

An Examination Of The Service-learning Program At A Comprehensive University Through The Lenses Of Program Theory And Institutional Theory

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE SERVICE-LEARNING PROGRAM
AT A COMPREHENSIVE UNIVERSITY
THROUGH THE LENSES OF
PROGRAM THEORY AND INSTITUTIONAL THEORY

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
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ABSTRACT

Case study design, employing qualitative research methods, was used to document and examine a mandatory service-learning program at a new, comprehensive, public university. The study examined S-L from multiple perspectives. Institutional theory provided a framework for examining the influence of the environment on the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of service-learning. Program theory was used to identify and analyze the program's conceptual underpinnings, including goals and objectives, intended outcomes for students, and program processes. Knowledge of how a program is supposed to work is useful for developing assessment questions, evaluating institutional effectiveness, and improving program performance.

The study included a review of the history of service-learning at the university. Data were collected during the fall 2005 semester and were analyzed using both process and variance modes. Data sources included the following: 35 documents, which spanned the years 1991-2005; interviews with seven faculty members and four academic administrators; and observations of three meetings of service-learning courses, a Government and Not-for-Profit Service Learning Job Fair, and five meetings where service-learning was a primary topic of discussion. Previous studies served as the basis for the following researcher-developed constructs used to code text across data sources: *social/civic outcomes*, *personal outcomes*, *learning outcomes*, and *career outcomes*. Findings suggest that the goals and outcomes associated with S-L found in university documents clustered around social and civic involvement, while outcomes reported by faculty during interviews focused on students' personal development and learning related to course content. In general, university documents

contained goals and objectives written in vague language, a finding consistent with previous studies.

To my husband, John, and my friend and mentor, Joseph.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CCE	Center for Civic Engagement
CIRP	Cooperative Institutional Research Program
COOL	Campus Outreach Opportunity League
FIPSE	Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education
ISAS	Project on Integrating Service with Academic Study
LSAHE	Learn and Serve America, Higher Education
NCPSI	National Center for Public Service Internships
NCSA	National and Community Service Act of 1990
NCSL	National Center for Service-Learning
NCSTA	National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993
NSIEE	National Society for Internships and Experiential Education
NSEE	National Society for Experiential Education
NSVP	National Student Volunteer Program
ORINS	Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies
QEP	Quality Enhancement Plan
S-L	Service-Learning
SFEE	Society for Field Experience Education
SREB	Southern Regional Education Board
VISTA	Volunteer to Service in America
UYA	University Year for ACTION

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The number and type of activities associated with the concept of service-learning (S-L) have grown significantly since the term was first created to describe an internship program that operated during the late 1960s and the 1970s under the direction of the Southern Regional Education Board (1970). In the intervening years, S-L at colleges and universities across the United States has taken many forms including philosophy, pedagogical method, and program. As philosophy, S-L has promoted community development, empowerment, social change, and service to others. As a pedagogical method, S-L has been used to foster student learning and development through concrete service experiences and intentional reflection. As a program, S-L has become a primary mechanism by which institutions of higher education fulfill their service missions and prepare students to become contributing citizens in a democratic society.

A case study design, employing qualitative research methods, was used to document and examine the mandatory S-L program at a new, public, comprehensive university in the United States. Data were collected during fall 2005. Data sources included the following: 35 documents, spanning the years 1991-2005; interviews with seven faculty members and four academic administrators; observations of three class meetings of S-L courses, a Government and Not-for-Profit Service Learning Job Fair, and five meetings where S-L was a primary topic of discussion. The program was examined on two levels. First, institutional theory provided a framework for identifying and examining social, cultural, and environmental issues that

influenced the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L. Second, program theory was used to identify the program's conceptual underpinnings, including goals and objectives, intended outcomes for students, and program processes. Program theory, defined as “the construction of a plausible and sensible model of how a program is supposed to work” (Bickman, 1987, p. 5), can be used to develop assessment questions, improve program performance, and evaluate institutional effectiveness (Rogers, 2005).

A primary goal of all postsecondary institutions is to provide programs and services that enhance student learning and development (Council for Higher Education Accreditation [CHEA], 2003). To demonstrate effectiveness in meeting this goal, colleges and universities have been asked to provide “evidence of student learning outcomes” (Ewell, 2001; Maki, 2001; Newman, 2003). Any discussion of learning outcomes assumes a conceptual understanding of how and why an educational program would result in certain consequences for students. In other words, an institution's faculty and administration need to understand the processes by which resources and activities are expected to come together to produce intended outcomes. Only then can observed outcomes be linked with presumed causes.

Statement of the Problem

S-L has been conceptualized in many ways both across institutions and within a single institution, and the formal conventions that have guided practice and research in traditional disciplines have not been developed for S-L (Waldstein, 2003). Further, the effectiveness of S-L in achieving intended student outcomes has been difficult to document (Bradley, 2003). Many studies of S-L have yielded mixed or ambiguous results because:

1. The predictor variable was identified merely as S-L or was otherwise not well specified (Eyler, 2000; Rama, Ravenscroft, Wolcott, & Zlotkowski, 2000).
2. The intended and actual outcome variables were not well specified (Bradley, 2003; Rama et al., 2000; Waterman, 2003).
3. The relationships between the S-L experiences (predictor variables) and intended outcomes (dependent variables) were implausible or not well articulated (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Eyler, 2000).
4. Research designs and instruments were weak or inappropriate (Rama et al., 2000).
5. Confounding life events made it difficult to determine impact (Waterman, 2003).

Authorities in the field of S-L have called for additional research to “(a) develop theory that explains the process and outcomes of service-learning, (b) improve the practice of service-learning courses and programs, (c) facilitate developing a culture of evidence and assessment on campuses, (d) offer a justification for increased allocation of campus resources to service-learning, and (e) provide a basis for developing policy associated with institutionalization of service learning in higher education” (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000, p. 74).

Purpose Statement

The purpose in conducting this study was to document and examine a mandatory S-L program at a new, public, comprehensive university. This university was located in one of the five largest and fastest growing states in the country. It enrolled its first students in fall 1997, and its current mission statement states that the university “infuses the strengths of the traditional public university with innovation and learning-centered spirit.”

This study was not an evaluation of S-L, nor was it an evaluation of any aspect of the university that offered the program that was studied. The evaluation literature makes a clear distinction between the act of explicating program theory and the act of conducting an evaluation. Program theory can serve as the basis for formulating and prioritizing evaluation questions, but the process of explicating program theory is not in itself an evaluation. As Rein (quoted in Weiss, 1998) stated, “a program is a theory and an evaluation is a test” (p. 55).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study drew from two sources: institutional theory and program theory. Institutional theory (Oliver, 1991; Scott, 2001) provided a framework for examining the influence of the environment on the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L across the nation and at the study site. Program theory (Bickman, 1987, 2000; Rossi, Freeman, & Lipsey, 1999; Weiss, 1972, 1995, 1998) provided a tool for analyzing the local S-L program. Institutional theory and program theory are explained in the following pages.

Institutional Theory

Institutional theory, a branch of organizational science, gained prominence during the mid-1970s. Prior to that time, most researchers thought of organizations as production systems. Institutional theorists expanded upon this conception when they described social and cultural aspects of organizations and explored how the environment shapes, constrains, and renews organizations (Scott, 2001). Scott provided insight into this perspective when he wrote, “To an institutionalist, knowledge of what has gone before is vital information. The ideas and insights

of our predecessors provide the context for current efforts and the platform on which we necessarily craft our own contribution” (Scott, p. 47). He provided the following “omnibus conception” of institutions:

1. Institutions are social structures that have attained a high degree of resilience.
2. Institutions are composed of cultural-cognitive, normative, and regulative elements, that together with associated activities and resources, provide stability and meaning to social life.
3. Institutions are transmitted by various types of carriers, including symbolic systems, relational systems, routines, and artifacts.
4. Institutions operate at multiple levels of jurisdiction, from the world system to localized interpersonal relationships.
5. Institutions by definition connote stability but are subject to change processes, both incremental and discontinuous. (Scott, p. 48)

Contemporary institutional thought has multiple strands that vary according to their treatment of three institutional “pillars” (Scott, 2001, p. 51): regulative systems, normative systems, and cultural-cognitive systems. These systems were referred to as pillars because they served as supports and frameworks for institutions and institutionalizing. The three institutional pillars are described below:

1. The regulative pillar: The prevailing thought in institutional theory has been that institutions constrain, regularize, and influence behavior through rule-setting, monitoring, and sanctioning activities. Social order is maintained through a “stable system of rules, either formal or informal, backed by surveillance and sanctioning power” (Scott, 2001, p. 54). Regulating forces may include rewards, fear, punishment, and coercion. The police and the courts are examples of formal regulating mechanisms, and folkways such as shunning or shaming are examples of informal mechanisms.

2. The normative pillar: Another group of institutional theorists explored the “normative rules that introduce a prescriptive, evaluative, and obligatory dimension into social life” (Scott, 2001, p. 54). These theorists recognized the potential of values and norms in both promoting and constraining social behaviors. Values were conceptualized as preferred or desirable states. Norms were conceptualized as both (a) goals and objectives (e.g., winning the game); and (b) appropriate ways of pursuing goals and objectives (e.g., rules about how to play the game). Social roles were identified as mechanisms that provided mutual reinforcement. In the process of mutual reinforcement, the incumbent in a role (individual or organization) perceives the expectations of others as external pressures. When external pressures are internalized, the incumbent adopts new behaviors consistent with the external pressures. Finally, others validate and reinforce the new behaviors.

3. The cultural-cognitive pillar: A third group of institutional theorists explored how individuals attached meaning to external stimuli. The label *cognitive-cultural* was hyphenated to emphasize the notion that “internal interpretative processes are shaped by external cultural frameworks” (Scott, 2001, p. 58). In this thread, social reality is made up of shared conceptions and taken-for-granted assumptions of how things are done. Social roles and scripts develop over time as repeated patterns become “habitualized and objectified” (Scott, p. 58). Frequently, compliance with expectations occurred because individuals (or organizations) developed common frameworks of meanings, and it was inconceivable to behave in any manner that was inconsistent with shared understandings.

Scott (2001) identified six categories of institutions, based on the “range of jurisdiction of the institutional form” (p. 83). The categories, from broader to narrower, include world-system, society, organizational field, organization population, organization, and organization subsystem.

Institutions at all levels have characteristics, features, and properties that influence other institutions. As organization subsystems, S-L programs have been influenced by regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive forces that originated at various levels including the university, state governance, higher education, and society (see Figure 1).

