with the right level of challenge will encourage the experience of “flow” as complete concentration and absorption in present activities in which one’s awareness of self and action merge (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). The importance of goals to the development of the individual is unequivocal when Csikszentmihalyi writes, “without a clear set of goals, it is difficult to develop a coherent self” (p. 23).

Cognitive Research

Goals are also important to humans from the perspective of social information processing. Social cognitive

research has found that goal inferences are crucial to understanding social interactions and are often made spontaneously (e.g., Hassin, Aarts, & Ferguson, 2005). Evidence suggests that observers make spontaneous goal inferences more quickly and easily than other social inferences such as trait inferences (Van Overwalle, Van Duynslaeger, Coomans, & Timmermans, 2012). Similarly, research in text comprehension has highlighted the importance of causal inferences, including superordinate goal inferences, to achieving coherence in understanding a text (e.g., Graesser, Singer, & Trabasso, 1994). Further, the meaning that readers construct through these inferences is directly related to their own goals. This research highlights the importance of goals to comprehension and has implications for other learning contexts.

Education Research

GBL is also consistent with educational research on motivation and reward structures. For example, researchers have found that an intrinsic, mastery orientation is related to more positive academic outcomes, whereas an extrinsic orientation focused on avoiding looking bad is related to more negative academic outcomes (e.g., Pintrich, 2000). Reviewing research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivators in academics, Covington (2000) concludes that students are more likely to enjoy and value the learning process when they find what they are learning to be personally interesting. Intrinsic interest may even offset the effects of negative evaluations or failing grades and motivate students to work harder. Furthermore, the interaction between the goal orientation the student brings to instruction and the class reward structure will affect the amount and quality of student learning. What this implies according to Covington (2000) is that instructional goals should make use of students’ individual strengths and motivators.

Further research has focused on how to affect goal orientation and sustain motivation over time. Research

has found that participation in undergraduate research in which students are working on a goal related to an authentic research project with faculty support and supervision is associated with a more positive goal orientation over time among underrepresented students in the STEM disciplines (Hernandez, Schultz, Estrada, Woodcock, & Chance, 2012). These results are consistent with recent work on the positive effects of high-impact practices—including undergraduate research and service-learning—on the success of underserved students (Finley & McNair, 2013). The high-impact practices that were studied included undergraduate research and service-learning. As with service-learning, high-quality undergraduate research also has all the components of GBL.

Reform of the traditional classroom toward a more goal-oriented approach that is integrated with service has been the topic of scholarly discussions for many years. Dewey (1938) argued that “the formation of purposes and the organization of means to execute them are the work of intelligence” (p. 67). Furthermore, the principles of goal-based service-learning are inherent in Dewey’s work. For Dewey (1916) service and education are brought together when the principles of goal-based learning are realized. If educational goals arise out of joint activity and when the learning process of goals, means, and results is embraced, then education is congruent with the inherent value of everyday life, in which students’ meaningful results fuel their future goals.

Effective Learning Characteristics Inherent to GBL

Implementation of GBL necessarily involves some characteristics of learning environments that have been found to be effective including Constructivist Learning Environments (CLEs), Case-Based Reasoning (CBR), and Transfer.

Constructivist Learning Environments (CLEs)

GBL necessarily involves constructivist learning. In constructivist learning, instruction is viewed as a

learning environment in which “meaningful, authentic activities...help the learner to construct understandings and develop skills relevant to solving problems” (Wilson, 1996, p. 3). Other CLEs include case-based reasoning, situated learning, problem-based learning, and project-based learning. Jonassen (1999) contends that CLEs begin with the assumption that the case or problem drives the learning. The ideal learning task in all CLEs is one that is interesting to students, ill-structured, and authentic. Student learning is cultivated through mindful activity towards resolution of the task and supported “by scaffolding student memory and by enhancing cognitive flexibility” (p. 223). Multiple perspectives on the task are encouraged as learners construct their own interpretations. Informational and cognitive tools are provided to the students, and close attention is paid to physical and social characteristics of the environment. Teachers are there to support the learning activities of exploration, articulation, and reflection through the processes of modeling, coaching, and scaffolding. Constructivist learning “engages conceptual and strategic thinking, in contrast to reproductive learning” (p. 236). Successful constructivist learning relies on multiple contexts, analogs, examples, or cases so that students are able to express concepts in a ways that are not context bound.

High quality service-learning placement can provide an ideal CLE. For example, one authentic and ill-structured task might be a service-learning project in which the real-world problem for college students is tutoring children in an after-school program. Students’ initial approach might be to provide too little or too much help based on their own previous experience or assumptions about their role. Once informed by course material about Vygotsky’s theory of scaffolding within the learner’s zone of proximal development—providing just enough support in the form of hints or questions so the learner can perform the task successfully—students’ reflections can now go beyond “some kids get it and

others don't" to "how well kids learn may depend upon how the task is structured by the tutor." In this way service-learning has the potential to help students connect concepts encountered at both the theoretical and practical levels.

Case-Based Reasoning (CBR)

GBL also requires students to reason through consideration of multiple cases. Case-based reasoning (CBR) has been studied in the artificial intelligence field as a type of reasoning by analogy in which previous situations or cases are used to solve new problems (Kolodner, 1993). CBR came out of cognitive science work on scripts as a way of explaining how to handle cases that were neither completely novel nor completely routine (Schank, Kass & Riesbeck, 1994). CBR provides both a framework for understanding how knowledge is stored and interpreted as well as a model of human reasoning and problem solving (Leake, 1996).

According to Schank, one reason learning by doing is so successful is that it relies upon case-based reasoning. Schank (1996) writes, "Experiences, or cases, are a critical element in understanding what is learned when one learns by doing" (p. 298). Case-based reasoning improves critical thinking and develops expertise because the task of contrasting cases teaches the learner how to "detect nuances" and "compare and contrast various experiences" (p. 298). When learners encounter a new case that is similar to old ones, they need to call up old scripts to help them develop a new script (unless they decide that the new case really is no different from previous cases). Novices often miss these nuances and do not see the need to create a new script for similar (but to experts critically different) cases. Case-based education teaches students that nuances can be important and thereby helps develop the skill of noticing these differences. This result is consistent with recent research supporting the importance of simplifying case materials so that students can detect nuances

and notice when new scripts are needed (MacDougall et al., 2014).

Schank (1996) proposes that cases are stored both as exceptions to expectations about old cases and by their themes. Students learn new cases through failed expectations, so it is important to present new cases in ways that encourage students to examine these expectations. John Dewey (1938) similarly noted the important role of reflection in learning from cases when he wrote, "But in unfamiliar cases, we cannot tell just what the consequences of observed conditions will be unless we go over past experiences in our mind, unless we reflect upon them and by seeing what is similar in them to those now present, go on to form a judgment of what may be expected in the present situation" (p. 68).

These assertions by Dewey and Schank suggest that students should be encouraged to reflect critically on the similarities and differences of multiple exemplars, situations, or perspectives. In the context of service-learning, some cases that students encounter in their service-learning experiences can be complex. In an ideal learning environment, students will be provided the structure needed to simplify these cases in ways that help them to understand the underlying structure of the issue and to be able to compare this structure with other, similar cases. Students will need guidance in knowing what scripts to call up to understand the crucial differences between cases. This is particularly important in situations in which students must examine failed expectations to understand differences between cases.

Transfer

GBL also requires students to transfer academic content to a socially relevant goal. Transfer is the heart of what higher education is all about, yet our current educational system often fails to engage students in ways that create deep, usable knowledge and encourage flexible transfer to new contexts (Bransford, Brown, Cocking, Donovan, & Pellegrino, 2000; Brown, Roediger, & McDaniel,

2014). Critiques of higher education that have been building over the last two decades often highlight the fact that despite lip service to the importance of teaching beyond the immediate context, higher education is still not focusing enough on those intellectual skills necessary for success outside of academia (e.g., communication, critical thinking, real-world problem-solving). Instead, there is a disproportionate amount of time teaching and testing the learning of discrete facts with little effort made to increase understanding and transfer of these facts across courses and across years in college (Association of American Colleges and Universities [AAC&U], 2002). For example, the great majority of examinations are short answer or multiple-choice with only a small minority asking students to demonstrate critical thinking skills (Bok, 2006), and research suggests that students are in fact making far fewer gains than could be expected from higher education (Arum & Roksa, 2011). Transfer is at the heart of whether the skills and content taught in higher education will be used in future academic, vocational, or personal contexts. As Barnett and Ceci (2002) note, “much of the financial and human investment in education has been justified on the grounds that formal schooling helps inculcate general skills that transfer beyond the world of academia and thus help students become more productive members of society” (p. 613). Indeed, a 2013 survey of non-profit and private sector employers identified cross-cutting capacities such as critical thinking, written and oral communication skills, solving complex problems, and applying knowledge to real-world settings as more important than a student’s major for consideration in hiring (http://www.aacu.org/leap/public_opinion_research.cfm).

Employers, educators, and policy makers are most interested in knowing that education is teaching what Barnett and Ceci (2002) refer to as “far transfer” between different contexts. For example, solving spontaneous, real-world, ill-structured problems is clearly

dissimilar to completing a worksheet in class even if the learning objectives for the worksheet are relevant to the new situation. Far transfer can be contrasted with “near transfer” where the learning context and the application context are very similar. For example, transferring knowledge and skills from doing homework problems is clearly similar to solving the same type of problems on an exam. Holding schools accountable includes a demonstration that “what is taught in schools is generally applicable over time and contexts, not just immediately in similar contexts” (Barnett & Ceci, 2002, p. 615).

What seems clear from the research is that transfer does not happen easily or automatically (Haskell, 2001; Wardle, 2007). Rather, we must teach for transfer and make it an explicit goal (Yancy, Robertson, & Taczak, 2014). A review of the literature yields conflicting results that can be accounted for in part by the level of students’ prior knowledge about a topic and their depth of understanding (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). In short, being asked to reflect on the deep structure of problems as well as on similarities and differences across contexts facilitates transfer of knowledge and skills. Yancy, Robertson and Taczak (2014) have demonstrated success in teaching for transfer in writing through explicit prompts requiring students to reflect on their prior knowledge and answer questions about audience and purpose. In problem solving the use of explicit “hints” has demonstrated transfer. For example, in a classic study, Gick and Holyoak (1980) had students attempt to solve the Dunker radiation problem after hearing a story involving an analogous military problem. Students needed a hint that the first story was useful in solving the second problem to see the analogy and thereby transfer what they had learned in the first problem to help solve the second problem. Another important dimension of whether transfer occurs is the specificity (e.g., specific procedure versus general principle) of the knowledge or skills being transferred (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). In general, broader skills and

principles are easier to transfer than specific procedures and content. For example, researchers have had some success in demonstrating transfer of critical thinking as related to the teaching of meta-cognitive skills (Bransford et al., 2000; Sternberg, 1997) and transfer of learning from first-year composition to other writing courses through “meta-awareness about writing, language, and rhetorical strategies” (Wardle, 2007, p. 82). Finally, evidence suggests that formal schooling itself has benefits transferable to the occupational world, although the source of those benefits is not clear (Barnett & Ceci, 2002).

Clearly, teaching for transfer requires reflection on deep understanding with attention to multiple contexts, but perhaps the most popularly held conceptual understanding of the process of transfer is not the most useful. Transfer should not be viewed as an all-or-nothing process, but rather as a process that grows incrementally with the organization of knowledge resources that allows for the expansion of situations perceived as applicable to the concept or principle. The use of abstraction is “a consequence of transfer and growth or understanding – not the cause of it” (Wagner, 2006, p. 66). Seeing the relevance of a principle to multiple contexts allows a student to state the principle more abstractly. Wagner does not see a clear pedagogical solution to the problem of transfer given this understanding except to suggest that providing a variety of examples will encourage breadth in the development of knowledge resources. GBL including service-learning with an emphasis on learning principles through multiple varied contexts is one solution to the transfer problem.

This analysis suggests that an ideal learning environment will be one in which instructors explicitly teach for transfer. Given that instructors are experts in the field and have applied the course content to multiple contexts, it is easy for them to expect transfer skills in their students without intentionally addressing

these skills. Service-learning facilitates transfer through immersion in real-life settings combined with continual reflection on the application of course content to these experiences. Encouraging students to think about how what they are learning in one context can be applied to another will help to develop the reflective skills central to teaching for transfer. Further, the goal-based component of service-learning provides the impetus for the cognitive effort needed to engage in far transfer.

Further Applications of GBL

The GBL approach provides a framework for understanding why service-learning can improve cognitive outcomes and is supported by research in the learning sciences. The application of GBL to service-learning provides a number of insights about how to increase the effectiveness of service-learning in enhancing cognitive outcomes. In addition, service-learning is not the only way to implement GBL. Even if instructors are not using service-learning, this paper suggests that instructors can find ways to structure learning opportunities that require student understanding of course content to engage in attempts to achieve intrinsically interesting and socially relevant goals whether or not all components of GBL are present. Through his work on GBSs, Schank implements the components of GBSs in the development of computer-based learning environments (Schank, 1997). As noted above, undergraduate research can also be structured in a way consistent with GBL. Application of GBL to other high-impact practices (Kuh & O'Donnell, 2013) may provide further insights. Characteristics of GBL can also be seen in other currently successful instructional applications that highlight the importance of goals, including flipped classrooms and competency-based programs.

One critique of a GBL approach may come from the perception that GBL is focused too much on student goals rather than the goals of the instructor. However, a GBL approach does not encourage instruc-

tors to give students what they say they want; GBL encourages instructors to pay attention to how students learn. In doing so, instructors can focus more intentionally on helping students meet the learning outcomes for the course and the program. This focus on student goals and on learning research has implications that go far beyond individual instructional strategies. A focus on GBL helps to break down the barriers between liberal education and career education. If a student is enrolled in a liberal arts college or program, then it is the responsibility of that institution to make sure that the student meets the stated liberal education learning goals. Doing so, however, need not entail ignoring students' intrinsic goals or real-life application of the learned material. Rather, if faculty are serious about students learning the specified liberal education outcomes, then from a GBL perspective they will need to be concerned with student goals and real-world application. In short, using GBL as part of instruction is a separate issue from whether that instruction is attempting to meet outcomes of a career education program, a liberal arts program, or some blending of the two.

While GBL does not suggest a change in the primacy of learning outcomes, it does suggest a change in the role of the instructor. Just as the shift from teacher-centered to student-centered instruction resulted in a paradigm shift in the role of the instructor (Huba & Freed, 2000), GBL suggests a shift to an instructor role that puts greater emphasis on the educational design of the learning environment. This is consistent with the shifting role of the instructor in online and competency-based programs. As Dewey (1938) states, "It is the business of the educator to see in what direction an experience is heading" (p. 38).

Identifying GBL characteristics and examining their relationships with service-learning has implications not only for teaching interventions but also for how to assess whether those interventions are working. Fitch, Steinke, and Hudson (2012) provide some

direction for identifying measurement approaches for assessing cognitive outcomes of service-learning, but the framework provided by GBL will help instructors to further identify which measures are specific to their assessment needs. Some of these measures will help instructors to understand how successful they have been at implementing GBL characteristics, and other measures will help instructors to measure directly the cognitive outcomes relevant to implementation of GBL. Applying a GBL framework helps to identify appropriate assessment approaches for both purposes. Beyond helping to identify measures for assessment, the GBL framework also provides direction for identifying measures and questions for future research.

Eyler noted in 2000 that given the mounting research on service-learning outcomes there are still "few studies about different approaches to service-learning that would provide guidance to instructors on how best to optimize the impact of their service-learning courses on students" (p. 15). Unfortunately, the state of service-learning research has changed little in this respect. The present paper provides one way of approaching this problem. The GBL framework can provide direction for further research and is consistent with other current recommendations for developing a future research agenda focused on cognitive outcomes of service-learning (Fitch, Steinke, & Hudson, 2012).



References

- Arum, R., & Roksa, J. (2011). *Academically adrift: Limited learning on college campuses*. University of Chicago Press.
- Ash, S. L., & Clayton, P. H. (2009). Generating, deepening, and documenting learning: The power of critical reflection in applied learning. *Journal of Applied Learning in Higher Education*, 1, 25-48.

- Association of American Colleges and Universities (2002). *Greater expectations: A new vision for learning as a nation goes to college (National Panel Report)*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Association of American Colleges and Universities (2014). Public Opinion Research. In Liberal education and America's Promise. Retrieved from http://www.aacu.org/leap/public_opinion_research.cfm
- Astin, A. A., Vogelgesang, L. J., Ikeda, E. K., & Yee, J. A. (2000). *How service-learning affects students*. Los Angeles: University of California, Higher Education Research Institute.
- Barnett, S., & Ceci, S. J. (2002). When and where do we apply what we learn? A taxonomy for far transfer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(4), 612-637.
- Blumberg, P. (2000). Evaluating the evidence that problem-based learners are self-directed learners: A review of the literature. In D. H. Evensen & C. E. Hmelo (Eds.), *Problem-based learning: A learning perspective on learning interactions* (pp. 199-226). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bok, D. (2006). *Our underachieving colleges: A candid look at how much students learn and why they should be learning more*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Bransford, J. D., Brown, A. L., Cocking, R. R., Donovan, M. S., & Pellegrino, J. W. (Eds.). (2000). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school*. (Expanded ed.). Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Brown, P. C., Roediger, H. L., & McDaniel, M. A. (2014). *Make it stick: The science of successful learning*. Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Covington, M. V. (2000). Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation in schools: A reconciliation. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9(1), 22-25.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). *Finding flow: The psychology of engagement with everyday life*. New York: Basic Books.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Eyler, J. (2000). What do we most need to know about the impact of service-learning on student learning? *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 11-17.
- Eyler, J., & Giles, D. E. (1999). *Where's the learning in service-learning?* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Finley, A., & McNair, T. (2013). *Assessing underserved students' engagement in high-impact practices*. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Fitch, P., Steinke P., & Hudson, T. D. (2012). Research and theoretical perspectives on cognitive outcomes of service-learning. In P. H. Clayton, R. G. Bringle, & J. A. Hatcher (Eds.), *Research on service-learning: Conceptual frameworks and assessment*. IUPUI series on service-learning research: Vol. 2A , 57-83. Sterling, VA: Stylus.
- Gick, M. L., & Holyoak, K. J. (1980). Analogical problem solving. *Cognitive Psychology*, 12(3), 306-355.
- Gordon, R. (Ed.). (2000). *Problem based service-learning: A field guide for making a difference in higher education*. Bedford, NH: Campus Compact for New Hampshire.
- Graesser, C. A., Singer, M., & Trabasso, T. (1994). Constructing inferences during narrative text comprehension. *Psychological Review*, 101(3), 371-395.
- Haskell, R. E. (2001). *Transfer of learning: Cognition and instruction*. San Diego: Academic Press.

- Hassin, R. R., Aarts, H., & Ferguson, M. J. (2005). Automatic goal inferences. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 41(2), 129-140.
- Hernandez, P. R., Schultz, P., Estrada, M., Woodcock, A., & Chance, R. C. (2012). Sustaining optimal motivation: A longitudinal analysis of interventions to broaden participation of underrepresented students in STEM. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 105(1), 89-107.
- Hersh, R. H., & Keeling, R. P. (2103, February). Changing institutional culture to promote assessment of higher learning. (Occasional paper No. 17). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois and Indiana University, National Institute for Learning Outcome Assessment. Retrieved from www.learningoutcomesassessment.org
- Hmelo, C. E., & Evensen, D. H. (2000). Problem-based learning: Gaining insights on learning interactions through multiple methods of inquiry. In D. H. Evensen & C. E. Hmelo (Eds.), *Problem-based learning: A learning perspective on learning interactions* (pp. 1-16). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Huba, M. E., & Freed, J. E. (2000). *Learner-centered assessment on college campuses: Shifting the focus from teaching to learning*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Jonassen, D. (1999). Designing constructivist learning environments. In C. M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional-design theories and models: Vol. 2. A new paradigm for instructional theory* (pp. 217-239). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- King, P. M., & Kitchener, K. S. (1994). *Developing reflective judgment: Understanding and promoting intellectual growth and critical thinking in adolescents and adults*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- King, P. M., & Kitchener, K. S. (2000). The reflective judgment model: Twenty years of research on epistemic cognition. In B. K. Hofer & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Personal epistemology: The psychology of beliefs about knowledge and knowing* (pp. 37-61). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kuh, G. D., & O'Donnell, K. (2013). *Ensuring quality & taking high-impact practices to scale*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Kolodner, J. (1993). *Case-based reasoning*. San Mateo, CA: Morgan Kaufmann Publishers.
- Leake, D. B. (1996). CBR in context: The present and future. In D. Leake (Ed.), *Case-based reasoning: Experiences, lessons and future directions* (pp. 3-30). Menlo Park, CA: AAAI Press/The MIT Press.
- MacDougall, A. E., Harkrider, L. N., Bagdasarov, Z., Johnson, J. F., Thiel, C. E., Peacock, J., Mumford, M. D., Devenport, L. D., & Connelly, S. (2014). Examining the effects of incremental case presentation and forecasting outcomes on case-based ethics instruction. *Ethics & Behavior*, 24(2), 126-150.
- Nakamura, J., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2002). The concept of flow. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 89-105). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Novak, J. M., Markey, V., & Allen, M. (2007). Evaluating cognitive outcomes of service-learning in higher education: A meta-analysis. *Communication Research Reports*, 24(2), 149-157.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2000). Multiple goals, multiple pathways: The role of goal orientation in learning and achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(3), 544-555.

- Schank, R. C. (1994). Goal-based scenarios. In R. C. Schank & E. Langer (Eds.), *Beliefs, reasoning, and decision making: Psycho-logic in honor of Bob Abelson* (pp. 1-32). Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schank, R. C. (1996). Goal-based scenarios: Case-based reasoning meets learning by doing. In D. Leake (Ed.), *Case-based reasoning: Experiences, lessons and future directions* (pp. 295-347). Menlo Park, CA: AAAI Press/The MIT Press.
- Schank, R. C., & Cleary, C. (1995). *Engines for education*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schank, R. C. (1997). *Virtual learning*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Schank, R. C., & Joseph, D. M. (1998). Intelligent schooling. In R. J. Sternberg & W. M. Williams (Eds.), *Intelligence, instruction and assessment* (pp. 43-65). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schank, R. C., Kass, A., & Riesbeck, C. K. (1994). *Inside case-based explanation*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schwartz, P., Mennin, S., & Webb, G. (Eds.) (2001). *Problem-based learning: Case studies, experience and practice*. London: Kogan Page.
- Seligman, M. E. P. (2001). Positive psychology, positive prevention, and positive therapy. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 3-9). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Sinnott, J. D. (Ed.) (2013). *Positive psychology: Advances in understanding adult motivation*. New York: Springer.
- Snyder, C. R., Rand K. L., & Sigmon, D. R. (2002). Hope theory: A member of the positive psychology family. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 257-276). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Steinke, P., & Buresh, S. (2002). Cognitive outcomes of service-learning: Reviewing the past and glimpsing the future. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 8(2), 5-14.
- Steinke, P., Fitch, P., Johnson, C. & Waldstein, F. (2002). An interdisciplinary study of service-learning predictors and outcomes among college students. In A. Furco & S.H. Billig (Eds.), *Advances in service-learning research, Vol 2: Service-learning research through a multidisciplinary lens* (pp. 73-102). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1997). *Successful Intelligence: How practical and creative intelligence determine success in life*. New York: Plume.
- Van Overwalle, F., Van Duynslaeger, M., Coomans, D., & Timmermans, B. (2012). Spontaneous goal inferences are often inferred faster than spontaneous trait inferences. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 48, 13-18.
- Wagner, J. F. (2006). Transfer in pieces. *Cognition and Instruction*, 24(1), 1-71.
- Wardle, E. (2007). Understanding 'transfer' from YFC: Preliminary results of a longitudinal study. *Writing Program Administration*, 31(1-2), 65-85.
- Wilson, B. G. (Ed.) (1996). *Constructivist learning environments*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.
- Yancy, K. B., Robertson, L., & Taczak, K. (2014). *Writing across contexts: Transfer, composition, and sites of writing*. Logan, UT: Utah State University Press.

Utilizing Critical Service-Learning Pedagogy in the Online Classroom: Promoting Social Justice and Effecting Change?

Evan Ashworth and Tiffany Bourelle

Abstract

In this article, we discuss the differences between service-learning and critical service-learning, noting the benefits of the latter when utilized in an academic setting. As online education continues to rise, we suggest instructors reconsider their curriculum by integrating critical service-learning into the online environment. Specifically, we illustrate ways in which instructors can implement critical service-eLearning experiences in classes for distance-education students, facilitating active and authentic work with an outside partner to promote social justice. Throughout the sections that follow, we describe one such class taught in a technical and professional communication program where the course goals encouraged students to improve their writing skills through participation in service work with a nonprofit organization that was dedicated to social justice efforts. We highlight the challenges of critical service-eLearning and explore whether or not the pedagogy can be implemented successfully, where “success” is measured in terms of student change or change within society. We offer one student’s reflection and subsequent interview responses as a way to illustrate the need to encourage students to learn from another culture by questioning their own values and beliefs. Lastly, we provide suggestions for facilitating authentic learning experiences for online students in an effort to promote both social and individual change.

Keywords

Service-learning, service-eLearning, critical pedagogy, online education, technical communication, community engagement

Evan Ashworth received his Ph.D. in Linguistics from the University of New Mexico in 2013, where he directed writing and language tutoring at the Center for Academic Program Support and taught courses in introductory linguistics and first-year composition. He currently serves as a Postdoctoral Research Fellow in the Department of Linguistics at the University of British Columbia.

Tiffany Bourelle is an Assistant Professor at the University of New Mexico, where she teaches technical communication and first-year writing courses. She is also the co-creator and administrator of eComp (Electronic Composition) and eTC (Electronic Technical Communication), two online programs in first-year writing and technical communication that emphasize multimodal literacy within online education courses.

Introduction

Service-learning has long been known for its many benefits over strictly in-class instruction, providing students with opportunities to engage in authentic learning situations and encouraging them to take active roles in their learning (Bringle, Hatcher, & Muthiah, 2010; Kahn, Stelzner, Riner, Soto-Rojas, Henkle, Humberto, & Martinez-Mier, 2008; Kuh, 2008; Soslau & Yost, 2007). Service-learning pedagogy often allows for greater collaboration between the university and the surrounding community, thereby providing students with

the opportunity to forge partnerships with community members while earning academic credit for their efforts. This pedagogy can prove especially beneficial for students in various writing courses across the disciplines, as community engagement offers a real-world context in which students can more effectively develop as writers. In addition to improved writing skills, Deans (2000) suggests that service-learning encourages a “deeper commitment to communities, better preparation for careers, improved conflict management, and greater understanding of community problems” (p. 4). However, there still remains a great deal of debate regarding the goals of service-learning and its attendant student learning outcomes (Bickford & Reynolds, 2002; Kendall, 1990; Mitchell, 2008).

A criticism that often emerges is service-learning pedagogy’s inattention to social justice. In fact, Mitchell (2008) suggests that when the pedagogy fails to consider “the root causes of social problems,” service-learning is no more than a glorified way for students to feel good about themselves and the work they are doing. Without a discussion of the underlying causes of injustice or inequality, Mitchell argues, service-learning simply reinforces the “us-them dichotomy,” potentially preserving unjust structures that are already in place within society (p. 51). The lack of focus on social justice has prompted a distinction between two competing service-learning models: traditional service-learning and critical service-learning. Densmore (2000) notes that service-learning and critical pedagogy, when joined together, are a natural fit, as service-learning is a method of civic education that can encourage students to develop an assumed sense of social responsibility. However, Mitchell (2008) indicates critical service-learning must go beyond instilling a sense of social responsibility, pushing for students to connect their own lives to those they are working with during the project. Further, Mitchell says, they need to reflect on “both personal and institutional contributions to social

problems” if they are to work to effect societal change (p. 54). To do so means students must actively work with a service partner that seeks to effect this change rather than simply offer services (Mitchell, 2008).

Critical service-learning has found success in the face-to-face (f2f) classroom, with Wang and Rodgers (2006) claiming that courses with a focus on social justice may increase cognitive development more than traditional service-learning courses. But what about service-learning in the online classroom? As online course enrollment continues to grow at a faster rate than f2f course enrollment (Allen & Seaman, 2011), it is important to address this environment and learn ways to best serve distance-education students, ensuring that they receive a civic education comparable to that of f2f students. Indeed, e-service, or service-eLearning as it is often called (Dailey-Hebert & Donnelly, 2010), has been successfully integrated into many online classrooms across the disciplines (Blackwell, 2008; Kahn et al., 2008; Waldner, McGorry, & Widener, 2012). However, scholarship is lacking surrounding critical service-eLearning. In this article, we discuss ways in which instructors can implement critical service-eLearning in the online environment, structuring active work experiences with an outside partner that seeks to promote social justice. Throughout the sections that follow, we describe one such class taught in a Technical and Professional Communication program. As we suggest, there are many challenges to teaching this important pedagogy in an online format, and we explore whether the pedagogy can be implemented successfully, where “success” is measured in terms of student change or change within society.

The impetus for this article came from the reflective responses of a particular student who took an online technical communication course that emphasized critical service-learning. In planning the course, it was expected that students would, by end of the term, discover the value of service-learning and find

that such a model effectively contextualizes academic content. While most students' responses to the course were decidedly positive, this student's comments revealed that he did not have a positive learning experience when it came to the service aspect of the class. His reaction prompted us to reconsider the value of the service component. To help us gain insight, we conducted a follow-up interview with the student to further investigate the reasons for his negative experiences in the class. By highlighting this student's reflection and subsequent interview responses, we question the outcomes of critical service-eLearning, suggesting that more can be done in the online classroom to encourage students to learn from another culture by questioning their own values and beliefs. Finally, we examine the shortcomings of the class and offer suggestions for educators across the disciplines who want to facilitate active learning experiences for students in an effort to promote both social and individual change.

Traditional Service-Learning versus Critical Service-Learning

Scholars such as John Dewey (1916), and more recently David Kolb (1984), are most often credited with bringing service-learning into the educational system, supporting and expanding upon theories of experiential education. Within traditional service-learning, students devote a certain amount of time outside of the classroom engaging community members by, for example, tutoring elementary school students in after-school programs, mentoring learners in adult literacy projects, or providing physical labor on community farms. Through in-class discussions, course readings, and exercises based on self-reflection, students reinforce their understanding of the community-service components in which they have participated. That is, service outside of the classroom combined with reflection-based activities offers a context through which students can learn course concepts and explore their real-world applications.

However, because students are required to devote a certain amount of time outside of class to service-learning projects, such work may be viewed as community service. Indeed, traditional service-learning has been criticized, described as mandatory volunteerism (McBride, Brav, Menon, & Sherraden, 2006; Pompa, 2002; Robinson, 2000), as it often places students in top-down service roles that reinforce asymmetrical power relationships. In fact, Verjee (2010) suggests that in much of the literature surrounding service-learning, there is an

absence of an analysis of power which, in itself, indicates a particular ideology behind the notion of service in education, often reflecting a missionary philosophy to education. This philosophy promotes caring for others or doing something for the less advantaged, based on the concept of charity. (p. 6)

Similar to Verjee, other scholars take issue with the traditional "charity" service-learning model (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996; Kinefuchi, 2010). As Morton (1995) observes, the notion of charity has come to be understood as a fundamentally reactive practice—that it is only after natural or man-made disasters that people engage in charitable activities. While there is no doubt that such tragic events necessitate reactive measures, many politicians, activists, and educators continue to view social issues in the same way. All too often, McKnight (1996) argues, "need" is conceived of as residing in the individual rather than in institutionalized structures that gave rise to it. Saltmarsh and Hartley (2011) suggest changes to the pedagogy, claiming that service-learning, as a movement, "must not only strive to encourage civic impulses and actions among students; it must assume a joint responsibility with the communities with which it works to confront problems and to enact change through every democratic means possible" (p. 4). According to the authors, connecting students with the community fosters knowledge and

promotes a “healthier society and a stronger, more robust democracy.”

As a response to the drawbacks of traditional service-learning, an alternative model known as critical service-learning has emerged in recent years. Through reciprocal partnerships with community organizations, critical service-learning seeks to better understand the structural inequalities that lead to injustice and thereby to effect social change. In the critical service-learning model, as Stenhouse and Jarrett (2012) posit, the classroom is seen as a place to cultivate “empowering educational experiences for students and teachers that are participatory, affective, problem-posing, situated, multi-cultural, dialogic, desocializing, democratic, researching, interdisciplinary, and activist” (p. 53). Beyond merely helping the community with a project, a critical service-learning pedagogy must focus on discussions and readings that help students challenge the status quo and analyze power structures in society within the students’ own contexts (Donahue & Mitchell, 2010). While service-learning and critical pedagogy can each stand alone in the classroom, a blended model can provide authentic learning opportunities for students by giving them hands-on experience with critical pedagogy (Stenhouse & Jarrett, 2012). Donahue and Mitchell (2010) suggest that with critical service-learning, service can become an opportunity for students to learn about differences and similarities between others’ cultures and their own, prompting students to consider their own identities and contexts, not just those of the community members.

Perhaps one of the biggest challenges to service-learning programs, whether through a traditional or a critical model, is applying the progress made at the community level to that of the broader society. Encouraging societal change may require instructors to think beyond the constraints of the local community, and instead, perhaps, to think in broader terms. Certainly, the service partner can be located in the

communities in which the project takes place; however, it may be more beneficial to seek partnerships with local organizations that have a global focus. With the increase of online technologies, projects can expand their reach, and “community” no longer has to be seen as something localized; students now have the opportunity to partner with organizations across the globe. In fact, as we discuss in the next section, service-learning is steadily gaining popularity in hybrid and online classrooms, or through use of interactive technologies in the f2f classroom, as instructors come to recognize the impact of modern technology on the service projects and the students themselves.

Service-Learning and Critical Service-Learning Make the Shift to Online Education

In the past decade, service-learning has found its way into the discussion of online education, with many instructors and scholars in various disciplines reporting the pedagogy’s success in an online classroom. For instance, Kahn et al. (2008) discuss a service-eLearning class that was able to partner students in the United States with healthcare professionals located in Mexico; students were able to interact and work with these professionals in another country thanks to videoconferencing tools that allowed them to hold virtual meetings. The authors posit that “online technology can break down the cultural, political, and geographical barriers that prevent fluid collaboration, providing environments for social interaction and bi-national academic endeavors” (p. 97). Indeed, Waldner et al. (2012) note that “online learning is a *facilitator* rather than a barrier to service-learning,” claiming that the pedagogy has the “potential to transform both service-learning and online learning by freeing service-learning from geographical constraints, and by equipping online learning with a tool to promote engagement” (their emphasis, p. 123).

Although discussed with less frequency than its counterpart, critical service-learning has gained some headway in the online classroom as well. Devers (2011) discusses the use of critical pedagogy as a framework for an online course, suggesting that the use of dialogue and discussion cultivated a deeper understanding of critical issues. The study focused on the design of Teaching and Learning about Africa, a course offered at a U.S. Midwestern and a South African University, in which both U.S. and South African students were enrolled. By requiring diverse readings and promoting alternative viewpoints through discussion boards, specifically those of the South African students, Devers (2011) hoped to encourage critical discussion of African culture and potentially open students' minds to a world beyond their own. Through a survey of students and their responses, the author claims that students were able to "reevaluate their personal constructed realities and worldviews," suggesting that their worldviews now differed or were altered because they had taken the course. The responses illustrated in the article indicate the students held positive views of the course, having gained "new critical perspectives" of a culture beyond their own.