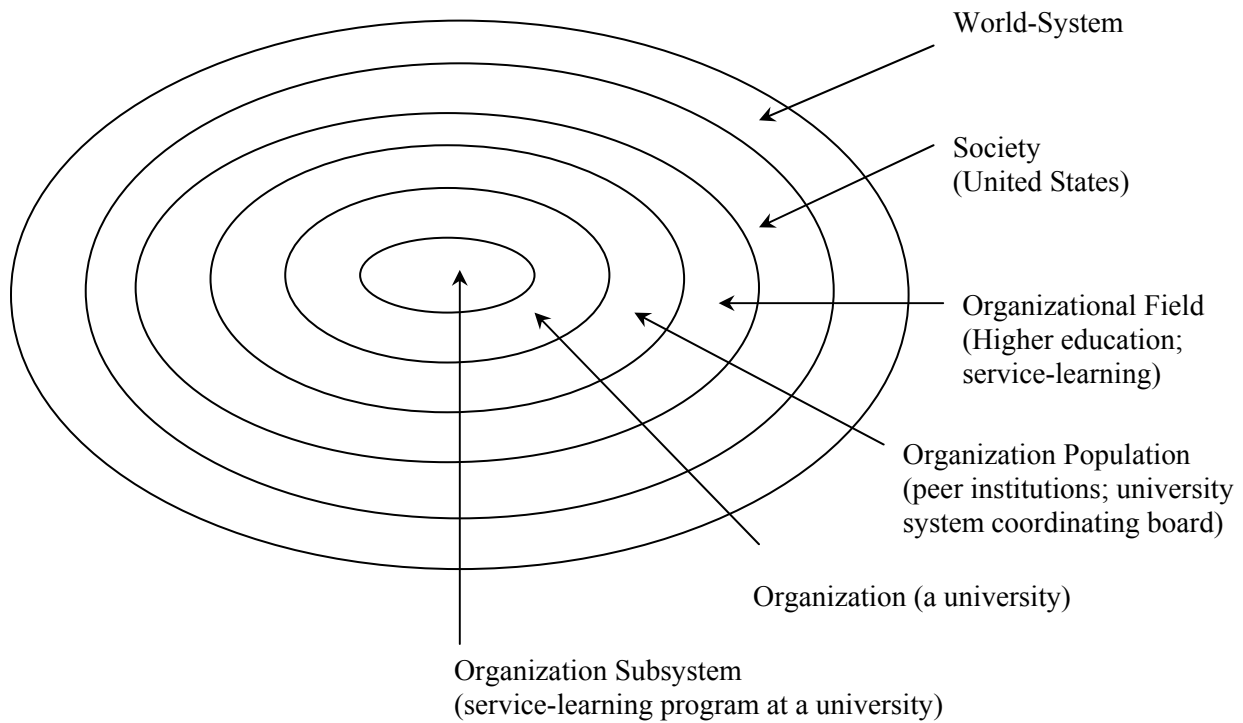


Figure 1: Levels of Institutions

Program Theory

Program theory has served as a conceptual framework for understanding complex social phenomena and for improving the design, performance, and quality of numerous programs in the private, public, and non-profit sectors as well as in the international arena (Rogers, 2005).

According to Bickman (2000), the concept of program theory emerged during the late 1970s and early 1980s when evaluation practitioners and theorists “seemed to simultaneously ‘discover’ the need to describe better the underpinnings of the programs that we were evaluating” (p. 103).

Evaluation theorists and practitioners have defined the term *program theory* in various ways.

Weiss (1972) provided one of the earliest definitions: “The theory of the program posits a sequence of events from input to outcome; in order to reach the desired end, certain sub-goals have to be achieved” (p. 48). Wholey (1987) argued that program theory identified “the program resources, program activities, and intended program outcomes, and specifies a chain of causal assumptions linking program resources, activities, intermediate outcomes, and ultimate goals” (p. 78). Rossi et al. (1999) provided another perspective: Program theory is the “set of assumptions about the relationships between the strategy and tactics the program has adopted and the social benefits it is expected to produce” (p. 98).

In this context, the term *theory* meant plan, blueprint, or “set of beliefs that underlies action” (Weiss, 1998, p. 55). One program may have multiple theories operating simultaneously. Goals, objectives, and outcomes are integral components of program theory and are generally identified as proximal (short-term), intermediate, or distal (long-term). Regardless of timeframe, the ultimate goal of any social program should be a “specifiable improvement in the social conditions the program addresses” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 167).

To aid in explicating and analyzing program theory, Rossi et al. (1999) recommended dividing the concept into two interrelated subcomponents: process theory and impact theory (see Figure 2). Process theory describes operational goals and objectives, program administration, and the manner by which the target population (in this study, students) interacts with program services and activities. Impact theory describes assumptions and expectations about the relationships between program activities (outputs) and intended outcomes (results, benefits, or consequences) for the target population. Mohr (1995) described impact as the difference between what happened as a result of implementing the program as compared to what would have happened had the program not been implemented. Impact theory is causal theory: “It describes the cause-and-effect sequence in which certain program activities are the instigating causes and certain social benefits are the effects they eventually produce” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 102).

The most important step in explicating impact theory, and thus program theory, is identifying central intended outcomes:

Because program theory deals mainly with means-end relations, the most critical aspect of defining program boundaries is to ensure that they encompass all the important activities, events, and resources linked to one or more outcomes recognized as central to the endeavor. This involves a form of backward mapping in which the point of departure is a set of well-defined program objectives relating to the social benefits the program intends to produce. (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 162)

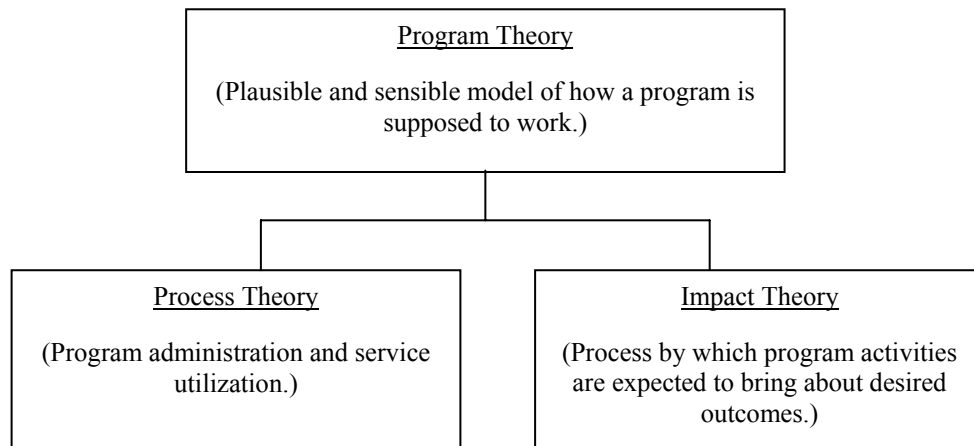


Figure 2: Components of Program Theory

A program's theory, or theory of change (Weiss, 1998), can be simple or it can be intricate with multiple levels and feedback paths. The elements and the relationships among elements in program theory can be presented in various formats, including narrative, matrix, flowchart, or logic model (Cooksy, Gill, & Kelly, 2001; Funnell, 2000; McLaughlin & Jordan, 1999). The process and product of articulating program theory have been successfully used to clarify intended outcomes, identify unintended consequences, enhance buy-in and team building, and improve programming quality (Bickman, 1987, 2000; Kellogg Foundation, 2004; McLaughlin & Jordan, 2004; Rogers, 2000, 2005; University of Wisconsin-Extension, n.d.).

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding the goals and objectives of the service-learning program at the case study site?

2. What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding student outcomes that are expected to result from participation in the service-learning program at the case study site?
3. What are the processes by which service-learning program resources and activities are expected to come together to produce intended outcomes for students?

Methodology

A case study design, employing qualitative research methods, was used to document and examine the mandatory S-L program at a new, public, comprehensive university. Data analyses used both process and variance modes. The process mode used chronologies and looked for connections within the big picture, and the variance mode sought out similarities and conceptual patterns within the data, with less emphasis on sequence and time (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Scott, 2001). Data were collected during the fall 2005 term. Data sources included the following: 35 documents, which spanned the years 1991-2005; interviews with seven faculty members and five academic administrators; observations of three meetings of S-L courses, a Government and Not-for-Profit Service Learning Job Fair, and five meetings where S-L was a primary topic of discussion.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used in this study:

Development: The “redefining of the self in more complex and more distinct ways, yet at the same time putting all the parts together in an integrated fashion” (McEwen, 1996, p. 56).

Impact theory: The process by which program activities are expected to bring about the desired outcomes (benefits or consequences) for program participants (Rossi et al., 1999).

Learning: The ““acquisition or knowledge or behavior’ as a result of one’s experiences (Mayer, 1982, p. 1040) or, in this setting, one’s education” (Erwin, 1991, p. 18).

Process theory: A program’s organizational plan and the process by which program participants interact with the program’s activities (Rossi et al., 1999).

Program: “A planned, organized, and usually ongoing set of activities carried out for the purpose of improving some social condition” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 23).

Program theory: “The construction of a plausible and sensible model of how a program is supposed to work” (Bickman, 1987, p. 5). Program theory has also been referred to as the theory of the program, the program’s theory, or theory of change (Weiss, 1998).

Outcomes: Changes or benefits for individuals, groups, organizations, systems, or communities. In general, outcomes relate to the knowledge, skills, attitudes, motivations, values, capacities, behaviors, practices, policies, decision making, and actions that occur that affect economic, social, civic, and environmental conditions (University of Wisconsin-Extension).

Program goal: “A statement, usually general and abstract, of a desired state toward which a program is directed” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 78)

Program objectives: “Specific, operationalized statements detailing the desired accomplishments of a program” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 78). A clear objective has a single aim and a single end-product or result. Purpose or aim describes what will be done; end-product or result describes evidence that will exist when it is done.

Service-learning: A type of experiential education that includes community service (Campus Compact, n.d.)

Limitations and Delimitations

As a case study, the subject of interest was delimited to the S-L program at a particular comprehensive university in the United States. Traditionally, case study has not provided a sound basis for generalization to other situations (Stake, 1995); consequently, this study may be of limited value to others. In addition, because the participants in the study were volunteers, the information collected could not be considered as truly representative of all beliefs and perspectives relating to the S-L at the study site.

Significance of the Study

Colleges and universities have been asked to justify their existence, document what students have learned and could do, and describe how the collegiate experience contributed to student learning and development (Eaton, 2003; National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 2004; Newman 2003). The use of program theory to examine the S-L program at a comprehensive university may:

1. Contribute to the understanding of the S-L program at the study site, which may enhance practice.
2. Provide information for developing policy associated with the institutionalization of S-L at the study site.
3. Provide information that could be used for the purposes of continuous improvement, accountability, and institutional effectiveness at the study site.
4. Provide a foundation for further research regarding the conceptual underpinnings of S-L.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were recognized with respect to this study:

1. The faculty, administrators, and other study participants will honestly and objectively respond to questions presented by the researcher.
2. The faculty, program administrators, and other key individuals provided all existing documentation of program development and operation and the documents are accurate.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study. Chapter 2 includes a review of the relevant literature to acquaint the reader with the history of the S-L movement in the United States and contemporary thought on S-L. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used in this study. Chapter 4 presents the results of documents reviews, interviews, and observations. Chapter 5 includes a summary and discussion of findings and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Qualitative research is based on the principle that “the particular physical, historical, material, and social environment in which people find themselves has a great bearing on what they think and how they act” (Smith, 1987, p. 175). Both institutional theorists and evaluation theorists have promoted the notion that historical events serve as the basis for contemporary actions (Scott, 2001; Weiss, 1998). Thus, the numerous conceptualizations of S-L over the years have been the result of previous events, activities, and interpretations. The purpose of this review of the literature was to acquaint the reader with the history and background of the S-L movement in the United States. The chapter begins with a brief description of contemporary definitions and uses of the term *service-learning*. This will be followed by five sections that described the historical role of service in higher education, the early S-L movement including motivations of pioneers, and support for and challenges to early S-L activity.

The following two sections described how the conception of S-L changed as it became integrated into mainstream practices in higher education. The review of the literature concluded with five sections that described contemporary S-L thought including theoretical, conceptual, and philosophical foundations; mechanisms used to evaluate the quality and effectiveness of S-L; the role of S-L in the academic curriculum; reported outcomes for students; and theories of student learning and development that are particularly relevant to S-L. Table 1 provided a timeline of initiatives and events organized by two broad periods of S-L activity: the pioneer

period (1964-1979) and the early mainstream period (1980-1995). The activities and events listed in Table 1 were described in the review of the literature because they set the stage for the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L at the study site.

Table 1: Timeline of Events and Activities Influencing Service-Learning

	1964-1979 (Pioneer Period)	1980-1995 (Early Mainstream Period)
National Initiatives and Events Impacting Service-Learning	- 1 st S-L program (1964)	- COOL (1984)
	- Civil Rights Act (1964)	- Campus Compact (1985)
	- NSVP (1969)	- 20-Year CIRP Report (1987)
	- S-L Conference (1969)	- ISAS (1989)
	- UYA (1971)	- Wingspread Principles (1989)
	- SFEE (1971)	- NCSA (1990)
	- NCPSI (1972)	- NCSTA (1993)
	- FIPSE (1972)	- Clinton letter (1994)
	- NSIEE (1978)	- Presidents' Declaration on Civic Responsibility (1999)
	- NCSL (1979)	

Service-Learning Defined

Service-learning has taken many forms, and there has been little consensus as to its meaning. A 1990 literature review identified more than 147 different definitions (Kendall, 1990). Further, various word combinations have been used frequently, but inconsistently, as substitutes. These combinations included *academic service-learning*, *community-based learning*, *community service*, *community service learning*, *civic engagement*, and *civic purposes of higher education* (Howard, Gelmon, & Giles, 2000). S-L has been commonly thought of as a type of experiential education that includes community service (Campus Compact, n.d.). The National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (n.d.) defined S-L as a “teaching and learning strategy

that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities.”

Service in American Higher Education

Contemporary S-L practice has been linked to the public purposes of American higher education (Jacoby & Associates, 1996). As Rudolph (1962) noted, “from the beginning, the American college was cloaked with a public purpose, with a responsibility to the past and the present and the future” (p. 177). Traditionally, the mission statements at most colleges and universities in the United States have reflected three priorities: teaching, research, and service (Boyer, 1990; Crosson, 1985). The teaching and research missions were adaptations of English and German models (Cohen, 1998; Rudolph, 1962). The archetypal English university focused on culture and the production of aristocrats, and the archetypal German university focused on scholarship and the production of scholars. The American university, on the other hand, incorporated elements of both the English and German models and focused the production of citizens who could contribute to society through public service (Rudolph, 1962). Consequently, higher education’s service mission has been labeled as uniquely American (Cohen). This point was emphasized in 1896 by future president of the United States Woodrow Wilson: “It is not learning but the spirit of service that will give a college a place in the annals of the nation” (Wilson, 1896, ¶43).

The eight colonial colleges established in the New World between 1636 and 1769 were considered “social investments” (Rudolph, 1962, p. 58). The colonial colleges served society by producing ministers, civil servants, teachers, and statesmen; preserving the social order; teaching young men proper conduct; and supporting the state as an “instructor in loyalty, in citizenship,

and in the dictates of conscience and faith” (Rudolph, 1962, p. 31). The signing of the Declaration of Independence in 1776 added another public purpose for higher education: the promotion of liberty and democracy (Lucas, 1994). As the United States expanded westward, higher education gained yet another public purpose: the preparation of individuals who could build roads and railroads, develop mines, and increase agricultural production (Lucas, p. 135).

Higher education’s public purposes expanded dramatically between 1850 and 1950 when the number of institutions quintupled and new institutional forms (e.g., research universities, agricultural schools, junior colleges, professional schools, state colleges, and experimental colleges) were created to address special needs and previously underserved populations (Cohen, 1998). The Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 and similar legislation supported higher education’s service mission by promoting the agricultural and mechanical arts and cooperative extension programs (Westmeyer, 1997). During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, institutions of higher education and supporters of the Progressive Movement joined forces to improve social conditions and promote material and moral progress (Miller, 1998; Veysey, 1965). According to Rudolph (1962), the progressive spirit and the promise of higher education promoted and reinforced the service elements of both.

During the twentieth century, a college or university education became more of a right than a privilege. In the 1940s and 1950s, higher education’s public purposes expanded to accommodate returning World War II veterans and the growing middle class who sought social and economic advancement (Rudolph, 1977). The Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Higher Education Act of 1965, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and other legislation authorized special programs to ameliorate inequities associated with ethnicity, disability, gender, and socioeconomic status (Cohen, 1998).

As a result, colleges and universities were asked to fulfill “yet another purpose—higher education for everyone” (Rudolph, 1977, p. 282).

Over the years, the service missions of institutions have been fulfilled through numerous mechanisms including teaching and research, the creation of ideas and products, social criticism, social problem solving, and social activism (Crosson, 1985). The manifestations of service have differed by sector (public or private, and level) and category of recipient (internal or external; business, government, industry, and community). For the individual faculty member, service had philosophical and pedagogical implications. Stanton, Giles, and Cruz (1999) argued that service was a “much contested” term that could be “understood as charity, with the goal of addressing immediate needs, or it can focus on resolving deeply embedded social problems and bringing about structural changes in both social and economic relations” (p. 18). For early S-L practitioners, service took the form of action to promote community development, action to produce effective citizens, and action to change society and foster social justice.

Pioneers of the Service-Learning Movement

In collecting data for *Service-Learning: A Movement’s Pioneers Reflect on Its Origins, Practice, and Future*, Stanton et al. (1999) interviewed 33 of the S-L movement’s early practitioners. For the purposes of their study, “pioneers” included individuals who became involved in service during the period 1930 to 1985. The year 1985 was selected as the last date that a pioneer could have entered the S-L field because Campus Compact, an organization of college and university presidents that promoted student service, was founded in 1985. That organization’s presence fundamentally changed the scene from “individualized pioneer efforts to a more institutionalized one” (Stanton et al., p. 7). Stanton et al. referred to the early S-L

practitioners as pioneers because the term described their “independent, entrepreneurial, pathbreaking” efforts as well as the possibility “that those exploring service-learning may have been blinded by their idealism as nineteenth century American pioneers were by the doctrine of manifest destiny” (p. 10).

The pioneers had various reasons for becoming involved with service. During their youth and college years, most were influenced by the social issues of the times including civil rights, worker rights, socioeconomic status, and imperialism. Stanton et al. (1999) identified three motivations for involvement in S-L: (a) using education to address community needs and promote community development, (b) using community service to produce an effective citizenry, and (c) using education to bring about social justice. Regardless of original motives, the actions of the S-L pioneers were influenced by “institutional contexts, roles, and locality in terms of geography, demographics, social problems, and community leadership at hand” (Stanton et al., p. 95). Most pioneers were affiliated with postsecondary institutions at some point in their professional careers. Six initially worked with high school or middle school youth and two worked with adults. Eight began their professional careers in community-based organizations or governmental agencies.

Early Service-Learning Activity

Much of the formal S-L activity during the years 1960 through 1980 involved internship programs for college and university students. These internship programs took three general forms: (a) rural community development programs, (b) local urban government programs, and (c) traditional state public service programs (Pollack, 1997).

Rural Community Development Internship Programs

In the mid-1960s, Bill Ramsay and Bob Sigmon developed the first program to be labeled *service-learning*. Initially, this was a small internship program that operated through the Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies (ORINS) in Tennessee, a consortium of “major institutions of the South formed to be the liaison between higher education and the atomic energy program” (Ramsay, as cited in Stanton et al., 1999, p. 64). Explicit program goals included involving higher education in addressing social and community problems and developing manpower through internships, technology training programs, seminars, and conferences.

In 1967, the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB, 1973) in Atlanta, Georgia, assumed administrative oversight of the ORINS internship program. Program developers Ramsay and Sigmon moved to Atlanta with the program and began to conceptualize their approach to S-L. Ramsay recalled the search for an appropriate name:

We decided to call it service-learning, because *service* implied a value consideration that none of the other words we came up with did. In my mind, it was never intended to restrict us to those things that can be put in a box called service. It was more of an attitude, more of an approach to be of service. It’s not just any experience that’s important for the kind of education we were talking about. We were looking for something with a value connotation that would link action with a value of reflection on that action—a disciplined reflection. That was the model. It had to be real service—not academics, not made up, not superficial, not tangential, but real—and that’s why it had to be agency based. It also had to be something that involved disciplined learning, not just casual learning. (Ramsay, as cited in Stanton et al., 1999, p. 67)

In 1969, the City of Atlanta; the Atlanta Urban Corps; Economic Opportunity Atlanta; colleges and universities in Atlanta; the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Volunteers in Service to America; and the Peace Corps sponsored a major conference to explore how the abstract concept of S-L could be developed and organized for diffusion into other states (SREB, 1970). The resulting conference report contained one of the first definitions of S-L:

SERVICE-LEARNING whose definition is “the integration of the accomplishment of a needed task with educational growth,” and whose goals are:

- to accomplish needed public services
- to add breadth and depth and relevance to students’ learning
- to offer a productive avenue of communication and cooperation between public agencies and institutions of higher education
- to give students exposure to, testing of, and experience in public service careers
- to increase the number of well-qualified young people entering public service careers, and
- to give young people, whatever line of work they chose to enter, front-line experience with today’s problems so they will be better equipped to solve them as adult citizens. (SREB, 1970, p. iii; presentation in original)

The SREB program, later called the Resource Development Internship Program, served as a model for internship programs throughout the country. The Economic Development Administration, established under the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965, provided funds and support for these programs. By 1973, over 4000 projects had been established in almost every state of the country (Pollack, 1997). Most of these programs were marginal to the traditional workings of higher education, and they disappeared when funding was withdrawn in the late 1970s.

Local Urban Government Internship Programs

The New York City Urban Corps, established in 1966, provided another perspective on S-L programming. In this and similar initiatives, community organizers collaborated with universities to create programs that accomplished dual purposes: (a) students would learn about the city and be paid for their work, and (b) the city would receive low-cost manpower assistance. Another long-term goal was “to build a more involved citizenry for the city” (Stanton et al., 1999, p. 70). Federal financial aid funds from college work-study programs were used to pay part of the student interns’ salaries. In 1969, the Ford Foundation funded expansion of the

program to other cities including Boston, Atlanta, Minneapolis, Detroit, and San Francisco. Most of these programs faded away during the late 1970s as funding diminished.

Traditional State Public Service Internship Programs

In 1971, Governor Jimmy Carter established the Georgia Internship Program, which formally linked service with learning. The Georgia Internship Program promoted the view that service opportunities and internships were valid learning experiences. This program was representative of traditional internship programs, which were frequently associated with the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration or political science departments at state land grant institutions. These programs were developed in the spirit of the Wisconsin ideal, which emphasized the role of state universities in providing state and local governments with qualified, specially trained public servants (Pollack, 1997).

Support for Early Service-Learning Activity

Support for early S-L activity came from two primary sources: professional organizations and government-sponsored initiatives. Professional organizations provided mechanisms for information dissemination, communication, public policy advocacy, and development of quality standards. Federal, state, and local initiatives provided credibility for S-L activity and provided funding for programming, information dissemination, and research.