We ask whether critical service-eLearning is so simple: Is it too much to expect every student to gain new critical perspectives? In addition, we explore whether a critical service-eLearning class is deemed "unsuccessful" if students do not gain these new perspectives. In the following sections, we give a detailed account of critical service-eLearning in a technical communication class, showcasing one student's opinion of the class project to illustrate the frustrations and dissension that may come with critical service-eLearning. We also explore how to enhance the critical service-eLearning experience in the online classroom, discussing the challenges of structuring such a curriculum and working with the outside service partner. Through our discussion, we question whether implementing various

course readings and discussion boards are enough to promote active learning for social change. More importantly, as Mitchell (2008) posits, we explore whether the change can be seen so dramatically in one semester. Throughout the remaining sections, we examine how critical service-eLearning can be utilized, focusing on ways to help other instructors encourage social awareness in their classrooms.

Critical Service-eLearning in a Technical Communication Course

One of the authors of this article taught Principles of Technical Communication for interdisciplinary students, implementing critical service-eLearning as the foundation of the course. She designed it around the framework of critical pedagogy much as Devers (2011) did, bringing in readings from alternative perspectives and facilitating discussions of topics that would challenge students' stereotypes associated with specific cultures. The course was structured in such a way that the students would work throughout the semester with Nonprofit A¹, a local nonprofit dedicated to the social equality of Muslims, focusing on eliminating negative stereotypes associated with this underrepresented group. To do so, the nonprofit created and showcased videos in the local community and around the world; the videos illustrate the commonalities between Islam and other cultures in an effort to humanize popular perceptions of Islamic culture and break down the stereotypes that currently exist. The instructor had worked with the nonprofit before in a f2f class and had great success, with students designing, implementing, and hosting fundraisers within the community. Students were able to work actively with the nonprofit to effect change and witness community engagement firsthand; however, this same type of active learning would prove difficult in the online environment.

1 Names of nonprofit and student have been changed to protect anonymity.

The course design began with an attempt to promote active work in some capacity, and to implement such projects would take some rethinking. Dubinsky (2002) suggests that service-learning should not only promote benefits for the students, but should be reciprocal in that it offers benefits for the organization as well; this reciprocity dictated collaboration with the nonprofit before the semester began, in order to incorporate the organization's needs as well as those of the students. The course itself was focused on the outcomes for technical communication as established by Arizona State University (see Appendix A for a list of these outcomes), but the course goals also included students' development of a sense of social responsibility and learning to effect change through their writing.

As mentioned above, the f2f classes that were partnered with this particular nonprofit had achieved success for the students and the organization, and the service partner and instructor collaboratively decided to keep much of the curriculum the same as before. Although students would not be able to implement the fundraisers, they would be asked to generate technical proposals that would outline various fundraising events that the nonprofit could easily conduct and host. The assignments included a recommendation report where students evaluated three potential fundraisers, ultimately choosing one where they could expand and research the idea and create the proposal based on their researched fundraiser. The final project was multimodal in nature, where students created marketing materials for the nonprofit to use when advertising for the event. In the past, the instructor had made the proposal project into a group project; however, in this course, all projects were individual in nature. After every project, students were also required to write reflections on their experience. They wrote one final reflection about their work with the nonprofit, commenting on both the service aspect and the practical technical skills they learned throughout the semester.

When first entering the course, students were introduced to the nonprofit via an introductory video in which the director of development welcomed them to the course and talked about the group's mission. Communication was limited between the students and the director, and much of the contact that occurred was established via a course blog. For instance, students would often ask the director questions about their ideas for the fundraiser within the blog; however, most communication was held between the instructor and the students via email or Skype. In addition, there were several discussion boards held throughout the course for each project. The first discussion board associated with a project typically prompted students to brainstorm ideas, and subsequent boards asked students to comment on their peers' choices of fundraisers and give advice for proceeding. One discussion board in the course asked them to discuss the root causes of the stereotypes regarding Muslims and to brainstorm the types of fundraisers that could help effect change in the community, not simply to raise money. For instance, one student developed a proposal for a "friendraiser" that would encourage a gathering of cultures, complete with catered food representative of various ethnicities, as well as reading of narratives by Muslim writers. The nonprofit director was very interested in this specific fundraiser, which would ask local Muslim community members to share their work. After completing the proposals, students participated in a discussion board that was structured in a question-and-answer format where they could comment on the challenges of the projects and ask questions of their peers.

In an effort to combine service-learning and critical pedagogy, the instructor also included a project where students were required to write an annotated bibliography for the sources they had used to create their fundraiser proposal. In this project, students were asked to find, read, and annotate narratives from within Islamic culture to help students understand not only

the differences between their world and the Islamic culture, but also the nonprofit's approach and the stereotypes that this group was attempting to eradicate. Students posted their annotations to a community "library," a Google Sites blog that the instructor created to promote collaborative learning and allow all students to benefit from these readings. They also participated in a discussion board that asked them to share what they read within these narratives and reflect on Islamic culture. Because the nonprofit stressed the importance of commonalities, in this discussion board, students were asked to reflect on what they felt they had in common with Islamic culture.

As mentioned above, students were also required to write reflections for each project, assessing their choices of fundraiser, the challenges they faced when researching and writing, and how their writing reflected the work of a technical communicator for the twenty-first century. During the last week of the semester, students wrote a final reflection², guided by questions from the instructor that prompted them to comment on the service portion of the class (see Appendix B for a list of these questions). Most students responded positively, claiming that working with a service partner made the online environment feel more like a f2f course, helping them gain applicable skills for their future while at the same time providing added social interaction, which McInnerney and Roberts (2004) note is important for student success in an online class. However, one student, referred to here as "John," expressed extreme dissatisfaction with the course, especially the choice of service partner.

For instance, when asked what he had learned from the service project, either about himself, the nonprofit, or its clientele, John responded:

I learned that working for a non-profit organization is not for me. I understand what [the

nonprofit] is attempting to do but, I really do not believe they seriously thought out there [sic] next mission. That is to promote awareness for "Muslims" within the U. S. Seriously, out of all religions they could have possibly chosen in the United States, they had to choose to promote the one religion that the majority of the U.S. views as crazy, fanatic, radical jihadist. What strikes me even more appalling is that they are trying to improve the outlook of a religion, not a group of people, but a religion. Out of all things to want to promote, religion is simply too sensitive of a subject and to [sic] broad to even grasp. Have they seen what being a Muslim is? Do they think it is a race of people? I'm not trying to speak badly of [the nonprofit] and their intentions. I am simply not into promoting another religion, especially the Muslim religion after reading what they practice and how they operate.

Further, when asked to comment on the challenges of completing the projects within the course, the same student replied:

The main challenges to this class were the proposal, recommendation report and trying not to dislike the Muslim religion. I simply did not like typing "Muslims" in the Google search engine and seeing all of the religious fanatics causing hate crimes and violence. I also had to fight against them after September 11, 2001. So, I already had a negative perspective about Muslims in general.

In general, John's comments reveal that his participation in the course was tenuous, and that the course content and community engagement challenged him on multiple levels. As this was the final reflection of the class, the instructor was left somewhat disheartened by these views; as such, she reached out to John to try and schedule an appointment to talk. The instructor continued to structure critical service-eLearning courses, but this particular student was never far from her mind.

2 All reflection and interview responses were obtained with human-subject approval.

Approximately one year after the initial course had ended, she reached out to John once again. This time, he was responsive, and they set up an interview. What follows in the next section is the transcription of parts of this interview. We include it to illustrate John's feelings one year after the conclusion of the course, hoping to show that although he may not have gained "new critical perspectives" as Devers (2011) suggests, there is still merit to introducing critical service-eLearning pedagogy into the classroom.

Interview with John

We conducted a telephone interview with John in December 2012, the purpose of which was to better understand this student's attitudes upon entering the critical service-eLearning course and the extent to which he felt that the course potentially had an effect on those attitudes. Perhaps the most interesting portion of the interview involves his revealing when he first received word of the 9-11 attacks while he was stationed aboard an aircraft carrier and the events that followed. When prompted to talk about his background, John indicated that he first heard about 9-11 when he was in the Navy, saying that he joined this branch of the military because, in his opinion, it was the safest one, and he was seeking money from the GI Bill to go back to school. The instructor asked how he thought his background in the Navy had influenced the way he thought about the projects, or if his background had any impact at all. John replied,

I think it kinda did because, well, when I first went [in the Navy] there was no wars going on or nothing [...] and so when I went in everything was calm, so I was thinking, 'Okay, I don't have to go to war; I don't have to do anything with anybody.'

He recalled the exact moment when he realized that this peaceful military service had ended:

I was eating breakfast and I saw this plane crash into the tower, and I was thinking, 'What movie is this?' Then I hear the captain say, 'Okay guys, we have a little problem in New York,' and he told us the whole story. And I'm like 'Oh my God this isn't a movie, this is really going on.'

John noted that as a direct result of the events of 9-11, his upcoming leave would be cancelled, and he would only have three days at home before shipping out again. As even he acknowledged, John's background had a clear influence on the service project.

John also noted that he felt as if Islamic culture, which he equated with Al-Qaeda, had a direct effect on his life, as well as the lives of others he worked with on the boat,

I'm looking at these Al-Qaeda and they're affecting everyone's lives around here, especially all the people I work with [...] as a matter of fact there's a person I work with now, we were actually on the same boat and she told me that one of her friends died in the world trade center [...] that's kind of my thing on Muslim religion, I guess I kind of associated Muslim with Al-Qaeda...uh... and that sort of thing, so I kind of had a negative outlook on them on how they think that what they do, you know, to get their point across, which I still don't know what it is—for me it's death. And terror.

When asked to clarify his last point about death and terror, John said, "for me they're not just religious fanatics, but they're just terrorists—that's all." Gottschalk and Greenberg (2008) suggest that beliefs such as John's could be categorized as Islamophobia, or holding certain socially constructed beliefs about Islamic culture. The authors prompt their readers to reflect on the stereotypes they might hold toward Muslims and Islam, arguing that these stereotypes stem from how little Americans know about Islamic culture. Indeed, Nonprofit A, the service provider for the course,

had been created in an effort to acquaint the populace with this culture. John felt like he had direct experience, albeit a negative one, with this culture. As such, at least in the interview, John examined his own feelings and discussed the context of his beliefs. In this way, John embodies critical service-learning pedagogy as defined by Donahue and Mitchell (2010), which asks students to connect their backgrounds to the course content. However, at this point in the interview, there was little to indicate that any “change” in John occurred through his participation with the nonprofit.

When asked what he learned about the connections between Islam and other cultures such as his own, John indicated that discovering these commonalities did, in fact, help him think more positively about the culture, which ultimately prompted him to complete his service project. He said that he started the project by asking himself, “What’s the best way to know about culture other than knowing their lifestyle—what do they eat and what do they consider delicacies?” He suggested that he tried to put his views aside in an effort to associate Islamic culture with his own, noting that he started the project by first saying, “Ok, let’s try to think positive about it [...] and uh, don’t think about the whole Al-Qaeda thing and the whole terrorist thing but think about why they do what they do, sort of thing. You know?” This approach, according to John, helped him understand Muslims as individuals. In addition, in the interview, he also commented that he now realizes that the term “Muslim” refers to individuals while “Islam” is the religion, a distinction his first reflections in the course revealed he did not yet recognize. John’s response indicates that he was able to see a different perspective; however, the interview illustrates that he still held stereotypes long after the service project ended, equating Muslims with terrorists and Al-Qaeda.

To this end, we suggest that instead of seeking “new critical perspectives” as a result of critical service-learning, educators utilizing this pedagogy may need

to change their expectations. Rather than attempting to change these perspectives, instructors can introduce projects that help students recognize or develop an awareness of their beliefs, values, and stereotypes. Donahue and Mitchell (2010) indicate the need to encourage students to draw on their own identities and engage in self-exploration activities. They suggest that instructors learn “what their students’ backgrounds mean to them and how they connect their backgrounds to course content” (p. 16). In this interview, John was able to talk through his background and the impact it had on the project; if this exploration had occurred during the course, John’s final reflections may have been different. In the section that follows, we explore one such assignment that could be used in the critical service-eLearning class as a way to connect students’ backgrounds to the service project.

Perhaps the most illuminating aspect of the interview came at the end. When asked to offer any last thoughts about the course, John said that although his views may not have changed, the project did help him see various perspectives. He stated,

You’re making us do all this; there’s no choice. We were forced to write about the culture. But it did kind of open up my eyes, to actually read about [Islamic culture]. More than I would’ve today because I would’ve never done that. Even though you did sort of force me, it did have an effect on me. I was able to relate to them. So it did help, honestly.

This interview acknowledges the importance of reflection in service-learning (Bringle, Hatcher, & Muthiah, 2010), and of giving students like John space and time away from the course to gain a new perspective on it. Ideally, we, as instructors, hope that this change takes place during the course itself, but this may not be the case, and it may not occur at all. However, we suggest that a development of critical perspectives takes time. As Herzberg (2010) observes, “the com-

munity service experience doesn't bring an epiphany of conscience. The effect is slow and indirect. In time, students began to realize that the people... were not like them... and that 'this could happen to me' is a shallow response" (cited in Jeanfreau, 2013, p. 4). We argue that a recognition or awareness of previously held beliefs as well as the opportunity to draw connections between one's background and the service project can be enough to facilitate a critical consciousness within students, whether that is cultivated over a semester, a year, or the rest of one's life.

Implications: Improving the Critical Service-eLearning Course

After interviewing John, we realized that a student's background could have a potential impact on his or her experience within a critical service-learning project. John's background prompts a restructuring of the course curriculum so as to encourage students to share their histories with either the class as a whole or the instructor on a more private level. Within the constraints of the initial course design, John did not share his background, probably because he was not given the opportunity—there was no avenue for him to do so. Although there was an initial discussion board in the course that asked students to introduce themselves, many students merely shared "surface" elements, such as their year in school and their hobbies outside of class. We suggest adding an exercise that prompts students to discuss their background, exploring how their values have been shaped by it, and how it could potentially impact their participation in, or even their reaction to, the service project. This exploration could occur in the form of a literacy narrative created at the beginning of the class and only shared with the instructor, or in the form of discussion boards where students share their values with each other in an attempt not only to explore their beliefs, but to also form a more cohesive community within the online classroom. When this

pre-course reflection is combined with a post-course reflection, there are two added benefits. First, if students effectively engage with course readings, discussions, and service-learning components, by the end of the course they may develop an awareness of their attitudes toward the group with whom the service-learning course partners, if not an actual change in their views toward that group. If each student is given the opportunity to compare his or her own pre- and post-course reflections, this could result in a transformative experience. Second, by comparing students' pre- and post-course reflections, instructors can use these narratives as a form of qualitative assessment, which can be used to shape future service-learning courses.

Eyler, Giles, and Schmiede (1996) and Eyler (2001) offer several useful strategies for developing reflection-based activities before, during, and after service. Further, these activities are organized according to those that can be performed individually, with classmates, and with service-learning partners (see Figure 1). As Eyler (2001) recognizes, reflection is a process that works most effectively when extended throughout the entire course term and when performed not just individually but with peers and community partners as well.

As we suggested earlier, discussions and readings may not be enough to facilitate the critical consciousness that the pedagogy encourages. To this end, we encourage instructors of a critical service-eLearning class to structure the course so that students can interact with others within the community. For example, Kahn et al. (2008) were able to set up videoconferencing meetings between their students and service professionals in Mexico. Indeed, Mitchell (2008) advocates students forming authentic relationships with those they work with during the service project. In John's class, this authentic relationship was formed with the nonprofit, not with the Islamic community. Students in the course we describe should also have the opportunity to interact with Muslims, and this interaction

	Activities before service	Activities during service	Activities after service
Reflection alone	Letter to myself	Structured journals	Reflective Essay
Reflection with Classmates	Hopes and fears Giant Likert Scale	Service-learning theater Mixed team discussion	Team presentation Collage or mural Video
Reflection with Community partners	Planning with community Asset mapping	Lessons learned, debriefing	Presentation to community group

Figure 1- "Mapping Service-Learning Reflection," as proposed by Eyler (2001, p. 37)

may help further promote the nonprofit's mission of humanization. In fact, when asked what the instructor could do to improve the course, John suggested adding more videos of and by Muslims and offering the chance for Muslims to join discussion boards or chats where students could interact with them one-on-one and ask questions. These opportunities may help students change their perspective as they work directly with populations they seek to serve.

Regardless of what strategies an instructor uses during the semester, a change in perspective may not happen over a single semester. One idea to help facilitate this change could be to implement linked courses across disciplines where students in one class move on together to another course, the goal being to reinforce course content or a theme, and to establish learning communities where students could continue to interact with each other and form lasting relationships, thereby enhancing the learning experience. Cargill and Kalikoff (2007) note that some of the goals of learning communities are to advance student achievement, increase student retention, address a variety of topics with interdisciplinary perspectives, and increase both student and instructor enthusiasm. Implementing critical service-eLearning across linked courses could offer the chance to form deeper relationships with the ser-

vice partner, not just with peers in the class. The added class time devoted to the service project could also potentially increase the opportunity for reflection and consideration of critical perspectives; this added time to reflect could foster the change that critical pedagogy promotes. Indeed, the goals of critical service-eLearning pedagogy—addressing institutionalized inequalities and proposing solutions at a societal level—may be impossible to accomplish in the few months students spend engaging with community partners. Cultivating students' increased awareness of their attitudes toward social inequalities may not be accomplished by the end of the course. Therefore, it makes sense to extend service-learning courses into the next term by thematically linking them to other service courses across the disciplines. For example, Kapi'olani Community College offers a series of service-learning "pathways," or thematically linked service-learning courses, with a focus on social justice (see <http://kapiolaniserve.weebly.com/s-l-pathways--community-partners.html>). Although not every institution can offer multiple service-learning courses, such pathways provide students with increased freedom to choose courses and community partners that align with their academic goals and cater to their personal preferences.

Conclusion

As we have shown, a critical service-eLearning pedagogy is not easy to structure or facilitate. Despite the instructor's best preparations, the course may not produce the expected results. As mentioned earlier, we question whether it is too much to expect every student to gain new critical perspectives in critical service-eLearning courses and whether such courses are to be considered unsuccessful if students do not gain these new perspectives. While the ultimate goal of critical service-eLearning courses may be for students and community partners to address social inequalities as institutionalized structures and thereby effect social change, this objective may be difficult to achieve. Instead, attempting to increase students' awareness of their own attitudes may be a more realistic learning outcome, and, as can be seen in John's case, this awareness may not take place during the span of a single course, as students need time and space to reflect on ideas presented and partnerships forged in the course. In fact, such elevated awareness among students may never occur. However, despite the many challenges inherent to these courses, there are many benefits to the critical service-eLearning pedagogy. The pedagogy can be implemented effectively, but it requires extensive planning to effectively engage students with community partners and course texts. Because online courses often cannot allow for f2f communication, relationships can only be formed, maintained, and strengthened through digital media such as email, message boards, Skype, and teleconferencing. Using these digital tools to facilitate learning and to foster relationships between the students and the service partner takes a certain amount of rethinking and restructuring of existing curricula.

Perhaps the most important aspect of the course design for effective implementation of a critical service-eLearning pedagogy involves getting to know our students. As was highlighted in John's story, some students will be able to engage service-learning com-

ponents more easily than others, depending upon their life histories and the attitudes towards certain ethnic groups, cultures, and languages that they bring to the class. Many service-learning courses merely require that students complete a post-course reflection, in which they think back on the progression of their views about the program and the community partners with whom they worked. However, we argue that it is just as important for students to spend time at the beginning of the course reflecting on the views they carry into the class before having engaged in any service-learning. In this way, both students and instructors are able to assess students' progress throughout the course and the extent to which their views have evolved.

Critical service-eLearning shows promise for distance education, offering opportunities for active learning that are important to online students' success. Stenhouse and Jarrett (2012) claim that the pedagogy has the ability to provide "authentic learning, knowledge, and skills that enable students and teachers to contribute actively in the (trans)formation of their worlds" (p. 51). We suggest that critical service-eLearning has the possibility of transforming the online experience for students, allowing them to participate in authentic learning situations while simultaneously exploring the thoughts and beliefs they might hold toward various cultures. We encourage our readers to reconsider their current service-learning practices to integrate projects that foster students' critical considerations of themselves and their value systems in relation to the larger world. In addition, as online education continues to grow, we hope our readers can challenge themselves to incorporate critical service-learning into the digital environment as well. Lastly, we hope instructors across various disciplines can take our course structure, analysis of outcomes, and suggestions for improvement, and rethink their existing service-learning pedagogies for the online classroom. ■■

References

- Allen, I., & Seaman, J. (2011). *Going the distance: Online education in the United States*, 2011. Quahog Research Group, LLC and Babson Survey Research Group.
- Bickford, D., & Reynolds, N. (2002). Activism and service-learning: Reframing volunteerism as acts of dissent. *Pedagogy: Cultural Approaches to Teaching*, 2(2), 229-254.
- Blackwell, C. (2008). Meeting the objectives of community-based nursing education. In A. Dailey-Hebert, E. Donnelly-Sallee, & L. DiPadova-Stocks (Eds.), *Service-eLearning: Educating for citizenship* (pp. 87-94). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Bringle, R., Hatcher, J., & Muthiah, R. (2010). The role of service-learning on the retention of first-year students to second year. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 38-49.
- Cargill, K., & Kalikoff, B. (2007). Linked psychology and writing courses across the curriculum. *The Journal of General Education*, 56(2), 83-92.
- Dailey-Hebert, A., & Donnelly, E. (2010). Service-eLearning: Educating today's learners for an unscripted future. *Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 18(2), 216-227.
- Deans, T. (2000). *Writing partnerships: Service-learning in composition*. Urbana, IL: NCTE.
- Densmore, K. (2000). Service-learning and multicultural education: Suspect or transformative? In C. R. O'Grady (Ed.), *Integrating service-learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities* (pp. 45-58). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Devers, C. (2011). A critical pedagogy approach to online education: What we learned from a U.S./ South African course. In S. Barton et al. (Eds.), *Proceedings of Global Learn 2011* (pp. 2199-2204). AACE.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Donahue, D., & Mitchell, T. (2010). Critical service-learning as a tool for identity exploration. *Diversity and Democracy*, 13(2), 16-17.
- Dubinsky, J. (2002). Service-learning as a path to virtue: The ideal orator in professional communication. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 8(2), 61-74.
- Eyler, J., Giles, D. E., Jr., & Schmiede, A. (1996). *A practitioner's guide to reflection in service learning: Student voices and reflections*. Nashville, TN: Corporation for National Service.
- Eyler, J. (2001). Creating your reflection map. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 1, 35-43.
- Gottschalk, P., & Greenberg, G. (2008). *Islamophobia: Making Muslims the enemy*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Herzberg, B. (2010). Community service and critical teaching. In T. Deans, B. Roswell, & A. J. Wurr (Eds.), *Writing and community engagement* (pp. 138-148). Boston, MA: Bedford-St. Martins.
- Jeanfreau, J. (2013). Making service-learning a means of overcoming, not reinforcing, prejudices. Paper presented at the Conference on College Composition and Communication, Las Vegas, NV.
- Kahn, H., Stelzner, S., Riner, M., Soto-Rojas, A., Henkle, J., Humberto, M., & Martinez-Mier, E. (2008). Creating international, multidisciplinary service-eLearning experiences. In A. Dailey-Hebert, E. Donnelly-Sallee, & L. DiPadova-Stocks (Eds.), *Service-eLearning: Educating for citizenship* (pp. 95-108). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Kahne, J., & Westheimer, J. (1996). In the service of what? The politics of service-learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 77(9), 592-599.

- Kendall, J. (1990). Combining service and learning: An introduction. In J. C. Kendall (Ed.), *Combining service and learning: A resource book for community and public service* (pp. 1-33). Raleigh, NC: National Society for Internships and Experiential Education.
- Kinefuchi, E. (2010). Critical consciousness and critical service-learning at the intersection of the personal and the structural. *Journal of Applied Learning in Higher Education*, 2, 77-93.
- Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning, experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Kuh, G. D. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- McBride, A. M., Brav, J., Menon, N., & Sherraden, M. (2006). Limitations of civic service. Critical perspectives. *Community Development Journal*, 41(3), 301-320.
- McInnerney, J., & Roberts, S. (2004). Online learning: Social interaction and the creation of a sense of community. *Educational Technology & Society*, 7(3), 73-81.
- McKnight, J. (1996). *The carefree society: Community and its counterfeits*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Mitchell, T. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Service-learning*, 14(2), 50-65.
- Morton, K. (1995). The irony of service: Charity, project and social change in service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 2(1), 19-32.
- Pompa, L. (2002). Service-learning as crucible: Reflections on immersion, context, power, and transformation. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 9(1), 67-76.
- Robinson, T. (2000). Service-learning as justice advocacy: Can political scientists do politics? *PS: Political Science and Politics*, 33(3), 605-612.
- Saltmarsh, J., & Hartley, M. (Eds.). (2011). *"To serve a larger purpose": Engagement for democracy and the transformation of higher education*. Temple University Press.
- Soslau, E., & Yost, D. (2007). Urban service-learning: An authentic teaching strategy to deliver a standards-driven curriculum. *Journal of Experiential Learning*, 30(1), 36-53.
- S-L Pathways & Community Partners. (n.d.). Retrieved August 7, 2014, from <http://kapiolaniserve.weebly.com/s-l-pathways--community-partners.html>
- Stenhouse, V., & Jarrett, O. (2012). In the service of learning and activism: Service-learning, critical pedagogy, and the problem solution project. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 39 (1), 51-76.
- Verjee, B. (2010). Service-learning: Charity-based or transformative? *Transformative Dialogues: Teaching & Learning Journal*, 4(2), 1-13.
- Waldner, L., McGorry, S., & Widener, M. (2012). E-service-learning: The evolution of service learning to engage a growing online student population. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 16(2), 123-150.
- Wang, Y., & Rodgers, R. (2006). Impact of service-learning and social justice education on college students' cognitive development. *NASPA Journal*, 43(2), 316-337.

Appendix A

Outcomes for Arizona State University's Technical and Communication Program

Rhetorical Knowledge

- Identify, articulate, and focus on a defined purpose
- Respond to the need of the appropriate audience
- Respond appropriately to different rhetorical situations
- Use conventions of format and structure appropriate to the rhetorical situation
- Adopt appropriate voice, tone, and level of formality
- Understand how each genre helps to shape writing and how readers respond to it
- Write in multiple genres
- Use appropriate technologies to organize, present, and communicate information to address a range of audiences, purposes, and genres

Critical Thinking, Reading, and Writing

- Use information, writing, and reading for inquiry, learning, thinking, and communicating
- Understand the relationships among language, knowledge, and power including social, cultural, historical, and economic issues related to information, writing, and technology

Processes

- Be aware that it usually takes multiple drafts to create and complete a successful text
- Learn to critique their own and others' works
- Learn to balance the advantages of relying on others with the responsibility of doing their part

Knowledge of Conventions

- Learn common formats for different genres
- Learn standard tools for accessing and retrieving information
- Learn and apply appropriate standards, laws, policies, and accepted practices for the use of a variety of technologies
- Develop knowledge of genre conventions ranging from structure and paragraphing to tone and mechanics
- Control such surface features as syntax, grammar, punctuation, and spelling

Appendix B

Questions to Guide Students' Reflections

1. What did you learn from the fundraiser project about the organization and its clientele?
2. How did the online format of the class affect the way you worked on the recommendation report and the proposal?
3. What did you learn about yourself from this project?
4. In addition to writing skills, what will you take away from this project?
5. What were the challenges of working on this project?
6. What did you learn about how writing can make a difference in society?

Who is Being Served by Academic Service-Learning? Distinctions from the Public Liberal Arts College

Jamie White-Farnham and Jenice Meyer

Abstract

The mission of a public liberal arts college, like those of other American institutions, includes an element of service or community outreach. Yet we contend that the nature and purpose of this element at public liberal arts colleges are distinct from their counterparts at research-focused and private institutions. This program report, through a description of the integration of Academic Service-Learning into a Writing Program at a small public liberal arts college, suggests that in institutions comprised primarily of first-generation, low-income, and underrepresented students, there is no “town-and-gown” binary that often characterizes the impetus for social justice work in a University community. Instead, our students are the community, and Academic Service-Learning helps foster their empowerment in a unique way.

Keywords

Academic service-learning, writing program, professional writing course, public liberal arts college, social justice

Jamie White-Farnham is Assistant Professor and Writing Coordinator at University of Wisconsin-Superior, where she teaches first-year writing and courses in the Writing major, including Business & Professional Writing. Her research has appeared in *Community Literacy Journal*, *Rhetoric Review*, and *College English*.

Jenice Meyer currently serves as the Program Manager in the Center for Academic Service-Learning at the University of Wisconsin-Superior, where she has developed the Academic Service-Learning program from its infancy to an exemplar program. Her research has been published in *Journal of Experiential Learning*. She is regularly asked to speak at regional and national academic engagement conferences.

Introduction

At the University of Wisconsin-Superior (2500 undergrads), service has been an element of our institution’s mission since its founding in 1893 as a state normal school, a remote outpost to train teachers for work in the surrounding rural areas. Its contemporary mission -- as a public liberal arts college -- still speaks to the demographics of the county: a poverty rate higher than the state and national average at 16.8% (US Census Bureau). Like many other institutions, the University (UW-Superior) has faced a simultaneous decrease in state funding and increase in expectations for productivity and accountability. This condition resulted in an investment in the now-ubiquitous High Impact Practices (HIPs) and a call for every academic department to incorporate six chosen HIPs: first-year experience, senior year experience, writing across the curriculum, global awareness, undergraduate research, and, the focus of this essay, Academic Service-Learning (AS-L).

Attendant to this tall order, the Writing Program at UW-Superior undertook a formalized integration of AS-L into its curriculum in 2011.

Typically, an administrative mandate for curriculum revisions, in this case a top-down approach to AS-L, is not ideal, as paternalism and noblesse oblige have been problematized. Yet, Antoci and Smith Speck (2002) have reminded us of the American tradition of public service in institutions of higher education, as seen in the 17th century training of clergymen, the 18th century need for a literate electorate, the 19th century need for agricultural innovation, and the 20th century's need for increased security: "Service-learning is a pedagogy that builds upon this heritage of addressing the public good" (p. 70).

Our small college fits into this perspective of history in its promotion of the public good in a region where a three-centuries-long industrial boom-and-bust cycle has depleted fur, timber, and copper -- and continues to threaten forest and freshwater. The public good of this region, a literate and critical citizenry, is necessary to balance the strength of commercial endeavors. Therefore, a very straightforward public liberal arts mission has guided curricular and pedagogical choices generally and in terms of AS-L in particular: "fostering the intellectual growth and career preparation" of our citizens (University Website).

Though not exactly rare, public liberal arts colleges are less well known among the traditional classifications of institutions of higher education; yet, twenty-seven member institutions of the Council of Public Liberal Arts Colleges (COPLAC) "provide students of high ability and from all backgrounds access to an outstanding liberal arts education" (COPLAC). More explicitly still, Urgo (2014) has characterized public liberal arts colleges as a project in "class mobility" (p. 223). This dedication to providing access to higher education to people from all walks of life is also reflected in Wisconsin's higher education philosophy: the boundaries of the University are the boundaries of the state. Indeed, fully half of our student body was in 2013 deemed eligible for federal financial aid Pell

grants (University Common Data Set). Considering our institution's focus on these students' intellectual development and career preparation, AS-L projects take on a different cast than the goals and purposes of AS-L reported from research-based and private liberal arts colleges in particular.

Goals of AS-L in Distinct Institutional Contexts

AS-L partnerships with writing programs have since the 1980s made a strong showing in scholarship on teaching and learning and have helped to refine the theoretical and pedagogical approaches to AS-L across the academy today. Deans, Roswell, and Wurr (2010) noted the shared values and attributes between the fields that allow for rewarding teaching and learning opportunities: a welcoming of collaboration, an emphasis on process, and a disposition toward social justice (p. 3). Deans (2010) also characterized the fields' mutual interests in terms of community reciprocity: "We have entered a critical period in which colleges and universities need to reimagine not only how they go about teaching and doing research but also how they relate both to their host communities and to society more generally" (p. 101).

Accounts of AS-L projects have therefore been concerned with two aspects in particular: offering a sustainable service to the community (in writing, it is often literacy-based) and offering students a chance to reflect on the power structures that maintain social injustice. For example, Skolnikoff, Engvall, and Ferrara (2010) have noted in this journal the difficulty of the sustainability of a one-course model of AS-L; turnover at their community service site led to re-introductions and explanations sometimes at mid-semester. Meanwhile, other problems emerged from an unstable infrastructure and the reliance on a small faculty who have to teach numerous courses especially within general education (p. 31). Cushman (2002) also worked to avoid what she called "a hit-it and quit-it relation with

communities” (p. 44). In a community literacy project at the University of California-Berkeley, she endeavored to build relationships within the community, rather than simply send students to do service and then write about it absent from deeper consideration of their places in the community.

The type of deeper consideration that leads to transformational learning often results from students’ encounters with people of different races and classes than themselves. Green (2003), based on her own discomfort as a white student performing community service in Harlem in the 1980s, encouraged students to confront race and class difference and to resist a too-simplified urge to help the “other” (p. 282). Similarly, Shutz and Gere (1998) incorporated into AS-L a resistance to accepting the *status quo*: “Service-learning provides a way for those in positions of privilege and power in the university to place themselves in the positions of ‘learners,’ as they request and negotiate entree into communities, often disenfranchised communities” (p. 146).

The study of power structures promotes students’ learning of research skills and content knowledge as well as affords teachers and students the chance to engage in critical thinking about their own relative power and privilege. We do not disagree that the material and intellectual resources of the university can and should be marshaled in service to community needs and also to the critique of social imbalance, extending important critical thinking opportunities to our students. However, these outcomes of AS-L rest on an assumption that cannot be taken for granted in the context of the public liberal arts college: that an institution’s “host” town is not itself disenfranchised and that the “community” and the students are distinct groups of people. In fact, given the often remote and rural locations of these colleges and their homegrown populations – for instance, where 64% of students hail from the two local ZIP code areas – the students *are* the community at the public liberal arts college (University Fact Book).

Accordingly, little to no elitist division exists in the public liberal arts college that allows for revelations or awakenings in terms of privilege on the part of students. The needs of the community partners, such as nonprofit and governmental agencies, represent arenas of disciplinary learning and critical thinking, yes, but also, importantly, they are the very agencies and services that our students rely on and will be charged with the care and advancement of, as employees, when they graduate. Therefore, as we describe in the next section, the goals and purposes of AS-L in our Writing Program are quite practical, a characteristic of AS-L that we embrace despite its perception as a lesser value in comparison to seemingly loftier goals of privilege awareness and transformation.

AS-L and Writing: Two Interests Dovetail

AS-L was adopted in 2005 at UW-Superior as a key HIP that supports our liberal arts mission. In 2008, the Center for Academic Service-Learning (CAS-L) was created to provide faculty members with support and resources to match student learning outcomes with needs identified by community partners. Drawing on the work of the National Youth Leadership Council (NYLC), UW-Superior adapted eight K-12 “quality standards for practice” to suit higher education¹. In 2011, they were approved through our faculty governance body, and faculty members and instructors who incorporate AS-L into their courses rely on the standards:

- » Link to Curriculum: service outcomes are listed and clearly aligned with the course learning outcomes
- » Reflection: evidence of student reflection before, during, and after the service experience

¹ Since our campus’s adoption of AS-L predates the 2010 publication of the AAC&U’s Civic Engagement Rubric, it has not yet been mapped onto our outcomes inspired by the NYLC.

- » Partnership; partner-articulated goals to be met through the service element of the course
- » Meaningful Service: the service leads to attainable, measureable, and visible outcomes that are designed with and valued by those being served
- » Duration and Intensity: on-going communication with the community partner to keep all parties well-informed about activity and progress
- » Progress Monitoring: sufficient time is provided to address the identified community needs and provide evidence for achieving the learning outcomes
- » Diversity: when applicable, students are encouraged to recognize and/or overcome stereotypes
- » Student Voice: Student choice and decision-making within the parameters of the course

One strategy used to meet the goal of integrating quality, sustainable AS-L components into courses was Kecskes' (2006) engaged department model, which provides resources, training, and technical assistance for faculty to investigate disciplinarily appropriate definitions of engagement and community-based experiences (p. 1). Kecskes noted that "an emphasis nationwide of engaged departments is part of a broader agenda to comprehensively promote civic engagement across the curriculum, having each academic department, program, and/or unit define their own civic goals" (p. 1). To that end, UW-Superior created an Engaged Department Grant program to support faculty in undertaking an engaged approach, ensuring that the community experience is meaningful and on-going, and assisting with meeting the department and institutional outcomes they seek. At UW-Superior, \$8,000 grants were offered as incentives for academic departments to think strategically about the most appropriate type of engagement and which courses were suitable within their curricula.

In the Writing Program, as an Engaged Department grant recipient, the grant opportunity prompted conversations about where in the curriculum Academic Service-Learning was the best means to achieving course and program learning outcomes. The program engaged in a process typical of institutions of higher education: a sub-committee was formed of those instructors interested in discussing the value of AS-L for students in the Writing Program. In the end, the group decided to adopt AS-L as a pedagogy complementary to WRIT 209: Business & Professional Writing (Writing 209).

One instructor who had already engaged in AS-L (and was key in securing the Engage grant) served as a touchstone for the those of us who were new to the pedagogy. Based on the terms of the grant, we committed to the set of standards (listed above), which constitute the "outcomes" for a program to engage in AS-L. In other words, AS-L at UW-Superior is a program for programs, a civic-minded means to deliver the student learning outcomes of the course. For Writing 209, these are

1. practice rhetorical flexibility and audience awareness, adapting communication across contexts
2. engage in the research process to find, evaluate, present, and document information/data
3. work collaboratively with attention to the writing process, to group communication, and to cultural differences
4. demonstrate writing as a complex individual and collaborative process through such steps as invention, drafting, seeking and giving feedback, revision, editing, proofreading, and publication/delivery

Indeed, James Dubinsky (2010) has described professional communication and AS-L as sharing a civic value that dates back to the origins of Western language use, when Greek and Roman rhetoricians like

Aristotle, Isocrates, and Quintilian taught rhetoric as a means of civic advancement:

Many scholars and educators in my field see professional communication as classical rhetoric's direct descendant [...]which enables us not only to teach our students practical skills but also to address the civic issues involved in using those skills. (p. 257)

Dubinsky has also offered reasons why an emphasis on the practical is no less rigorous than an emphasis on the theoretical: "Technical and professional knowledge and skills are appropriate and desirable because we are preparing students to be 'valued members of their workplaces and society'" (p. 259). As an example of the value of this pedagogy, Seibert (2014) described a community-based research project in which students collected, analyzed, and summarized primary data, skills she found to be more rigorous than the more typical analysis of secondary data in undergraduate curricula (p. 43).

In the process of the integration, faculty debated two main aspects. The first was focused on the model to be used in the course. Much AS-L on our campus had focused on the placement model, where students conduct service (such as volunteer hours at a shelter); however, the writing possibilities were mainly limited to reflection on such experiences. Of course, we believe reflection to be a valuable way to learn; however, it did not serve the production-focused nature of Writing 209. Therefore, the group settled on the product model of Academic Service-Learning². In this model, a deliverable requested by the community partner is researched, designed, and created by the students. In other words, our students are not writing *about* service-learning; they are writing *for* it. These deliverables vary

depending on the need of the partner, though often the needs are researched reports on a specific issue or informational materials, such as websites, brochures, and guides.

The second debate centered on the type and duration of the partnership in each section of the course. Some instructors were not interested in a complete overhaul of the syllabus or feared that even if they were interested, making substantive changes every semester was simply not feasible. This debate has been settled so far by serendipity: the number and type of requests from community partners has allowed faculty to share the load, so to speak. Some faculty have created a different, smaller assignment every semester, while others re-create a project for a community partner semester to semester (for instance, a seasonally published city council newsletter). On a handful of occasions, faculty have entered into a semester-long partnership in which students have created multiple documents for the community partner, constituting the entirety of the syllabus for the semester.

A few examples of the needs of community partners highlighted the aptness of this integration: the local United Way wanted to understand the needs of women in regards to leadership in the region; the community theater needed help expressing its value in its promotional materials; and city council members had difficulty delivering the details of various projects to their constituents. With the networking support of CAS-L, before Fall 2012 commenced, instructors for each section of the course (7 per year) met with prospective community partners to discuss the needs, possibilities, limits, and unique details of each project. During 2012-13 and 2013-14, the following partnerships and projects occurred in Writing 209 (some sections of the class have more than 1 partner simultaneously):

- » Young Professionals Association demographic research and website

2 Note that in other Writing courses, faculty use the placement model as a source of research and inspiration for writing. Notably, students in one first-year writing course volunteered at an animal shelter in concert with a research project devoted to animal activism.

- » United Way women's leadership project researched report
- » Playhouse promotional materials
- » Elementary school nutrition research and newsletters
- » City Council member interviews and newsletters
- » Business Development Association start-up directory for small business owners
- » County Coalition for Health researched report
- » Childhood Literacy Alliance informational brochures
- » Habitat for Humanity informational brochures

Projects such as these presented interesting and genuine outlets for students to meet three goals in Writing 209: engage in research (outcome 2), adapt communication across audiences and contexts (outcome 1), and, what we considered a unique chance in a college writing program, deliver the writing they produce during the term to people other than teachers (outcome 4). Outcomes related to civic growth and development, though not explicit in the Writing Program, meet with the expectations of the CAS-L for students in AS-L designated classes. The assessment of those outcomes for each program, including Writing, has consisted of indirect measures, namely, student and community partner feedback, which we share in the next section.

Early Results

We were quite proud of the collaboration with CAS-L, among instructors in the Writing Program, with community partners, and on the part of students during the projects. To understand the initial impact of the course revision, we have relied on indirect assessments comprised of students' and community partners' feedback as well as 142 students' anonymous end-of-semester evaluations of all sections of the course. Results in Table 1 reflect, we think, a successful link between the three Writing 209 outcomes noted above and civic

engagement (along with other expected outcomes of the Center for AS-L, which are not the focus of this essay, but which are nevertheless worthwhile results).

Additionally, students' feedback suggests an appreciation of the "real world" elements of the various partnerships and projects when asked about the most valuable aspect of their experience:

- » Most memorable part was actually going to the elementary school. We got to see what our work was going towards.
- » Making a website for Young Professionals Association, frustrating with technology but by far the most rewarding.
- » Using information to use in a real world setting. Everyone should experience this.
- » It was a great experience, I learned to meet deadlines and get work done.

More telling still has been the feedback from the community partners. Generally speaking, community partners have been very grateful for the students' work.

From a City Councilor: "I got a lot of phone calls indicating that people were paying attention to what was going on in the neighborhood. The newsletter got the conversation going."

From Business Development Association: "Their work will benefit start-up companies in the county for many years. The students and faculty are a tremendous asset to the community. Interfacing with them throughout the semester has been a pleasure."

These quotes are representative of the feedback of community partners, positive and grateful. Since faculty confer with community partners before any projects are developed, the partners highly anticipate the students' deliverables. Standards are set in the class so that the students meet the partners' expectations, and the partners provide feedback to students at various points in the writing process. Therefore, so far, community partners have been very satisfied and have

Due to my involvement in Academic Service-Learning in this course, I believe I have increased my:				
AS-L Learning outcome Survey question	N/A	No & Probably Not	Not Sure	Probably & Yes
1. Ability to work well with others Ability to contribute as a team member	2%	6%	1%	92%
Confidence interacting in a group setting	3%	9%	3%	85%
2. Communication skills Ability to express, listen and/or adapt a message or idea based on someone else's perspective	2%	4%	5%	90%
Confidence in my ability to express, listen and/or adapt to a message or idea	2%	6%	2%	90%
3. Reducing stereotypes and facilitating cultural and racial understanding Ability to reflect on my own biases and prejudices	4%	13%	9%	73%
Ability to empathize with others from backgrounds different than my own	4%	9%	5%	82%
Comfort level when interacting with an individual whose background is different than my own	4%	14%	4%	79%
4. Sense of social responsibility & citizenship skills Ability to contribute to a community	2%	6%	5%	88%
Understanding of the roles I can play as a citizen	4%	14%	4%	78%
5. Academic learning Understanding of course content	2%	13%	2%	83%
Ability to apply and use what I have learned in this class	2%	7%	2%	88%
6. Ability to analyze problems & think critically Ability to consider multiple perspectives and come to one's own	2%	10%	9%	79%
Ability solve problems based on evidence	2%	16%	11%	71%
7. Career development Understanding of the significance of networking	3%	13%	8%	76%
Number of strengths/skills for a cover letter, resume, etc.	3%	10%	5%	83%

Table 1- Results of anonymous end-of-semester student evaluation

registered no complaints. These brief results echo the words of Shutz and Gere (1998), who noted: “Public service focuses not on ‘helping’ others but on joining them as relative equals in a common project of social change” (p. 146). In this case, the students are joined as equals with community professionals, raising the profile of the community as well as their own professional profiles by employing what Schulz (2007) describes as “the complete array of tools available in their disciplinary toolboxes” (p. 33).

Conclusion

This report, though by no means conclusive, has allowed us to share with colleagues in institutions of all sizes the theoretical, pedagogical, and logistical elements of a successful AS-L integration at UW-Superior generally and in the Writing Program in particular. To date, UW-Superior has integrated AS-L into 26 varied disciplines with over 95 community partners. Each year, students participate in 1,300-1,400 civic engagement experiences (Service-Learning, 2014).

Moreover, contemplating our institutional mission to foster students’ intellect and workforce skills has allowed us to articulate the unique relevance of AS-L to the public liberal arts college – a marginal stance compared to accounts of AS-L that focus primarily on research or the enlightenment of the middle class to the plight of the underserved. AS-L in this context has a more fundamental effect; it contributes to the continual improvement of public and nonprofit infrastructure in our community for the good of all constituents and extends professional development opportunities for students, who will in turn become the stewards of these entities.

Reconsidering AS-L as a project of social justice itself highlights those students for whom higher education is quite literally transformative, affording them chances at safe and reliable jobs with benefits. Practical? Yes. Less meaningful? Consider that question from

the perspective of students at UW-Superior and other small, rural public institutions who do not learn *about* conditions of poverty and injustice through AS-L, but rather live, work, and learn in them. ■■■

References

- Antoci, P., & Smith Speck, S. K. Service-learning and community partnerships: Curricula of mutuality. *From cloister to commons: Concepts and models for service-learning in religious Studies*, 69-75.
- Council of Public Liberal Arts Colleges (2014). Retrieved from <http://www.coplac.org/>
- Cushman, E. (2002). Sustainable service-learning program. *College Composition and Communication*, 54(1), 40-65.
- Deans, T. (2010). English studies and public service. In T. Deans, B. Roswell, & A. J. Wurr (Eds), *Writing and community engagement* (pp. 97-116). Boston, MA: Bedford.
- Deans, T., Roswell, B., & Wurr, A. J. (Eds.) (2010). *Writing and community engagement*. Boston, MA: Bedford.
- Dubinsky, J. M. (2010). Service-learning as a path to virtue: The ideal orator in professional communication. In T. Deans, B. Roswell, and A. J. Wurr (Eds), *Writing and community engagement* (pp. 256-276). Boston, MA: Bedford.
- Green, A. E. (2003). Difficult stories: Service-learning, race, class, and whiteness. *College Composition and Communication*, 55(2), 276-301.
- Kecskes, K. (2006). *Engaging departments: Moving faculty culture from private to public, individual to collective focus for the common good*. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc.
- National Youth Leadership Council (2009). *Standards and indicators for effective service-learning practice*. Retrieved from http://www.nylc.org/sites/nylc.org/files/files/Standards_Oct2009-web.pdf

- Schulz, D. (2007). Stimulating social justice theory for service-learning practice. In J. Z. Calderon (Ed.), *Race, poverty, and social justice: multidisciplinary perspectives through service-learning* (pp. 23-35). Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing.
- Schutz, A., & Gere, A. R. (1998). Service-learning and English studies: Rethinking “public” service. *College English*, 60(2), 129-149.
- Seibert, M. T. (2014). Detours, intersections, and a few bumps in the road. In R. Epp & B. Spellman (Eds.), *Roads taken: The professorial life, scholarship in place, and the public good* (pp. 36-49). Kirksville, MO: Truman State U Press.
- Service-Learning, C. F. (2014, May 13). *Biennial Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.uwsuper.edu/casl/reports/index.cfm>
- Skolnikoff, J., Engvall, R., & Ferrara, K. C. (2010). Lots of moving parts: Is service-learning sustainable in a college classroom? *Currents*, 3, 125-36.
- University Common Data Set (2013). Retrieved from <https://www.uwsuper.edu/effectiveness/factbook/index.cfm>
- University Fact Book (2014). Retrieved from <https://www.uwsuper.edu/effectiveness/factbook/upload/Fact-Book-2013-14.pdf>
- University Website. (2014). *About page*. Retrieved from <http://www.uwsuper.edu/aboutuwsuperior/index.cfm>
- Urigo, J. (2014). The road taken and the difference it makes. In R. Epp & B. Spellman (Eds.), *Roads taken: The professorial life, scholarship in place, and the public good* (pp. 221-226). Kirksville, MO: Truman State U Press.
- US Census Bureau (2014). *State and county quick facts*. Retrieved from <http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/55000.html>

Howard University Service-Learning Projects

Arvilla Payne-Jackson, Ajeenah Haynes, and Kathy Scott

Abstract

Over the past two decades, students at Howard University have engaged in a wide array of service-learning projects addressing various issues such as literacy, domestic violence, and the reintegration of ex-offenders. Academic service-learning is an instructional method that is intentional and purposeful in terms of student community engagement, civic learning, and enhancement of the overall learning process. Service-learning projects add to the body of knowledge, attitudes, and skills students need to become active world citizens. The present work provides an overview of select projects conducted in undergraduate and graduate level anthropology courses at Howard University with an emphasis on the implementation processes and reciprocal impact that service-learning has on students and the communities in which they engage.

Keywords

Service-learning, community engagement, youth and adult partnerships, ex-offenders, violence

Introduction

Academic service-learning, as a teaching method, facilitates positive social change by integrating meaningful service to community through curriculum-based or community-based learning. Dubinsky (2002) captures the essence of this approach in the statement, "Service-learning is *learning-by-doing* for others" (p. 64). Over the past two decades, students in various anthropology classes at Howard University have engaged in a wide range of service-learning projects. Projects included empowering youth to identify and provide solutions to gun violence; implementing forums on relationship/domestic violence to increase awareness; working with ex-offenders to identify programs and address issues that affect integration into their communities and families; preserving history by making a photo journal of prison graffiti; and evaluating literacy programs, among others. Academic service-learning enhances the learning environment through the blending of course material and lived experiences coupled with civic engagement. Beyond the context of performing traditional community services for academic credit, service-learning engages

Arvilla Payne-Jackson, Ph.D., is a professor in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology and coordinator of the Anthropology Program at Howard University. She has been involved in service-learning for over 15 years and conducted projects on photo-journaling graffiti at Lorton Prison, re-entry of ex-offenders, gun violence, youth violence, and domestic violence among others.

Ajeenah Haynes, Ph.D., is a professor in the Department of Social Sciences at Hudson County Community College. A medical sociologist and survey researcher, she completed her master's and doctoral studies at Howard University. She has implemented service-learning in various settings including elementary school programs and career and community colleges.

Kathy Scott earned her master's degree at Howard University in Sociology and is currently pursuing a doctorate. As a graduate assistant, she worked on a variety of service-learning projects and has a special interest in training and education programs for women and domestic violence counseling.

students and communities in a reciprocating and meaningful exchange of knowledge/skills, service, and activism.

Service-learning projects add to the body of knowledge, attitudes and skills students need to become active world citizens (Innovation Center, 2001). Figure 1 shows the three main areas in which students grow as a result of involvement in service-learning projects. The growth in students' knowledge is threefold, including: (1) awareness development in terms of the complexity of community, domestic, and world events and issues; (2) increase in the ability to communicate and transfer information effectively; and (3) cultivation of an appreciation of community, domestic, and world cultures and social experiences. Students' attitudes change as they develop openness to learning and engage in a reciprocal learning process with community participants. This in turn results in a positive orientation to new experiences and opportunities, heightened socio-cultural sensitivity, and development of self-awareness and self-empowerment. Through the service-learning projects at Howard, students develop academic skills in six fundamental areas: exploratory and explanatory research, technology, comparative analysis, critical thinking, project development, and evaluation. Outcomes of the service-learning projects are multiple. Students augment their knowl-

edge of culture and history. The work they accomplish promotes awareness of community and world issues and of the historical forces that shape the current social and world systems. Students acquire openness to learning and a tolerance for unfamiliarity. Finally, students build their skills in critical and comparative thinking and thoughtful communication.

This work discusses the model of academic service-learning implemented in cultural anthropology, linguistic, and ethnography classes at Howard University. An overview is provided of select projects undertaken by students since 2001, including the Even Start Literacy Program; Graffiti Photo-Journaling Project; Bridging the Gap: Ex-offender Re-entry; The First National Community in Action Project Youth Summit; and Domestic Violence Awareness: Addressing the Myths. Processes in terms of project development, implementation, student reflection, and evaluation techniques are shared.

Model of Academic Service-Learning

The service-learning model used revolves around three axes: "learning (establishing clearly defined academic goals); serving (applying what one learns for communal/societal benefits); and reflecting (thoughtful engagement about the value of the work done)"

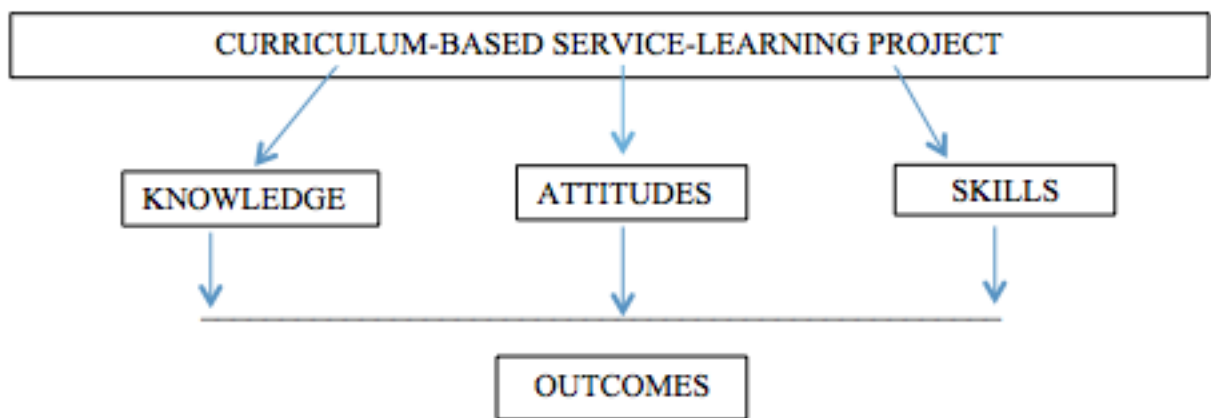


Figure 1- Effects of Academic Service-Learning

(Dubinsky, 2002, p. 64). Since the mid-90's, anthropology classes at Howard University have engaged in a series of service-learning projects grounded in these components. The students have worked with universities, local and federal government agencies, non-profit and community-based organizations, law enforcement, and the faith-based community. These sectors of the DC community have worked to build youth/adult partnerships in service-learning to address issues, such as, re-entry of ex-offenders, literacy, alcoholism, youth violence, domestic violence, housing disparities, family strengthening, and employment.

The projects undertaken at Howard are based on seven steps: (1) identify an issue; (2) develop an Action Plan; (3) build partnerships; (4) conduct research and fieldwork; (5) complete data analysis; (6) reflect/evaluate; and (7) write a report and distribute results. Issues to be addressed are either selected by the class or are answers to requests for help from organizations in the community. Once the issue is selected, the class develops a modified Action Plan that incorporates components from a youth and community development toolkit. The Action Plan includes sections entitled "Vision/Mission," "Victory," "Current Reality/Commitments," "Tasks," "Calendar," and "Reflection" (Innovation Center, 2001).

The first step of the Action Plan is to develop the "Vision/Mission" of the project. Second, students visualize what the "Victory" will look like, meaning, what the end product will be and the anticipated impact. An assessment is made as to what known resources are available from different sectors in the community: private, public, voluntary, and informal (Innovation Center, 2001). Committees are set up based on the nature of the project; tasks are identified; students are assigned to carry out the tasks; and a timeline is established for the completion of tasks. One person from each committee is designated as the chair or contact person. These students become representatives for the project and

are part of a larger Program Planning Committee that meets on a regular basis to provide updates on overall progress and needs. Each student conducts a literature review on assigned topics. Fieldwork and research are conducted according to the nature of the project. Students record their observations and research findings, which become the basis for reflection throughout the project and serve as input for the final evaluation and report.

The final service-learning report for a particular project is a compilation of the work of all the students. Each committee writes a report which then becomes a section in the final project report. Each student includes an appendix of all the work s/he completed. A student's final grade for the project is based on the grade for the overall report (50%) and the work he or she submits in the appendices (50%). Students are also asked to grade themselves and the members of their committee. Based on the nature of the project, the evaluation includes both quantitative and qualitative approaches. For example, a project geared towards accessibility of resources may be more data oriented to justify or criticize programs for the expansion or contraction of services. Alternatively, students may focus on strengths and weaknesses of a program through participant-observation. Reflection is also conducted throughout the service-learning experience and the use of logic models help guide the understanding of the project processes and the impact made.

Selected Howard University Anthropology and Linguistic Service-Learning Projects

Even Start Literacy Program

During the spring semester of 2001, the students in an introductory linguistics class were asked to conduct a qualitative evaluation of two Even Start Literacy Programs. Nineteen undergraduate students and three graduate students participated in a series of seminars. Students were exposed to literacy issues and commu-

nity programming on this topic through guest lectures from various professionals in the field. A professor and two graduate assistants from Howard University's Department of Human Communication Studies gave lectures on "Diversity Issues of Race/Gender/Class/Culture in Relation to Current Literacy Initiatives." The Executive Director of the Howard University Center for Urban Progress and representatives from two non-profit organizations in the community gave lectures on building community partnerships. Representatives from Howard University's Department of Education, the director of the Even Start Literacy Program, and representatives from Americorp and DC Reads gave lectures on youth literacy issues and trends.

Students contributed a minimum of 10 hours (five sessions) each as volunteers working in recruiting, tutoring, and evaluation of the two literacy centers. Canvassing was done by the class in the surrounding neighborhoods, and flyers were left with businesses to spread the word about the program. The centers served predominantly African American and Latino families and were matched with English- and Spanish-speaking Howard students. Evaluation of the literacy sites involved conducting interviews with staff and parents. A content analysis of the student-led interviews revealed both strengths and challenges for the Even Start Literacy Program.

There were several challenges identified during the interviews. The physical facilities presented a problem. For the first part of the session, adults and children met in separate groups. These instructional groups were held concurrently in an open space classroom which was distracting and described by one parent as "chaotic." The lack of space limited the ability to display the work of both parents and children. Challenges in the area of program personnel included the need for more diverse staff and more bi-lingual staff. Tutors also lacked a mechanism for regular feedback, and their low numbers resulted in too wide of an age range in

instructional groups. Four year olds and seven year olds were grouped together, for example. The vast range of literacy proficiency posed barriers particularly for Spanish-speaking participants who had to learn and work with two languages. This was especially difficult when the individual was illiterate or had low literacy in Spanish as well. The lack of child care presented another problem, making it difficult for parents to focus on their work. Other issues of concern were challenges in the recruiting of African-American families and reconciling the schedule of parents with the operating time of the program, as well as perceptions by families of the center as a babysitting or English-as-a-Second-Language program.

One of the strongest points of the program was the family (parent/child) emphasis of the program. During the second part of the session, parents and children came together to engage in joint activities and share what they had done in their separate groups. Spending time together in learning activities in the second half of the session built relationships not only between parents and their children, but also among the participants themselves. These relationships were extended to the community and enhanced the social network of participants through literacy. The program also built community alliances with other organizations through referrals and outreach to formal networks. The bilingual components of the literacy program encouraged dialogue and provided a space for cultural exchange. This feature of the program was one of its great strengths. The curriculum was well planned with age-appropriate materials. It also provided a means by which to measure the literacy growth of participants. Field trips were viewed as positive and provided participants with new experiences. The service-learning students were exposed to issues related to literacy programming such as access and barriers to resources, staffing, and linguistic diversity. They also learned the

importance of building relationships in order to develop a successful community-based program.

As a result of the service-learning project, several students continued to do volunteer work with the Even Start Literacy Program the following year. The student report was submitted along with the federal evaluation. An article written by Dr. Rodney Green, who was Principal Investigator for the project, and Dr. Payne-Jackson, "Evaluation as a Form of Experiential Learning at Howard University" was published as well in the *Community Works Journal*.

Graffiti Photo-Journaling Project

In 2002, the District of Columbia was in the final stages of closing Lorton Reformatory. Twenty students in Introduction to Linguistics participated in a project to record graffiti at Lorton Reformatory as part of a documentary and historical preservation report. Two graduate students and four undergraduate students from the Ethnography class also participated in the field trips. A representative from Howard's television station filmed one day with the team. Partnerships were established with 15 other community members, four ex-offenders who had actually spent time in Lorton, one retired ABC news employee, seven photographers (six of whom were students at George Mason University), and two professors from George Mason University. Correctional officers and former inmates served as guides through the prison.

During the course of the semester, Officer Terry Kidwell, formerly with the DC Metropolitan Police Task Force on Graffiti, gave a talk to the students on the symbolism behind local and national gang graffiti and the ramifications for the District. Sidney Davis, CEO of Solutions VII, Inc., a faith-based grassroots organization started by ex-offenders with the mission of strengthening families and youth, was himself a former inmate at Lorton. Davis accompanied the group on all trips to the prison and gave several presentations

to the classes on the happenings in Lorton prison and the spiritual meaning behind the graffiti. The students made six trips to Lorton during the course of the semester. Both maximum and medium security facilities were visited.

Davis pointed out that "[g]raffiti is a momentary window into the writer's mind...that explains what that person was feeling at the one exact moment in time." The students analyzed the graffiti and discerned the following categories: (1) tag and gang-related graffiti; (2) religious graffiti that included spiritual and confessional expressions; (3) political statements; and (4) fantasy-based art that included sexual fantasy and acts of violence. In some instances, the cognitive dissonance was striking. For example, in one maximum-security cell, the inmate prided himself on being known as "El Matador 13," yet the message he'd put over the door of his cell welcomed God to come in any time.

The personal impact on the students was best captured by one student whose uncle had recently been murdered:

I believed that inmates are no longer people, and do not deserve a second chance in life. I wanted them to suffer the same way I suffered. My trip to Lorton opened my eyes; no longer did I see 'savage' men who were the scum of society.... For the first time, I saw men who are not that different from me. In another time and place these men could have been my peers, or my victims[.] I cannot turn my back on people regardless of what they may or may not have done so I vowed to make a difference, not just through words but also by action. (Hayden & Payne-Jackson, 2004, p. 122)

Bridging the Gap: Ex-Offender Re-Entry

Families who have a member incarcerated are in many respects incarcerated with the family member. The lack of presence and loss of support from incarcerated rela-

tives has devastating effects on families. As ex-offenders return to their homes they return to communities with few if any opportunities. The limited resources that are available may be difficult to find. For the spring semester of 2002, the students in the Introduction to Cultural Anthropology class undertook a project in conjunction with Sidney Davis's Solutions VII to build a database of resources and services for ex-offenders and their families. In addition, the students also made an assessment of the distribution of the resources and services across the eight Wards in the District of Columbia. A total of 48 undergraduate students and one graduate student participated in the data collection and report writing.

The students interviewed individuals from several agencies during the course of the project. The report was a compilation of the following information for each Ward in DC: number and types of crimes committed by men/women/juveniles; fathers and mothers who are wards of the court who have to pay child support; re-entry programs; faith-based resources; type of drug arrests/number of arrestees testing positive for drugs/type of drug by gender and age category; drug treatment/prevention programs; teen pregnancy prevention programs; domestic violence; terrorism resources; health/mental health resources/clinics/hospitals; number of liquor outlets, grocery stores, movie theaters, restaurants, fast food restaurants; businesses/job training/employment resources; recreational/well-being resources; schools/private/public/charter (elementary/secondary) (percentage with free lunches, truancy rate, attrition); after-school programs/child care resources; dress for success/thrift shops; business and merchant associations; fine arts programs; GED programs/literacy programs; computer training programs; English-as-a-Second-Language programs; vocational training programs; and partnership development. Solutions VII utilized the information gathered by the students to institute a training program for ex-offenders that received funding from the District government.

Student reflections about what the Innovation Center calls "Victory" (the envisioned end product) and an assessment of reality (where we are right now) led to the following observations and suggestions on bridging the gap between ex-offenders and societal re-entry. The students proposed in their final report that workshops and training needed to be provided for potential partners/employers in order to avoid problems of paternalistic treatment or judgmental attitudes towards ex-offenders in their programs. The class highlighted the need to develop partnerships with employers to provide hands-on training/apprenticeships and relationships with faith-based organizations to offer comprehensive support for ex-offenders and families; for example creating an "Adopt a Child" or "Adopt a Family" program.

Policy change was perhaps one of the most difficult areas students addressed. Legislative involvement is a major piece in bringing about change to, and equity within, the legal system. The class championed projects that would directly involve students, faculty, and the community in proactive work on developing policies that establish standards for accountability and directly address the causes of social and criminal problems in the District. Policy changes concerning substance abuse and the need to expunge ex-offenders' records to correct the institutional barriers they face as ex-offenders were two of the major issues cited. Public relations were highlighted in terms of helping to better project the image and the impact of programs for ex-offenders. For example, personal testimonies could be used to validate re-entry approaches such as programs that provide supervised transitional housing to ex-offenders before they return to their family homes. Students also suggested there was a need to address issues of resistance by community members opposed to such programming in their neighborhoods.

The Howard University Community Association (HUCA), working with Solutions VII, was suggested

by the class to take on the role of linking university faculty and students with organizations and programs in the community to provide services and develop projects to serve ex-offenders and their families. Students also expressed interest in the HUCA housing a data resource bank of services and programs for the target population.

The First National Community in Action Project Youth Summit

In 2007, the mayor of Washington, D.C. provided the seed money to a non-profit organization, ROOT, Inc. (Reaching Out to Others Together)¹ for the first pilot Community in Action Project for the Shaw/Logan Circle neighborhood. The Introduction to Cultural Anthropology class, in partnership with ROOT, the Ozziddi Project, a non-profit grassroots theater, and Akeru African Martial Arts, planned the first National Community in Action Youth Summit. The Summit focused on engaging youth, in particular middle and high school students, to help determine the causes and solutions to youth violence.

The Howard students decided on the vision and mission for the project. The primary objective of the Summit was to engage middle- and high-school youth from the local community in identifying the causes and solutions of youth violence in their community; from their perspective. A second objective was to prepare a report for dissemination to engage the public, local and federal agencies, Congress, and the President of the United States to develop strategies and solutions to address problems of youth violence. Project committees were established including fundraising, research, pro-

gram planning, and communications. Students selected the committees they preferred and tasks were assigned. Once project committees were established students conducted a literature review and research on youth violence, wrote reports, and engaged in face-to-face interviews with community members.

A two-part program was developed. The first half of the program featured keynote speakers who talked on various aspects of youth violence and its impact on youth, families and communities. The second half of the program directly engaged students in the identification of the causes and solutions to youth violence. Four methods of data collection were used: (1) free lists of the causes and solutions of youth violence; (2) anonymous comments on questions posted on a "View Board"; (3) names posted on a memorial tree to honor friends and family members who had lost their lives to violence; and (4) open discussion about specific topics addressing questions such as: what should the city do to stop violence?; what can young people do to help stop violence?; what can parents do to stop the violence?; how can you stop the violence?; and what can family members do?

The performing arts segment of the Summit used theater, video, and dance forms to further exemplify the impact of violence in the community and demonstrate positive outlets and alternatives for youth. Akeru African Martial Arts performed "Signifying Monkey," and the Ozziddi Project performed a play called *The X Factor*. An Angolan *capoeira* demonstration was given as well. A surprise appearance and video presentation was made by a well-known local community member who showed his documentary on the impact of violence on the District communities.

Approximately 100 middle- and high-school students attended the Summit, along with 50 adults and 55 Howard students. Common themes that emerged from the data collected included communication (both personal and through the media), accountability,

1 As a result of the student's work with ROOT, a partnership was formed between Howard University, the District of Columbia, the University of Maryland, ROOT, Inc., Gotcha Photography, and the Ozziddi Project and a grant submitted to the Center for Disease Control to address violence in the District of Columbia.

responsibility, mentorship, facilities and activities for youth, and respect. The free listing resulted in the youth identifying 185 causes of violence which were grouped into 10 basic categories: verbal/physical assaults (27%), personal/emotional problems (15%), family problems (14%), neighborhoods (13%), money (12%), music/videos (7%), drugs (5%), competition (3%), education (2%), police (1%), and lack of support systems (1%).

The youth identified 116 solutions to violence that were grouped into nine basic categories: change personal behavior (28%), change family relationships (17%), provide physical facilities and activities (17%), seek legal solutions (11%), increase outreach (11%), address problems in the schools (6%), suggest spiritual solutions (5%), use music (3%), and improve neighborhoods (2%). The devastating impact of violence on the youth attending the Summit was revealed in the number of names of victims listed on the memorial tree, a total of 236. Some individuals listed up to 13 names there. The Summit created awareness in the Howard students of the impact of gun and youth violence on the psychological well-being of youth and on public safety. Many had preconceptions of inner city youth that were dispelled. One anthropology student reflected:

I had a picture of meeting rough kids, who didn't care one way or another, and I was totally proven wrong. These students were just that, kids; kids who are a product of their societies, and are hurting. They live the nightmare everyday of watching their loved ones die, and never knowing if they will be next. They were still enthusiastic and full of life. They were young and impressionable in spite of the outer shell. They were responsive and had a lot to say about violence in the community. Some said they were afraid, and one said he was afraid of being called a snitcher and feared for his life. Youth lack self-esteem, conflict management skills, confidence in themselves, optimism, and a positive outlook on life.

On a more positive side, another student expressed:

Youth were given their voices back. Youth expressed very personal, everyday issues involving gun violence and crime in their communities with government officials, professors, police officers, other young people and adults. They shared about their lives and why they were so angry. The youth want to live peaceful and prosperous lives. They know what the problems are and how to solve them. They can best offer us insight. However, it has to start with us.