Professional Organizations

Some pioneers spent their time developing and sustaining S-L at their home institutions, but others worked to develop inter-institutional support mechanisms. The origins of the Society

for Field Experience Education (SFEE) can be traced to a meeting organized by Jim Feeney, Off Campus Studies Coordinator at New College in Sarasota, Florida (Pollack, 1997). Feeney brought together experiential educators and others interested in study abroad, field experience, urban internship programs, and cooperative education (Stanton et al., 1999). In February 1972, approximately 40 experiential educators and students gathered in Florida to discuss the challenges of working outside of traditional educational structures.

Later, the group formed SFEE to facilitate communication and information exchange. According to Pollack (1997), SFEE members were “from marginal entities,” programs that had not been existence for very long or were “never quite sure of their future” (p. 109). In November 1972, approximately 200 people attended SFEE’s first annual conference held at New College at Hofstra University, New York. In the mid-1970s, Jossey-Bass published a series of papers from SFEE’s second conference in its new journal, *New Directions in Higher Education: Implementing Field Experience Education*. This publication marked the beginning of a literature and assessment base for experiential education (Pollack 1997; Stanton et al., 1999).

The National Center for Public Service Internships (NCPSI) was formed in the early 1970s at about the same time as SFEE. The NCPSI members represented entities (e.g., colleges, universities, and local and state governments) that offered internships to college and university students (Stanton et al., 1999). NCPSI’s stated goals included providing better information dissemination, influencing public policy, developing standards for internship programs, and promoting research (Pollack, 1997). Although both organizations were interested in S-L and experiential education, NCIPSI and SFEE had different roles, philosophies, and agendas. According to Mike Goldstein, a S-L pioneer,

It was an interesting dichotomy that developed between SFEE and NCIPSI. For many years each organization felt that it had the holy grail, and that the other organization was somehow running astray. What particularly concerned me was that we were getting fixated on terminology. What you called your program defined it, rather than what your program was. The internship people wouldn't talk to the field experience people, and so on. It seemed to me that except for this kind of rhetorical distinction, there really wasn't any distinction. The programs conceptually overlapped, if not 100 percent at least 80 percent. (Goldstein, as cited in Stanton et al., 1999, p. 145).

In November 1978, SFEE and NCIPSI merged to form the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (NSIEE). The mission of NSIEE was to foster “the effective use of experience as an integral part of education, in order to empower learners and promote the common good” (Serow, 1998, p. 67).

Government-Sponsored Initiatives

Federally sponsored programs also supported early S-L practice. The National Student Volunteer Program (NSVP), authorized in 1969, was the first federal entity to foster the development of S-L (Pollack, 1997). The NSVP had no direct grant-making authority, but it served as an information clearinghouse and provided technical assistance to colleges and universities. The agency published the journal *Synergist* from 1971 until 1982, when federal funding was withdrawn. *Synergist* became the primary information exchange mechanism for experiential educators working on anti-poverty and social justice issues. In 1979, Congress officially changed the name of the NSVP to the National Center for Service-Learning (NCSL).

The University Year for ACTION (UYA), authorized in 1971, was the first federally sponsored S-L initiative to be created by the federal volunteer agency ACTION, which also administered the VISTA (Volunteers to Service in America) program and the Senior Corps (Pollack, 1997). Students in UYA worked on year-long, full-time, academic credit projects. In

1976, UYA had an annual budget of approximately \$7 million. Hal Woods, one of the S-L pioneers, described a University of Vermont program funded by UYA:

In the summer of 1971, I heard about UYA and saw it as a means of sustaining the energy of students by giving them the opportunity to work, in depth and full time, with a project or community organization. I felt real growth was possible in terms of student awareness, skill development and career aspirations, and ethical judgment in that year-long opportunity. It would be enormous. The students went to the faculty and said, “Could we have this new kind of learning? Can we be freed up from ordinary courses to participate in this year-long UYA program, and can we create a course seminar for the program, so that we can be together reflecting on the issues that are coming up for us in the community?” We were able to institute that course, and the deans and faculty supported it. It was very participatory. (Woods, as cited in Stanton et al., 1999, p. 118)

UYA sponsored S-L programs at 120 colleges and universities and supported over 12,000 volunteers between 1971 and 1980, when the program was defunded (Pollack, 1997). According to Pollack, UYA was important for two reasons: (a) it was a major investment of federal resources for S-L, and (b) it contributed significantly to the overall growth and credibility of S-L by providing linkages to faculty and the academic missions of colleges and universities.

The Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE) (Office of Postsecondary Education, n.d.) was authorized in 1972 through the amendments to the Higher Education Act. FIPSE’s mission focused on the reform, innovation, and improvement of postsecondary education. Grants awarded through FIPSE supported S-L researchers and practitioners who were working to develop quality standards for experiential education and exploring ways to institutionalize S-L within higher education (Pollack, 1997).

Challenges to Early Service-Learning Activity

Early S-L practitioners received support from colleagues and government-sponsored initiatives, but they also faced numerous challenges. The most significant challenges were

associated with three areas: the field's activist stance, decreased funding, and calls for educational reform.

Activist Stance

In general, early S-L practice was conducted in opposition to the norms and traditions of higher education. Of the 33 S-L pioneers, 16 were “pressured out of their jobs or saw their programs closed down at least once in their careers” (Stanton et al., 1999, p. 92). Helen Lewis, a S-L pioneer, worked within the accepted boundaries of higher education for a number of years, but eventually her S-L activities were seen as straying from traditional roles:

My students got involved in the anti-strip mining movement and developed the Virginia Citizens for Better Reclamation. Some were involved in United Mine Workers elections at the time Yablonski was running for office. They monitored union elections and helped study land use. These things resulted finally in the program's being stopped. I was fired. The students were in trouble too. It was tremendous. It taught me the very great power of that kind of learning and that kind of education. But it can be very dangerous work. (Lewis, as cited in Stanton et al., 1999, p. 92)

Decreased Funding

During the 1980s, federal funding for educational programs steadily dwindled (Pollack, 1997). Policies associated with the “new federalism” promoted decentralization, individual initiative, self-reliance, and volunteerism. These approaches resulted in fewer and less expansive anti-poverty and social welfare programs. Efforts to decentralize higher education shifted both expenditures and responsibilities to the states, and overall retrenchment followed (Stark & Lattuca, 1996). The S-L initiatives that did not directly support institutional missions were considered expendable and became particularly vulnerable to reductions or elimination. Consequently, those responsible for S-L programs began to move away from overt activism and

set about the work of explaining to policy makers and funders “how and why experienced-based pedagogies worked and could contribute effectively to the academic missions of their institutions” (Stanton et al., 1999, p. 159).

Educational Reform

In the early 1980s, calls for educational reform targeted the K-12 sector (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). By the mid-1980s, the debate had expanded to include the postsecondary sector (Boyer, 1987; Study Group on the Condition of Excellence in American Higher Education, 1984). The term “*reform* denotes a return to a natural or normal state” (Toombs & Tierney, 1991, p. 9). Many of the calls for reform were in reaction to the loosening of curricular requirements (e.g., off-campus, individualized, and experiential learning) that occurred in the 1960s and 1970s (Stark & Lattuca, 1996). Critiques such as *To Reclaim a Legacy* (Bennett, 1984), *To Secure the Blessings of Liberty* (American Association of State Colleges and Universities [AASCU], 1986), and *Integrity in the College Curriculum: A Report to the Academic Community* (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 1985; Puzon, 1994) called for stricter quality control and more prescription in the curriculum. Consequently, the non-traditional, activist-oriented S-L courses that became popular in the 1960s and 1970s found little support during the 1980s. The higher education reform movement of the 1980s contributed to the demise of the initial forms of S-L activity; but paradoxically, in later decades it contributed to the creation of new types of S-L activity.

Reconceptualization of Service-Learning

Three issues contributed significantly to the reconceptualization of S-L during the 1980s and 1990s: (a) calls for active learning in the college curriculum, (b) calls for higher education to return its historical roots, and (c) calls for mechanisms to address reported declines in student civic participation.

Active Learning in the College Curriculum

Some critiques of higher education found fault with traditional lecture-based pedagogical methods. This opened the door to S-L, which was a form of experiential education (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001). For example, the authors of *Liberating Education* (Gamson & Associates, 1984) called for active learning strategies and a college curriculum that was diverse, integrative, experiential, critical, and pluralistic. The authors of *Involvement in Learning: Realizing the Potential of American Higher Education* (National Institute of Education, 1984) called for active, individualized learning as well as pedagogical strategies that would involve students more fully in their educations. In *To Secure the Blessings of Liberty*, the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (1986) recommended using field settings and student public service as mechanisms to address the alleged narrowness and self-centeredness of both students and programs. In *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America*, Boyer (1987) called for active learning and for small seminars where students could discuss what they were learning. This focus on active, student-centered learning was consistent with many aspects of experiential education and S-L pedagogy.

Return to Higher Education's Historical Roots

In *Higher Education and the American Resurgence*, Newman (1985) called on higher education to return to “its original purpose of preparing students for life of involved and committed citizenship” (p. xvi). He argued that colleges and universities had a crucial role to play in addressing social problems, fostering economic renewal, and providing leadership in an increasingly interconnected world. Newman recommended that colleges encourage students to “engage in community service . . . to meet critical social needs” (p. xviii).

In 1999, the presidents of 51 colleges and universities gathered at the Aspen Institute in Colorado to endorse the *Presidents' Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education* (Ehrlich & Hollander, 1999). This document challenged higher education to reexamine its public purposes and commitment to democratic ideals. According to the report,

We are encouraged that more and more students are volunteering and participating in public and community service, and we have all encouraged them to do so through curricular and co-curricular activity. However, this service is not leading students to embrace the duties of active citizenship and civic participation. We do not blame these college students for their attitudes toward democracy; rather we take responsibility for helping them realize the values and skills of our democratic society and their need to claim ownership of it. (Ehrlich & Hollander, 1999, ¶2)

The historical role of service in higher education was also examined in the report *Returning to our Roots: The Engaged Institution* (Kellogg Commission on the Future of State Land-Grant Universities, 1999). This document addressed the growing public perception that universities were aloof and inadequately organized to address the problems facing society. The Kellogg Commission noted that “engagement in the form of service-learning, outreach, and university-community partnerships” (p. 51) could be an effective strategy for solving significant social problems.

Reported Declines in Civic Participation

New groups entered the S-L field in reaction to critics who claimed that college students were materialistic, self-absorbed, and disengaged (Gamson, Hollander, & Kiang, 1998; Krehbiel & MacKay, 1998). In 1984, Wayne Meisel, at the time a recent Harvard graduate, formed the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL), a grassroots student organization that encouraged students to perform community service (Stern, n.d.). Initially, COOL focused on pure volunteerism, but later it promoted service connected to learning, both within and outside of the formal curriculum.