Thus, the Summit created a platform in which both students and community members learned from each other and gained a new perspective on a complex social issue. Students were impacted by purposeful community engagement and active problem solving. In summary, a Howard student reported,

The Summit was a success and beneficial to the University and the community. It addressed the root causes of gun violence and other forms of violence and contributed to finding solutions to the serious threats to public safety. The Summit opened a dialogue and bridged the gap between adults and the youth. The interactive activities encouraged youth to critically think of some possible causes of gun violence and effective solutions to the problems. It gave everyone an opportunity to hear first-hand the experiences that our youth face and what they think can be done to make positive changes.

Domestic/Relationship Violence

Domestic violence is a "pattern of abusive behavior in any relationship that is used by one partner to gain or maintain power and control over another intimate partner" (U.S. Department of Justice [DOJ], n.d., para. 1). While awareness of domestic violence has increased, what to do in the event of being confronted

with domestic violence has not. A forum on domestic violence organized by an ethnography class in conjunction with Howard's Young Black Women's Forum, was held in April 2010 at Howard University². The forum addressed the issues of domestic violence and misconceptions about domestic violence, and provided information and resources concerning how to identify and address domestic violence. The forum was attended by approximately 100 students.

The mission of the forum was to educate the Howard University community about the nature of domestic violence, the misconceptions that surround domestic violence in its various forms, and the resources for victims of domestic violence in the community. The forum highlighted that many people are oblivious to what constitutes domestic violence or if their situation fits the definition. Among these misconceptions are beliefs that: (1) domestic violence only occurs if the perpetrator is physically violent; (2) men are not victims of domestic violence; (3) it is the victim's fault – s/he did something to cause the perpetrator to become violent/abusive; and (4) victims must like domestic violence or else they would not stay with the perpetrator. These misconceptions were cited as part of the reason why domestic violence continues to plague our communities.

The Forum was designed to raise awareness of domestic violence and to inform individuals of their basic human rights and the community of its responsibility to help those in need. The program addressed the following four areas: (1) women as victims of domestic

violence; (2) men as victims of domestic violence; (3) domestic violence in same-sex relationships; and (4) cultural barriers in addressing domestic violence. The program consisted of two panels. The first panel were invited guests who addressed the four main topics of the forum. The second panel were members of the ethnography class who presented the results of their research. In addition to the panels, invited keynote speakers shared their personal experiences of domestic violence and skits were performed to highlight important aspects of domestic violence.

The resource manual compiled by the students presented information on different forms of control used in domestic violence including psychological, sexual, economic, physical, intimidation, blame of the victim, and spiritual. The manual also addressed the following four questions: what is domestic violence?; who commits domestic violence?; why do they commit domestic violence?; and how can the cycle of violence be broken? Warning signs that may identify a potential abuser were listed and discussed. Finally, information was provided on how a person in an abusive relationship could protect him/herself and what he or she could do to leave. Participants in the forum found the resource packet to be a very useful tool as a resource with help lines, agencies, shelters, and other contact information for victims of abuse. Students also found the information helpful in being able to reach out to friends who were being abused.

One lesson learned by students who interviewed victims of domestic violence is that victims are confronted with their own feelings of anger, rage, fear, and loneliness when threatened by the abuser. Only by addressing these feelings head-on can they become free and break the cycle of violence. The importance of forgiveness in the process of healing was evident from the stories not only in the victims forgiving the perpetrator of the violence but in the victims being able to forgive him/herself for not taking steps earlier to

2 Prior service-learning projects were held as a series of forum breakfast events. The theme of the first forum held in November 2002 was Bridging the Gap: Where There Is No Vision, The People Will Perish; the theme for the second forum held in November 2003 was IMPACT: Be a Catalyst for Change in Your Community and the theme of the third forum held in November 2004 was Ending the Cycle of Violence, by Breaking the Silence: One People, One Voice, One Goal.

make a change and/or leave. Interviews conducted by the students also revealed how misunderstood domestic violence is by their peers. The campus interviews uncovered that most students thought of domestic violence as being only physical in nature. Most thought that men could not be victims of abuse. A major conclusion of these findings and the forum was the urgent need for programs to address the lack of knowledge about domestic violence on campus. In addition to bringing greater awareness of what domestic violence is, students stressed the need to have the campus community recognize domestic/relationship violence as a serious and unacceptable problem. One suggestion was to have the resource manual be part of the Freshman Orientation classes.

Evaluation of Service-Learning Projects

Evaluation of the service-learning project is an ongoing task that is outlined during the planning phase with the development of a logic model. A logic model is a planning tool used to develop an overall picture of how a program will be developed, implemented, and evaluated including: the problem to be addressed; the partnerships needed; the activities to be planned; and the outcomes expected (Issel, 2014). The aforementioned Action Plan is incorporated into this model to set up the goals (e.g. "Vision/Mission") and procedures (e.g. "Tasks") of how all phases of the project are to be executed. The students develop this logic model and state the immediate, short-term, and long-term objectives they hope to accomplish (e.g. "Victories"). Students reflect on this process throughout the development of the project, as well as upon completion, through journaling and discussion. In addition, as part of the final evaluation, students have to answer the questions about what was done, how well it was done, and what was achieved.

Students' reflections confirmed findings from other projects that the service-learning experience

allowed them to bridge the gap between academia and their communities (Willis, Persie, Waldref, & Stockman, 2003). Participants gained practical experience and learned how to integrate their classroom learning with the problems and issues of the real world. All of the students expressed the importance of being able to make a difference and to be part of a community working for change. As stated by Dubinsky (2002), service-learning enables students

to boost critical thinking skills and improve the integration of theory and practice. They learn to do for others and themselves by working with others in a reciprocal relationship, thus preparing themselves for the workplace and for their place as citizens. (p. 72)

Their responses confirmed Strand's (2000) observation, "When students must actually do what they have read about[--]select a sample, develop a questionnaire, conduct an interview[--] they are inclined to approach their work with extra amounts of care and enthusiasm" (p. 85).

Conclusion

Community service and service-learning are major pathways for involving youth in civic service (Camino & Zeldin, 2002). Service-learning experiences are among the most productive components of university-community partnerships intended to build community capacity and social capital through achieving "a vision and goals and...respond[ing] to opportunities and challenges" (Camino & Payne-Jackson, 2005, p.17; see also Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). Students who participate in service-learning are involved in more than community service: they gain enhanced academic learning and purposeful civic learning, and participate in relevant and meaningful service in the community. Through the Even Start, Solution VII, Ozziddi Theater Group, AKERU, and ROOT partnerships, students have begun to address the basic causes of community

problems³. Through participation in the planning and execution of activities and programs, students learn how to do Action Plans, program development, ethnographic research, partnership building, community outreach and policy making. Armed with these skills, they are ready to address problems in their communities and bring about change. ■■

References

- Adler-Kassner, L. (2000). Structure and possibility: New scholarship about students-called-basic-writers. *College English*, 63(2), 225-243.
- Camino, L., & Payne-Jackson, A. (2004). Fostering social capital and community capacity for change: Strategies and impacts of two service-learning teams. *The Bridge*, 1-15.
- Camino, L., & Zeldin, S. (2002). From periphery to center: Pathways for youth civic engagement in the day-to-day life of communities. *Applied Developmental Science*, 6(4), 213-220.
- Dubinsky, J. (2002). Service-learning as a path to virtue: The ideal orator in professional communication. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 61, 61-74.
- Green, R., Payne-Jackson, A., & Bonthron, S. (2005). *Evaluation as a learning experience at Howard University*. Retrieved from <http://www.communityworksinstitute.org/cwjonline/articles/aarticles-text/howard.html>
- Hayden, J., & Payne-Jackson, A. (2004). Graffiti as a sense of place: Lorton prison Virginia. *Reflections*, 4(1), 117-122.
- Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development and National 4-H Council. (2001). *Building community: A tool kit for youth and adults in charting assets and creating change*. Retrieved from http://www.theinnovationcenter.org/files/BuildingCommunity_ToolKit.pdf
- Issel, L. M. (2014). *Health Program Planning and Evaluation: A practical, systematic approach for community health* (3rd ed.). Burlington, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.
- Kendall, J. (1990). *Combining service and learning: A resource book for community and public service*. Raleigh, NC: National Society for Internships and Experiential Education.
- Kretzmann, J. P., & McKnight, J. L. (1993). *Building communities from the inside out: A path toward finding and mobilizing a community's assets*. Evanston, IL: Institute of Policy Research.
- Strand, K. (2000). Community-based research as pedagogy. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 85(7), 85-96.
- U.S. Department of Justice. (n.d.). *Domestic violence*. Retrieved from <http://www.justice.gov/ovw/domestic-violence>
- Willis, J., Persie, J., Waldref, V., & Stockman, D. (2003). The undergraduate perspective on community-based research. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 9(3), 36-43.

3 Throughout the course of the service-learning projects, Michael Billewicz, CEO of Gotcha Photography, Inc. has played an integral and critical role in working with and training students in the field to conduct and videotape interviews and video document the breakfasts, other forums and activities put on by the students.

“A lot of Life Ahead”: Connecting College Students with Youth in Juvenile Justice Settings through Service-Learning

Michelle Inderbitzin

Abstract

My upper-division course on juvenile delinquency comes alive when students have the chance to interact with youth in juvenile justice settings. This article considers the challenges, rewards, and pedagogical justifications for incorporating a significant community-based learning component where students in the class work directly with delinquent youth into a sociology course. Interacting with system-involved youth offers college students a much more active learning environment than is typical in on-campus, lecture-based classes (Inderbitzin & Storrs, 2008; Storrs & Inderbitzin, 2006) as service-learning courses necessarily embrace a “learning paradigm” rather than the more traditional “instruction paradigm” (Barr & Tagg, 1995). Even as students learn about delinquency and the structure of the juvenile justice system through class readings, lectures, and discussions, they are able to go inside a state youth correctional facility, learn from the “experts,” and form their own impressions. Implications for disciplines beyond sociology and criminal justice are discussed.

Michelle Inderbitzin is Associate Professor in the Department of Sociology at Oregon State University. She primarily studies prison culture, juvenile justice, and transformative education. Dr. Inderbitzin earned her Ph.D. in Sociology from the University of Washington and has been a faculty member at Oregon State University since 2001. Along with her on-campus classes on crime and deviance, she regularly teaches classes and volunteers in Oregon prisons and juvenile correctional facilities.

Keywords

Service-learning, experiential learning, transformative learning, juvenile delinquency, sociology

Introduction

Studying sociology and topics such as crime and justice, social problems, and inequality offers college students a chance to examine and better understand the importance of context and opportunities in their own lives. As they learn theories of crime and deviance and delve into the circumstances surrounding delinquency, students may come away with increased empathy and understanding for those who have faced difficult choices while growing up. Studying juvenile delinquency offers a window into alternative worlds for many undergraduate students who have been fortunate enough to have supportive families and the means to attend a university. Building service-learning into such courses can demonstrate to students that even small actions can make a large difference in their own communities.

As service-learning continues to gain popularity on college campuses (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Kronick & Cunningham, 2013), faculty may create new opportunities for partnering with state agencies in an effort to engage current college students and connect them with troubled youth. The potential benefits are enormous: delinquent youth may begin to see conforming futures as a possibility, and the college students may realize heightened personal development and social engagement (Meyers, 2009) arising from “the societal and cognitive development that results when students step out of their comfort zones into contact zones” (Musil, 2003, p. 5).

My own experience doing ethnographic research in a juvenile correctional facility taught me more about delinquency and juvenile justice than years reading texts or sitting in a classroom ever could have (Inderbitzin, 2005; Inderbitzin, 2006). By partnering college students with youth involved in the juvenile justice system, all participants are outsiders (Becker, 1963) who must make an effort to understand the point of view of the other to successfully communicate and share ideas.

As an invested teacher, I have been actively working to build transformative learning experiences into my on-campus courses, especially my course on juvenile delinquency. While the service-learning projects I require in the course do not entail incarcerated youth fully participating in college courses (Holsinger & Crowther, 2005; Vigorita, 2002) or forming long-term mentoring relationships (Holsinger & Ayers, 2004), they go beyond simple tours of juvenile justice facilities (Meisel, 2008) to bring college students into direct contact with system-involved youth, allowing the two groups time to interact and get to know each other in less formal activities. The service-learning projects in my classes have taken a variety of shapes over the years as I have arranged to work with different community partners. My students have worked directly with young men and women confined in state youth correctional

facilities; youth confined in county detention facilities; youth on probation and parole; youth temporarily living in a residential facility for homeless youth; and youth connected to a drop-in center for homeless and at-risk youth.

Through service-learning projects arranged with the approval and cooperation of juvenile justice and facility administrators, delinquent youth and college students spend time together in activities that would otherwise not take place within the youth correctional facilities or other settings. The interactions are generally designed to be fun, entertaining, educational, inspirational, and/or therapeutic, and the collaborative activities help to break down stereotypes the university students and delinquent youth may have of each other. College students learn to see beyond the delinquent label and criminal act, often finding, as one student wrote, “crime has a face, and that face sometimes looks no more than fifteen years old.” Even as the youth help to humanize the subject matter for the university students, these service-learning activities may also provide an important service by showing troubled youth that college is a real possibility for them. Perhaps they will see opportunities to choose more conforming futures and end up as university students themselves one day.

In the following pages, I discuss some of the different service-learning projects that my students have facilitated with at-risk and system-involved youth, as well as considerations for faculty members who may wish to incorporate these kinds of activities into their own classes across a wide range of disciplines.

Preparation

A good deal of preparation goes into successful service-learning projects. First, as a vital part of the curriculum of an academic course, the projects should be closely tied to the disciplinary content. Class readings, lectures, videos, and discussion can be used to build the background necessary for students to understand the

purpose of the required service-learning projects as part of the course content rather than simply community service or volunteer work. Second, I find it very helpful to have community partners come to class early in the term to provide an orientation to their facilities and population. For example, for the past two years I have had all of my students doing service-learning projects in a single youth correctional facility. The superintendent has come to campus to spend a full class session with my students, giving an extensive overview of the facility, what the students can expect and the behavior expected of them, and offering suggestions for planning appropriate projects and activities. Particularly when working with secure facilities, community partners need to be intimately involved in approving activities and whatever supplies are needed, and figuring out the timing of projects and activities so that the facility is not overwhelmed or overrun with college students. Working in a quarter system where classes only last for ten weeks, this can be especially challenging. With the help and cooperation of the community partner, however, I have ultimately managed to send 45 college students out to lead activities with youth in a secure juvenile correctional facility over a period of less than five weeks.

Service-Learning Projects with System-Involved Youth

The service-learning projects for my juvenile delinquency classes have varied from year to year. While I serve as the primary connection to the community partners that we work with, I generally ask students to work together in small groups to plan their own activities, drawing on their individual strengths, skills, and interests.

Bringing At-risk and Delinquent Youth to Campus

Students in my juvenile delinquency classes have on occasion hosted at-risk youth on campus. Since our guests are juveniles under community supervision, vis-

its were arranged with either their probation or parole officers or staff members working in youth resource centers. My college students are generally not trained tour guides, but the purpose of these visits is not to give a formal introduction or to recite the history of the campus (formal tours can be arranged on campus at any time). Instead, given our class material on the potentially harmful, negative effects of stigma and labeling (Becker, 1963), my students' primary responsibility is to welcome the youth without judging them and to show them aspects of their own lives and experiences since coming to the university. That often means giving tours that include the campus recreational facilities, art galleries, cultural centers, restaurant hubs, and student dorms, as well as a classroom or two and the university library. The key to these visits is the personal interaction and the conversations that happen while walking around campus and/or having lunch together. Feedback from the youth and their counselors and probation officers has shown that they enjoyed meeting and talking with the college students; one youth offered this particularly poignant response to the few hours spent on campus: "The students showed how good it can be to focus your efforts into something you really care about. It's good to know that life can be better than it is now."

Class Service-Learning Projects with Incarcerated Youth

Working with incarcerated youth requires the university students to pass criminal background checks in order to enter the facility. Once the individuals and their plans have been approved, my students have frequently led arts and crafts based projects in an attempt to give the institutionalized young women and men a chance to be creative and sometimes to mark the occasion of national holidays. Service-learning activities have included decorating clay pots with paint and planting seeds in them for the youth to give their loved ones as Mother's Day gifts; conducting a cupcake baking and decorating (and eating) session; using water colors to paint pictures; working with clay to create small sculp-

tures; planting flowers around the facility; decorating pumpkins for Halloween; and making Valentine's Day cards for senior citizens. One university student chose an innovative project where she taught a group of youths to make pinhole cameras out of common household materials. Their photographs and a sample of the pinhole cameras were then displayed in the community's public library.

Sports and games are another popular choice; the college students have gone into the juvenile correctional facilities to hold volleyball clinics, play basketball, and teach hip-hop dance classes. Some groups simply choose to play interactive board games, role-playing games, and word games with the youth, while others have chosen to show inspirational videos and lead discussions afterwards.

Some students have opted to lead work sessions on setting goals and overcoming obstacles. One group's activity centered on the importance of planning for the future; the college students shared their own experiences and the importance of setting and accomplishing short- and long-term goals in their own lives. Other students organized mock job fairs and professional interviews for the youth, and a number of students every year have chosen to immerse themselves in more long-term projects by leading book discussion groups with youth in the facilities.

In all of these examples of service-learning projects, the key is to give the two groups a chance to interact in activities that would not otherwise be readily available to incarcerated or at-risk youth. The college students are encouraged to leave their comfort zones and put their own skills and planning to use for the very kinds of youth they are learning about in their juvenile delinquency class. The students and youth spend time together and get to know each other in an encouraging environment, through a planned activity. In these interactions, both groups become better equipped to see the other as human beings not all that different

from themselves. As one student reflected: "Learning about delinquency, you do not necessarily remember that these are real people with faces, personality, and unachieved dreams...What I learned from this experience was that these boys had history written in their eyes but hope in their smiles, they had a sense of humor that I could understand and dreams just like mine." While my class and these examples are focused on juvenile delinquency, these kinds of projects would easily translate into other settings – and other disciplines – with university students planning and implementing activities with youth in local schools and a wide variety of community organizations.

Reflection and Reciprocity

Reflecting on the activity and connecting it to class materials is a critical component for service-learning (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999); my students write a detailed description of all aspects of their projects, how the projects relate to class materials, and what they learned from the whole experience. It is helpful, however, to go beyond just focusing on the college students' reflections on how their projects went and what they are taking from the experience. As the instructor and the liaison for all participants, I generally spend time debriefing with both the students and the community partners to figure out what went well and what could be improved next time around. At minimum, it is important to ensure that the service-projects and the insertion of university students into the correctional facility are not having a negative impact (Meisel, 2008). There is always an element of unpredictability (Deeley, 2010) as complications inevitably arise, and instructors have to give up some control in order to be flexible in dealing with unexpected obstacles. As one example, this year a snowstorm derailed several service-learning projects, creating a significant time crunch in trying to reschedule group activities in the youth correctional facility.

It is helpful in such cases to have community partners who are also flexible and have a sense of humor.

Benefits of Service-Learning Projects Connecting College Students and Delinquent Youth

In an ideal world, everyone will benefit from service-learning projects that bring college students out into the community to work with at-risk populations. While we in higher education aim for reciprocity, it is difficult to achieve. Enabling these kinds of projects and interactions between college students and delinquent youth often requires extra work for the faculty and community partners' staff members, but I believe the effort is worth it as long as the benefits are clear to both sides and those benefits outweigh the costs. As a faculty member, I have found it enormously helpful to build stable and continuing relationships with community partners when possible. While some colleges have centralized offices and staff to support service-learning, the faculty member is ultimately responsible for the assignment and the preparation of the students; he or she must be adaptable, willing to monitor the projects for his or her class, and ready to respond quickly if any problems arise.

Benefits for Youth

My hope for the delinquent youth that we work with is that they will see that people in the community care about them and are willing to "reach in" to juvenile correctional facilities and agencies to spend time with them. The fact that college students put thought, effort, and time into creating and leading activities for them holds meaning. The youth may also recognize that their agency's administrators and staff members have their best interests in mind when they are accommodating enough to allow these activities to happen. My other hope is a longer-term goal, and I recognize that I will likely never know if we achieve it or not: my hope is that the troubled youth will see their options begin to

expand and that they will start to see college as a real possibility for their own futures.

Benefits for College Students

Many of the college students who take my course on juvenile delinquency are looking ahead to careers in the criminal justice system. Through these service-learning projects, the college students can get a real sense of how juvenile justice functions (Davidson II, Petersen, Hankins & Winslow, 2010). They get the rare opportunity to go inside a correctional facility and interact with both incarcerated youth and the staff and administrators that work with them on a daily basis. As one student wrote: "It is easy to discuss theories in class, to make delinquency seem as though it is far removed from our everyday lives, but this visit made the concept real, made it tangible." Another student claimed that the experience interacting with youth in the correctional facility was one of the top five things he could have done while in college, adding: "This is the bread and butter of what we have been learning."

After completing their service-learning projects, many of the college students have pursued internships and volunteer activities such as teaching dance, facilitating recovery groups, or leading ongoing book discussion groups inside youth correctional facilities. Their brief experience with the class requirement whetted their appetite to go deeper into the field; as one student explained: "Not many opportunities arise to get a firsthand look into the daily workings of the juvenile justice system, so this experience was priceless... Gaining real world experience was something I did not feel I needed, but in hindsight it solidified my interest in the field." On the other side of this spectrum, some students reported that their service-learning projects helped them realize that working with youth was not a career they would like to pursue – information that is clearly good to know.

Benefits for the Community

Juvenile justice facilities are often perceived to be impenetrable. I have found, however, that administrators and staff appreciate it when the public takes an interest in what is happening behind the walls. They have generally been enthusiastic in welcoming university and student involvement, appreciative of the energy and resources that the higher education community can bring into their facilities and to their youth.

College students frequently leave class and talk about their service-learning projects with their family and friends; such vivid learning experiences help to humanize the youth for each individual student but also for his or her circle of influence, bringing more urgency to issues of delinquency and prevention. Many will go on to pursue jobs in juvenile justice settings, and they will have a better understanding of what these careers entail. Perhaps more importantly, the college students themselves will graduate and go on to become parents, teachers, social service workers, and active citizens (Seider, Gillmor, & Rabinowicz, 2012) with deeper understanding and compassion for juveniles in conflict with their families and communities.

Discussion

The kinds of service-learning projects detailed in this paper are an example of a liberal education at its very best, as evidenced by one student's claim that his service-learning project in the youth correctional facility was "by far one of the most powerful experiences of my life." Such projects are high impact practices that "require students to make their own discoveries and connections, grapple with challenging real-world questions, and address complex problems—all necessary skills if students are to become engaged and effective members of their communities (Kinzie, 2012). Learning and interacting with delinquent youth against the backdrop of state juvenile correctional facilities, college students are able to see how sociological concepts

and theories can be translated to real-world dynamics, and, more broadly, how each individual has a meaningful role to play in the community (Butin, 2007).

While sociology has been called "a community engagement discipline" (Breese, 2011), interactions with delinquent youth can be beneficial for students in virtually any major. Students in writing or literature classes can lead workshops on poetry, creative writing, or the practical skills of filling out job applications and scholarship forms. Students in math classes can tutor system-involved youth who have often had bad high school experiences and have a deep fear of math and numbers. Business students can lead workshops on entrepreneurship and how to put great ideas into action. Philosophy students can lead discussions on ethics, science students can help develop gardens or recycling programs at community facilities, and activities involving music, theater, and art will virtually always be welcome additions for youth in confinement. Whatever the specific subject matter or activity, the experience of working and interacting with system-involved youth helps to break down stereotypes the university students and delinquent youth may have of each other, exposing their commonalities as well as their differences.

There are unquestionably many challenges in trying to navigate through the bureaucratic constraints of both a state university (Inderbitzin & Storrs, 2008) and state or community agencies such as youth correctional facilities in order to make interactive service-learning projects possible (Skolnikoff, Engvall, & Ferrara, 2010). The rewards, however, are great (Breese, 2011). It has been exhilarating to see passions ignite and to watch my students become fully engaged sociology majors (McKinney & Reed, 2007), embracing the opportunity for civic engagement. I find my own energy for teaching revitalized as I witness students being inspired, and I recognize that it is both a privilege and a responsibility to facilitate these connections between college students and troubled youth.

Both the college students and the delinquent youth have “a lot of life ahead” as one of my students wrote in reflecting on her service-learning experience. It is an important point to remember: by creating these opportunities for interaction and engagement, faculty members really do have the power to go beyond the classroom to educate for citizenship (Musil, 2003) and to encourage the next generation in their pursuit of opportunities for growth, change, and social justice. ■■

References

- Barr, R., & Tagg, J. T. (1995). From teaching to learning: A new paradigm for undergraduate education. *Change*, 27(November/December), 12-25.
- Becker, H. S. (1963). *Outsiders*. New York: Free Press.
- Breese, J. R. (2011). Sociology: A community engagement discipline. *Journal of Applied Social Science*, 5, 78-86.
- Bringle, R., & Hatcher, J. (1999). Reflection in service-learning: Making meaning of experience. *Educational Horizons*, 179-185.
- Bringle, R. & Hatcher, J. (2000). Institutionalization of service-learning in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 71, 273-290.
- Butin, D. W. (2007). Justice-learning: Service-learning as justice-oriented education. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 40, 177-183.
- Davidson II, W. S., Petersen, J., Hankins, S., & Winslow, M. (2010). Engaged research in a university setting: Results and reflections on three decades of a partnership to improve juvenile justice. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 14, 49-67.
- Deeley, S. J. (2010). Service-learning: Thinking outside the box. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 11, 43-53.
- Holsinger, K., & Ayers, P. (2004). Mentoring girls in juvenile facilities: Connecting college students with incarcerated girls. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, 15, 351-372.
- Holsinger, K., & Crowther, A. (2005). College course participation for incarcerated youth: Bringing restorative justice to life. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, 16, 328-339.
- Inderbitzin, M. (2005). Growing up behind bars: An ethnographic study of adolescent inmates in a cottage for violent offenders. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation*, 42, 1-22.
- Inderbitzin, M. (2006). Lessons from a juvenile training school. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 21, 7-26.
- Inderbitzin, M., & Storrs, D. A. (2008). Mediating the conflict between transformative pedagogy and bureaucratic practice. *College Teaching* 56, 47-52.
- Kinzie, J. (2012). High impact practices: Promoting participation for all students. *Diversity & Democracy*, 13-14.
- Kronick, R. F., & Cunningham, R. B. (2013). Service-learning: Some academic and community recommendations. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 17(3), 139-152.
- McKinney, K., & Reed, L. (2007). Profile of an engaged sociology major. *Teaching Sociology*, 35, 77-84.
- Meisel, J. S. (2008). The ethics of observing: Confronting the harm of experiential learning. *Teaching Sociology*, 36, 196-210. doi: 10.1177/0092055X0803600301
- Meyers, S. A. (2009). Service-learning as an opportunity for personal and social transformation. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 21, 373-381.
- Musil, C. M. (2003). Educating for citizenship. *Peer Review*, 5, 4-8.

- Seider, S. C., Gillmor, S., & Rabinowicz, S. (2012). The impact of community service-learning upon the expected political voice of participating college students. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 27, 44-77.
- Skolnikoff, J., Engvall, R., & Ferrara, K. C. (2010). Lots of moving parts: Is service-learning sustainable in a college classroom? *Currents in Teaching and Learning*, 3, 25-36.
- Storrs, D. A., & Inderbitzin, M. (2006). Imagining a liberal education: Critically examining the learning process through simulation. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 4, 175-189.
- Vigorita, M. S. (2002). Planning and implementing a criminal justice course with university students and youthful offenders. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, 13, 404-432.

Reducing Stigma through Contact: Three Examples from the Sociology of Mental Illness

Helen Rosenberg

Abstract

Community-based learning (CBL) exposes students to experiences that enhance student learning, while advancing connections between university and community and supporting community needs. This paper describes three projects completed with students in the Sociology of Mental Illness that increased their understanding of current issues in this field. Projects used diverse methodologies and addressed specific learning outcomes to be achieved by students, with a focus on stigma reduction through personal reflection and interactive discussions with others. At the conclusion of each course, community partners received a product in the form of a final report that summarized data collected. Examples of interview and reflection questions and peer evaluations are provided.

Helen Rosenberg earned a Ph.D. in Sociology from Northwestern University in 1989. Currently, she is Professor of Sociology at the University of Wisconsin-Parkside. She teaches courses in the Sociology of Mental Illness, Substance Use and Abuse, and Social Gerontology, but focuses her research on outcomes of community based learning and its impact on students, faculty and community partners.

Keywords

Community based learning, stigma reduction, mental illness

Introduction

Traditionally, teaching has been a mostly private relationship between student and teacher with students learning through a combination of lectures, in-class activities, and assessment through tests and papers (O'Meara, 2011). Known as the "banking model" of teaching, this method assumes that the instructor is expert and that students glean their knowledge from her/him (Freire, 2007). This model was questioned when Boyer wrote his foundational work, "Scholarship Reconsidered" (1990), which supported a methodology that gave students more responsibility for their own learning and asked teachers to provide a means by which this might be accomplished – community engagement. This call for engagement had far-reaching implications for student learning, faculty development, and community capacity-building.

In applying Boyer's recommendations, teachers tied learning to experience by participating with community. Learning became viewed as a collaborative process, understood to be value-based and dependent on the input of multiple stakeholders (Holland & Gelmon, 1998), i.e., community partners and their clients, faculty, and students themselves. At the University of

Wisconsin-Parkside (UW-Parkside), the Center for Community Partnerships (CCP) has developed a survey instrument that systematically measures students' opinions on each community project in which they engage. Faculty and community partners are surveyed as well (Rosenberg, Statham, & Folker, 2012).¹ These surveys are *apropos* to community engagement, but in addition, faculty can assess learning outcomes specific to each course that embrace a core set of competencies. Students are evaluated on these competencies in addition to their views on their projects. In my own classes, some examples of competencies that address learning outcomes include the ability to connect theory with reality and the ability to "take the role of the other." As participants in one or more group projects, students are assessed on their ability to actively exchange information with others by gaining competence in effective collaboration as well (see competencies developed in Sociology/Anthropology, <https://www.uwp.edu/learn/departments/sociologyandanthropology/comps.cfm>).

My area of expertise is in mental illness, and, for years, I followed the "banking model" of teaching. One of my regrets is that most of the students in my classes never engaged with a person diagnosed with a mental illness through activities in my classes. Boyer not only transformed institutional commitments to community, but also forced faculty like myself to re-evaluate teaching goals and responsibility to community. I believe that learning is enhanced through students' community participation, but it was some time before I put this belief into practice through what UW-Parkside terms "community-based learning" (CBL). Over time, I have made every effort to engage students in projects that augment their classroom learning as well as promote the University's relationship with community.

In Southeastern Wisconsin, there is a particular need for supporting non-profit organizations to build capacity to serve their clients. By working on projects that are driven by agency needs, I have the potential to provide valuable CBL projects for my students as well as provide needed services to mental health programs in Kenosha and Racine Counties. I would like to highlight three projects that exemplify my engagement efforts with students in the Sociology of Mental Illness course. This course poses the greatest challenges for me as a teacher, as students have stigmatized this population with support from sensational media reports that connect mental illness with violent behavior (Lysiak, 2013). However, I glean the most satisfaction by engaging my students in community projects that destigmatize this population and also provide supports for agencies that serve people with mental illness. For students to fully understand people with mental illness, it is vital that they interact with members of this population, especially if students are going into a field that provides services for them. Indeed, this course attracts students from a variety of majors and disciplines, and the content and activities in the class complement the fields of psychology, nursing, social work, education, and criminal justice, among others. As an example, while the Sociology of Mental Illness is an elective for sociology majors, it is a requirement for the Mental Health Certificate in Psychology.

One of the benefits of incorporating CBL in this course is that I have developed strong, sustainable relationships with mental health agencies throughout Southeastern Wisconsin, including relationships with directors of national programs, such as the National Alliance on Mental Illness (NAMI), at the regional level, and local programs, such as drop in centers, vocational rehabilitation centers, and crisis centers in the area. Each time I teach the Sociology of Mental Illness, I contact these agencies to learn what current needs they may have and how students in this class can help them

1 For a copy of the surveys, contact the author. University of Wisconsin-Parkside, 900 Wood Road, Box 2000, Kenosha, WI 53141.

achieve those needs. While agency needs are many and easy to accommodate, reducing stigma among students is more difficult, and I rely on interaction with those diagnosed with mental illness to allay student fears and on speakers to aid my students in transitioning into their projects. One agency, the Wisconsin Initiative for Stigma Elimination (WISE), sends representatives to my class in preparation for student engagement with a community agency. Nevertheless, without actually stating her fears, one student wanted to know if I would be present when she and other students were interacting with people who were mentally ill, and a few students dropped the class after I introduced a project. In this way, I learned that many of the students in my class feared people with mental illness, and this discovery further reinforced my commitment to engage students with this population.

Below, I describe three projects conducted with three different agencies, using different methodologies: focus group discussions, phone interviews, and participant observation/instruction. The projects met all the requirements for CBL that are stated in the guidelines of the CCP. These criteria include

- » Stated student learning outcomes
- » A specific assignment with a community partner that enhances course material through targeted experiential learning projects
- » A group effort that defines different roles in the learning process and promotes the active exchange of ideas in a civil manner
- » Reflection
- » A final product, project, presentation or placement

Three Examples

Racine Friendship Clubhouse (RFC), Satisfaction with Services

<http://racineclubhouse.org/>

The Racine Friendship Clubhouse, Inc. (RFC) provides vocational rehabilitation and supports social integration for people with mental illness. Established in 1991, the Clubhouse trains its members in computer skills, cooking, writing, and appropriate social interaction. In the afternoon, the Clubhouse serves lunch and acts as a drop-in center, but also organizes field trips for its members to sports events, movies, and other cultural programs. The RFC was interested in learning ways to improve its existing services and what new services members would like to see offered. In collaboration with the Director of RFC, I agreed to conduct a series of focus group discussions with current members of the clubhouse who were receiving services, with former members to learn why they left the program, with members of NAMI who were not affiliated with RFC, and with service providers from local hospitals and mental health centers. Students had to learn about the purpose and structure of focus group discussions. They were required to submit a request to conduct the study to the university Institutional Review Board (IRB), to develop questions and probes to be asked at the meetings based upon each category of participants, and then to sign up for one of four discussions. Various roles were assigned to students, e.g., facilitator, note taker, observer, and food and beverage servers. Despite the various roles, all were instructed to ask questions and probes throughout the discussions.

Prior to our meetings, students were trained on the methods of conducting focus groups. In addition, a six-member group from RFC came to class for a mock focus group discussion with students. In spring 2011, the Sociology of Mental Illness class (n=31) conducted focus group discussions with the four designated groups. Everyone in the class was required to

attend one focus group. Attendance at these groups varied to a great extent, and one evening group had as many as ten students with three conducting the group (facilitator and two note takers) and seven serving food and observing the discussion. In the end, the class conducted five focus group discussions over a three-week period. At the discussion with current RFC members, there were so many in attendance that members were divided into two groups and met in different rooms. The content of focus group notes was coded thematically, and students wrote a final report to the Executive Director of the Clubhouse. At the end of the semester, students reflected on their experiences by answering the following questions: “How has this CBL experience changed you as a person?” and “What concerns/fears did you have prior to your focus group experience, and how have these concerns changed?”