In 1985, three university presidents (Howard Swearer, Brown University; Father Timothy Healy, Georgetown University; and Donald Kennedy, Stanford University) and Frank Newman, president of the Education Commission of the States, founded *Campus Compact: The Project for Public and Community Service* (Campus Compact, n.d.). They believed that students on their campuses were involved and that more students would become involved in public service if given proper encouragement and support. Initially, Campus Compact encouraged volunteerism apart from the formal curriculum and institutional mission (Morton & Troppe, 1996; Pollack, 1997; Stanton et al., 1999). Members of NSEE and others were concerned that this emphasis on volunteer service would undermine efforts to integrate service into the college curriculum, so they lobbied Campus Compact to refocus its efforts. In 1989, Campus Compact initiated the project on *Integrating Service with Academic Study* [ISAS] (n.d.). This project marked the organization's shift in emphasis from pure volunteerism to service connected to course content in the disciplines. ISAS was primarily concerned with addressing the needs of faculty who adopted "service-learning as a teaching methodology and who seek to deepen its practice in their courses, in their departments, and at their institutions" (ISAS, ¶1).

Issues associated with public service, community involvement, and civic engagement remained in the public spotlight throughout the 1980s and 1990s. In the 1987 report, *The American Freshman, Twenty Year Trends, 1966-1985*, Astin, Green, and Korn used survey data to profile the characteristics, attitudes, values, educational achievements, and future goals of students who entered colleges and universities in the United States during that time period. According to the authors, the data showed significant and complex changes in the attitudes and values of freshmen in the following areas:

1. Greater interest in material and power goals, coupled with decreased social concern and altruism.
2. Greater support for student autonomy and for reduced institutional control over the lives and the life choices of students.
3. Much greater support for many traditionally “liberal” views, despite the popular perception of rising conservatism.
4. Some moderation in student support for selected political and social issues, such as the size of the majority support for greater government involvement in pollution control consumer protection and energy conservation, has declined in recent years.
5. Much greater support for conservative positions on crime and punishment, particularly less opposition to the death penalty, less concern for the rights of the accused, and less support for the legalization of marijuana. (Astin et al., 1987, p. 26)

The first item—greater interest in material and power goals, coupled with decreased social concern and altruism—was of particular interest to advocates of S-L and critics of higher education. This report provided justification for promoting community service and S-L. The idea of requiring service was specifically mentioned in the report: “Should institutions consider the possibility of requiring a ‘public service’ component in the undergraduate curriculum, one which would promote values of concern for others, generosity, empathy, and community responsibility?” (Astin et al., 1987, p. 27).

Astin continued to research and write about student service and civic responsibility. In an October 1995 article published in *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, he asserted:

Something is wrong with the state of American democracy. Most citizens don't vote, negative campaigning reigns, and public distrust, contempt, and hostility toward "government" have reached unprecedented heights. Student interest and engagement in politics are at all-time lows, according to the most recent surveys that we have done at the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California at Los Angeles. While academics occasionally comment on this sorry state of affairs, they seldom suggest that higher education may have played a part in creating these problems, or that it can and should do anything about them. (Astin, 1995, ¶1)

Astin (1995) argued that promoting good citizenship was one of the most commonly stated values in institutional mission statements. Yet, colleges and universities had failed in their duty to prepare students to be contributing citizens in a democratic society. He urged institutions to "explore how we might integrate 'service learning' into the general education program—beyond the scattered courses or internships in which it may be emphasized now" (Astin, 1995, ¶15). The following year, Astin called for further action:

Service learning can provide a powerful vehicle for colleges and universities to make good on their commitment to prepare students for responsible citizenship If we genuinely believe that it would be in the best interest of our students, not to mention the society that supports us, to embark upon a major effort to introduce a central focus on service and citizenship into the curriculum and cocurriculum, then we have both the autonomy and the intellectual resources to do it. (Astin, 1996, p. 19).

Later work by Astin and colleagues reflected the shift in focus from pure volunteer service to service integrated into the academic curriculum. Astin and Sax (1998) determined that participating in service activities during the undergraduate years substantially enhanced academic development, life skill development, and sense of civic responsibility. Further, S-L represented "a powerful vehicle for enhancing student development during the undergraduate years while simultaneously fulfilling a basic institutional mission of providing service to the community" (Astin & Sax, p. 262).

Renewed Federal Support for Service-Learning

During the 1980s, the federal government reduced financial support for education, social service initiatives, and S-L programs. In the 1990s, the federal government reentered the scene. The 1990 National and Community Service Act (NCSA) supported four streams of service: S-L programs for school-aged youth, higher education service programs, youth corps, and national service demonstration models (Corporation for National and Community Service, n.d.). The programs for school-aged youth and higher education were called Serve America, later renamed as Learn and Serve America. Earlier legislation had promoted pure student volunteerism, but NCSA changed that orientation by including a definition that linked S-L with the academic curriculum:

The term “service-learning” means a method—
(A) under which students learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service that—
(i) is conducted in and meets the needs of a community;
(ii) is coordinated with an elementary school, secondary school, institution of higher education, or community service program, and with the community; and
(iii) helps foster civic responsibility; and
(B) that—
(i) is integrated into and enhances the academic curriculum of the students, or the educational components of the community service program in which the participants are enrolled; and
(ii) provides structured time for the students or participants to reflect on the service experience. (NCSA, 1990, p. 5)

The 1993 National and Community Service Trust Act (NCSTA) added a new emphasis: encouraging faculty to use S-L methods throughout the curriculum (Pollack, 1997). The NCSTA authorized Learn and Serve America, Higher Education (LSAHE), a program that sought to “enhance the links between community service and academic learning by developing service-learning programs as part of the regular college curriculum” (Gray, Ondaatje, & Zakaras, 1999, p. 2). According to Pollack (1997), approval of the NCSTA was significant because it expanded

the national service program, provided credibility for S-L pedagogy, and strengthened the links between service experiences and learning experiences.

In 1994, President William Clinton wrote directly to higher education leaders to solicit their support for “inspiring an ethic of service across our nation” (p. 1). President Clinton’s letter identified six ways to promote citizenship: (a) support AmeriCorps; (b) consider community service as a factor in college admissions; (c) redirect college work-study funds to students who perform community service; (d) create ways for all students, including part-time and non-traditional students, to serve; (e) design educational experiences that bring the community to the classroom and the classroom to the community; and (f) encourage communication and collaboration between recent graduates and alumni who are already working in service organizations (Clinton, 1994). This unprecedented personal appeal from President Clinton added urgency to the call for institutions to promote service and S-L.

Theoretical, Conceptual, and Philosophical Foundations of Service-Learning

Service-learning practice came before S-L theory. The S-L pioneers thought of themselves as activists. They used theory to “understand, strengthen, and legitimize their work” (Stanton et al., 1999, p. 194). Some resisted “connecting their work, much less their reflections to empirically based knowledge” (Stanton et al., p. 192). Others said that public leaders and theoretical mentors helped “to show them the way to service-learning” (Stanton et al., p. 192).

These leaders and mentors included the following:

1. Progressive activists and scholars in education and human development: DeWitt Baldwin, John Dewey, Paulo Freire, George Klemp, David Kolb, and Mary Conway Kohler.

2. Social science researchers: Robert Coles, Robert Greenleaf, Herb Kohl, Jonathan Kozol, Joan Lipsitz, Margaret Mead, Donald Schon, Studs Terkel, and William F. Whyte.
3. Political leaders and organizers: Saul Alinsky, the Berrigan brothers, Gandhi, Myles Horton, Ivan Illich, John and Robert Kennedy, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Peace Corps officials and volunteers.
4. Philosophical and spiritual leaders: Dietrich Bonhoeffer and Reinhold Niebuhr. (Stanton et al., 1997, p. 192)

John Dewey (1938/1998, 1944/1966) and Paulo Freire (1970) are among the most frequently cited theorists in the S-L literature (Deans, 1999; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Morton & Saltmarsh, 1997; Saltmarsh, 1996). Their educational philosophies differ; but because of the divergent thinking within the field of S-L, each offered an anchor for S-L activity. According to Deans (1999),

Dewey and Freire, who both label themselves as progressives, share scorn for philosophies of education that rely on mechanistic, static, industrial or elitist metaphors. Instead, they build their philosophies around core concepts of experience, growth, inquiry, communication, mediation, problem posing/solving, consciousness-raising, ethical social action and transformation. (p. 19)

The work of David Kolb (1984) was frequently cited in the S-L literature as providing a conceptual foundation for contemporary S-L practice (Cone & Harris, 1996; McEwen, 1996). Kolb (1984) developed a model of experiential learning based on Dewey's process of experiential logical inquiry. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle included four phases: (a) concrete experience, (b) reflection, (c) abstract conceptualization, (d) and active experimentation. According to Kolb, individuals could enter the cycle at any point, but must complete the entire cycle for effective learning to occur. This model emphasized the role of reflection in relating concrete experiences to abstract theories. Implications for S-L include the following: (a) courses and experiences should offer multiple opportunities to move completely and freely through the

learning cycle; (b) reflection should be integrated into S-L courses; and (c) direct and concrete experiences should come first, followed by reflection, abstract conceptualization, and generalization (McEwen).

According to Stanton et al. (1999), S-L researchers have just begun to link practice with theories from the fields of “human development, learning theory and pedagogy, knowledge transformation and epistemology, and social change” (p. xvi). Others noted that the philosophical, psychological, and social processes that have been assumed to undergird S-L have not been sufficiently explored and documented (Astin, 2000; Cone & Harris, 1996; Rockquomore & Schaeffer, 2000).

Service-Learning as a Curricular Component

Jacoby & Associates (1996) recommended that colleges and universities offer a wide variety of S-L activities. Activities should be intentionally designed to achieve specific purposes and to accommodate students at different points in their educational programs and at different stages in their personal development. S-L experiences have been generally categorized as short-term or long-term and co-curricular or curricular. Jacoby and Associates (1996) argued that experiences in any of these categories could be considered S-L:

What distinguishes service-learning from other community service or volunteer experiences is the *intentional* integration of service and learning and the reciprocal nature of both the service and the learning among all parties in the relationship: students, the community, and the academy. (p. xviii)

Co-Curricular Service

Service associated with the co-curriculum existed on college campuses before curricular S-L entered the scene. According to a 1971 survey conducted by the American Council on Education, at the time, approximately 70% of higher education institutions had on-going student volunteer programs (Pollack, 1997). Many co-curricular programs were highly visible on college campuses (e.g., Harvard's Phillip Brooks House); nonetheless, faculty and academic affairs administrators have generally viewed co-curricular service as "rounding-out the college experience, as opposed to playing a significant role in a student's academic program" (Pollack, p. 78).

Curricular Service-Learning

Some have argued that co-curricular service is not S-L. According to Bringle and Hatcher (1996),

Service learning [is] a credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility. (p. 222)

As S-L came into the mainstream of higher education, it took on characteristics associated with the traditional academic curriculum. The curriculum was referred to as a social artifact and a tool used by the academy to achieve specific outcomes (Toombs & Tierney, 1991). Toombs and Tierney deconstructed the curriculum and identified operating components at five levels:

1. Course: The basic building block of a curriculum, which can be subdivided into modules or units.

2. **Pattern:** Groups of courses related by internal affinities of knowledge, technique, or method. There is commonality of content in these sets of courses.
3. **Constellation:** Courses related by common goals or objectives and oriented toward similar outcomes.
4. **Program:** An arrangement of courses and learning options that leads to publicly recognized certificates or credentials.
5. **Curriculum:** An institution's entire educational program. (p. 28)

The categories of *pattern* and *constellation*, though less familiar than the others, were derived from “understanding and use that have gone unlabeled, even though teaching faculty often acknowledge them in discussions” (Toombs & Tierney, 1991, p. 27). Toombs and Tierney described clusters of courses addressing such areas as civic responsibility, leadership, or professional ethics as curricular *patterns*. The S-L program at Loyola University in New Orleans was described as “civic engagement across the curriculum” (Jeandron & Fields, 2005), a characterization that is consistent with a curricular *pattern*. The significance of this classification is that as a *pattern*, S-L courses would be expected to have a specific purpose in the curriculum.