In response to the first questions, one student stated, “These projects make me less judgmental.” Another said, “This experience has brought me much more knowledge and understanding about those who deal with mental illness. I think this has been one of the most eye-opening projects I’ve had at UWP and I’m glad I got to be a part of it.” A third said, “This CBL experience has made me more aware of people with mental illness. It’s made me to be more appreciative of all people around me. I need to be able to not stigmatize or give a person a stigma. It’s made me feel more open to hearing a person’s story before I judge them by the way the[y] look or act on first impression.”

Overall, comments from students discussed not only stigma reduction *per se*, but considered the methodology as a means of allowing beneficial interaction in a professional setting. Finally, students said they would volunteer or redefined their career goals. “It served to cement my future career goals. I am intending to enter a field that emphasizes community education, especially in underprivileged/stigmatized communities. Participating in the focus groups (even the whole

class) really helped open my eyes to the needs of the community.”

In response to the second question, many students did not fear for themselves, but were concerned with the response of focus group participants: “I was concerned that I would not be approachable by the focus group members, but it seemed like they were comfortable and that’s all I wanted for them.” Others were concerned that they were being too intrusive into the lives of the people they were speaking with or that they would come across as judgmental: “I feared how I was going to judge them and if they were going to be afraid of us because they thought we were going to judge them. This totally changed my views and I’m glad it happened.” Still others did fear focus group participants at the onset of the project: “I was afraid that people with mental illness (not all) were violent. I was afraid that I was going to catch myself looking at them and judging them by their illness.” Upon resolving such fears, a student states, “I had ...fears – that these people might harm me or not be able to interact with me like a ‘normal’ person...but realized how wrong I was about them. GREAT experience that has changed me.”

The class produced a product for RFC, a report on satisfaction with services and suggestions for improvement and expansion of services. The final report traced the process of this project from writing focus group discussion questions, to dividing up students to cover various groups and designating students’ roles, to thematically coding responses from participants, to writing the final report to the agency. Based upon recommendations in this report, it is apparent that students had to “take the role of the other” and portray the needs of RFC members from their perspective. Students learned that service providers had little knowledge of RFC programming and recommended to RFC that they market their services to local hospitals more effectively. From information summarized from focus group discussions, the report recommended that RFC increase its hours of

operation to accommodate members who are employed or have unstructured weekends with no place to go. Also suggested was increasing staff to help consumers with both vocational training and job placements. Members felt that more activities should be offered that could include peer support groups, formal therapy groups, lectures on mental health research, and card or craft groups. Participants conveyed their understanding that lack of funding was a problem, but suggested holding public fund raisers that could be turned into social events which would raise both money and awareness.

While the main focus of this class was exposure to people with mental illness, students developed skills in research methods and final report writing. They were responsible for collaborating with the Director of RFC, which likely prepared them for working with authority figures outside the classroom. Students had to write sections of the final report and then write a report that appeared seamless. There were a variety of majors represented in the class, and students drew on each other's strengths in developing the final deliverable to RFC.

resented in the class, and students drew on each other's strengths in developing the final deliverable to RFC.

National Alliance on Mental Illness-Consumer Advocacy Team (NAMI-CAT), Access to Services,
<http://www.namiracine.org/amicat.htm>

NAMI-CAT is a watch dog agency that assesses the quality of services provided to people with mental illness in Racine County. In fall, 2012, the Executive Director of NAMI-CAT asked my Sociology of Mental Illness class to contact 32 agencies in Racine County that provide mental health services to people in the County. Students were to call each agency and ask questions from the "Mental Health Treatment Provider Information Form," a form developed by NAMI-CAT for this project. The form inquired about times of service, length of time clients had to wait for an appointment, if the agency had a crisis hotline, and what types of services were offered. Students asked if

	Agencies Successfully Contacted	Agencies unable to be contacted
Number of Agencies	17	15
Total Attempts to Call	1.8 on average; most answered on first ring Range=1-6	3.6 on average Range=2-15
Minutes on Hold	Range=0-1 minute	Range=4-35 minutes
Demeanor	1.6 on a 5 point scales. Most felt they were well received	Most felt discouraged, sad, annoyed, frustrated. One person felt as if she was a bother
Reasons never contacted		Disconnected=1 Wrong number=2 Message never returned=6 Phone tag; directly to voice mail=1 Referred directly to hotline or 911=2
Who Responded	14 of total were people who answered the phone	

the agency served children and if it accepted Medicaid or Medicare clients or had a sliding scale or reduced fee program for people who didn't have insurance.

Each student was assigned one agency to call. The following chart is a summary of the outcomes from students' calls.

Students could not reach a staff person at about half the agencies that reported they served people with mental illness. One of the frustrations of students was getting an answering machine, but never having messages returned or being put on hold, sometimes for half an hour. Students felt frustrated and discouraged when they called agencies repeatedly without results or were redirected to a hotline. In such instances, students shared their frustrations during a reflection discussion and identified with people who sought professional help. This lack of immediate response was a particular concern in emergencies. Students could not understand how emergency numbers had recorded messages asking people to leave a message for a return phone call! While this experience created empathy for people with mental illness on an individual level, it, in turn, stereotyped the service system within the county as ineffectual and inept.

Among students who were successful in contacting agencies, almost all connected with a person, but, if not, phone messages were returned promptly. Students logged the number of times they had to call any agency to receive an answer and completed a reflective piece on their experience.

Students did not complete a final paper, but spoke to the Director of NAMI-CAT during the final class session. They learned first-hand the frustrations that people with mental illness experience when seeking help and could identify with them. In response, the Director of NAMI-CAT countered that many agencies lack the funds to staff someone on the phones full time or beyond the hours of a typical working day. She spoke of the high turnover at some agencies and how it was difficult to monitor quality of services when there was

so much organizational change throughout the mental health system in the region. This interchange provided students with a view of the systemic issues that occur from an agency perspective as well as allowing students to experience how people with mental illness who are seeking help are treated within the system of care.

What this project exemplified was the complexity involved in service systems and how these systems impact individuals in need. Students learned the extent to which services depend upon funding from the State. For each person's need that is not supported is a service agency that operates on shoestring funding or even a deficit. This systems approach to understanding services is particularly informative to psychology and criminal justice majors, for these students tend to focus on individual explanations for mental illness but come to a sociology class and get a broader perspective on causation and treatment.

Sustainability, Assessment, Information, and Linkage (SAIL), Developing Relaxation Exercises for People with Anxiety

<http://www.bsd.racineco.com/MentalHealth/tabid/77/Default.aspx>

In the spring, 2014 semester, students worked with a Racine Department of Behavioral Health Services agency, SAIL. SAIL is a crisis intervention program, and clients at SAIL stay only a few days for treatment. However, the Director of SAIL says that most have some severe anxiety disorder. Students in my class developed relaxation exercises to help clients deal with their stress and anxiety. Groups of students, ranging in numbers from 2-4, researched activities and went to SAIL to demonstrate them and have clients actively participate in these activities. By semester's end, ten groups of students participated in this project on two different occasions, totaling twenty activity sessions. With the second iteration of each activity, students modified and improved upon activities conducted the first time. Their final product was a binder of tension-

reduction activities that was used to relax clients before group therapy at SAIL, when tensions run high, and for clients of SAIL to take home with them upon release.

After students completed their SAIL project, I asked them to reflect on the following questions:

- » Consider your views about people with mental illness when you first began this class. In what way(s) did participation in the project change your perceptions of people with mental illness?
- » Did the project in any way allay any fears you might have had about people with mental illness?
- » How could this experience have been improved?

Here are some responses from students to the first question. The first two quotations indicate an awareness of the similarities between people with a mental illness and those without, but also suggest a reduction in stigma. Moreover, the second quote informs the reader of an awareness of “There but for you, go I” and the desire to help or even work with this population in the future.

“They’re not much different from me”

“I think I viewed people with SMI the way that everyone did, stigma and all. This class has really altered my perspective and made me realize that people with mental illness are no different than any of us. That could be me in those institutions. It’s that kind of thought process that has ever made me want to help in any way I can.”

The next two quotes indicate that students benefited from the course readings and discussions in that they have a greater awareness of diagnoses and a desire for more learning, but also for more involvement in the field.

“It enlightened me to some of the mental illnesses that I knew the names of but didn’t have a very good understanding of.”

“I honestly have a deeper appreciation for the subject matter in general. I feel more informed, open minded, and curious about different aspects

of mental illness. Have a hunger to learn more and do more to help, whether it be volunteering or really getting involved in the field.”

While I stressed that this course focuses on a systems approach to the study of mental illness, students still desired some aspects of learning that might be covered in an abnormal psychology class. For example, students wanted to learn about the association between diagnosis and behavioral symptoms. Yet, when they interacted with clients from SAIL, they also realized that diagnosis based upon symptomatology is not easily recognized. They saw the great extent to which people might be misdiagnosed, and we discussed the relationship between this misdiagnosis and prescribed medications, as well as medication non-compliance. In brief, various aspects of students’ experiences led to different types of questions and interests and moved the course in directions I sometimes had not anticipated it would take.

At the end of the community project, students were asked to evaluate themselves and their peers. Figure 1 is a copy of the evaluation form.

Although this course is an upper division level course, students come to the course from a variety of disciplines with different knowledge and with different expectations for the course. Psychology majors seem to want to learn about symptomatology, diagnoses, and categories of mental illness. Criminal justice majors want to learn about the relationship between mental illness and crime. Students with no community experience tend to have an absolutist view of mental illness, while students who have been in the military and those who are diagnosed with a mental illness tend to have a more nuanced view of the illness. From a teacher’s perspective, I seek to broaden students’ perspectives on mental illness. In addition, the variety of experiences that students represent from various disciplines contributes to diversifying people’s understanding of the field. I know I have succeeded when students finish the

Indicate 1 = Low; 4 = High

Attributes	1	2	3	4
Accepts Responsibility: Willing to make decisions and accountable to group as a whole.				
Openness: Communicates honestly, openly, and consistently. Shares information appropriately and involved the team in solving problems.				
Positive Attitude: Encourages a positive rather than negative viewpoint.				
Integrity: Maintains high standard of personal conduct in performing all duties.				
Commitment: Committed to making the project a success. Willing and able to work for the best interests of the project. Not thinking in terms of being right at the expense of being successful.				
People Skills: Able to build productive working relationships with team members based on respect and good rapport. Listens well.				
Judgment: Able to evaluate information quickly, identify key issues and formulate conclusions based on sound, practical judgment, experience, and common sense.				
Organized: Well prepared and organized. Carries out all responsibilities and Action-items in a purposeful way.				
Dependable: Can be relied upon to get the job done. No surprises.				
Total				
Additional Comments:				

Figure 1- Team Member Attribute Checklist

semester with more questions than answers and want to learn more.

Conclusions

No amount of lecturing can teach students about a population that is stigmatized and whose social perception is colored by fear and suspicion. Reducing stigma is in the process. This process consists of multiple components. First is the preparation. Students need to know how to prepare for their experiences. Second is contact, and third is reflection. Without talking or writing about their experiences, many of us really don't know what we think. Moreover, our views are modified through interaction, not only with people who are

mentally ill, but also through the discussions with other students in the class.

Many faculty members are concerned about getting all the course content that they had planned to complete done by semester's end. Even when I wasn't doing CBL, I never finished all the course content I had planned for the semester. In addition, what my students learn through experience is much more valuable than what they derive from classroom learning alone.

Who my partner is and what the project involves are somewhat secondary to getting my students involved. I know that learning will come. It's the process that creates the outcomes that I seek.

With each partnership, I attempt to keep ongoing contact on my students' progress and contribution to the agency. As I expect community partner input throughout the project, I know that at project's end, my partner is due some type of product that reports an outcome that will benefit the agency. Overall, I believe that best practices with community engagement are to reveal and reinforce a relationship that has previously been agreed upon and to meet the expectations of my community partner, while supporting my students in this process. ■■

References

- Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. Princeton, NJ: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- Freire, P. (2007). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.
- Holland, Barbara A., & Gelmon, S. B. (1998). The state of the "Engaged Campus": What have we learned about building and sustaining university-community partnerships. *American Association of Higher Education*, 105-108.
- Lysiak, M. (2013). *Newtown*. New York: Gallery Books.
- O'Meara, K. (2011). Faculty civic engagement: New training, assumptions, and markets needed for the engaged American scholar. In J. Saltmarsh & M. Hartley (Eds.), *To service a larger purpose: Engagement for democracy and the transformation of higher education* (pp. 177-198). Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press, 177-198.
- Rosenberg, H., Statham, A., & Folker, C. (Winter, 2013; Spring, 2012 in Australia). Faculty views on community based learning as a teaching tool: Benefits, barriers and policy implications for future engagement. *The Australasian Journal of University-Community Engagement*, 7(2), 1-18.

Good Sociology and Good Service-Learning: Designing a Collaborative Relationship to Accomplish Mutual Goals

Dana Walsh and Heather Perry

Abstract

Community based learning (CBL) provides an effective model for incorporating classroom learning and academic research into real-world experience. Our social policy course had historically used a CBL model with students at multiple agencies. Wanting to make the CBL component rigorous and mutually beneficial to students and service-learning sites, we explored a collaborative method of working with one community partner. We used a case-study method to examine whether a single-partner model would be better for the achievement of our learning goals. Since we had two cohorts of students taking the course in the same semester, we were well positioned to compare the effectiveness of the models.

We predicted a strong preference for one method over the other, but we found positive and negative attributes in both pedagogies. Students in both models were engaged in their service, and their journals indicated that it had been a transformative experience for them. The single-partner group exhibited a qualitative difference in the course's three primary learning goals, but this effect was slight. The results of our case study prove instructive not only for designing courses in the field of sociology, but for incorporating service-learning into courses across disciplines.

Keywords

Community-based learning, sociology, social policy, community partners, instructional design

Dana Walsh is a practicing clinical social worker and an adjunct faculty for Stonehill College. She has a Master's degree in social work. Her primary practice is with adolescents. Her teaching has centered on social inequality, institutional discrimination, social policy and the special interest topics of human trafficking and educational innovations.

Heather Perry is a Reference Librarian and Assistant Professor at Stonehill College, and a doctoral student at Simmons College. She is interested in the role of information in a democratic society. Her research interests are in the area of conflict of interest and its influence on the information needs of the individual.

Introduction

Community-Based Learning, thoughtfully planned, holds the possibility of providing a transformative learning experience for students. Its design, however, must be carefully crafted to the learning goals of the course. While we have taught CBL courses for eight years, we frequently revisit the question of how best to structure service projects to ensure that they are goal-oriented, rigorous, and rewarding. Traditionally, we offer a course with what Varlotta (2000) terms a "broad" service text. In this approach, students choose from a range of agencies for their service. Recognizing limitations to these broad

experiences, such as the practical difficulty of collaborating closely with the staff at each site, we decided to experiment with “narrowing” the text by partnering with just one agency so that all students would be placed at the same site (Varlotta, 2000). Our interest in this new model increased after attending a CBL Institute, sponsored by our college, which focused on best practices for service-learning. The Institute was not discipline specific, so although our specific case study was sociological in nature, the lessons learned have broad applicability. The question of whether a narrow service-learning model might better achieve our goals piqued our curiosity. As we were offering two sections of the course at the same time, we had the opportunity to implement both models simultaneously and compare how effectively they helped students achieve course goals. The results surprised us and proved to be instructive for faculty planning courses which integrate service-learning.

In this paper, we highlight the importance of designing a service-learning experience to meet specific course goals. The paper begins with background information on our course and integrates a review of the literature which informed the service-learning design. It describes the traditional broad model, the piloted narrow model, and the assessment measures used to demonstrate student achievement of course goals. The paper draws conclusions about the critical aspects of matching service-learning to course goals.

Background Information

Stonehill College is a private Catholic college located south of Boston, near Brockton, Massachusetts. The Stonehill community endeavors to help students meet their professional goals and to live lives of purpose and integrity (Stonehill). Stonehill’s core curriculum requires all students, generally in their sophomore year, to engage in an interdisciplinary learning community; many incorporate a CBL component.

Course Design

A Learning Community course is one which challenges students to integrate the knowledge and skills from two discipline-specific courses, in our case a sociology and an information technology course. One cohort of students takes all three of the classes in a semester. These Learning Community courses typically draw students from across disciplines, as they offer students the opportunity to “step outside the box.” Students from a variety of majors, ranging from economics, to psychology, to business administration, have enrolled in the social policy Learning Community. Our specific course grew out of an intellectual conversation the authors had had about the “welfare myth”: the belief that poor women have children to reap financial reward, despite overwhelming evidence of its inaccuracy. We envisioned a social policy course that would challenge students’ assumptions about poverty and move them to think more critically about society’s efforts to ameliorate it. Strand (1999, p. 30) articulates our mission well:

We invite students to challenge conventional wisdom, seek information that counters prevailing assumptions and consider divergent views and ideas, even (and perhaps especially) if they conflict with the beliefs and assumptions that students hold most dear.

Students are asked to complete an initial reflection paper before attending any class meetings, so we can get a baseline of their position on poverty and social policy before they have been influenced by the sociological perspective. Their papers almost uniformly report a complete lack of knowledge about the social policies we are planning to cover in class, yet, inexplicably, a clear idea of who is to blame for social problems. Typical initial reflection papers include comments such as:

“Poverty is a difficult concept to examine because there are many different variables that affect it... Overall, though; I believe that poverty is more the fault of the individual. I strongly view America as

the land of opportunity, where anything is possible as long as a desire is present.”

“I just want to begin by saying that I have very little knowledge on several of these issues, including poverty, government aid to the poor and government policy...I blame certain individuals for being lazy and not even trying to escape out of poverty. I believe that anything is possible with a little hard work and determination, even rising out of poverty.”

With some exceptions, students entered the class with these types of predominantly individualistic explanations of poverty. Generally, they assigned responsibility for poverty to individuals’ poor decisions and lack of motivation. Many students expressed a belief in the Horatio Alger myth that success is equated with work ethic. As would be expected in a sociology class, the goal is for students to move beyond those individualistic explanations that blame the victim (Ryan, 1976) to an exploration of the social, cultural, economic and political factors that create need (Mills, 2000) and necessitate a policy response. It was important to challenge students to consider that social problems and social policy responses are constructed by a society. To achieve this, students learn to examine the processes which shape perceptions of individuals and groups in society. These perceptions, for instance of the alcoholic, homeless man, too lazy to work, have a direct impact on people’s willingness to support social change. The students’ task, therefore, is to become savvy consumers of information and to learn to evaluate data before they accept a particular view or make a public policy decision. To this end, students review scholarly literature, critically examine the data and the claims being made, challenge their own assumptions and society’s long-held stereotypes, and propose alternative policies that would more effectively work toward a socially just society.

Students who registered for the course knew in advance that community service was required. From

the outset, we were clear that community service would be an integral part of the learning experience for our students. The central premise of the course is that personal interaction with those who experience disadvantage is necessary to challenge misperceptions and stereotypes and that without such interaction, notions of the poor as the “other” will persist. We believe that relationships humanize social problems, engender empathy, and inspire a sense of civic responsibility in students. If academic exploration is not balanced by the real-world experience of building relationships with the “other,” stereotypes may be reinforced and students may become disconnected from any sense of responsibility for society’s inequities. In addition, as the poor themselves are keen stakeholders in social policy decisions, we felt that their perspective needed to be included in the discourse. Evidence (Hochschild, Farley & Chee, 2014; Kiely, 2005; Mitchell, 2008) suggests that CBL is particularly instrumental to sociological teaching, but Strand (1999) warns that CBL done poorly actually reinforces individualistic explanations of social problems, rather than enabling a structural analysis which places problems in a broader societal context. In essence, a poorly constructed service experience supports, rather than challenges, the *status quo*. However, CBL, effectively linked with sociological inquiry, can provide far-reaching benefits by demonstrating how sociological concepts play out in the real world, enabling students to emerge from the course with a capacity for critical analysis (Strand, 1999). When active reciprocal cooperation occurs, the outcome is both good sociology and good service-learning (Hesser, 1999).

Community Service Goals

Specific to the community service, we identified three learning objectives: moving students from assimilation to accommodation, fostering critical inquiry, and providing a transformative learning experience (Dunlap, Scoggin, Green, & Davis, 2007). The first goal is for

community service to move students from assimilation to accommodation (Dunlap et al., 2007). In this model, assimilation is an end result wherein service does little to change students' perceptions of the poor. With assimilation there is an ongoing tendency towards meritocratic explanations of poverty. The prevailing view remains that hard work and strong character are synonymous with success. There is minimal allowance made for external factors creating conditions of need. In part, this is also because stereotypes about the poor persist. The intention of service-learning is to move students towards accommodation (Dunlap et al., 2007), in which case, students understand the relationship between personal difficulties and the larger structure of society. They consider the role that issues such as globalization, minimum wages, and lack of affordable housing, rather than failure of effort, play in constraining mobility. They come to understand that in the face of these types of structural impediments – cultural, social, economic, and political – that life chances are vastly different (Mills, 2000). Students also begin to see the disadvantaged as a far more heterogeneous group, which minimizes stereotyping. They begin to realize that socioeconomics is a position in a society, not the result of a person's character.

A second goal of service-learning is to develop the capacity for critical inquiry (Cress, Kerrigan, & Reitenauer, 2003; Dunlap et al., 2007). Critical inquiry in this course is achieved when students can make connections between the academic and the personal. As they develop the ability to understand the impact that social policy has on individual lives, based on their personal interactions at the site, they begin to question whether current policies meet the needs of the individual and what their level of effectiveness is. Another essential component of this inquiry is questioning the role that power and privilege play in access to shaping policy.

The final goal is for the experience to be transformative (Cress et al., 2003; Kiely, 2005). It was the goal

of the course for the students to radically reconsider the ways in which they view the world: an expectation is that students' citizenship will develop as they become increasingly informed about social policy and their power to impact it.

In its inception, this learning community utilized more of a traditional, broad model of service-learning to achieve these goals. Students were able to self-select their placement from among several agencies we had worked with in the past. These agencies included food pantries, homeless shelters, food and furniture delivery services, and tutoring services. Additionally, a few students who commuted to campus were permitted to choose social service agencies close to their homes. We required of each student twenty hours of service spread over the course of the semester. It was emphasized that continuous service was critical to developing relationships with clients and staff at the site. Students completed initial and final reflection papers as well as weekly journal reflections to gauge the impact the service was having on their perspectives on the poor and social policy. Students discussed their experiences at their community service each week during class. Contact between the faculty and the staff of the agency was limited to a final evaluation of student commitment to and performance at the site. While we felt we were achieving our goals for the course, learning more about best practices for service encouraged us to aspire to increase the meaning and impact of the experience for our students as well as our community partners.

Piloting the Narrow Model

In the fall of 2010, we pioneered a "narrow" model that reflected some of the practices of service-learning models we researched (Varlotta, 2000). Rather than have students self-select a placement from a multitude of agencies, all students were assigned to service at a homeless shelter for families. There, they helped facilitate recreational programs for the youth in shelter care.

In the same semester, a second section of the course completed service in the same way they had in previous semesters. Students in that section chose non-profits specializing in service to the poor and disadvantaged, including homeless shelters, food pantries, and public housing developments. Both sections of the course had the same assignments, including an initial and final reflection paper and weekly journal entries that we utilized to monitor the impact of service on the goals articulated above. All students were aware that we were studying the new model; we received IRB approval, and students signed informed-consent forms. Having both courses run concurrently allowed us to compare the models to see which better achieved our expected learning outcomes.

With the goal of improving student learning, we piloted the narrow model with three course goals in mind: accommodation, critical inquiry, and transformative learning. Research from Sandy and Holland (2006) found that community partners expressed a desire for a co-equal relationship with faculty where activities and projects stem from the relationship and are not simply created by the faculty. Our community partner shared our interest in designing service that would have a meaningful impact on our students as well as the residents of the site, as they were equally invested in the course goals, most specifically in accommodation, assuring that perceptions of homelessness reflected reality. To begin, our community partner was invited to the CBL Summer Institute where the planning process was initiated. The CBL Summer Institute brought together teams of faculty, community partners, and students to collectively design CBL courses that would be of mutual benefit. It gave us the time and the tools to intentionally structure a course that would meet multiple objectives. Following the Institute, significant effort was made to include more intentional, ongoing communication with the agency throughout the semes-

ter; the frequency of contact between staff and faculty increased to nearly weekly interactions.

To cultivate an open dialogue between staff and students that would allow an exploration of the linkages between course content and real world experiences, (i.e., critical inquiry), we introduced a number of activities. We scheduled an initial orientation held at the shelter's administrative offices, which addressed data on homelessness, the history of the organization, and the shelter's current role in providing social services. At this initial orientation, the Director of Family Services spoke with students about their role in promoting the well-being of children and upholding the dignity of the families the agency serves. She addressed how the role of the service learner helps to support agency goals. Students had a much greater sense, therefore, of the mission of the agency and how they fit into that mission as their service began. They also had a strong initial impression about the culture of the organization. With this particular partner, the emphasis on respect for the strengths of the families served by the agency immediately set a context for talking about homelessness in a different manner than popular discourse generally allows. An initial tour of the transitional housing program introduced students to systemic interventions and the recent changes in housing policy that are an attempt to respond to the growing number of homeless families. Students were then designated specific contact persons whom they could reach to address questions and concerns ranging from scheduling issues, to workplace policies, to sharing information on behavior they were observing in the children. These changes reflected what research was indicating: that sites want faculty and, we would add, students to have a greater understanding of the culture, conditions and practices of the co-community educators (Sandy & Holland, 2006). Simultaneously, given their role as co-educators, it was important that staff have the same opportunity to hear from students, especially in regards to their changing

perspectives; therefore, with the students' permission, we began to share initial and final reflection papers with the community partner.

Working in the community inevitably brings up questions and concerns for our students. In our broad model students could discuss these things with their site supervisors or in our class meetings; this was a somewhat ad hoc process, however, so we also instituted more formalized monthly meetings with the agency staff to process what the students were experiencing. These meetings were held in the private "living room" of the shelter. The emphasis was to extend the forum for making connections between course content and experiential learning, providing an improved context for critical inquiry.

A second point of emphasis in the new model was to provide greater education for the students about the community they would be serving in. Community partner sites want faculty, and again we would add students, to have a greater awareness of a community's needs and strengths (Sandy & Holland, 2006). We hoped to achieve two purposes with community education. One, it could provide an immediate context for a structural explanation of poverty in Brockton by highlighting factors such as deindustrialization's role in inhibiting the labor market. Two, it might address some of the initial apprehension students typically expressed in their initial reflection papers about working in an impoverished community. From our past experience, we knew that students had often encountered many stereotypes about the city. Left unaddressed, the anticipatory anxiety that these negative perceptions bring may inhibit a student's comfort level at the site and interfere with relationship-building. In the broad model, students began their work in the community without any orientation. An element we took from the CBL Institute was a tour of the city of Brockton, which borders campus and is the site of student service. The tour by a local historian, Mr. Willie Wilson (2010), enriched the students' understanding

of the city's past and current challenges as well as its strengths and rich industrial and cultural history. After experiencing the richness of the tour of the city of Brockton with the CBL Institute, we felt that a similar tour would be beneficial to our class. As students had greater opportunity to learn about the external barriers to success for families, they could begin to re-orient themselves to a structural analysis of poverty rather than an individualistic one.

We expected that the goal of transformative learning—developing new insights and skills so that students become empowered citizens—could in part be achieved by the above changes. It was anticipated that much of what we had designed to better familiarize the students with the staff, families and community could potentially change their views on the poor and social policy. A final critical component was to design meaningful activities for the students during the time that they were at the site. A common complaint of students about their role at the site was a lack of guidance and a concern that they "did not know what they should do." The purpose of re-designing activities was three-fold. One, it would allow direct access to families, making real the problems students were debating in academia and challenging any prejudices that they might hold.. As previously stated, service-learning was critical to informing policy discussions students were having in class. With direct service, our students would have the opportunity to gain insight and more fully understand how their decisions might affect those they had served. Two, it would allow students to use their skills for a greater good, increasing their confidence in their ability to effect change. Three, it would ensure that the community partner would benefit in return for its taking on the additional commitment of educating 29 students.

To this end, we surveyed students' skills and interests and matched them with agency needs to enable the partner to capitalize on the unique skills the students possessed to better serve their population.

In our design meeting with our community partner, we discussed many projects that would be beneficial to the community partner and enable the students to have greater guidance and structure while utilizing their talents and skills. For example, our community partner had musically talented children who were not able to take advantage of music lessons due to financial and logistical concerns; we had two students able to provide instruction. The agency also invited students to help complete a “wish list” of projects that the agency did not have the staffing or time to complete. By better matching the students’ skills to the work that they were doing, we hoped that there would be a greater opportunity for transformative learning.

Outcomes

Students in both groups were asked to complete the final reflection paper (See Appendix A). To assess each student’s paper for its achievement of the three stated goals, we created a rubric to identify expressions of these learning outcomes (See Appendix B). While we have been successful in achieving our desired outcomes for our students using the original model of the course, in comparing the final reflections of the two sections of the course we found that there was a qualitative difference in the achievement of course goals. Even though both groups demonstrated that they had acquired the knowledge the course was designed to provide, the narrow group described it in a richer, deeper way, evidencing higher achievement of the accommodation goal. Students in the broad group tended to be less

Narrow Group Reflections	Broad Group Reflections
...the oppressive structured inequality of our society makes it easy for those of certain qualities and backgrounds to succeed while keeping “others” in the vicious cycles of poverty. I now see that the disadvantages of our society are reflections of the unfairly constructed institutions such as education and employment.	I feel as if simply discussing social problems and policies isn’t as effective as seeing people dealing with those problems every day.
In most cases the disadvantaged in our society have “failed” because society failed them, not because they failed society. Similarly, I have realized that our public services and housing assistance programs are far more complicated than I had previously thought.	I would say that social justice has a lot more to do with the moral state of all individuals.
I realized that Brockton residents are not completely at fault for the partial decay of the area, but instead the vacancy of business is to blame as well. I no longer view Brockton as a site of willingly impoverished people.	They are not mean people who don’t care and are just lazy; they are mothers, fathers, children, grandparents trying to make it in the world while often battling other things like illness and disabilities.
(Brockton’s) no different than any other community; it is diverse, unique and has flaws that hinder others from seeing its true character and value. Certainly, this contradicts what I originally thought. As I’ve gotten to know the community and its residents better, I have realized that they are all, for the most part, hard-working individuals who strive to be and to do their best.	I was able to eliminate a lot of the negative stereotypes about the poor from my head.

Table 1 – Assimilation to Accommodation

specific about their movement from assimilation to accommodation.

Even more striking were the results in the areas of critical inquiry, acquisition of knowledge about social policies and impact that social policies would have on various members of the community. Many in the narrow group gave clear, specific detail about the social policies that would help the people from their site, while only a small percentage of the broad group could do the same. When they discussed social policy, the narrow group was much more articulate in describing how the various social policies debated in class would impact their specific clients. The broad group spoke about social policy more globally.

In the area of transformative learning, the narrow group had more specific plans for translating their learning into action than the broad group. Most of the papers from the narrow group commented on the attainment of transformative learning whereas about half of the students in the broad group did not formulate a statement about how the community-based learning might empower them to think or act differently.

Conclusions

To return to our central question, then, did a narrow model better enable students to meet the goals we had identified for community service? In some regards, yes; however, the results were not as overwhelmingly clear

...since I have seen the element in which the people that are most affected by these policies live, I am much more sensitive and aware of their needs and how these policies are going to affect them. TANF and Housing First policy have huge impacts on the lives of the clientele at the (shelter).	It made me recognize how lucky I am to have access to things like the cafeteria where I am able to eat a delicious meal every night and not have to worry about what I am going to eat tomorrow.
Although most would believe that Section 8 housing vouchers would most benefit these families, I believe that monetary assistance would be most helpful.... Although TANF is not working efficiently, monetary assistance is what these families need most. Some of the families are very big and the necessities, such as food and clothing, are sometimes hard to come by.	We must do more to fix the broken welfare, housing, and other assistance programs if we ever want to truly diminish poverty in this country.
To me the most important topics that relate the needs of the families are the Housing First Policy and instilling a living wage law. The Housing First policy would allow these families access to necessary shelter and a living wage law would allow the parents to make enough money for their families to afford to keep the housing they are currently in.	Community experience allows us to experience the social issues we are researching at the same time. It gives us a perspective with which we apply our growing knowledge, a point of reference which we can base our arguments on. My view of social policies changed in the respect that any possible solutions need to address the roots of social problems.
...made me reconsider the effectiveness of social policies. ...evidently aren't doing enough to bring a permanent end to families suffering from homelessness. Stringent funds and restricting time limits should be modified if such federal policies are ever going to do some real good for the families in Brockton.	In debating social policies in tandem with doing the community service, it became clear how important change really is. The policies in place are just not effective enough in helping those who really need it.

Table 2 – Critical Inquiry

as we would have expected them to be. The greatest difference seems to be in the specificity with which students could talk about their changing perspectives on stereotypes, causes of social problems, and social policy responses. The students' journal entries provided rich narrative about their experience which provided insight to the benefits of the narrow model. However, we found that while the new model offered some advantages, learning in the community, no matter the structure, did help to achieve our particular set of goals. This could be explained by the quality of relationship we had with a few of the other partners. As students had volunteered

at the homeless shelter in past semesters, we were familiar with the culture of their agency and knew that they had a strong emphasis on educating student volunteers. This did make for a more informed experience for our students than traditional volunteerism, even before we introduced the components from the CBL Institute. Without this bridge, teachable moments have been nearly lost for our students. More telling to us is looking at cases of near failure when we did not have a strong connection to a community partner. Two particular examples come to mind. In the same semester that we were piloting this new model, we had students

...I think that I not only gained awareness and became less naïve but also learned more about myself and my core values and beliefs. I learned through this...that I am a community oriented person who is empathetic for others and wants to do my part in helping society in any way that I can. As a direct result of my experience at the (shelter) plan to study abroad in South Africa and do service work there next fall. I am really excited that I have discovered my passions and am looking forward to expanding on them.	...made me a more accepting and responsible person when looking at struggling individuals within our society. It has truly given me the desire to continue volunteering in the hopes I can make a positive change in society even if it is only for a single family.
I feel much more comfortable with teaching in an inner-city such as Brockton. Prior to this class, the idea of teaching in a city was something I simply could not see myself doing. But after volunteering at the (shelter) I feel that teaching inner city children would be a very enriching and rewarding experience. By teaching in an urban environment, it would be my goal to promote the idea of education as a route out of poverty...	I feel like I could now hold a good discussion with someone else about these policies.
The knowledge I gained this semester will benefit me in the future by making me a more aware citizen and voter which will be important for making social change in elections based on where the politicians stand on such issues.	Most importantly, I believe that it is the duty of every American to help one another and I will do my best to make sure that people receive opportunities to thrive in society, and let them know they are not alone.
The knowledge I have gained this semester will benefit me in the future. The issues discussed made me a more informed member of society and now that I have formulated opinions on many topics I feel as though I can use these opinions when debating in other classes, and when making government related decisions such as voting for president.	I've learned to become more compassionate, which will definitely help me interact with other people less fortunate than myself.

Table 3 – Transformative Learning

in our other class placed at an agency who we had no relationship with. During one day of service, they were assigned the task of “patting down” homeless men who were checking in to a shelter for the evening. When they shared this in class, we found ourselves in the position of not knowing who to go to at the agency to discuss this with so that we could better respond to student concerns. Ultimately, we were able to reach out to the director and give some context to help the students to understand this interaction. However, we almost lost a significant learning opportunity with these students wherein they could understand the conflict between the institution’s practices and the dignity of the clients. In another case, students returned from delivering a bed to a family with children. They noticed a large flat screen TV on the wall. Without a relationship with the agency that allowed them to ask how this is possible, the assumptions that students made were that this TV was indicative of the poor decision-making which must explain the family’s poverty: in their minds, it simply meant that the family wasted its resources on luxuries instead of using self-discipline and budgeting wisely in order to improve their financial situation. When we did reach out to the agency to ask them to explain what appeared to be a poor choice, the site staff suggested that vast inequality in the structure of society often leads to consumption as a means to communicate status. With this alternative explanation, students were encouraged to think beyond blaming the victim and consider how larger social and cultural forces impact decision making. What this experience tells us is that our goals can be achieved with a broad or a narrow model as long as a relationship with an agency is firmly established.

What we felt was lost, however, was the richness of discussion which comes from having students at multiple sites. Having the students at multiple agencies gave a diversity of perspective that brought unique viewpoints to discussions. In a broad model, students

were able to get a more comprehensive sense of the community and a better perspective of the network of services in place to help people. As they were discussing numerous social policies in class, they could better understand what gaps existed between need and available assistance. A broad model allowed them to compare the mission and practice of numerous approaches and critically analyze what service best empowers people.

For our mission, a narrow service text did help students to better accomplish the course goals. The deeper understanding of the community and the stronger relationship with the community partner was beneficial. However, a broad service text enabled the students to bring more diversity of experience to class discussion. It also enabled them to work within their own strengths and needs (Rosing, Reed, Ferrari, & Bothne, 2010). Combining the positive attributes of both forms of text is likely to work best for our individual course. Our experience has taught us to apply the model of more intentional planning and immersion that we initiated through the CBL Institute. With this approach, a student’s service is placed in greater context and there is enhanced opportunity to understand structural factors that compel a society to consider social policy changes. This thoughtful approach to planning CBL will have a lasting impact whether we work with a single community partner or multiple partners.

The lessons learned in this case study have broad implications for many disciplines where courses incorporate a CBL component. First and foremost, significant thought must be given to aligning course goals to the service. Second, to extend beyond volunteerism to true service-learning, a strong relationship with a community partner is essential. It is in the communication between students and the site staff and the site staff and faculty that mutually beneficial and meaningful experiences are structured. Ongoing communication with the site supervisors allows for faculty and field experts to seize the teachable moments when new experiences

can be processed, assumptions challenged, and insights garnered about the agency and a student's lasting role in community involvement. Finally, building a context around the experience, through such measures as having a local historian present on the community in which students serve or meeting regularly with agency personnel, allow for the meaningful connections between the service-learning experience and a course's content.



References

- Bacon, N. (2002). Differences in faculty and community partners' theories of learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 9(1), 34-44.
- Blouin, D. D., & Perry, E. M. (2009). Whom does service-learning really serve? Community-based organizations' perspectives on service-learning. *Teaching Sociology*, 37(2), 120-135.
- Bowen, G. (2010). Service-learning in the scholarship of teaching and learning: Effective practices. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 4(2), 1-15.
- Cress, C. M., Kerrigan, S., & Reitenauer, V. (2003). Making community-based learning meaningful: Faculty efforts to increase student civic engagement skills. *Transformations: The Journal of Inclusive Scholarship and Pedagogy*, xiv(2), 87-100.
- Cruz, N., & Giles, D. (2000). Where's the community in service-learning research? Special issue, *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*.
- Dunlap, M., Scoggin, J., Green, P., & Davis, A. (2007). White students' experiences of privilege and socioeconomic disparities: Toward a theoretical model. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 13(2), 19-39.
- Einfield, A., & Collins, D. (2008). The relationship between service-learning, social justice, multicultural competence and civic engagement. *Journal of College Student Development*, 49(2), 95-109.
- Ferrari, J. R., & Worrall, L. (2000). Assessments by community agencies: How "the other side" sees service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 7(1), 35-40.
- Hesser, G. (1999). Examining communities and urban change: Service-learning as collaborative research. In J. Ostrow, G. Hesser, & S. Enos (Eds.), *Cultivating the sociological imagination: Concepts and models for service-learning in sociology* (pp. 135-149). Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education: Published in cooperation with American Sociological Association.
- Hochschild, T., Farley, M., & Chee, V. (2014). Incorporating sociology into service-learning classes. *Teaching Sociology*, 42, 105-118.
- Jakobowski, L. M., & Burman, P. (2004). Teaching community development: A case study in community-based learning. *Teaching Sociology*, 32(2), 160-176.
- Kahne, J., & Westheimer, J. (1996). In the service of what? The politics of service-learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 77, 592.
- Kiely, R. (2005). A transformative learning model for service-learning: A longitudinal case study. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 12(1), 5-22.
- Marullo, S., & Edwards, B. (2000). From charity to justice: The potential of university-community collaboration for social change. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 43, 895-912.
- Mills, C. W. (2000). *The sociological imagination*. Oxford: Oxford University Press Inc.

- Mitchell, T. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 14(2), 50-65.
- Mooney, L. A., & Edwards, B. (2001). Experiential learning in sociology: Service-learning and other community-based learning initiatives. *Teaching Sociology*, 29(2), 181-194.
- Myers-Lipton, S. (1998). Effect of a comprehensive service-learning program on college students' civic responsibility. *Teaching Sociology*, 26(4), 243-58.
- Rosing, H., & Hofman, N. G. (2010). Notes from the field: Service-learning and the development of multidisciplinary community-based research initiatives. *Journal of Community Practice*, 18(2), 213-232.
- Rosing, H., Reed, S., Ferrari, J. R., & Bothne, N. J. (2010). Understanding student complaints in the service-learning pedagogy. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 46(3), 472-481.
- Ryan, W. (1976). *Blaming the victim*. New York: Vintage.
- Sandy, M., & Holland, B. (2006). Different worlds and common ground: Community partner perspectives on campus-community partnerships. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 13(1), 30-43.
- Sather, P., Weitz, B., & Carlson, P. (2007). Engaging students in macro issues through community-based learning: The policy, practice, and research sequence. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 27(3), 61-79.
- Stonehill College. Above and Beyond: The Plan for Stonehill College 2011-2015. Retrieved from http://www.stonehill.edu/files/resources/above_and_beyond_plan_doc_060509.pdf
- Strand, K. J. (1999). Sociology and service-learning: A critical look. In J. Ostrow, G. Hesser, & S. Enos (Eds.), *Cultivating the sociological imagination: Concepts and models for service-learning in sociology* (pp. 29-37). Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education: Published in cooperation with American Sociological Association.
- Varlotta, L. (2000). Service as text: Making the metaphor meaningful. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 7(1), 76-84.
- Vernon, A., & Ward, K. (1999). Campus and community partnerships: Assessing impacts and strengthening connections. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 6(1), 30-37.
- Ward, K., & Wolf-Wendel, L. (2000). Community-centered service-learning: Moving from doing for to doing with. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 43(5), 767-80.
- Wilson, W. (2010). Personal tour of Brockton with Willie A. Wilson, Jr., Curator, Brockton Historical Society.

Appendix A

Final Reflection Paper Guidelines

Re-read your initial reflection paper and journal entries. As you wrap up your community service and roundtable discussions for the semester, reflect back over the entire experience. Consider the following questions:

1. Think back to your initial goals. Did you meet these goals? What personal and professional growth was made? Have you changed as a result of the experience?
2. How much better do you know the Brockton community? Has this experience confirmed your initial expectations of the community and its residents?
3. Specifically, how have your perceptions of Brockton, the impoverished and homelessness changed? How has this community service changed your views on the disadvantaged in our society?
4. What was the value of doing the community service in conjunction with debating social policy? How has the community service changed your views on social policies?
5. What social policy do you feel would best fit the needs of the families you have worked with this semester?
6. Would you now define social justice any differently?
7. Have your views changed on the government's role in supporting the poor?
8. How much more informed do you feel about social policy? Which debates were the most informative?
9. How will the knowledge you've gained this semester benefit you in the future?

Appendix B

Final Assessment Grading Rubric

Course Goals	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
Assimilation to Accommodation -understands structural impediments -ascribes personal difficulties to the larger structure of society, not to individual attributes	Does not identify structural issues contributing to social problems being experienced	Identifies one structural issue contributing to social problems being experienced	Identifies two or more structural issues contributing to social problems being experienced	Clearly articulates the structural issues contributing to social problems being experienced
Critical inquiry -ability to make connections between the academic and personal -ability to discuss which specific policies suitably meet needs	Does not identify connections between social policy and its impact on individual lives	Identifies one specific social policy and its impact on individual lives	Identifies two or more specific social policies and its impact on individual lives	Clearly articulates connections between social policy and its impact on individual lives, describes policies with nuance
Transformative Learning	Does not identify an action plan	Identifies one way they will think or act differently as a result of the CBL	Identifies two or more ways they will think or act differently as a result of the CBL	Clearly articulates an action plan with specific detail as a result of the CBL

Utilizing Critical Service-Learning to Ease College Transitions

Karen M. Ganss and LeeAnn Baker

Abstract

The University Honors College at Oregon State University has intentionally integrated civic engagement into the new student transition experience. Within a first-year student population, this academic college has infused a critical view of service-learning into the initial student experience. Campus leaders, students, and community partners work together through a “Morning of Service” project to bridge the gap between an academic college and a service-learning office, as well as between campus and community. This event serves not only to foster critical service-learning and provide a needed service to the community, but also to intentionally support student transition into the university. Assessment results highlight that service-learning projects are successful in accomplishing academic learning objectives as well as welcoming students to their new college environment.

Keywords

Critical service-learning, civic engagement, living learning communities, high impact practices, honors students

Introduction

Service-learning, or community-based learning, has been identified as a high-impact educational practice that assists in ensuring that students receive the full benefits of the college experience (Kuh, 2008). In higher education research, service-learning is described as a “teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection” (Engberg & Fox, 2011, p. 88). This strategy incorporates intentional teaching practices and effective student learning. According to The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement (2012), to promote community-based learning, many universities have focused efforts on experiential education, which encourages students to seek tangible solutions to problems on a local, national, or global scale. Goals of service-learning and civic engagement activities include enriching student learning, teaching civic responsibility, and strengthening communities (Engberg & Fox, 2011). In addition, students who participate in service activities experience increased

Karen M. Ganss is Coordinator of Student Engagement and Orientation at Southern Utah University. Karen recently completed her graduate degree in College Student Services Administration at Oregon State University. Her passion for service-learning stems from her participation as a leader of an Alternative Spring Break trip and dedication to college student development. Karen's research interest focuses on college students from rural areas.

LeeAnn Baker is Director of Student Success and Engagement, University Honors College, at Oregon State University. LeeAnn, in her tenth year with the University Honors College works to create valuable co-curricular experiences for a small high-achieving community. Previous service-learning opportunities include teaching credit-bearing service-learning courses, leading Alternative Spring Break trips both domestic and abroad, and facilitating summer international service trips.

comprehension, improved retention, and higher college completion rates (Brownell & Swaner, 2010; Campus Compact, 2008; Kolb, 2011).

Although service-learning initiatives may be beneficial for many populations, they are especially impactful for first-year college students (Vogelgesang, Ikeda, Gilmartin, & Keup, 2002; Zlotkowski, 2005). Objectives of first-year student programs and experiential learning tend to be similar in intentionally engaging students with the campus community, allowing students to interact with people from different backgrounds, and encouraging problem solving of real issues (Erickson & Strommer, 2005). Success of interpersonal interactions, participation in extracurricular activities, and involvement in service-learning opportunities in the first year affect the retention and graduation rates of new college students (Crissman Ishler & Upcraft, 2005). In responding to the needs of first-year students, student affairs and academic affairs professionals alike are recognizing the significant amount of academic learning that occurs outside of the classroom in residence halls, within student organizations, and at social gatherings (Schroeder, 2005). Therefore, goals of engaging students in their first year of college should include an intentional service-learning component (Vogelgesang et al., 2002; Zlotkowski, 2005).

Often university service projects within civic engagement offices are constrained by small budgets and staff limits (Jeandron & Robinson, 2010; Tryon, Stoecker, Martin, Seblonka, Hilgendorf, & Nellis, 2008). In order for the benefits of service-learning to impact students across campus, collaborations between civic engagement offices and academic partners must be formed (Schroeder, 2005). With the goal of student learning in mind, academic colleges and student affairs departments (or K-12 teachers and community organizations) can work together to implement service-learning projects. Recognizing the benefits of service-learning for first-year students along with the

resource constraints of the civic engagement office, the University Honors College (UHC) at Oregon State University (OSU) chose to spearhead a service project for new students. This event incorporated the knowledge of service-learning professionals, a critical service-learning pedagogy, and an assessment of student learning, which resulted in an impactful introduction for new students to the college environment.

The University Honors College

At OSU, the UHC is a degree-granting college of about 1000 undergraduate students comprising approximately the top 2% of OSU's undergraduate student population. Students in the UHC, who declare a major both within their chosen field of study and within the UHC, are taking a more diverse curriculum and completing an undergraduate thesis as a part of their jointly awarded Honors Baccalaureate degree. Honors students receive benefits of small class sizes, priority registration, specialized academic advising, opportunities for undergraduate research, and mentorship, as well as being part of a close-knit community within a medium-sized, public, land grant university.

Since the UHC in partnership with other academic colleges jointly award the Honors Bachelor's degree, the UHC has separate and distinct learning goals for their graduates. One set of goals focuses on scholarly inquiry. This set includes students' ability to create new knowledge and contribute to their areas of study. Furthermore, emphasis is placed on engaged inquiry, outlined as students' ability to engage in meaningful dialogue that incorporates multi-disciplinary perspectives (University Honors College, n.d.). Finally, the UHC strategic goals include experiential learning, furthering the importance of this high-impact practice of learning outside of the classroom. Further details of these UHC goals can be found in Appendix A.

Critical Service-Learning

To facilitate experiential learning within this academic college, the UHC sought to delve deeper than just volunteering in the local community. Service-learning as a high-impact practice is more than simply doing good, as has been the past view of volunteerism (Mitchell, 2008). In our practices, we focused our service-learning on theories of critical service-learning and the Active Citizen Continuum (as described by Break Away Connection) to intentionally engage students in deeper learning.

Mitchell (2008) describes the traditional approach to service-learning as “service without attention to systems of inequality” (p. 50). This type of service expands students’ knowledge of their community, provides a needed service, and highlights a spirit of volunteerism, yet fails to look at systems of oppression. The critical approach goes deeper and focuses on dismantling the structures that cause the need for volunteer work. The very nature of volunteerism in a traditional sense further reinforces the system of oppression, as there is always a group of privileged individuals serving an oppressed group (Mitchell, 2008). Critical service-learning, on the other hand, requires confronting stereotypes and owning unearned privilege (Mitchell, 2008). This more critical approach to service-learning and civic engagement seeks to create sustained change, not simply one-time fixes to problems. Students in this intentional model are seen more as social change agents than volunteers (Mitchell, 2008).

The Active Citizen Continuum, instituted by Break Away Connection, provides a framework from which to better understand how students will react to a critical service-learning approach. The goal of this model is to move individuals from simply being a member of society to being an active citizen. At one end of the spectrum, members are not concerned with their role in social problems, while at the other, active citizens place high value in the meaning of community

(Break Away, n.d.). The two phases in between (volunteer and conscientious citizen) allows one to become more educated about social issues and begin to question inequality in society (Break Away, n.d.). New students entering college may be at very different phases along this continuum, making it difficult for student affairs professionals to create a program to meet these varying needs. However, the goal of critical service-learning is to move students along this continuum to become more active and participatory community citizens. Utilizing college students at the beginning of their tenure allowed the UHC to assess early on where students fall along the continuum and begin the work of actively moving them through these phases toward becoming active citizens.

“Morning of Service”

To intentionally incorporate a service-learning project into students’ initial university experience, the UHC instituted an event called “Morning of Service.” At OSU, all students moved into the residence halls during a two-day period. UHC students in the Honors residential community moved in on the first day, and so the “Morning of Service” occurred during the students’ second day on campus. This approach allowed for students to engage in an academically and socially purposeful activity almost immediately upon arrival. All new students to the UHC, first-year and transfer, were invited to this event through email communications and signed up to participate during the summer.

“Morning of Service” consisted of a check-in within the Honors-sponsored living/learning community, followed by a continental breakfast, meetings in groups led by site leaders, and a four-hour service project. Students pre-registered, prioritizing their interest in seven different local community organizations. Community organizations included Habitat for Humanity (ReStore and Home Build), a local soup kitchen, a senior center, a food pantry, the Parks and

Recreation Department, and the SAGE Garden, a local environmental group. Funding from the program was entirely through the academic college as a part of experiential learning initiatives.

To lead each group with the various community sites, undergraduate student leaders were utilized. Specifically, the Resident Assistants (RAs) of each floor of the living/learning community served as site leaders for the groups that included many of their incoming residents. In addition, student employees of the UHC office joined in to lead groups. Two main staff members from the UHC, the Graduate Assistant and the Director of Student Success and Engagement, who both work directly with first-year students, were utilized in planning and running the program. Goals of this event surpassed simply filling a gap in time during the students' second day on campus. "Morning of Service" was designed to create social connections between new UHC students, to develop leadership skills in site leaders, to introduce values of the UHC to new students, to promote critical service-learning, and to foster a sense of service in the local community. Specifically for high-achieving student populations, connections with other students, or social fit, is essential in college success (Finning, 2008; Lotkowski, Robbins, & Noeth, 2004). Often this population tends to navigate their coursework well yet tends to be more isolated from their peers (Astin, 1984). Therefore, "Morning of Service" was intended to benefit community partners as well as new honors students in differing ways.

Utilizing Service-Learning Theories and Academic Learning Goals

In instituting a service project and keeping with the larger goals of OSU and the Center for Civic Engagement, the UHC sought to implement theoretical components of critical service-learning and the Active Citizen Continuum. First, the UHC professional staff members were trained by the Center for

Civic Engagement. These same professionals, in turn, trained undergraduate student trip leaders to ensure they understood theoretical components of civic engagement prior to "Morning of Service." Training consisted of a presentation and handout, which was described in depth, covering both critical service-learning components and the Active Citizen Continuum. These student leaders were also provided with resources from the Center for Civic Engagement.

To integrate and assess the learning goals of the UHC, intentional ties were created to the two main learning goals: scholarly inquiry and engaged inquiry. A detailed breakdown of these goals can be found in Appendix A. As this was the first annual "Morning of Service," an assessment was created to determine the outcomes of this project and how they related to select items within the academic learning goals. For example, the UHC strives to ensure that students are able to fully engage in meaningful conversations outside their discipline, demonstrate understanding of diverse perspectives in and out of the classroom, and effectively communicate their unique disciplinary perspective to inform others (University Honors College, n.d.). Traditionally, these learning goals have been accomplished through the completion of undergraduate research, coursework, and the thesis defense. By incorporating these academic learning goals into an assessment of "Morning of Service," we measured to what extent a service-learning project accomplished these learning goals.

Critical service-learning and academic engagement were integrated in several intentional ways. First, through the training session, site leaders were instructed in how to engage in dialogue with their groups about inequitable social structures as opposed to simply doing charity work or volunteerism. These conversations took place over breakfast, during travel to the site, and during the service work itself within groups. In order to allow site leaders to gauge student placement on the

Active Citizen Continuum, framing questions were used, including, “What motivates your desire to engage in service?”; “What do you know about the issue we are working on today?”; and “What are your expectations for this service experience?” Upon arrival to the service site, site leaders encouraged the community partners to speak about the history, impact, and goals of their organization to the new student participants. They also provided context for the service that students would be completing and spoke directly about root causes of these problems. After the service projects, site leaders engaged students in questions about what they accomplished that morning, the impact of their work, and any future actions they could take to continue to enact positive change. Through these reflective conversations, students were encouraged to think of the work more in terms of a shared reciprocity with community organizations than in privileged terms of the work as charity (Break Away, n.d.).

To foster scholarly and engaged inquiry learning goals of the UHC, students were placed into groups not by major, but rather by service project interest. Although all participants were Honors students, they were a diverse group in terms of major, interests, hometown, research areas, and socio-economic background. Community partners also discussed how their organization related to academic interests of students and to potential internships or research in the future. Through this learning environment, students were exposed not only to social friendships with one another but also to a deeper understanding of the local community and the importance of service.

As with many short-term service projects, it is extremely challenging to foster deep, committed, critical service-learning (Tryon et al., 2008). Often, sustained change is accomplished through longer, more intense projects (Tryon et al., 2008). However, despite time constraints, intentional methods were put in place to continue student engagement and inquiry past this

four-hour long project. Student information was gathered in the assessment that placed interested students in contact with the Center for Civic Engagement, allowing for future service opportunities throughout the year.

Results of “Morning of Service”

Ninety-four new Honors students, ten student site leaders, and seven community partners participated in “Morning of Service.” In total, these new students completed more than 180 hours of service in just one morning. Assessment was done through a project summary form, which was completed by each trip leader, and an online survey that was administered the day following the event. Logistical portions of the assessment can be found in Appendix B, detailing items such as local organization choice, success of getting to the service site, and safety concerns. Many portions of the assessment regarding service logistics were based on assessments previously done through the Center for Civic Engagement. University administrators and teachers are encouraged to consult with their service-learning functional area on campus first before creating an assessment on this type of project.

The second portion of assessment, the online survey, yielding a 45% response rate, integrated academic learning objectives of the UHC as well as objectives created specifically for this project, as shown in Appendix C. Relating to UHC-specific goals of areas of scholarly and engaged inquiry, students were asked to rank their agreement to items such as, “this activity introduced me to a new academic topic,” “this activity helped me to begin to think of a thesis topic,” and “in this activity I engaged in diverse conversations regarding topics I had little experience with previously.” This ranking assessment allowed for a direct connection between the work the students had completed during “Morning of Service” and overall objectives of the academic college.

Results of the assessment highlighted the impact and learning gained as a result of this short service project. Most students understood the context of the service (with 52% strongly agreeing) and had learned something about the community organization (with 45% strongly agreeing), which should assist in their ability to assess critically service-learning in the future (Mitchell, 2008). Although gaining information about academic topics and defining a thesis topic were included in the assessment because of the UHC scholarly inquiry learning goal, “Morning of Service” did not seem to enhance learning in this area. About half of the students agreed that the activity helped them to engage in meaningful conversations outside of their major and helped them to discuss topics that they had little experience with previously, which related to the UHC engaged inquiry learning goal. Peer-to-peer interaction has shown to be a successful teaching strategy within the classroom which students experienced during this project (Erickson & Strommer, 2005). In a service-learning setting, these informal and formal group discussions promote reflection, which allows students to focus on the root causes of problems and enhances critical thinking (Zlotkowski, 2005).

Therefore, we were able to conclude that, although “Morning of Service” did not seem to assist students in discovering thesis topics or majors, through peer-to-peer conversations, it did enhance reflection and critical service-learning. This finding is especially important to consider in terms of the nuances of high-achieving students, who tend to be academically decided upon entering college (Katchadourian & Boli, 1985; Kerr & Colangelo, 1988). For this population, learning about the viewpoints of those different from themselves tends to be important to development, as indicated in the UHC goals of engaged inquiry (University Honors College, n.d.). Since Honors students have also been shown to lack social connections, this project helped them form friendships essential to success and reten-

tion in their first year of college (Astin, 1984; Nicpon, Huser, Blanks, Sollenberger, Befort, & Robinson Kurpius, 2006).

Overall, “Morning of Service” served to introduce new students to the academic and service culture of the UHC. We sought to alleviate student feelings of homesickness, loneliness, and other negative responses that tend to accompany the college transition (Nicpon et al., 2006). In placing students in groups with other new students experiencing similar emotions, this project allowed social engagement for these students. It was encouraging to find that 85% of respondents to the assessment indicated that they agreed that this activity made them more excited to be a member of the UHC. One student narrative stated that

“I was so stressed at the first day of the move-in, and nothing could have relieved my stress better than being able to garden and meet new people at the same time. I thought that this event was really successful in terms of making newcomers feel comfortable and helping them meet new people.”

Another student echoed this excitement for the project, saying that

“this [service project] was amazing and the best possible way I could have started my college experience.”

These qualitative stories from students indicate that outside of learning objectives, there are intangible benefits to student success even from small projects such as “Morning of Service.” To best foster student learning and development, students must first feel comfortable in their new environment (Crissman Ishler & Upcraft, 2005). This assessment highlights how the transition to college can be made easier through critical service-learning projects.

Implications of Service-learning in Academic Colleges

Kuh (2008) indicates that engagement in high-impact practices, such as service-learning, allows students to

“attain his or her education and personal objectives, acquire the skills and competencies demanded by the challenges of the twenty-first century, and enjoy the intellectual and monetary gains associated with the completion of the baccalaureate degree” (p. 22). It is no longer enough for colleges and universities simply to educate students in the classroom in order for them to achieve success. Instead, intentional programming must be infused throughout students’ college experience to allow them to participate in high-impact practices (Kuh, 2008). Facilitators of all varieties, including professors, K-12 educators, student leaders, and student affairs professionals, can assist in service-learning. Through one short-term service project with new students in the UHC, we have seen the tangible and intangible impacts of service-learning in terms of adjustment to the university setting, establishment of a social network, improved knowledge of diverse viewpoints, and committed engagement to solving community issues.

Relating back to Engberg and Fox’s (2011) goals of service-learning, this project enriched student learning about their new environment and their peers and about components of critical service-learning. “Morning of Service” taught civic responsibility by highlighting the root causes of community issues through engagement in service and through intentional reflection. Lastly, this short-term activity strengthened community in the incoming cohort of students as well as the relationship between the University and the local community. Therefore, several larger service-learning goals were accomplished in addition to UHC goals.

It also became apparent that service-learning is the responsibility not only of student affairs or of service-learning departments. In educating the whole student, the responsibility of intentional student engagement outside of the classroom also falls upon the shoulders of academic colleges. No longer can academic colleges, professors, and teachers shy away from

being in the residence halls, in the community, and in the spaces which our students are in most of their college careers. By embracing the learning environments offered by residential facilities, community partners, and businesses, we can help to bridge the gap between academic affairs and student affairs, and so best serve our student populations. This same concept can be and is being applied to K-12 education, where partnerships between school district teachers and community partners benefit both students and communities (The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement, 2012). Even with just one class of students who have recently transitioned between grade levels, a similar service project can be used to familiarize them with their peers and help to evaluate specific academic learning objectives. While the size, academic department, and student populations may vary, versions of this welcoming service project may be implemented at many other colleges and schools with similar, positive results. ■■■

References

- Astin, A. W. (1984). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 25, 297-308.
- Break Away (n.d.). The active citizen continuum. Retrieved from <http://www.alternativebreaks.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/Active-Citizen-Continuum-2012-2.pdf>
- Brownell, J. E., & Swaner, L. E. (2010). *Five high impact practices: Research on learning outcomes, completion, and quality*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Campus Compact (2008). *How can engaged campuses improve student success in college?* (Research Brief No. 1). Boston, MA: Campus Compact.

- Crissman Ishler, J. L., & Upcraft, M. L. (2005). The keys to first-year student persistence. In M. L. Upcraft, J. N. Gardner, & B. O. Barefoot (Eds.), *Challenging and supporting the first-year student: A handbook for improving the first year of college* (pp. 27-46). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Engberg, M. E., & Fox, K. (2011). Exploring the relationship between undergraduate service-learning experiences and global perspective-taking. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, 48(1), 85-105.
- Erickson, B. L., & Strommer, D. W. (2005). Inside the first-year classroom. In M. L. Upcraft, J. N. Gardner, & B. O. Barefoot (Eds.), *Challenging and supporting the first-year student: A handbook for improving the first year of college* (pp. 241-256). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Finning, S. (2008). Clemson University sophomore year experience. [PowerPoint slides]. Session presented at the annual meeting of NASULGC, Chicago, IL. Retrieved from <http://www.aplu.org/netcommunity/document.doc?id=1292>
- Jeandron, C., & Robinson, G. (2010). *Creating a climate for service-learning success*. Washington, DC: American Association of Community Colleges.
- Katchadourian, H. A., & Boli, J. (1985). *Careerism and intellectualism among college students*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kerr, B. A., & Colangelo, N. (1988). College plans of academically talented students. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 67, 42-49.
- Kolb, C. (2011). Reforming American higher education: Implications for a vibrant work force and a healthy democracy. *Change*, 43(5), 14-16.
- Kuh, G. D. (2008). *High-impact practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Lotkowski, V. A., Robbins, S. B., & Noeth, R. J. (2004). *The role of academic and non-academic factors in improving college retention*. ACT Policy Report. Retrieved from <http://www.act.org/research/policymakers/reports/index.html>
- Mitchell, T. D. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 14(2), 50-65.
- Nicpon, M. F., Huser, L., Blanks, E. H., Sollenberger, S., Befort, C., & Robinson Kurpius, S. E. (2006). The relationship of loneliness and social support with college freshmen's academic performance and persistence. *Journal of College Student Retention*, 8(3), 345-358.
- Schroeder, C. C. (2005). Collaborative partnerships between academic and student affairs. In M. L. Upcraft, J. N. Gardner, & B. O. Barefoot (Eds.), *Challenging and supporting the first-year student: A handbook for improving the first year of college* (pp. 204-220). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement (2012). *A crucible moment: College learning and democracy's future*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Tryon, E., Stoecker, R., Martin, A., Seblonka, K., Hilgendorf, A., & Nellis, M. (2008). The challenge of short-term service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 14(2), 16-26.
- University Honors College. (n.d.). About us. Retrieved from <http://honors.oregonstate.edu/about>

- Vogelgesang, L. J., Ikeda, E. K., Gilmartin, S. K., & Keup, J. R. (2002). Service-learning and the first-year experience: Outcomes related to learning and persistence. In E. Zlotkowski (Ed.), *Service-learning and the first-year experience: Preparing students for personal success and civic responsibility* (Monograph No. 34) (pp. 15-24). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, National Resource Center for the First-Year Experience and Students in Transition.
- Zlotkowski, E. (2005). Service-learning and the first-year student. In M. L. Upcraft, J. N. Gardner, & B. O. Barefoot (Eds.), *Challenging and supporting the first-year student: A handbook for improving the first year of college* (pp. 356-370). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Appendix A

UHC Learning Goals

The University Honors College has established specific program outcomes in support of student achievement of each of the two UHC learning goals.

Scholarly inquiry – As a UHC graduate, you will have developed the ability to engage in pursuits that create new knowledge and contribute to one or more scholarly areas of study.

Engaged inquiry – As a UHC graduate, you will have developed the capacity to fully engage in meaningful dialog, which incorporates cross-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary perspectives.

Scholarly inquiry

- » Ability to choose a relevant and meaningful topic to study within a scholarly area
- » Ability to employ a sound approach in creating new knowledge within a scholarly area of study
- » Ability to synthesize and/or analyze results from a significant, self-directed, and open-ended project
- » Ability to find multiple sources of relevant information
- » Ability to evaluate the quality of information resources
- » Ability to write an honors thesis: a significant, self-directed, and open-ended project
- » Ability to present an honors thesis
- » Ability to defend an honors thesis

Engaged inquiry

- » Ability to fully engage in meaningful conversations outside of your discipline
- » Capacity to demonstrate your understanding of diverse perspectives in conversations in the classroom and or field settings
- » Ability to effectively communicate your unique disciplinary perspective to inform the learning of others

Appendix B

“Morning of Service” Assessment: Logistics

	Which service site did you participate in during “Morning of Service?”	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents
1	OSU Food Pantry	7	17%
2	SAGE Garden	5	12%
3	Corvallis Parks & Recreation	7	17%
4	Habitat for Humanity-Home Building	4	10%
5	Habitat for Humanity-ReStore	9	21%
6	Stone Soup	5	12%
7	Chintimini Senior Center	5	12%
	Total	40	

Please rank the following leadership statements in terms of your level of agreement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My trip leader facilitated activities to help me get to know other members of my team.	0%	10%	2%	52%	36%
I understood the context and importance of the service project.	0%	0%	5%	43%	52%
My trip leader was successful in getting my group to our physical service site.	2%	7%	5%	24%	62%
I was given clear direction of what to do during the service project.	0%	2%	7%	43%	48%
My safety was a top priority during the service project.	0%	0%	19%	36%	45%

Appendix C

“Morning of Service” Assessment: Learning Goals

Please rank the following service project statements in terms of your level of agreement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The atmosphere of my service site was inviting.	0%	5%	5%	50%	40%
I feel like I greatly contributed to this community organization.	0%	7%	21%	45%	26%
I would volunteer with this community organization in the future.	0%	2%	14%	55%	29%
Overall, I am very satisfied with my placement at this service site.	2%	0%	5%	43%	50%
The work I completed will truly benefit the Corvallis community.	2%	5%	17%	48%	29%
The work I completed helps to inform my academic major.	19%	33%	36%	5%	7%
I learned something new about this community organization	0%	5%	14%	36%	45%
The physical conditions of the service site were enjoyable.	0%	12%	7%	38%	43%

Please rank the following learning outcomes as related to “Morning of Service” in terms of your level of agreement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This activity introduced me to a new academic topic.	2%	36%	40%	17%	5%
This activity helped me to analyze the results of a project.	0%	21%	40%	29%	10%
This activity helped me to evaluate the quality of information resources.	0%	24%	43%	21%	12%
This activity helped me to begin to think of a thesis topic.	31%	40%	26%	2%	0%
This activity allowed me to engage in meaningful conversations outside of my major.	0%	7%	12%	57%	24%
In this activity I engaged in diverse conversations regarding topics I had little experience with previously.	2%	19%	21%	50%	7%
This activity allowed me to effectively communicate my perspective to inform the learning of others.	0%	10%	40%	38%	12%
This activity has made me more excited to be a member of the University Honors College.	0%	2%	10%	43%	43%

Introducing Service-Learning in International Student Education: In Response to John Eby on “Why Service-Learning is Bad”

Julie Miller

Abstract

There is a burgeoning body of literature focused on student learning outcomes associated with service-learning in English Language Learning (ELL) curricula, though little has been reported about the shadow of this practice. The primary goal of this article is to respond to a passage from John Eby’s “Why Service-Learning is Bad,” specifically in regards to the opportunities and limitations associated with service-learning with international students as they relate to the model in which the service-learning occurs. This article uses survey data and student reflections to highlight examples of 250 pathway program students’ evolving understandings of social issues and inequalities in the United States by way of service-learning. Conceptual factors to consider, along with implications for practitioners, are offered as extensions of student reflections.

Julie Miller, MSW, is the founding Service-Learning Coordinator for Boston-Based Pathway Programs at Northeastern University. Julie has had the pleasure of co-facilitating service-learning experiences in The United States, Zambia, Benin, Costa Rica, and India. She is a Part-Time Instructor at Northeastern University in The College of Professional Studies and The School of Public Policy and Urban Affairs. She also serves as a Research Associate at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) AgeLab.

Keywords

Service-learning, international students, ESOL, ESL, social justice

“... If service-learning is to reach maturity & live up to its potential, it must realistically face its limitations and broaden its emphasis beyond volunteerism. It must carefully examine what students learn about social problems and social structure through the kind of service service-learning does.”