Service-Learning Programs

Prior accounts described numerous variations in S-L programs across institutions (Billig, 2003; Eyler, 2000; Furco, 1996; Schneider, 1998; Shumer, 2000). According to Zlotkowski (1998), successful S-L programs had developed “academic legitimacy” (p. 9) demonstrating to the campus community how S-L contributed to achieving the institution's fundamental mission, goals, and priorities. Jacoby and Associates (1996) identified eight approaches to S-L program design that aligned activities with institutional priorities. Institutions that utilized these approaches are listed in parentheses:

1. Linking service to the spiritual mission of the institution and quest for social justice (Notre Dame, Azusa Pacific, Messiah College, and Loyola College in Maryland).
2. Linking service to citizenship, civic responsibility, and participatory democracy (Rutgers, Baylor, and Providence College).
3. Linking service to academic study (Stanford, Brown, Bentley, Portland State, University of Washington, and Brevard Community College).
4. Linking service to leadership (University of Richmond).
5. Linking service to community partnerships and public problem solving (University of Minnesota, University of Pennsylvania, Miami-Dade Community College, Gettysburg College, Clark Atlanta University, Chicago State University, and Southern University and A&M College).
6. Orienting service to community collaboration and consortial relationships with other colleges and universities (Urban Community Service Program in California, Shriver Center Consortium in Baltimore, and the Regional Action Team in Colorado).
7. Integrating service into the core undergraduate curriculum (Franklin and Marshall, Portland State, Alverno College, Waynesburg College, and Chandler-Gilbert Community College).
8. Using service as a mechanism for achieving greater depth of understanding in a particular field of knowledge.

Service-Learning Courses

At some institutions, S-L has been viewed as a function of the individual course rather than as a broad-based program or pattern with its own identity and purpose. Heffernan (2001) examined 900 syllabi and identified six types of S-L courses:

1. Pure S-L courses: These courses were typically not affiliated with a particular discipline. The concepts of service, volunteerism, or civic engagement provided course content, and multi-disciplinary or interdisciplinary perspectives were used to examine philosophical, social, and intellectual issues. Students participated in a variety of community service activities.

2. Discipline-based S-L courses: These courses used content as the basis for analyzing and understanding issues. Students were expected to be in the community throughout the semester. Service experiences were explicitly linked to discipline and course content.

3. Problem-based S-L courses: These courses used existing student knowledge as a foundation for surveying communities, identifying specific needs, and developing a service product to address identified needs. Students also served as consultants working for clients to address ill-defined problems. The intention was that students would become active problem-solvers.

4. Capstone courses: These courses were generally taken during the senior year and were closely related to majors or minors in given disciplines. Students used knowledge gained throughout their collegiate experiences to design and provide relevant service to the community. In some courses, students explored new topics or synthesized disciplinary knowledge.

5. Service internships: These courses were more intense than typical S-L courses. Students worked 10-20 hours a week in community settings. Regular and on-going reflection helped students analyze their new experiences using discipline-based theories. Internship experiences were expected to benefit both the student and the community partner.

6. Undergraduate community-based action research: These courses were similar to independent study options and were designed for students who were highly experienced in

community work. Students worked closely with faculty members to learn research methodology and advocacy skills.

S-L programs and courses linked to academic programs of study have become commonplace on college and university campuses. This increased prevalence of S-L activity created a need for mechanisms and processes to evaluate quality and effectiveness.

Evaluating Service-Learning Quality and Effectiveness

S-L has been described as interdisciplinary, and the formal mechanisms to guide theory and practice found in traditional disciplines have not been developed for S-L. Consequently, practitioner-developed principles and evaluation criteria have become the primary mechanisms for promoting quality and determining effectiveness. Principles of good practice were developed using a “combination of beliefs of what ‘ought’ to be and years of reflection on what worked in practice” (Eyler & Giles, 1997, p. 57). Later, formal research techniques were used to identify characteristics of effective programs.

Principles of Good Practice

In 1979, Robert Sigmon, a S-L pioneer, developed the first principles of good practice:

1. Those being served control the services provided.
2. Those being served become better able to serve and be served by their own actions.
3. Those who serve are also learners and have significant control over what is expected to be learned. (Eyler & Giles, 1997, p. 58; Mintz & Hesser, 1996, p. 28).

In 1989, the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (now known as the National Society for Experiential Education) organized a meeting of more than 70 groups in

an effort to bring order and consistency to the field of S-L. The resulting *Wingspread Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning* were developed “to assure that service learning programs of high quality can be sustained over time, and to help individuals appreciate how service can be a significant and ongoing part of life” (Honnett & Poulsen, 1989). The principles were as follows:

1. An effective program engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good.
2. An effective program provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience.
3. An effective program articulates clear service and learning goals for everyone involved.
4. An effective program allows for those with needs to define those needs.
5. An effective program clarifies the responsibilities of each person and organization involved.
6. An effective program matches service providers and service needs through a process that recognizes changing circumstances.
7. An effective program expects genuine, active, and sustained organization commitment.
8. An effective program includes training, supervision, monitoring, support, recognition, and evaluation to meet service and learning goals.
9. An effective program insures that the time commitment for service and learning is flexible, appropriate, and in the best interests of all involved.
10. An effective program is committed to program participation by and with diverse populations. (Honnet & Poulsen)

Characteristics of Effective Service-Learning Programs

Eyler and Giles (1999) analyzed data from two national research projects conducted between 1993 and 1998 to identify characteristics of effective S-L programs and to understand the impact that program characteristics had on student outcomes. They concluded,

Program characteristics make a modest but significant and consistent difference, and for the most challenging outcomes, such as development of critical thinking ability and transformation of social perspective, programs have to be very thoughtfully designed to create opportunities for sustained community involvement and intellectual change. (Eyler & Giles, 1999, p. 167)

Eyler and Giles (1999) identified the following characteristics of effective S-L programming:

1. Placement quality: In ideal placement situations, students did meaningful work, exercised initiative, assumed appropriate responsibility, engaged in varied or challenging tasks, worked as peers with community partners, received support and feedback from agency staff, and spent sufficient time in the service setting.
2. Application: Students were able to connect classroom experiences and course content with experiences in the community, and vice versa.
3. Reflection: Students were given opportunities to take a step back, contemplate experiences, and monitor their reactions and thinking processes. Reflection took many forms including writing essays, keeping journals, and participating in formal and informal discussions.
4. Community voice: Community partners were involved in decision-making about service activities. Involving the community in planning and decision-making helped to avoid the paternalism that might occur in service where charity is the primary motivation.
5. Diversity: Students were given opportunities to work with people from diverse ethnic groups. There was lack of consensus, however, as to whether the goal of diversity was tolerance

and understanding within the status quo or whether it was changing the status quo through social transformation.

Principles of good practice and research into characteristics of effective S-L practice have helped to bring consistency to the field. With more formalized practices, researchers have begun to study the effects of S-L on students.

Service-Learning Outcomes for Students

Reports of student outcomes from S-L have come from three primary sources: testimonials, qualitative research studies, and quantitative research studies (Waterman, 2003). Researchers used a variety of terms and organizational schemes to report outcomes for students that result from participating in S-L. Waterman (1997) identified the following student outcomes: (a) enhancing learning of material that was part of the traditional in-school curriculum, (b) promoting personal development, and (c) fostering the development of civic responsibility and other values of citizenship.

After reviewing research on S-L in higher education reported between 1993-2000, Eyler, Giles, Stenson, and Gray (2001) categorized and described student outcomes as follows:

1. Personal outcomes: S-L had positive effects on student personal growth (sense of personal efficacy, personal identity, spiritual growth, and moral development) and interpersonal development (the ability to work well with others, leadership skills, and communication skills).

2. Social outcomes: S-L had positive effects in reductions in stereotyping; increased cultural and racial understanding; and increased social responsibility, citizenship skills, and commitment to service. However, some studies suggested that S-L may subvert as well as support course goals of reducing stereotyping and facilitating cultural and racial understanding.

These mixed findings occurred in three studies: (a) a study of attitudes of psychology students towards people with mental retardation, (b) a study of preservice teachers reacting to community service in a multicultural education class, and (c) a study of the reactions of Black students who worked primarily with lower-middle class, Black middle-school students.

3. Learning outcomes: Students or faculty reported that S-L had a positive impact on students' academic learning and the ability to apply what was learned to the real world. S-L participation had an impact on such academic outcomes as demonstrated complexity of understanding, problem analysis, critical thinking, and cognitive development. The impact of S-L on student cognitive moral development was mixed. Two studies found that S-L contributed to moral development, and three studies showed no difference in moral development between S-L and non-S-L control groups.

4. Career development: S-L was found to contribute to career development by familiarizing students with particular careers, providing information to make career choices, and providing experiences to confirm choice of academic major.

5. Relationship with institution: Students who engaged in S-L reported stronger faculty relationships than those who were not involved in service. S-L improved student satisfaction with college, and students engaged in S-L were more likely to graduate.

In summary, student outcomes of S-L have been described using varying terminology and organizational schemes. The summary of prior research by Eyler, Giles, et al. (2001) indicated that S-L contributed positively to intellectual, personal, social, and career outcomes and enhanced student satisfaction with the institution.

Student Learning and Development

McEwen (1996) asserted that properly designed S-L courses and programs could enhance student learning and development. The term *learning* has been described as a persistent change in human performance or the potential for change in human performance that resulted from interaction with the environment (Driscoll, 1994). The term *development* has been described as the process of redefining the self “in more complex and more distinct ways, yet at the same time putting all the parts together in an integrated fashion” (McEwen, p. 56). Knowledge of how students learn and develop can serve as the basis for designing specific S-L experiences in order to achieve desired outcomes.

Cognitive Theories

Three theories of cognitive development and one theory of moral development (a special type of cognitive development) have been identified as having particular relevance for S-L pedagogy (Bradley, 2003; McEwen, 1996). Cognitive theories have been used to understand “how students think, the structural ways in which they reason, and the process they use for thinking” (McEwen, p. 57). The relevance for S-L is that cognitive development influences how students relate to S-L experiences. Further, students have the potential to develop into more complex thinkers, and S-L may enhance this development.

William Perry (1970) argued that cognitive development progressed in a logical fashion from concrete and simple to more abstract and complex. His theory described how students changed their worldviews as they progressed through stages. Most students entered college in the first stage (dualism), where they saw things in absolutes or in terms of right or wrong. In the next stage (multiplicity), students began to see issues from multiple perspectives and understand

that there may be more than one right choice. In the third stage (commitment), students began to see the complexities in life. They started taking responsibility for their actions and began to develop personal commitments. In the fourth stage (relativism), students accepted the complexities in life and recognized that in many situations numerous choices existed, with some better than others. For S-L, the implication is that stage of development may impact a student's comfort with ambiguity and complexity. Further, S-L situations that challenge world views be upsetting to some students but not others (McEwen, 1996; Stark & Lattuca, 1996).

The work of Mary Belenky, Blythe Clinchy, Nancy Goldberger, and Jill Tarule (1986) closely paralleled Perry's scheme with some important differences. Perry's interview sample consisted primarily of males, while Belenky and associates interviewed young women. Belenky et al. identified qualitatively different ways of knowing including silence, received knowledge, subjective knowledge, procedural knowledge, and constructed knowledge. Their work suggested that knowing might be gender related and that some groups, including women, might learn primarily through connections with the subject matter. Connected ways of knowing and learning have been identified as compatible with the structured reflection of S-L (McEwen, 1996).

Marcia Baxter Magolda (1992) further explored gender-related patterns of knowing and teaching-learning processes in relation to learning patterns. She found parallels to both Perry and Belenky et al. and determined that knowing and development throughout college appeared to be gender related, but not gender dictated. Baxter Magolda's work had implications for S-L in that students should be valued as knowers; learning should be grounded in students' experiences; and reflection can help students understand that they can construct learning in association with instructors, other students, community members, and agency staff (McEwen, 1996, p. 63).

Moral development, a particular kind of cognitive development, can be no greater than nor more complex than an individual's general level of cognitive development (McEwen, 1996). Lawrence Kohlberg's (1981) theory of moral development described three general levels of moral reasoning that ranged from decisions based on rules, to decisions based on expectations of others, to decisions based on principles. Three conditions must be present in order to progress to another level of moral reasoning: (a) exposure to the next higher level of reasoning; (b) exposure to circumstances that challenge the individual's current moral framework and lead to dissatisfaction with the current framework; and (c) a supportive atmosphere of dialogue and exchange that combines the first two conditions, so that conflicting moral views are evaluated in an open manner.

Psychosocial Theories

Chickering and Reisser (1993) described psychosocial development as "a series of developmental tasks or stages, including qualitative changes in thinking, feeling, behaving, valuing, and relating to others and to one self" (p. 2). They argued that the primary purpose of higher education should be human development and that educationally powerful environments promote student development. They identified seven key influences that impacted student development: (a) institutional objectives, (b) institutional size, (c) student-faculty relationships, (d) curriculum, (e) teaching, (f) friendships and student communities, and (g) student development programs and services. The relevance of these findings for S-L is that colleges and universities need to have clear, unambiguous, and internally consistent intended student outcomes for S-L (McEwen, 1996). Further, institutional support (or lack thereof); the nature of

the contact among students, faculty, and community service providers; and curricular processes and content significantly impact students' development and the effectiveness of S-L.

Typological Models

Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) asserted that individuals have “distinctive but relatively stable differences in learning style, personality type, temperament or socioeconomic background and contexts for development” (p. 3). Students with different personal characteristics or preferences responded differently to institutional challenges, environmental factors, and occupational setting (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Kolb's (1981) Learning Style Inventory is an example of a typological model. Kolb suggested that students had preferred ways of learning. Further, instructors had preferred ways of teaching that were consistent with their preferred learning styles. Knowledge of learning styles could be used to structure S-L experiences for different learners; however, students should not be stereotyped or labeled based on typology assessments scores because other factors including prior experience could influence reactions to situations (Stewart, 1990). Further, service experiences and reflection activities should be designed to provide balance and support, and S-L should both accommodate different learning styles and provide opportunities for learning by challenging existing preferences.

Summary

The review of the literature provided an overview of the history and background of the S-L movement in higher education. The many conceptualizations of S-L over the past four decades have resulted in the wide array of interpretations and understandings of S-L present in 2005. The notion of service has been associated with higher education since colonial times, but

the manifestations of service have varied in accordance with societal expectations and institutional missions. Nonetheless, most contemporary colleges and universities have identified service as an important priority.

The term *service-learning* was first used in the late 1960s to describe an internship program that promoted community development. S-L activity grew in the 1970s due to federal funding and a growing support system. In the 1980s, many S-L programs were eliminated or scaled down due to overall retrenchment in higher education. The 1990s brought about a reconceptualization of S-L. It became mainstream and was viewed as a mechanism for promoting active learning, for connecting higher education to community and social concerns, and for promoting civic engagement.

Despite its growing prominence on college and university campuses, little is known about the philosophical, psychological, and social processes that are assumed to undergird S-L practice. Consequently, researchers have begun to study how S-L experiences are presumed to lead to intended outcomes for students. The following chapter describes the methodology used to document and examine S-L at the study site.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

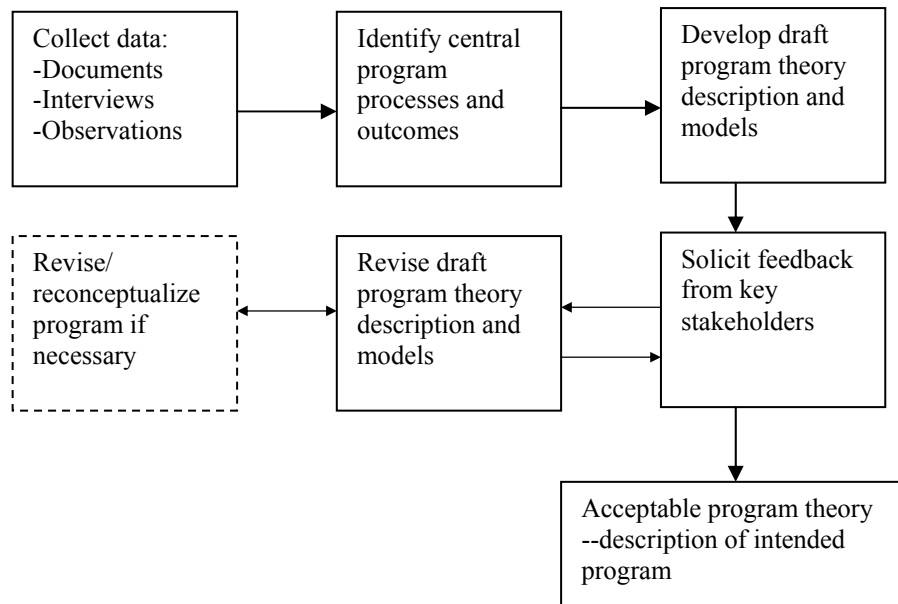
A case study design, employing qualitative research methods (Patton, 1990; Stake, 1995), was used to document and examine the S-L program at a new, public, comprehensive public university in the United States. This approach was appropriate because the aim was to thoroughly understand “some special people, particular problem, or unique situation in great depth” (Patton, p. 54). Prior research suggested the following: (a) S-L purposes, activities, and intended outcomes varied significantly from institution to institution; (b) faculty members and administrators within a single institution had different assumptions about and expectations for S-L; and (c) unlike traditional academic disciplines, the field of S-L has generated few formal conventions and theories to guide research and practice (Eyler, 2000; Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Shumer, 2000).

Institutional theory and program theory served as organizing frameworks. Principles associated with institutional theory were used to identify and examine the social, cultural, and environmental issues that influenced the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L. Program theory was used to identify the program’s goals, objectives, processes, and intended student outcomes. According to the literature, when explicating program theory, the researcher’s task is to “describe the theory that is actually embodied in the program structure and operation” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 162). Data sources for this study were consistent with the primary data sources used in previous studies involving program theory: “(a) review of documents; (b)

interviews with program personnel, stakeholders, and other selected informants; and (c) site visits and observations of various program functions and circumstances” (Rossi et al., p. 162). To aid in articulating and analyzing program theory, Rossi et al. suggested that the broader concept be divided into two interrelated components—process theory and impact theory. In general, process theory has been used to describe program administration and the process by which the target population utilizes program outputs (services and activities). Impact theory has been used to describe the mechanisms and assumptions that link program outputs to intended outcomes for the target population (in this study, students).

In prior studies, the articulation of program theory involved iterative steps (see Figure 3). First, pertinent data were extracted from documents, interviews, and observations. Second, the data were sorted and analyzed according to the aspect of the program to which they related (e.g., resources, program administration, operational objectives, services, service recipients, intended outcomes). Third, draft descriptions and models of program processes and assumptions were generated by the researcher and presented to individuals who have knowledge of the program. These individuals provided feedback regarding draft descriptions and models. If necessary, feedback was used to refine successive drafts. This process was repeated until participants reached consensus or had relatively few criticisms of descriptions and models. In some instances, program components were redesigned or reconceptualized prior to generating further drafts. Feedback from relevant stakeholders was essential during this process because the articulation of program theory is a process of discovery, not invention (Rossi et al., 1999).

Start here . . .



End here.

Figure 3: Process of Articulating Program Theory

Case Study Site

The S-L program at Aleon University (a pseudonym) is the case, or bounded system, that was explored in this study. Pseudonyms were used to preserve anonymity and confidentiality of study participants, including the founding president. The book written by the founding president, *On task, on time: The development of [Aleon University]* is included in the reference list as Adams, R. (2003).

A S-L program, like other social programs, is a “planned, organized, and usually ongoing set of activities carried out for the purpose of improving some social condition” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 23). The name *Service-Learning Program* was capitalized in this report when it referred

to the specific program at Aleon University. This capitalization was consistent with the treatment of the program's name in university documents including the Service-Learning Mission Statement. The researcher interpreted the capitalization of the program's name as meaning that it was viewed as a discrete entity within the curriculum and a social artifact with characteristics, qualities, and objectives—similar to what Toombs and Tierney (1991) labeled as a *pattern*.

Aleon University is a new, public, comprehensive institution that offered classes for the first time in fall 1997. It was purposely selected for reasons of intensity and convenience. Intensity refers to “information-rich cases that manifest the phenomenon intensely, but not extremely” (Patton, 1990, p. 182). Three factors satisfied the criterion of intensity. First, Aleon has a mandatory service requirement for all undergraduates. This requirement gives the setting special intrinsic value because it is one of only four public institutions with a mandatory service requirement as part of the baccalaureate degree (National Service Learning Clearinghouse, personal communication, June 15, 2005). Much of the prior research and literature associated with S-L has focused on liberal arts or private institutions. According to the 2004 Campus Compact Annual Membership Survey, 53% of the 376 colleges and universities responding classified themselves as liberal arts institutions. Another 28% classified themselves as religiously-affiliated/faith-based institutions. This strong presence of liberal arts and private institutions makes the emphasis on S-L at Aleon University somewhat unusual.

Second, Aleon University has promoted itself as being an innovative institution that has encouraged distributed and distance learning, real world experiences, and campus and community partnerships. Further, faculty have been employed on multi-year contracts instead of traditional tenure track positions. The former chancellor of the state higher education governing

board said that in many ways the new university was “unique from the start” (Adams, 2003, p.

vii). The inaugural 1996-1997 University Catalog contained the following passage:

The founding of Aleon University at the advent of a new century is a signal event. It comes as a moment in history when the conditions that formed and sustained American higher education are fundamentally changing and at a time when rapid shifts wrought by technology and social complexities are altering the very nature of work, knowledge, and human relationships. As a public institution, Aleon eagerly accepts the leadership opportunity and obligation to adapt to these changes and to meet the educational needs of the region. (p. 6).