–John Eby, “Why Service-Learning is Bad,” 1998, p. 2

Introduction

In his controversial article countering more popular pieces about positive learning outcomes associated with service-learning, John Eby suggests that in order for service-learning to be most effective, the field must take a deep dive into what (and how) students learn about social problems. In response to Eby’s call, this article will describe service-learning practice with a rapidly-growing sub-population of university students in the United States. By the end, readers should have a greater awareness of some of the gains international students in a pathway program report specifically in regards to their evolving understandings of social issues and inequalities in the United States. Readers will glean feedback, based on evaluative data and illustrative student quotes from over

250 international students in a pathway program, about responses to the following points raised by Eby:

- » What can international students learn about social problems and social structures in the United States through service-learning?
- » How does the kind of service-learning international students participate in affect what and how they learn about social problems in the United States?
- » What limitations must service-learning with international students realistically face in order to reach maturity and live up to its potential?

After examining these questions, readers will be offered best practices to consider regarding their own program infrastructure, including course objectives, learning modalities, and partnership priorities, in order to craft the most comprehensive and social justice-oriented experiential education models for the international students with whom they work.

Literature Review

Migration and Education of International Students in the United States

Globalization continues to alter the composition of college campuses around the world. In the 2012-2013 academic year, there was a record high of over 819,644 international students studying in the United States. This represents a 7.2% increase from the previous academic year and a more than 31% increase from ten years prior. Currently, the largest groups of students from non-English speaking countries are from China, South Korea, and Saudi Arabia (Institute of International Education, 2013). The fact that English is not an official language in eight of the top ten countries of origin suggests that intensive English language training will continue to be an integral process in which many international students participate when they study in the United States.

Service-Learning with International Students

As the literature shows us, service-learning provides a practical application of ESL studies (Heuser, 1999; Hummel, 2013; Wurr & Hellebrandt, 2007). Often, international students are immersed in their studies and learn primarily from textbooks and professors. Studies focused on English language acquisition by non-U.S. students have found that service-learning increases comfort with, and breadth of, the English language (Hummel, 2013; Fitzgerald, 2009; Wurr, 2009; Wurr & Hellebrandt, 2007). Through service-learning, students are pushed to use their growing knowledge of English in applied and real-time ways. Scholars suggest that service-learning can also contribute to students' intercultural awareness (Askildson, Cahill Kelly, & Mick, 2013), engagement in learning and in their local communities (Grassi, Hanley, & Liston, 2004; Russell, 2007), and understanding of social issues and civic engagement (Perren, Thornton, & Grove, 2013).

Regardless of students' nationalities and host countries, a greater amount of interaction with natives has been associated with fewer academic problems (Pruitt, 1978), fewer social difficulties (Ward & Kennedy, 1993), lower levels of stress (Redmond & Bunyi, 1993), better adaptation to life abroad, and improved communication competency (Zimmermann, 1995).

Critical Service-Learning

The majority of literature focused on positive outcomes of service-learning center around students' individual development (Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Kezar, 2002; Mitchell, 2008). Eyler, Giles, Stenson, Gray, & At (2001) report that some of those benefits include personal and interpersonal growth, enhanced cultural and racial understanding, gains in social responsibility and commitment to service, academic learning, critical thinking, retention, and career development. U.S.-based educators must remember that many of these outcomes are valued and awarded in the

United States but may not be transferable to an international student's home country.

Critics posit that learner-centered approaches "exploit poor communities as free sources of student education," (Stoecker, Tryon, & Hilgendorf, 2009, p. 3), adopt a paternalistic "charity" model that reinforces and reproduces hierarchy and privilege, and can lead to greater feelings of difference and intolerance among service-learning students (Butin, 2007; Clark & Nugent, 2011; Herrmann, 2011; Mitchell, 2008; Stoecker et al., 2009). Similarly, John Eby, Stoecker, Tryon, & Hilgendorf (2009) ask, "who is served by service-learning?" (p. 1). This is the million-dollar question in Mitchell's focus on critical service-learning, a community-centered approach in which the voice of the community is weighed with as much importance as student learning outcomes. Critical service-learning is characterized by having a social change orientation, working to redistribute power, and a focus on developing authentic relationships (Mitchell, 2008).

Methodology

Research Site

The noticeable insurgence of international student populations on U.S. campuses has impacted Northeastern University, the Boston-based institution represented in this article. The university's international student population quadrupled between 2006 and 2013, and this trend continues (Northeastern University, 2013). Growing in tandem with national increases in non-degree programs described by The Institute of International Education (2013), Northeastern University offers The American Classroom program, a pathway program for international students. This program offers conditional acceptance to the undergraduate school for students who successfully pass through their pathway courses and receive a 733 or above on the TOEFL test.

Within the American Classroom program, students hail from around the world, including Far East

Asia, The Middle East, Europe, Latin America, and beyond. Depending on their initial language levels, students engage in between one and three semesters of combined intensive English language training and several transferable academic courses. One of the students' courses, entitled Global Experience, has an ongoing service-learning component in which students are automatically enrolled for one or two semesters.

The Global Experience course has been offered since September of 2012. Global Experience was, and continues to be, the first service-learning program of its magnitude directed specifically to international students at Northeastern University. The program was piloted with support from the Center of Community Service at Northeastern University. As of October of 2014, thirty one sections of the course have been offered to over 400 American Classroom students at Northeastern University. The class meets once per week and uses online blogs to engage students in ongoing reflections about their service-learning experiences. Global Experience partners with over 20 local non-profit organizations, all of which host between one and 15 Global Experience students at any given point. Since September of 2012, thirty undergraduate Service-Learning Teaching Assistants (hired and supervised by The Center of Community Service, the service and service-learning hub on campus) have provided support to students, partners, and faculty members. The design of the course provides an entry point for students into the experiential education model employed throughout Northeastern University.

Research Goals and Questions; Methodological Approach

As stated in the introduction, the primary questions in this paper include:

- » What can international students learn about social problems and social structures in the United States through service-learning?
- » How does the kind of service-learning international students participate in affect what

and how they learn about social problems in the United States?

- » What limitations must service-learning with international students realistically face in order to reach maturity and live up to its potential?

As the lead faculty member of Global Experience and author of this paper, I strive to be objective and yet do acknowledge my dual roles as an important part (and possible limitation) of this study. Qualitative research methods were used to explore students' experiences and remarkable trends of meaning-making, consistent with phenomenology (Seidman, 1998). This study adopts a social constructivist view, which posits that meaning is subjective and gained through interactions with other people (Crotty, 1998; Lapan & Quartaroli, 2009).

Data Collection & Analysis Methods: Reliability, Validity, and Limitations

This study focused on two-fold evaluative measures with students, all of which were administered online either in survey and/or narrative format for four semesters in total, from Fall 2012 through Spring 2014. These measures primarily include quotes from student journals and blogs and also incorporate post-semester evaluation data from 186 students administered by the Center of Community Service. Students completed The Center of Community Service survey at the beginning and end of the semester and blogged online for the course every week.

Raw qualitative data sources from the online survey and blogs were used to form codes for categories. The patterns that emerged were ultimately matched thematically with the literature and research questions guiding the study. Narrative summary, thematic analysis, and aspects of grounded theory were used to synthesize portions of students' blogs and open-ended survey responses (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984).

Data was collected across several semesters of the course and by way of multiple student participants. Limitations include the lack of generalizability due to the limited sample size and time frame in which the data was collected and analyzed, the author bias inherent in the study, and the lack of additional qualitative measurement tools such as focus groups or interviews. Limitations of this study are consistent with Seidman's (1998) description of phenomenological methodology.

Findings

The following quotes were compiled from students' online blogs, journals, and post-semester surveys. As we can see, students reflected on their service-learning experiences in different ways, all of which tie back to Eby's quote about realistically facing the limitations of service-learning and analyzing the means in which students learn through service-learning. The three main questions are addressed below with discussion and implications in the next section.

1. What can international students learn about social problems and social structures in the United States through service-learning?

Students reflected on their evolving understandings of social problems and inequalities in the United States by way of service-learning in a variety of ways. Interestingly enough, all of the following student quotes were found when students were asked in a journal prompt, "What would you consider your greatest successes to be in relation to service-learning this past semester?" One student writes specifically about education disparities and the links he was able to draw between his weekly service and a research paper tied to the experience through his Advanced Reading & Writing course:

Through service-learning, we can find many social issues involved with kids, the education of low-income children, education problems facing

to Americans, and some race and moral problems. For example, my research topic is about the low-income children's education in America. The public school that I am working in is not a good school and the students there mostly come from Hispanic and African American families. They cannot get the same opportunity with the kids from rich family who attends to the private school that has good education resources. So, service-learning is not only a place to do service, but also a place to explore the social issues and find something really useful.

The implications of this students' quote will be presented in the discussion section of this article, along with implications of the following student quote. The following student reflects on his service-learning experience with youth and how it forced him to examine his own privilege. Questions raised through the student's service-learning experience clearly prompted him to think more deeply about the context in which he served. Writes this student:

The service-learning program gives me a chance to know more people. We knew a totally different community which is not very rich, and I realized there is a group of poor kids that want to get in good colleges to change their life, while there are also some kids don't care about their future who don't study at all. When I saw the difference between different kids, I started to think about myself: did I use my resource efficiently? My parents are both successful people that can make a whole family live well and they have the ability to give me what I need. However did I try my best to change my life and live better? Every time I came back from the service-learning site, I thought a lot. If I had a child, and I didn't have the ability to provide him a good life, he could live in the way that the kids in my volunteer site did. So the service-learning always reminds me to work hard

for my future, and it also let me feel thankful to my parents who didn't put me into the situation like those kids.

2. How does the kind of service-learning international students participate in affect what and how they learn about social problems in the United States?

The following student quote is in response to the following question: "What is your main take-away from Global Experience this past semester?" As we can see in this student's quote and in subsequent quotes, students delineate between people who need help and themselves as the people who can help. The theoretical context for this etymology will be explored in the discussion section of this article. Writes one student:

Global Experience and Service-learning are open-eye experience for me in Boston. Through my own experience and what we have been talking about in class. I do realize that there are so many people in the world who need our help. I was serving at an organization which delivers food to individuals or families with critical diseases. My main work there is to help the chefs in food preparation, such as sealing and bagging the food, cutting the meat. It is a very nice experience for me to work with the people there. I improved my communication skills a lot while working with them. Through working there, I also learned how to plan and organize work effectively.

Another student reflects on his service-learning experience in an online survey response:

The service-learning program also trains me and makes me know how to take care of old people, because I work in Merville House with old people and teach them to use computers, sometimes I help them solve problems in daily life.

One final student quote illustrates the transformation she experienced specifically in her perception of change-makers and empowerment:

Before beginning service-learning...I thought my individual role to change the society it's impossible, because my own strength is very weak, so I just watch others to do efforts to change society. After I get access to service-learning, I realized that it not only provides us opportunities to help others, but gives us chances to know the neighborhood that we will live in well and help international students to engage well with local social life... I gradually realized that one person's strength is limited, but this limited strength can be used to develop greater strength. When more and more individuals get together, we can not only help others easily, but also make the whole society better easily.

This quote illustrates a transformation in thinking and a leaning towards an empowerment mindset, to be discussed in greater detail in the discussion section.

3. What limitations must service-learning with international students realistically face in order to reach maturity and live up to its potential?

One student writes about the learning curve service-learning presented in shifting her original conception of modes of learning to a more experiential, reflection-based model of learning:

In Chinese education, students only can listen the knowledge from professor and do a huge amount of homework.... Actually, the service-learning is a new concept that we never heard before. At the beginning of the class, it is hard to image what should we do in the program. As we touch the program, we found that the service is a new way to study, we did not bounded in a classroom and could not talk to others. In the service-learning, we study more like how to work in the future. The

group mates like the colleagues in the future. We are not only study English, and also the communication skill. These kind of skill can not learned from the textbooks.

A student from China, when asked via online survey about the impact service-learning had on her future academic, professional, civic, and/or personal goals, writes: "I have the same native language with my service-learning partners so there's only a little cross-cultural learning," whereas another student at the same site writes, "My service experience with my partner organization is also Chinese but different culture. It's been really educating."

A student from Turkey serving at a site with mostly students from Cape Verde writes, "I had hard time communicating with students there because they weren't speaking English most of the time." Many students write about the positive impact service-learning with English speakers had on their English skills. The variety of quotes specifically linked to language uncover important considerations for facilitators.

Discussion

As quotes spotlighted in response to the first question illustrate, the divides between international service-learning students and the community members in which they serve can be as vast as oceans—literally. International students engaging in service-learning in the United States are confronted head-on with communities, organizations, and learning methodologies that are culturally and linguistically distinct from those of their home cultures. Many—not all—international students in pathway programs come from societies that tend to be more racially-homogenous than the United States and many—not all—tend to live and be educated in socioeconomically-homogeneous settings. Through service-learning, students are forced to grapple with their preconceived notions and stereotypes of people who live in America and of the American Dream itself.

Literature suggests that participation in service-learning increases students' knowledge of different cultures and races (Astin & Sax, 1998) and decreases negative stereotyping (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

As a course facilitator, my hope would be that my students experience a transformation in their sometimes-polarized assumptions about race, class, gender, sexuality, and other identities. One student discusses the school in which they serve as "not a good school and the students there mostly come from Hispanic and African American families. They cannot get the same opportunity with the kids from rich family who attends to the private school that has good education resources."

Another student adopts an individualistic attribution of poverty by thanking their parents "who didn't put me into the situation like those kids." This statement assumes that the low-income status of children is the fault of the parents in the community rather than the multi-pronged manifestation of social issues, including oppression. A structural attribution of poverty might suggest factors such as low wages, poor schools, prejudice, and other external sources of these disparities, and a fatalistic attribution of poverty might point to bad luck, bad karma, or religious sins as causes of these disparities (Feagin, 1975). Individualistic poverty attributions can be dangerous learning landscapes because they can create sweepingly blind generalizations and limits on objective learning. It is crucial to provide context for international service-learning students about disparities through uncovering the roots of inequality rather than feeding into paternalistic and possibly racist and/or classist stereotypes of communities in which students serve.

As student quotes reveal, the strategic inclusion of service-learning within academic curricula for international students has the potential to present conflicts of knowing, commonly referred to by Mezirow as disorienting dilemmas. These dilemmas create the first of ten

stages of Mezirow's theory of transformative learning (1978) and can ignite feelings of confusion, anger, wonder, or any mix of emotions along the way. Kitchenham (2008) synthesizes this idea of transformative learning into four types: 1) elaborating existing frames of reference, 2) learning new frames of reference, 3) transforming habits of mind, 4) transforming points of view (p. 120). Like Mezirow, Bamber and Hankin (2011) state that ideal outcomes of service-learning should include "confrontation with information that disrupts an individual's world view" and then serves as a "catalyst for change" (p. 195).

Service-learning with international students can, in some ways, be viewed as the inverse of the traditionally-understood concept of international service-learning, where U.S. students engage in service-learning abroad. Kiely's landmark (2004) article, "A Chameleon with a Complex: Searching for Transformation in International Service-Learning" revealed U.S. students engaging in service-learning abroad experienced profound changes in their world views in at least one of the following six arenas: political, moral, intellectual, personal, spiritual, and cultural. As Kiely describes through his longitudinal study, the disruptive dilemmas experienced by international service-learners can lead to transformative learning.

"In Response to Eby..."

Let us now turn again to Eby to discuss responses to the second question. As Eby points out, "service-learning grows from mixed motives" (Eby, 1998, p. 2). According to Eby, rather than serving the community for the sheer purpose of serving, service-learning frames service as a means to an end. Eby also suggests that service-learning diminishes deep understandings of community needs and replaces this understanding with simplistic acknowledgements of social issues. How can the model of service-learning relate to the troublesome factors Eby discusses? How would students'

perceptions of social issues in the United States change based on the nature of service-learning in which they participate? First, a clarification: students in the Global Experience course engage in service-learning which can be characterized by several key factors: group study and individual service (Berry & Chisholm, 1999), direct service and education (Bobo, Kendall, & Max, 2010), and mandatory service for 2-5 hours per week. These points may affect the ways in which students serve, learn, and perceive their service-learning activities.

Student quotes reveal that international students may initially (and sometimes, ultimately) consider service-learning to be charity work. *Helping* and *fixing* language used by students may be an indication of their language level, their mentality, or a mixture of both. The quoted student's reported transition in perceiving service-learning first as simply serving to later as both serving and learning is indicative of aspects of Mezirow's transformative learning model. Bobo et al. (2010) illustrate the ways in which social change takes place. Moving from direct service through education, self-help, advocacy, and direct action organization, service-learning students move along a spectrum of *performing direct service* in communities (and using existing power relationships) to *empowering communities* (and challenging existing power relationships). See Figure 1.

The organizational leanings described by the Midwest Academy directly inform the take-aways service-learning students will have about social change

and related social issues. Keeping in mind that many international students may begin their service-learning experience with the altruistic idea that they want to *help* or perhaps that they want to *save* impoverished people who, prior to their service-learning experience, they may have only heard about or seen on television, it is important to acknowledge the match (or the mismatch) in students' expectations for their role with the organization's mission, vision, and strategies of social change.

The classic student sentiment of "I want to help" may fit more comfortably in a host organization such as a food pantry where power delineations are clear: the organization wields power and the clients are reliant on the service. This does not mean that all organizations and/or staff members subscribe to this power dynamic. Students serving with community organizing programs or advocacy programs may be more readily challenged and taught to confront conceptions of *help* and *service*, but this is the structural baseline. Students should not be complacent about this power dynamic. They should, in fact, be encouraged to examine root causes of inequality in The United States. Many international students, particularly those of affluent economic means, may have preconceived notions of the United States and its inhabitants as living The American Dream. The idea of service-learning as anything but providing a service may feel quite foreign for students at first.

In response to the third question about the limitations service-learning must face with this particular

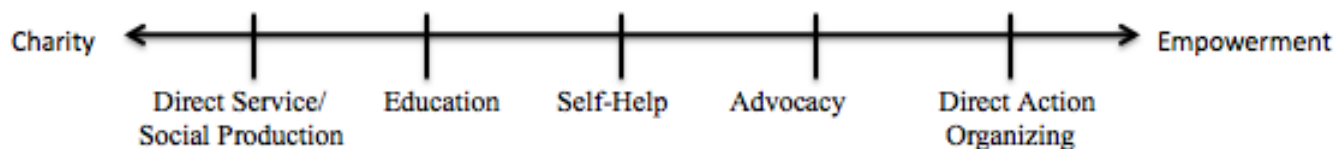


Figure 1- Above: Midwest Academy Spectrum of Social Change: Bobo, Kendall, & Max, 2010

population of students, it is necessary to critically examine barriers international students face to maximizing their service-learning experience and, in turn, their host organizations' ability to maximize the international students' presence within their site. As we gather from student quotes, international students enter the United States with little context about the historical underpinnings of social issues in the United States and with the added layer of second language acquisition, both of which can be barriers to students' learning compared to domestic students who are more readily exposed to social issues in their home country and speak the language fluently.

As quotes also imply, international students engaging in service-learning may be counterintuitive for students based on the culture of learning and service in the students' home countries, as well as the students' intended academic major. Ladd & Ruby (1999) found that international students reported lectures as the most common mode of instruction in their home country. International students must learn to engage in intentional reflection about their service-learning experiences in order to truly dig deep into social issues and social structures in the United States. The fact that interactive and dialogue-based teaching/learning is more or less the status quo in service-learning classrooms can be seen as a limitation in this case... but also as an opportunity.

Quotes also point to the limitations (and again, opportunities) with international service-learning students presented specifically by way of linguistic diversity. Two Chinese students reflected very differently on their experiences using Mandarin and/or Cantonese at their service site: one expressed discontent and the other expressed acceptance. When students are able to communicate in their native language, they are generally able to meet the goals/needs of the organization in more comprehensive ways than if they were communicating across languages. That said, by and large,

students report tremendous gains in their sense of confidence in speaking English as a result of engaging in service-learning. Introducing international students to American culture and a working knowledge of the English language is no small task for host organizations, and yet this becomes a built-in responsibility alongside supervision of weekly volunteer responsibilities. While students can contribute to organizations as service-learners and as service-learners who happen to bring with them rich cultural and linguistic diversity, it is crucial to consider what and how students learn about social issues and social structure in the US as a result of the language(s) spoken at the site. This comes back to the goals of the course.

Translating Limitations of Service-Learning with International Students: Implications for Practice

In acknowledgement of the limitations described by Eby, here are several key factors to consider in the implementation of service-learning with international students:

1. Balance students' skills with intended learning outcomes with expressed needs of community organizations.

Transnational differences in language and culture may pose barriers for international students to deepen their understandings of social issues in the United States. As we gather from the students' quotes, when international students are speaking in their native language at their site, they may experience an otherwise-fleeting sense of mastery and contribution. When a native Chinese student is able to speak Mandarin or Cantonese with young Chinese immigrants, the student is not limited by language and can gather a more well-rounded understanding of the social context in which the youth live, compared to students who are battling language barriers and receive less contextual

information about the community and the issues in the community.

When service-learning students engage in service in the United States in their native language, they are suddenly able to experience a sense of competency and mastery in a way that they are not able to access as easily while speaking English. This allows for ease of communication with community members and supervisors at the students' sites, and may change the students' and partners' senses of contribution made by the students.

2. Facilitate explicit conversations in class about power and the significance of critical service-learning.

Chances are high that, when serving with non-profit organizations in the U.S., international students will work with diverse populations in terms of race, class, gender, faith/religion, and more. In preparation for deep dives into students' attitudes/behaviors towards service-learning as transformative learning, space must be created to—as Peggy McIntosh might say—unpack his/her backpack, the container of identity, background, and worldviews (1989). Using The Midwest Academy's Spectrum of Social Change framework as a stimulus for conversation and action planning can lead all involved parties to more honest conversations about where the “learning” in “service-learning” truly lives.

Students should be challenged through class discussions, academic materials and assignments, as well as conversations at their host sites, to realize that inhabitants of the United States emerging from and/or living in marginalized/underserved communities are not, by definition, in need of *help* or *saving*, but can be treasured mentors and teachers to students just as much as their class instructors. International students' sources of empathy in service-learning may require relatively substantial digging past cultural and linguistic divides.

3. As Eby suggests, facilitators must realistically face the limitations of service-learning with international students and adjust the model to maximize mutually-beneficial opportunities.

Depending on the context in which international students are engaging in service-learning (mainstream classes vs. a pathway program or other cohort model), there are curricular limitations in place. Regardless of the overall program format, adjust your model(s) in order to reach the potential of service-learning with international students. What adjustments can and should be made in order for the program to reach maturity and live up to its potential? Weigh the implications of mandatory versus elective service-learning, because outcomes for students and community partners may be quite different by the end of the experience. Consider the possibilities of project-based service-learning and/or direct service-learning. Project-based service-learning generally involves the presentation of a culminating product/deliverable to the organization by the end of the experiences, whereas direct service-learning usually consists of direct service. A final suggestion would be to consciously reach out and collaborate with community organizations using the Midwest Academy spectrum of social change as a compass. Facilitators can collaborate with partners on and off campus to make this a reality—between fellow faculty members and the campus-based community service office, possibilities for creative and mutually-beneficial partnerships covering the scope of the social change spectrum are endless.

Conclusion

“If service-learning is to reach maturity & live up to its potential, it must realistically face its limitations and broaden its emphasis beyond volunteerism. It must carefully examine what students learn about social problems and social structure through the kind of service service-learning does.”

-John Eby, "Why Service-Learning is Bad," 1998, p. 2

In response to Eby's quote from "Why Service-Learning is Bad," educators of international students must consider the opportunities and limitations of service-learning as a pedagogical teaching tool and as a response to calls from communities. In order to facilitate these exchanges in the most respectful and community-driven ways, facilitators must also consider what and how international students learn about social problems and social structure in the United States and then adjust their models according to goals of the program and the partnerships. Then and only then can the global ripple effects of international service-learning be as meaningful as they are borderless. ■■

References

- Askildson, L. R., Cahill Kelly, A., & Mick, C. S. (2013). Developing multiple literacies in academic English through service-learning and community engagement. *TESOL Journal*, 4(3), 402-438.
- Astin, A. W., & Sax, L. J. (1998). How undergraduates are affected by service participation. *Journal of College Student Development*, 39, 251-263.
- Bamber, P., & Hankin, L. (2011). Transformative learning through service-learning: no passport required. *Education+Training*, 53(2/3), 190-206.
- Berry, H. A. & Chisholm, L. A. (1999). Ford Foundation. The international partnership for service-learning. *Service-learning in higher education around the world: An initial look*. New York, NY.
- Bobo, K., Kendall, J., & Max, S. (2010). *Organizing for social change 4th edition: Midwest academy manual for activists*. The Forum Press.
- Butin, D. W. (2007). Justice-learning: Service-learning as justice-oriented education. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 40(2), 177-183.
- Clark, A.Y., & Nugent, M. (2011). Power and service-learning: salience, place and practice. In B. Porfilio & H. Hickman (Eds.), *Critical service-learning as revolutionary pedagogy: A project of student agency in action* (pp. 3-27). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research : meaning and perspective in the research process*. London; Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Eby, J. W. (1998). Why service-learning is bad. Retrieved from http://servicelearning.duke.edu/uploads/media_items/whyslbad.original.pdf
- Eyler, J., & Giles Jr, D. E. (1999). *Where's the learning in service-learning? Jossey-Bass higher and adult education series*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, Inc.
- Eyler, J., Giles Jr, D. E., Stenson, C. M., Gray, C. J., & At, A. (2001). *At a glance: What we know about the effects of service-learning on college students, faculty, institutions and communities, 1993-2000*. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University.
- Feagin, J. R. (1975). *Subordinating the poor: Welfare and American beliefs*, Englewood Cliffs, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Fitzgerald, C. M. (2009). Language and community: Using service-learning to reconfigure the multicultural classroom. *Language and Education*, 23(3), 217-231.
- Glaser, B. G & Strauss A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research*. New York, NY: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Grassi, E., Hanley, D. & Liston, D. (2004). Service-learning: An innovative approach for second language learners. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 27(1), 87-110.

- Herrmann, S. L. (2011). Holding on to transformation. In B. Porfilio and H. Hickman (Eds.), *Critical service-learning as revolutionary pedagogy: A project of student agency in action* (pp. 273-296). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Heuser, L. (1999). Service-learning as a pedagogy to promote the content, cross-cultural, and language-learning of ESL students. *TESL Canada Journal*, 17, 54-71.
- Hummel, K. M. (2013). Target language community involvement: Second-language linguistic self-confidence and other perceived benefits. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69(1), 65-90.
- Institute of International Education (2013). Open Doors 2013: Report on International Educational Exchange.
- Kezar, A. (2002). Assessing community service-learning: Are we identifying the right outcomes? *About Campus*, 7(2), 14-20.
- Kiely, R. (2004). A chameleon with a complex: Searching for transformation in international service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 5-20.
- Kitchenham, A. (2008). The evolution of John Mezirow's transformative learning theory. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 104(6), 104-123.
- Ladd, P. D., & Ruby, R., Jr. (1999). Learning style and adjustment issues of international students'. *Journal of Education for Business*, 74(6), 363-367.
- Lapan, S., & Quartaroli, M. (2009). *Research essentials: an introduction to designs and practices* (1st ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, Inc.
- Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective transformation. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 28(2), 100-110.
- McIntosh, P. (1989). White privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack. *Peace and Freedom*, 49(4), 10-12.
- Mitchell, T. D. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-learning*, 14(2).
- Northeastern University, Office of the President. (2013) Institutional Accomplishments.
- Perren, J., Thornton, J., & Grove, N. (2013). Three curricular innovations for service-learning in ESL programs. *TESOL Journal*, 4(3), 463-486.
- Pruitt, F. J. (1978). The adaptation of African students to American society. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 2(1), 90-118.
- Redmond, M. V., & Bunyi, J. M. (1993). The relationship of intercultural communication competence with stress and the handling of stress as reported by international students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 17(2), 235-254.
- Russell, N. M. (2007). Teaching more than English: Connecting ESL students to their community through service-learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 88(10), 770-771.
- Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research: a guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Stoecker, R., Tryon, E. A., & Hilgendorf, A. (Eds.) (2009). *The unheard voices: Community organizations and service-learning*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.
- Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1993). Where's the "culture" in cross-cultural transition? Comparative studies of sojourner adjustment. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 24(2), 221-249.

- Wurr, A. J. (2009). Composing cultural diversity and civic literacy: English language learners as service providers. *Reflections: A Journal on Writing, Service-Learning, and Community Literacy*, 9(1), 162-190.
- Wurr, A. J., & Hellebrandt, J. (2007). *Learning the language of global citizenship: Service-learning in applied linguistics*. Boston: Anker Publishing Company, Inc.
- Zimmermann, S. (1995). Perceptions of intercultural communication competence and international student adaptation to an American campus. *Communication Education*, 44(4), 321-335.

Multimodality in the Service-Learning Classroom

Chip Dunkin and Karen Forgette

Abstract

Students in service-learning classes face several challenging rhetorical tasks, including authentic reflection, complex discourse community analysis, and multiple audience dilemmas. Often students enter service-learning courses with little or no experience in reflection. They frequently struggle to articulate the connections between the work of their service project and their academic course of study. This report examines how multimodality—composition that incorporates audio, video, or photographic elements in addition to alphabetic text—may help students negotiate these complex rhetorical tasks and enhance their engagement. While developing a service-learning first-year composition course, the authors observed that student-produced image essays, websites, and videos suggested an enriched understanding of community literacies. Additionally, reflective conversations captured on video, between students engaged in service-learning projects, often revealed deeper engagement and authenticity than that revealed in written reflections.

Keywords

Multimodality, reflection, service-learning, assessment, pedagogy

Chip Dunkin is a FASTrack writing instructor in the University of Mississippi's Department of Writing and Rhetoric. He has been teaching first-year composition at UM since 2006. His research interests include service-learning, multimodality, student cohort programs, and basic writing.

Karen Forgette is a core instructor in the Department of Writing and Rhetoric and the FASTrack Writing Coordinator at the University of Mississippi. She has been teaching in the UM first-year writing program since 2005. Her research interests include service-learning, multimodality, learning communities, and the first-year experience.

Introduction

Four years ago, we began integrating service-learning elements into our first-year composition classes in an academic success cohort program. Since many members of these cohorts lived together, studied together, and took classes together, it seemed reasonable and promising to build on this tangible sense of community by asking students to think more carefully and critically about all of the communities to which they belong, those communities from which they feel excluded, and ways to help address specific community needs.

Around this same time, our writing program welcomed a new director who injected a healthy dose of multimodal learning into our culture and curriculum. The intersection of service-learning and multimodality has since become a focal point in our teaching, research, and growth. In this article, we'll do two things: (1) argue for the inclusion of multimodality in all service-learning courses across the academic spectrum; and (2) provide some practical

examples of how we've attempted to use multimodality in our first-year service-learning composition courses.

As Jason Palmeri (2012) noted, though, echoing Lisa Ede in his introduction to *Remixing Composition*, the simple prescription of pedagogical approaches to multimodality in writing courses is problematized by "all the diverse contexts in which compositionists work" (p. 19). Individual program directives, course-specific learning outcomes, varying student populations (class sizes, cultural backgrounds, levels of writing experience, levels of interest in service), research expectations, technological accessibilities, and our own individual proclivities as teachers will always hinder our ability to share purely. And, as the scope expands beyond composition—through service-learning courses that span the disciplines—so does the contextual diversity, making attempts to share useful methods for incorporating multimodality even more complex, and, sadly, more fragmented. Our hope is that teachers can see the inherent benefits of multimodal work in the service-learning classroom and apply some of these elements in ways that may be practical and beneficial within their own teaching fields.

What Is Multimodality?

For our purposes, we'll use Cynthia Selfe's (2007) definition of multimodal texts as those that "exceed the alphabetic and may include still and moving images, animations, color, words, music and sound" (p. 1). Examples of these include, but certainly are not limited to, photo essays, websites, found-object analyses, posters, digital presentations (PowerPoint, Prezi, etc.), infographics, podcasts, blogs, videos, annotated music playlists, and even interpretive dances (it's been done). It is important to remember that multiple modes can also be utilized in our own teaching: in-class multimedia presentations and group exercises, video-conferences via Skype and Google Hangouts, interactive course syllabi, and interpretive dances (it hasn't been

done as far as we know) may help teachers find new ways to make the content of courses feel more modern and relevant for students who have been raised in the rapid-fire-communication culture of the digital age.

Why Include Multimodality in the Service-Learning Classroom?

As Selfe and Takayoshi (2007) made clear, today's students not only must be able to think critically about all of the manifold multimodal texts and messages they "consume" daily, but they must also acquire and practice the necessary skills of multimodal composition "to communicate successfully within the digital communication networks that characterize workplaces, schools, civic life, and span traditional cultural, national, and geopolitical borders" (p. 3). Taking this one step further, we argue the ability to thoughtfully and effectively navigate, evaluate, and create multimodal texts is undeniably entwined with our own responsibilities as engaged citizens. After all, the decisions we make when contacting potential community partners, contributing time and/or money to philanthropic groups and service projects, and asking our students to consider such options, often rest squarely on our own understanding of the messages these organizations send to the public.

Thus, equipping students with the tools to compose in multiple modes and to develop a clear understanding of how rhetorical principles operate within and apply to multimodal composition lies at the heart of the service-learning mission. As Mary Hocks (2003) stated in her helpful analysis of visual/digital rhetoric, students "need to learn the 'distanced' process of how to critique the saturated visual and technological landscape that surrounds them as something structured and written in a set of deliberate rhetorical moves. They then need to enact those visual moves on their own" (p. 645). We must explain how this digital landscape affects students' understandings of digital literacies, but as the term "distanced" correctly indicates, we must

first take a step back and devote time to understanding our current digital environment(s), to become engaged, digitally literate composers. In the ether of the internet, reputable sites and propaganda sit side by side (Rea & White, 1999, p. 427), and students' ability to distinguish between the two is a vital first step in community-engaged research. Students' ability to compose reputable digital texts then empowers them to serve community partners and address community needs.

Multimodal composition also exemplifies the fluid nature of service-learning. "Service-learning," as explained by Herman Blake, "is a continual process. To the extent it becomes institutionalized and you begin to evaluate it and encapsulate it in any formal structure, you begin to limit its capacity. There's something about what goes on between students, universities, and communities that must be constantly dynamic" (as cited in Stanton, 1999, p. 171). This dynamism doesn't simply pertain to constantly shifting modes and channels of communication, but also to the importance of understanding the rhetorical choices made by all of the participating voices and the students who hear those voices.

Examples of Multimodal Assignments in Our Courses

A 2011 College of Liberal Arts initiative at our university provided support for faculty to redesign existing courses by incorporating service-learning components. We seized that opportunity to transform Writing 102, a research-based composition course that is the second half of our required first-year writing sequence, for the 350 students in our cohort program. Most departments on our campus offer service-learning courses only to upperclassmen majoring in their particular disciplines. To broaden students' awareness of service-learning, we restructured our Writing 102 course as an introduction to the ideas and rhetoric of community engagement and

advocacy, in hopes of whetting students' appetites for service. Our Writing 102 students critically examine how writers and composers conceptualize and manipulate our nation's social and cultural mores, norms, and values in support of individual agendas. They then focus on a specific issue emerging from that examination, conducting primary and secondary research to investigate related causes, effects, and participants and to study the rhetoric of the discourse community surrounding the issue. Finally, students compose a proposal to a funding agent asking for support for an existing organization, or they develop a public awareness campaign to bring attention to the issue. Students have written funding proposals to address various community needs, such as vitamins for children in Haiti, supplies for local feeding ministries, and materials for after-school programs. More broadly, other students have composed public awareness campaigns for suicide prevention, domestic violence victim support, and gay rights.

In this section, we describe a variety of multimodal assignments we have incorporated over the past three years and our rationale for doing so. We would again note that these assignments are not offered as prescriptions or even exemplars. Instead, these assignments represent attempts to harness the potential of multimodality in the service-learning classroom.

1. *The Photo Essay*

In "Made not only in words: Composition in a new key," Kathleen Yancey (2014) noted students' enthusiasm for multimodal composition outside of the classroom (in genres such as blogs, tweets, Instagrams, Pinterest boards) and asked, "Don't you wish that the energy and motivation that students bring to some of these other genres they would bring to our [composition] assignments?" (p. 63). When we redesigned an alphabetic essay as a photo essay, we witnessed just such an increase in our students' energy and motivation. Our course begins with a low-stakes assignment introducing students to community-based inquiry and

community literacies. In the early years of our program, students read an essay authored by a community activist, then wrote a response paper analyzing the essay and formulating a definition of “community engagement.” Many students approached the assignment as busy work, completing it quickly and poorly, or not completing it at all.

For the past three years, we have asked students instead to compose a photo essay illustrating their definition of a concept, such as “community” or “America.” Students take six to ten photographs representing the idea and then annotate the photographs with brief explanations. This shift to a multimodal text has increased student engagement, as almost all students now complete the project, and the projects themselves demonstrate students’ increased agency. Notice how the student situates herself as an active participant in this phrase from the project excerpt in Figure 1: “I took time to explore my surroundings.” Additionally, through photography, students begin engaging physically with communities, as the student notes, “I did so by driving around my hometown . . . where it is very easy to pick out the wealthy from the poor.”



When I think about the American society that we live in one word comes to my mind, poverty. I took time over this winter break to explore my

surroundings and try my best to truly understand the meaning of the word poverty. I did so by driving around my hometown . . . where it is very easy to pick out the wealthy from the poor. [My hometown] is divided into two parts, the rich and the poor. In my mind there is an invisible line and once it is crossed you are in what is known as “the ghetto.” The picture above is of an abandoned building right off the highway. This building is a sort of welcoming symbol to “the ghetto.”

Figure 1– Photo Essay Student Sample

As they compose the photo essay, students also begin to examine the language of civic discourse. In the excerpt in Figure 1, the student uses quotation marks to set off “the ghetto,” a sign that she is beginning to consider how language defines place and the connotations of place-based terminology. In addition to benefitting the composer, this project has also ignited productive class discussion. Because the photo essays are portable and easily displayed via laptops and projectors, they allow for immediate consideration in class. Instructors ask small groups to categorize their classmates’ photographs, attempting to identify broader underlying assumptions and themes. Students find these essays engaging as they reveal new aspects of their classmates’ lives and mindsets. Sometimes students even begin to challenge colleagues’ choices. For example, while discussing the project in Figure 1, a student objected to the term “ghetto,” commenting, “That neighborhood looks like my neighborhood. I call it ‘home.’”

2. The Website

A second advantage to multimodality in the service-learning classroom is the interconnectivity that digital composition provides. As Yancey (2004) argued, “Digital compositions weave words and context and images: They are exercises in ordered complexity—and

complex in some different ways than print precisely because they include more kinds of threads” (95). In addition, digital composers’ ability to link to other digital spaces and texts may allow students to make connections across communities and social classes. As David Bloome and Ann Egan-Robertson (1993) noted, intertextuality, which hyperlinking facilitates, often involves building social connections and relationships (p. 312).



Figure 2: Website Student Sample

In Figure 2, a page from a website advocating for healthier eating options in public school cafeterias, a student shows a fairly strong command of the organizational principles of effective web-design while also showcasing the rhetorical possibilities and hybridity afforded by the medium of the web. The page not only incorporates appropriate, colorful images of healthy foods, but it also provides hyperlinks to three articles from reputable, popular sources.

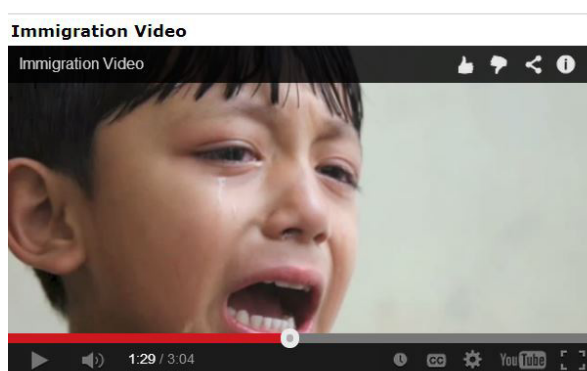
Most importantly, perhaps, the student demonstrates social and civic engagement in the language she uses to direct her audience to these different digital spaces. In noting the “sacrifices” made by “proactive”

schools to serve healthy, organic foods despite higher costs and budgetary concerns, the student pushes viewers toward the new digital space by appealing to their own sense of civic responsibility. She asks her audience to “check out” one article because “if a school with a very limited budget can make these sacrifices to improve childrens’ [sic] health, then there is hope that families, other schools, and outside communities can also work together to make organic food available and abundant for these young adults.” The connections the student is attempting to make here—across communities and classes—are designed not simply to offer opportunities for her audience to learn more about important issues, but also to make them feel as though they should. After all, in this digital medium, that new connection is only one click away.

3. The Video Remix

The rich complexities of digital composition may also help students address the variety of rhetorical situations the service-learning classroom encompasses. As Thomas Deans (2000) observed, a service-learning classroom may cut across several discourses (workplace discourse, academic discourse, hybrid discourses) and may privilege at different times different literacies (academic literacies, workplace literacies, critical literacies, hybrid literacies) (p. 17). In a multimodal composition, students have the opportunity to interweave those discourses and literacies in intriguing ways. Students in our course are required to compose a research paper examining the underlying causes or effects of the issue they are investigating. That paper is a formal alphabetic text that relies heavily on research studies for support and specifically addresses an academic audience. After completing the research paper, students remix their work into an advocacy video that conveys the original argument through images, music, and narration, but concludes with a call to support a community partner working on the issue.

Students' videos often reveal subtle manipulation of diverse rhetorical elements, suggesting an enhanced understanding of audience. In Figure 3, an excerpt from a video on the effects of Arizona's immigration law SB 1070, a student pairs an image of a crying Latino child, the kind of pathos-fueled image that appears in popular and political advertising on a regular basis, with narration that takes several cues from academic discourse, including an insistence on identifying the authority of the source.



Transcript of Video Narration: According to David Anderson, Arizona Capitol Times correspondent, the Phoenix Union which consists of 78% Latino students saw a decrease of 200 students in one year since Senate Bill 1070 has been put into action.

Figure 3- Video Remix Student Sample

Rather than merely noting that the law has driven Latino students out of public schools, the student intentionally builds the ethos of that segment by including relevant statistics from a reliable source, enhancing the logos of his own argument and perhaps demonstrating his understanding of how the synergy of these two audience-based appeals (along with pathos) accomplishes his purpose in a way that might be effective for both his public and academic audiences.

4. The Video Reflection

Much like writing, service-learning is a recursive process. Not only does authentic student reflection demonstrate genuine engagement in community advocacy and activism, but the practice also fosters students' growth as critical thinkers and concerned citizens who are learning about the important roles they play in our world. Janet Eyler (2002), characterizing the benefits of reflection, argued, "Reflection on . . . conflicts or surprises is the process by which individuals develop the capacity to understand and resolve complexity; reflection is the mechanism for stimulating cognitive development" (p. 522). Reflection may also foster the growth of students as active community members. As James Dubinsky (2006) stated, "Creating reflection assignments that help students see the bridge they build as they participate in the social activity created through service-learning enables them to ponder and evaluate their experience, consider its value and transform it into knowledge they will use later as [composers, creators] and [digitally literate] citizens" (p. 310).

Designing effective reflective prompts (and grading the students' reflective responses) is challenging, though. Students' alphabetic reflections on their learning experiences, while almost always valuable, still tend to be vague and somewhat perfunctory: "I learned _X_. This is important because _Y_. In the future, I will _Z_." These responses are often measured, repetitive, and sometimes boring, especially when students are asked to type out answers to the same—or obviously similar—questions after composing projects or engaging in service activities. Scholars have addressed this difficulty through variations on reflection prompts and exercises, but little attention has been paid to the mode of reflection.

Multimodality can shake up the robotic schema of the written reflection and re-invigorate students to reflect through means and media with which they're more comfortable. In our course, we have incorporated

paired video reflections in which two students receive reflective interview questions and capture on video a conversation based on their responses. The dialogue that develops during these reflective conversations often moves beyond the scripted questions and shifts into more deeply reflective critical inquiry. For example, in the video reflection excerpt in Figure 4, Akeena, a student working on a hyper-incarceration project, is paired with Daniel, a student interested in learning more about the intricacies of immigration legislation.



Transcript of Video Reflection:

Daniel: "I found articles about the psychology of stereotypes. This could even tie into your topic—how socially/culturally we give different races and demographics stereotypes . . . and the [stereotyped group] begins to think of themselves as inferior."

Akeena: "Yeah, our [research topics] tie together in that way with the stereotypes of angry black males and black females."

Daniel: "Yeah, the stereotypes build on themselves."

Figure 4- Video Reflection Student Sample

The students begin by addressing the question, "What did I learn about my topic?" Akeena notes her research on hyper-incarceration has led her to several

sub-topics she had not considered, such as the stereotype of the "angry black man." Daniel then comments that he has read articles on the psychology of stereotypes and the ways in which the stereotyped group is affected. Then, he moves away from discussing his own paper to note that some of his research would be applicable to Akeena's topic as well because stereotypes may affect the way minorities see themselves. Akeena agrees, mentioning her experiences with the stereotypes that influence African-Americans. By articulating and reflecting on their research topics together, the students begin to see broader connections and a larger context for their work. As Randy Garrison (n.d.) noted, "Thinking may well be a private and internal process but it begins and ends in the external world... Therefore, we see inquiry as the method and critical thinking as the process of constructing meaning and confirming understanding" (para. 4). In paired video reflection, students may begin to construct meaning and confirm understanding with each other, moving beyond what they may have reflected on and considered individually. As Eyler (2002) argued, when students in service-learning classes share what they've learned in their own journeys "with others also engaged in these issues in the community, the conversations that ensue are often more compelling than typical student presentations elicit" (p. 530). What may make Daniel and Akeena's conversation even more significant is that it was captured. In a way that can't be reproduced through simple transcription (and would have been made far less genuine if an instructor had been holding an iPhone in front of them), these students documented a dialogical, reflective experience that can be revisited in its purest form.

Assessing Multimodal Projects

Instructors may hesitate to assign multimodal projects because they lack experience in composing and assessing multimodal texts. In their survey of composition

instructors' attitudes toward multimodality, Murray, Sheets, and Williams (2009) found that 53% of respondents did not consider themselves adequately prepared or trained to assess multimodal projects, while 23% responded that they were unsure they had been adequately trained (Survey Results, Survey Question 7).

Assessing multimodal texts may seem qualitatively different from assessing alphabetic texts because all modes within a multimodal project (video, audio, print, hyperlinks, etc.) contribute to the meaning, and instructors may be wary of assessing the less familiar modes. Selfe and Takayoshi (2007), however, noted that the overarching rhetorical principles that apply to alphabetic text (audience awareness, attention to purpose, coherence, etc.) apply also to multimodal composition (p. 5). Instructors may use those principles to guide their assessment of multimodal projects. Sonya

Borton and Brian Huot (2007) have suggested multimodal formative assessment criteria that are in concert with overarching rhetorical principles such as, "The composition conveys a specific purpose. The composition identifies a specific audience—either explicitly or implicitly. The composition employs a tone consistent with the designated purpose and audience" (p. 101).

To assess alphabetic texts, our writing program uses assignment-specific rubrics that are grounded in five outcomes: audiences and purposes, exploration and argumentation, research, conventions and mechanics, and writing process. We adapt those assignment-specific rubrics for our multimodal projects to reflect the ways in which alternative modes may influence the composer's choices. An example appears in Figure 5. The adaptations to the original rubric are italicized.

Multimodal Argument Rubric

1. Purpose

Does the composer construct a cohesive, unified, and logical argument?

2. Audience

Does the project reflect an attempt to speak to *the specified audience*? Does the composer balance rhetorical appeals in a manner appropriate to the audience? *Is the design of the project appropriate for the intended audience?*

3. Evidence/Development

Does the project use supporting evidence (*through text, hyperlinks, images, video, narration, music, etc.*) that develops and enhances the strength of its argument? Is this evidence thorough, and does it incorporate specific, relevant details or concrete evidence rather than general opinion or personal commentary?

4. Exploration

Does the project explore ideas or techniques that are unfamiliar to the writer or question and engage different thinking? Does the project explore existing arguments and/or potential counterarguments and otherwise demonstrate an awareness of the issue's complexity? *Does the project consider and/or take advantage of the rhetorical possibilities of the media?*

5. Conventions and Mechanics

Is the project free of grammatical errors *or technical errors* that inhibit or interfere with the audience's understanding? Does the project follow conventions for documentation, formatting, and length *or time requirements*?

Figure 5– Multimodal Rubric Sample

Instructors' comments on multimodal projects should center on the ways in which the projects meet the rhetorical situations they are addressing, but the comments should also address the modes utilized in the project. For example, one instructor wrote these comments:

The narrated definition of maternal wall bias at the beginning of the video provides necessary context, and the opening visuals help build the context, too. The black and white outline of the pregnant woman with the briefcase is particularly effective because it gives the viewer a simple image to focus on as the narrator reads the more complex definition. The charts illustrating the rise of discrimination lawsuits are effective because they add specific evidence and authority to the video. Noting the source of those charts would add even more authority.

Notice that the instructor addresses the rhetorical elements of any argument (context, evidence, authority) as she simultaneously addresses the multimodal elements of visual images, graphics, and narration. She specifically comments on the ways in which the visual images and narration work together to build the argument.

Conclusion

Admittedly, our suggestions for the infusion of multimodal practices into service-learning courses are inextricably tied to our own discipline of composition study. Our emphasis on rhetoric, for instance, may not seem to have much value to the Sociology professor whose service-learning class is built around identifying the root causes of poverty within a small community. As colleges and universities make continuing—and important—pushes toward interdisciplinarity, however, and as shifts in our culture and the means by which we communicate continue to evolve, multimodality will play an increasingly important role in curriculum cre-

ation and pedagogy across the disciplines. Furthermore, for service-learning courses in particular, multimodality has the potential to enhance many of the pedagogical practices already in place. ■■■

References

- Bloome, D., & Egan-Robertson, A. (1993). The social construction of intertextuality in reading and writing classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 28(4), 304-333.
- Borton, S., & Huot, B. (2007). Responding and assessing. In C. Selfe (Ed.), *Multimodal composition: Resources for teachers* (pp. 99-111). New York, NY: Hampton Press.
- Deans, T. (2000). *Writing partnerships: Service-learning composition*. Urbana, IL: NCTE.
- Dubinsky, J. (2006). The role of reflection in service-learning. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 69(3), 306-311.
- Eyler, J. (2002). Reflection: Linking service and learning—Linking students and communities. *Journal of Social Issues*, 58(3), 517-534.
- Garrison, D. R. (n.d.). Inquiry and critical thinking—Reflective inquiry. *Learning commons: community of inquiry*. Retrieved from http://members.shaw.ca/crystal-ink/portfolio/ucLCsamples_web.pdf
- Hocks, M. E. (2003). Understanding visual rhetoric in digital writing environments. *College Composition and Communication*, (4), 629-656.
- Murray, E. A., Sheets, H. A., & Williams N. A. (2009). The new work of assessment: Evaluating multimodal compositions. *Computers and Composition Online*. Retrieved from http://www2.bgsu.edu/departments/english/cconline/murray_etat/index.html

- Palmeri, J. (2012). *Remixing composition: A history of multimodal writing pedagogy*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Rea, A., & White, D. (1999). The changing nature of writing: Prose or code in the classroom. *Computers and Composition*, 16(3), 421-36.
- Selfe, C., & Takayoshi, P. (2007). Thinking about multimodality. In C. Self (Ed.), *Multimodal composition: Resources for teachers* (pp. 1-12). New York, NY: Hampton Press.
- Stanton, T., Giles, D., & Cruz, N. (1999). *Service-Learning: A movement's pioneers reflect on its origins, practice, and future*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Yancey, K. B. (2004). Looking for sources of coherence in a fragmented world: Notes toward a new assessment design. *Computers and Composition*, 21, 89-102.
- Yancey, K. B. (2014). Made not only in words: Composition in a new key. In C. Lutkewitte (Ed.), *Multimodal composition: A critical sourcebook* (pp. 62-88). Boston, MA: Bedford St. Martin's.

Current Clips and Links

A brief list of links to useful non-commercial websites related to teaching and learning, compiled by Shannon Curran. Currents invites further recommendations from our readers.



The Center for Community Engagement and Service-Learning at Hobart and William Smith Colleges features an impressively complete “Faculty Service-Learning Resources” page. These resources include links to valuable information ranging from definitions of ‘service-learning’ to tips for course objectives, student reflection, and evaluation of service-learning. This site is especially useful for faculty considering using (or expanding) a service-learning component in their courses.
http://www.hws.edu/academics/service/faculty_resources.aspx

Campus Compact, active in over 30 states, is “the only national higher education association dedicated solely to campus-based civic engagement.” In addition to the latest news on service-learning, the webpage menu includes links to resources for faculty, students, and college/university presidents. It also provides links to initiatives such as the AmeriCorps VISTA program, to sample syllabi, and even to a bookstore.

<http://www.compact.org/>



Campus Compact



University of Southern California Rossier: Tools for Teaching Diversity is a page of USC’s website devoted to assisting faculty across disciplines in teaching diversity. The page provides readings, resources, and activities, and is organized by the varying dimensions of diversity, including gender, sexual orientation, race, social class, disability, and religion. The page also features teaching strategies, contributed by instructors from across the country, for addressing these difficult topics.

<http://rossier.usc.edu/tools-for-teaching-diversity>

NAFSA: The Association of International Educators. This non-profit professional association has a blog page dedicated exclusively to sparking the conversation on international education and to “discuss[ing] innovative approaches to making the college experience more international.” Blogs can be retrieved by particular category, such as, e.g., global engagement, visa policy, internationalization, and study abroad.

<http://blog.nafsa.org>



EDUCAUSE is “a nonprofit association whose mission is to advance higher education through the use of information technology.” Although a membership option exists, many resources are free and open to the public. The webpage features areas devoted to career development, conferences, teaching and learning, and several other topics of interest. Especially helpful is the EDUCAUSE Library, which can be searched by keywords and showcases particular articles, seminars, blogs, policies, and podcasts.

<http://www.educause.edu/>

The DNA of Effective Service and Civic Engagement

Mark Wagner

The American Legal System and Civic Engagement -- Why We All Should Think Like Lawyers. By Kenneth Manaster. Palgrave Macmillan, 2013. 228 pp. ISBN-13: 978-1137344816

Mark Wagner, Ph.D., is the Director of the Binienda Center for Civic Engagement at Worcester State University.

The questions posed by Kenneth Manaster's *The American Legal System and Civic Engagement -- Why We All Should Think Like Lawyers* (2013) may be seen as: What are the original purposes of service and civic engagement? What are the citizens' tasks and can they be imparted by civics education? Finally, central to Manaster's arguments: Can the law's tools and traditions be useful for us as we design and assess what Geroge Kuh named as "high impact practices" (2008), educational practices that encourage students to engage and seek tangible solutions to social and economic problems on a local, national, and global scale?

Manaster's book is a welcome addition to the discussion of where and how to place civic learning and engagement in our data-driven cultures of standardized tests and accountability. Considering the obstacles we face in engaging our students, Manaster early in his book points out that these are not new. Here is Leo Tolstoy, in *War and Peace* (1896):

Personal interests of the moment are always so much more significant than the general issues that because of them the latter are never felt, not even noticed, in fact. The majority of the people paid no attention to the general course of events but were influenced only by their immediate interests. (p. 1126)

A more recent history is in order here as well: with the publication of *A Crucible Moment: College Learning & Democracy's Future* (2012), the American Association of Colleges and Universities placed service-learning and civic engagement as central to a dialogue surrounding the direction and vision of higher education. We might see this report, written at the invitation of the Department of Education, as response to the "culture of assessment" wherein education reform has auditioned, among other programs, No Child Left Behind, Common Core, and School Choice, all meant to improve learning outcomes, but which have largely ignored studies such as History, Art, Philosophy, and – dare we say? – civics and the place of engagement in curriculum.

In the ideal, through service-learning, civic engagement, community-based learning (there are a myriad of terms for these areas of scholarship) and through reflection on this active learning, students will increase comprehension and build pathways to social and political skills and future careers, which in turn will foster a future generation of contributing citizens. This is not easy, given the default setting written about by Tolstoy above. To unfold this discussion, Manaster touches on two examples: technology and global warming. If the essence of American democracy is “the eternal arguing” (Wilentz, 2006, p. 36), does the burgeoning flow of information make it easier to know what is going on, what is at stake, and what needs to be done? Manaster considers both sides of the coin and comes away with a heads up: the internet has changed the manner and location of the public sphere, bringing into our homes and offices what used to be debated on the floors of town halls. And while things may at times appear bleak (20% of voters turned out for a recent election for mayor of Boston), Manaster notes a large number of Americans participating in churches and embracing new “spaces” where opinions can be tested and consensus gained.

Climate change is a public issue on which this eternal arguing can be seen to be at work in shaping our views. Whereas fifteen years ago, the science on climate change could be loudly refuted, now the debate has shifted. Even those “conservative voices” now no longer argue the reality, but the cause of climate change. Recently Marco Rubio (a presidential hopeful) weighed in, suggesting that – although it is happening – climate change is not caused by human industry. So a consensus has emerged, however quickly or slowly, even if voices still argue about how and why this is happening.

Facing obstacles and looking for guidance, where do we go to refine, understand, and improve this process of building consensus for action in the public sphere? Manaster evaluates media, citizen groups, voter guides,

and deliberation projects, but what interests us here is his look into civics education:

...with the exception of civics education, all of the other sources – the media, citizens groups guides, state and local voter guides, deliberation projects, and other tips – are a largely unpredictable hodgepodge, too...Civics education...ought to be a reliable, even systematic source of instruction for civic engagement...however, its recent track record and immediate prospects are not encouraging, despite some worthy experiments now under way. Unless and until those efforts are proven successful and are more widely employed, the citizen must look elsewhere for reliable and cohesive guidance. (p. 37)

Manaster’s elsewhere is the American legal system, and the core of this book focuses on the tools and traditions of that system. The author sees the vast machinery of law as a reliable, civil, and exhaustive means to make hard choices in gray areas. As one example, he confirms Tocqueville’s view, put forward in *Democracy in America* (1835), that jury service is education. Not only does the jury allow the people to contribute to the legal system, but the legal system through the jury process contributes to the education of the people. This process allows the public to be educated and return to better meet their broader civic responsibilities.

To be clear: Manaster was not born yesterday. He understands the fragility of this rationality, that we share a common conclusion that people do not act only on the truth but on “a host of psychological, sociological, cognitive, and emotional characteristics of the human species that predispose us to make decisions that make little sense, that are, as one writer has said, ‘predictably irrational’” (p. 91). This makes up the crux of Manaster’s arguments:

The array of internal and external forces leading us away from thoughtful, reasoned formation of opinions constitutes the most important diver-

gence from the way the law approaches its conclusions. In contract, the tools and traditions of the law can be seen as a set of consciously designed response to the fragility of rationality. The law's methods, and their ongoing message about the importance of systematic and open-minded decision making, aim to maximize the exercise of reason among participants in legal processes, while minimizing the influence of the contrary inclinations and pressures we all experience every day. (p. 93)

In short, to fulfil the civic responsibility that modern democracy requires, we can act essentially as our own lawyers. To develop and express our opinions, using conclusions we reach by applying the tools and traditions of the legal system, we can approach rational action in the public spheres:

Just as a lawyer commits to serious, focused actions when taking on a case, so can each of us, when trying to understand and form an opinion on a public issue, be more focused on the task, take an organized approach, find reliable information, and keep an open mind. (p. 144)

And as these terms and – more importantly – the methods we use are debated, Manaster asks us to consider the foundations or founding principles for ways to sort through the complexities that engagement requires.

In conclusion, let's return for a moment to the point made by Tolstoy in *War and Peace*. The difficult task may not be establishing truth and rationality in action: we know the rivers and streams need to be cleaned, that enrichment programs in the schools are needed, that we have to build the ability in our young to participate in democracy. The difficulty is helping individuals see past their personal and daily concerns. We can attempt this by connecting higher education learning to social needs and problems, but what resources will faculty have to build civic learning and engagement

into course work? From where will these resources come? Who will decide what social and economic problems need redress? While Manaster's argument is vital, idealistic, and a welcome renewal of the principles of the legal tradition and for civics in democracy, as Melville (1851) had it: "There are some enterprises in which a careful disorderliness is the true method" (p. 82). Between the order of the law and the disorderliness of the field of civic learning and engagement, can we say we have defined a true method? Thinking like a lawyer is helpful in devising risk management documents and liability issues, but it may not be the best method when it comes to handing out the work gloves or getting people to the polls. ■■

References

- American Association of Colleges and Universities (2012). *A Crucible Moment: College Learning & Democracy's Future, A Call to Action*. The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement. Retrieved from http://www.aacu.org/civic_learning/crucible/
- Kuh, G. D. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: An overview*. American Association of Colleges and Universities. Retrieved from <http://www.aacu.org/leap/hips>
- Melville, H. (1851). *Moby Dick*. London: Richard Bently.
- Tolstoy, L. (2007). *War and peace*. (Ann Dunnigan, Trans.). New York: Penguin, 2007. (Original work published 1869)
- Wilentz, S. (2006, September-October). History and democracy. *Harvard Magazine*. Retrieved from <http://harvardmagazine.com/2006/09/history-and-democracy.html>

Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal's *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership*

Shelley Nicholson

Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership. By Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal. 5th edition. Jossey-Bass, 2013. ISBN-13: 978-1118557389

Shelley Nicholson is Director of Community Learning at the Center for Civic Learning and Community Engagement at Mount Wachusett Community College.

Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership by Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal, first published in 1984, is a classic organizational development text now in its 5th edition (2013). This text is timeless and, according to the authors' definition, has soul. I first encountered the book in a master's program for higher education; I then used the text again for my doctoral work in higher education with a focus on organizational change. I am now using the text to teach a masters level course in building multicultural organizations. To that point, the text itself is relevant across a variety of disciplines and is also relevant when examining for-profit and non-profit organizations. The book is useful no matter the lens through which the course is being taught, including diversity in organizations, leadership in organizations, or strategic change within organizations.

The authors have developed a companion website with lesson plans, videos, and activities to be used in the classroom or for corporate professional development. These companion resources allow for continuous updates regarding content and the opportunity for others to share their best practices. For a text with scant references to higher education, I cannot think of a more appropriate book to illustrate the complexities of higher education from the organizational perspective.

The text is broken into what the authors call frames, which are four distinct perspectives or mental maps from which to analyze an organization. The first frame is structural and the metaphor given for this frame is a factory or a machine. This is the skeleton or bones of an organization. The next frame, human resources, is given the metaphor of family as it relates to individuals and how they interact with one another to address their needs and wants. The political frame, characterized as a jungle, addresses power and conflict as well as the dangers of competing organizations. Finally, the last frame is the symbolic frame. This frame views an organization as a carnival or theater. The central theme of this frame is culture, inspiration, and the ability to make meaning of the organization. Taken as a whole the four frames can provide insight into the successes and failings of an organization and its leadership. In

this sense, this book is as relevant today as it was when first published thirty years ago.

An unofficial fifth frame is not mentioned in the text, but has been put forth by others in the field such as Argyris and Schön (1974) and Benathy (1995), and that is the systems frame. This is the frame which ties all of the frames together and provides insights into how and why change happens within an organization. I would like to see this frame discussed by Bolman and Deal in a future edition of the text. Should the 5th edition be the final edition, I hope other organizational theorists will pick up this thread and further weave the unofficial fifth frame into the ground-breaking work conducted by Bolman and Deal.

In regards to the original four frames, each frame provides a different lens through which to view an organization. The structural frame focuses on how to organize and structure groups for optimum performance while the human resource frame focuses on the satisfaction of human needs and how effectively to build group dynamics and positive interpersonal dynamics. The political frame addresses how to deal with power and conflict which arises both inside and outside the organization as a result of politics. One of the aspects which resonates well with our work in higher education is the discussion on the external political pressures an organization faces. This is equally true at state and private institutions. Finally, the symbolic frame provides insight into how culture is shaped within an organization. This is often something that is taken for granted and the authors guide readers on how to deconstruct the culture of an organization from its origin story to its mythical or heroic figures. When utilizing this text to examine an organization, the symbolic frame provides the possibility of the richest qualitative data.

In each frame, the authors provide case studies and timely examples. The bulk of the updates to this text over time have been in the case studies and various organizations cited to illustrate concepts of organiza-

tional development. Over the years world events such as 9/11 and the Iraq War have been added, in addition to case studies on complex multinational organizations such as Microsoft, McDonalds, and Kodak. At the same time, other organizations once lauded as examples of the best in organizational management have been removed or deconstructed after their down fall such as Enron, Circuit City, and Saturn.

The text pulls from various disciplines including business, psychology, social and cultural anthropology, political science, and sociology to analyze what it takes to be a successful leader in a complex organization. One of the most profound and enduring aspects of the text is the section following the four frames which focuses on deconstructing leadership models in an effort to reframe them. In this last section, the authors discuss the assets and deficits brought to an organization through various leadership models as viewed through the four frames.

For visual learners, the text contains several pictographs illustrating how the frames interact with one another. In addition, different types of management and leadership styles are represented through case studies, pictographs, and an authentic discussion on the myth of leadership. Leadership is also examined through the lenses of gender, race, and faith. Reframing organizational change is addressed in an effort to provide effective management strategies to overcome barriers or resistance to change. One area of emphasis which I found particularly interesting and helpful was the concept of organizations having spirit or soul. To view an organization as one would a living person provides a unique perspective to how an organization can thrive or fail: "Soul can always be viewed as a resolute sense of character, a deep confidence about who we are, what we are about, and what we deeply believe" (pg. 400). An example mentioned of an organization which demonstrates soul is a pharmaceutical company selling life-saving medication to over-exploited countries at a

loss. There are also examples of those that demonstrate the opposite of soul such as the infamous Enron.

The authors also pull in various other perspectives on organizational development and experts in other fields throughout the text. These include insights into leadership from Peter Senge and Chris Argyris, as well as pioneers in human psychology and human relations such as Abraham Maslow and an examination of his hierarchy of needs. Also highlighted is Douglas McGregor and his Theory X and Theory Y, which provides a model for human resource management. Argyris and Schön (1974) are also highlighted for their theories in use and espoused theories and their relevance in understanding interpersonal dynamics at play within an organization.

While this text appears to be timeless, thanks in part to the author's willingness to issue subsequent editions of the book, I am left wondering who will be the next to carry on this work. Will this text endure for another three decades? I can only hope other scholars continue where Bolman and Deal have left off as organizations continue to evolve and the need for strong leaders and facilitators of change continues. ■■

References

- Argyris, C., & Schon, D. A. (1974). *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Benathy, B. (1995). *Systems view of institutional change*. AAAS Symposium on the Future of Education Delivery Systems.

Staff

Editor: Ana Perez-Manrique

Guest Co-Editors: Joyce Mandell
and Mark Wagner

Book Review Editors: Sean C.

Goodlett and Kisha Tracy

Editorial Assistant: Shannon Curran

Editorial Advisory Board

Daron Barnard, Biology

Maria Fung, Mathematics

Sean Goodlett, History (Fitchburg
State University)

Ruth Haber, English

Matthew Johnsen, Sociology

Jeffrey Nichols, Chemistry

Josna Rege, English

Dan Shartin, Philosophy

Kisha Tracy (Fitchburg
State University)

Karl Wurst, Computer Science

Design: Nikhil Melnechuk

nikhil@melnechuk.com

Reviewers

Frederick Dotolo, *St. John Fisher College*; Stephanie Chalupka, *Worcester State University*; Pennie Ticen, *Virginia Military Institute*; Jim Henry, *University of Hawai'i at Minoa*; Thomas Conroy, *Worcester State University*; Colby King, *Bridgewater State University*; Pamela Ludemann, *Framingham State University*; Vincent Ferraro, *Framingham State University*; Micki Davis, *Clark University*; Erika Briesacher, *Worcester State University*; Jesse Kavadlo, *Maryville*

University; Donald Vescio, *Worcester State University*; Kim Hicks, *Holyoke Community College*; Maria Fung, *Worcester State University*; John Chetro-Szivos, *Fitchburg State University*; MaryLyn Saul, *Worcester State University*; Amanda Wittman, *University of Massachusetts*; Christina Bebas, *Worcester State University*; Jennifer Schulz, *Seattle University*; Bonnie Kanner, *Worcester State University*; Ramon Borges-Mendez, *Clark University*; Aimee Lutz, *Worcester State University*; Matthew Johnsen, *Worcester State University*; Nathan Dickman, *Young Harris College*; Rahim Al-Kaleem, *Worcester State University*; David Marlow, *University of South Carolina Upstate*; Fatima Serra, *Salem State University*; Aeron Haynie, *University of New Mexico*; Mariana Cecilia Calle, *Worcester State University*; Elizabeth Duclos-Orsello, *Salem State University*; Amy Ebbeson, *Worcester State University*; James Bailey, *Kaplan University*; Jennifer Berg, *Fitchburg State University*; Mary-Ellen Boyle, *Clark University*; Brandi Silver, *Worcester State University*; Antonio Vivoni, *Worcester State University*; Josna Rege, *Worcester State University*; Daniel Shartin, *Worcester State University*; Charles Cullum, *Worcester State University*; Cleve Wiese, *Worcester State University*; Amy West, *Worcester State University*; Ruth Haber, *Worcester State University*

Currents in Teaching and Learning is a peer-reviewed electronic journal that fosters exchanges among reflective teacher-scholars across the disciplines. Published twice a year, *Currents* seeks to improve teaching and learning in higher education with short reports on classroom practices as well as longer research, theoretical, or conceptual articles and explorations of issues and challenges facing teachers today. Non-specialist and jargon-free, *Currents* is addressed to both faculty and graduate students in higher education, teaching in all academic disciplines.

Subscriptions

If you wish to be notified when each new issue of *Currents* becomes available online and to receive our Calls for Submissions and other announcements, please join our *Currents* Subscribers' Listserv. [Subscribe Here](#).

CALL FOR SUBMISSIONS

Currents invites general submissions for its Fall 2015 issue, including:

Short reports from different disciplines on classroom practices (2850-5700 words).

Longer research theoretical, or conceptual articles, and explorations of issues and challenges facing teachers today (5700-7125 words).

Book and Website reviews.

We welcome both individual and group submissions. All submissions must be original, previously unpublished work. Submissions received after these dates will be reviewed on a rolling basis.

Submissions Deadline, Volume 8, Number 1 (Fall 2015): April 15, 2015.

Submissions Deadline, Volume 8, Number 2 (Spring 2016): November 15, 2015.

Submissions and Contact Information

Please address all submissions and inquiries to Ana Perez-Manrique via e-mail:

currents@worchester.edu.

For further information and submissions guidelines see our website:

www.worcester.edu/currents.

Currents in Teaching and Learning is a publication of The Center for Teaching and Learning, Worcester State University, Worcester, Massachusetts, U.S.A.

ISSN: 1945-3043 © 2015, Worcester State University