Third, on March 21, 2003, the Faculty Senate at Aleon University endorsed the concept of moving from an hour-based S-L graduation requirement for the baccalaureate degree to a curricular-integrated S-L requirement. These actions could be interpreted as meaning that there was broad-based faculty support for S-L at Aleon University. Broad-based faculty support for S-L may be unusual. Waring (1995) studied three universities that were considered to be exemplars in promoting service. She found that public service was not institutionalized as a central process (core technology) at any of the institutions. Further, public service had been defined in such a way “that few could argue with it” (Waring, p. 212). As a result, most faculty supported the idea of public service, but few demonstrated a commitment to incorporating it into their teaching and research.

Convenience was a secondary factor in selecting the study site. The researcher had access to study participants and materials and general knowledge of the history and background of the institution. This prior access and prior knowledge aided in identifying documents, individuals, and situations that provided context for and details about the Service-Learning Program. As Weiss (1998) noted, when exploring a program, knowledge of the setting helps the researcher know “*where* to look and *whom* to talk to” (p. 50). In addition, individuals associated

with the Service-Learning Program at Aleon had expressed willingness to participate in the study.

Aleon University was located in one of the largest and fastest growing states in the nation. This region experienced rapid growth in both general and college-age populations. In the late 1980s, state officials explored options for dealing with the increasing numbers of students who were expected to enroll in the state's public universities during the coming years. At the time, the state had nine public universities, six of which had been created since 1945. One area of the state was geographically isolated and was experiencing particularly rapid population growth. During the 1980s and early 1990s, only two public postsecondary institutions served this region: a university branch campus and a community college. The nearest main university campus was approximately 150 miles away. In 1991, after considering numerous proposals, state officials approved the construction of a new university, eventually named Aleon University.

Since opening day in August 1997, enrollment at Aleon University has more than doubled. According to university documents, in the foreseeable future, the number of students enrolled and the number of educational programs and services offered will to continue to increase at a rapid pace. As of October 2005, the university offered 42 baccalaureate and 19 master's degree programs in five colleges: Arts and Sciences, Business, Education, Health Professions, and Professional Studies. In fall 2005, total student headcount was 7,233 (5,972 undergraduate, 763 graduate, and 488 non-degree seeking), with 1,357 first-time-in-college students. During the period August 2004 through August 2005, students logged just over 75,000 hours of community service, as reported in the October 1, 2005, Aleon University Fact Sheet that was compiled by the special assistant to the president.

Data Collection

According to Stake (1995), “there is no particular moment when data gathering begins The pool of data includes the earliest observations” (p. 49). In spring and summer 2005, the researcher conducted an extensive review of the S-L literature to gain additional insight into the history of and issues associated with S-L. In April 2005, the researcher attended the 3rd Annual Gulf-South Summit on Service-Learning and Civic Engagement Through Higher Education to better understand how S-L programs were conceptualized and implemented at other colleges and universities. Adequate knowledge of the field was essential for understanding the program (Weiss, 1998). In order to gain a better understanding the processes involved in describing program theory, the researcher attended a two-day seminar in August 2005 titled “Using Program Theory and Logic Models in Evaluation” presented by Dr. Patricia Rogers, an internationally recognized authority in the field.

In late spring and early summer 2005, the researcher attended two meetings of the Service-Learning Task Force at Aleon University. Attendance at these meeting was the result of an invitation from the director of the Center for Civic Engagement who was committee chair and aware of the researcher’s interest in conducting a study of S-L at the institution. At the first meeting, the researcher described the proposed study. The formal process of collecting data began in late August 2005 after receiving written approval to conduct the study from the appropriate institutional review boards. Data collection continued through early December 2005. Data were collected from three sources: (a) documents, (b) interviews, and (c) observations (see Table 2). These multiple sources resulted in a more complete picture of the program as conceptualized by developers and implemented by faculty and administrators. Selection of data sources and data collection and analysis processes are described in the remainder of this chapter.

Table 2: Data Sources

DOCUMENTS DATED 1991-2005 (see Appendix A)		
Number of documents examined: 35		
FACULTY INTERVIEWS (semi-structured)		
Number of interviews: 7		
Identifier / College	Course title / Role of course in curriculum	Service activity
Faculty A Arts and Sciences	<i>Connections</i> Interdisciplinary; lower division. Required General Education capstone course in Humanities area; taken second year (some transfer students exempt).	10 hours minimum: Students learn about (a) regional wildlife and then teach elementary level students or (b) water management and marine life then teach classmates about what they have learned. Locations are elementary schools or other non-profit agency, as approved by coordinator.
Faculty B Arts and Sciences	<i>Styles and Ways of Learning</i> Interdisciplinary; lower division. Required first semester General Education course in Humanities area (some transfer students exempt).	10 hours minimum: Teach or assist in some meaningful capacity in an educational/learning setting (e.g., prepare and execute a lesson). Elementary school other non-profit agency, as approved by instructor.
Faculty C Arts and Sciences	<i>Environmental Literature</i> Literature; upper division. Elective for English, communication, and environmental studies majors, but can be taken by others.	10 hours minimum: Project should focus on learning goals of engagement with place and ethics of sustainability. Service should reflect own emerging ethics. Location as approved by instructor (e.g., environmental education agency, local organization, university).
Faculty D Business	<i>Ethical Issues</i> Management; lower division. Elective; open to all majors. First S-L course at the university.	10 hours minimum: Service to people in need (e.g., poor and/or disadvantaged). Should have direct contact—not performing administrative or “back office” activities—as agreed upon by student and instructor.
Faculty E Business	<i>Financial Reporting & Analysis II</i> Accounting; upper division. Required course for accounting majors.	10 hours minimum: Gather leasing data from businesses in the community. Present results at a conference. Service sites as approved by instructor.
Faculty F Education	<i>Young Children with Special Needs</i> Education; upper division. Required course for early childhood majors.	10 hours minimum: Under guidance of agency/facility staff, work with children in various stages of development. Selected developmental centers, as approved and arranged by the instructor.
Faculty G Health Professions	<i>Dynamics of Communication</i> Occupational therapy; upper division. Required course for community health majors.	10 hours minimum: Non-profit agency offering health care and occupational therapy services. As approved by instructor.

ADMINISTRATOR INTERVIEWS (unstructured)	
Number of interviews: 4	
Director of the Center for Civic Engagement	
Director of the General Education Program	
Director of the Quality Enhancement Plan	
Associate Vice President, Office of Curriculum and Instruction	

PARTICIPANT OBSERVATIONS and FEEDBACK	
Service-Learning Transition Committee	
Number of participants: 11	
Number of meetings: 3	
Units represented:	Representatives per unit:
College of Arts and Sciences	3
College of Business	1
College of Education	1
College of Health Professions	1
College of Professional Studies	1
General Education Program	1
Center for Civic Engagement	1
Office of Curriculum and Instruction	2

DIRECT OBSERVATIONS	
Number of observations: 6	
Activity observed	Relevance to S-L study
Two class meetings of the course <i>Foundations of Civic Engagement</i>	Interdisciplinary; upper division. Required of all student earning a baccalaureate degree from College of Arts and Sciences. Course includes a S-L component.
One class meeting of the course <i>Styles and Ways of Learning</i>	Interdisciplinary; lower division. Required first semester General Education course in Humanities area (some transfer students exempt). Course includes a S-L component.
Government and Non-Profit Service Learning Job Fair	Over 35 non-profit agencies attended the event. These agencies serve as placement sites for S-L experiences.
Two ad-hoc meetings convened to discuss implementation of the Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP) and incorporation of QEP elements into three courses: <i>Styles and Ways of Learning</i> , <i>Connections</i> , and <i>Colloquium</i> .	QEP focuses on two undergraduate student learning outcomes: ecological perspective and community awareness and involvement. Community awareness and involvement operationally defined as S-L.

During fall 2005, the researcher was on educational leave and consciously stepped out of the researcher's regular professional role as an administrator at Aleon University. During this period, visits to the campus were only for the purpose of collecting data for this study. This enabled the researcher to purposely reflect upon the evolving university. Purposeful reflection is consistent with S-L practices. The researcher had been associated with the Aleon University since its earliest days and this long association with the institution could unconsciously influence interpretations in this study. In order to minimize researcher bias, the researcher sought confirmation or disconfirmation of assumptions and interpretations from others through member checks and feedback from stakeholders and others familiar with the study site and qualitative research.

Documents

In the role as accreditation liaison for Aleon University, the researcher had knowledge of and access to many relevant documents. Official goals in historical and current documents are good entry points for understanding a program (Weiss, 1998). Historical documents also provided insight into early institutional practices as well as beliefs and perceptions of individuals who were responsible for conceptualizing and implementing the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University.

The researcher consulted with the university archivist and the director of the Center for Civic Engagement to ensure that all relevant documents were collected. Course syllabi were collected from faculty as part of the interview process. During the data collection and analysis process, the researcher actively searched for additional documents in order to have the most complete picture possible of how S-L was conceptualized and implemented at Aleon. For

example, the archivist, others, and the researcher searched through university and personal records for clues regarding the origins of a revision to an official document.

Appendix A contains a list of documents spanning the years 1991 through 2005 that were identified as relevant to this study. The items marked with an asterisk were from a file labeled “SERVICE LEARNING – Academic Affairs,” which was maintained in the office of the founding vice president for academic affairs who served in that capacity from 1994 until 1999. These documents were particularly relevant to the study because the vice president was directly responsible for the implementation of S-L at Aleon University.

Faculty Interviews

In qualitative interviewing, it is assumed that “the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe” (Patton, 1990, p. 278). When identifying and describing program theory, knowledge of the beliefs and perceptions of those who have firsthand experience with the program is essential because the theory of a program is conceptual and cannot be directly observed (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 164).

Purposeful sampling techniques were used to identify faculty to be interviewed (Patton, 1990). The researcher contacted nine faculty members and asked if they would consider participating in interviews for this study; seven accepted. Two faculty, whose names were included on a previously published list of S-L courses, declined because they no longer taught S-L courses. In all, the researcher interviewed seven faculty, two males and five females who were actively involved in S-L. Faculty interview participants were identified as Faculty A, Faculty B, and so forth to preserve confidentiality. These individuals were referred to as “faculty” because

they taught one or more S-L courses. Their actual ranks and titles varied and ranged from full professor to instructor. Each had been employed at the university from two to eight years. Five of the individuals had administrative assignments within their respective colleges or departments in addition to instructional duties. Interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes and were conducted one-on-one at the convenience of the participant. Consistent with ethnographic research techniques (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982), the participants determined interview conditions. Five interviews were conducted in the respective faculty member's office at the university. Two individuals closed their doors during the interview. During two interviews, other university personnel briefly entered the offices. One interview was conducted at the home of the participant, and one interview was conducted in the university's cafeteria.

Each interview was preceded with a statement explaining the nature of the study. Participants completed consent to participate forms and gave permission to audiotape the interviews. A contact summary form was completed for each field contact (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990) (see Appendix B). The contact sheet included where the interview occurred, who was present, observations about how the participant reacted to the interview, observations about the interviewer's own role, and additional information that helped establish context for interpreting and making sense out of the interview (Patton). Accounts of interviews, including ideas and interpretations, were prepared as soon as possible after the interviews. Originally, the audiotapes were to be used for verification of field notes. This approach was consistent with Stake (1995) who noted that "getting the exact words of the respondent is not usually very important, it is what they mean that is important" (p. 66). As the researcher began to analyze the data collected from field notes, it was determined that additional detail was needed; consequently, the researcher transcribed the interviews.

The semi-structured faculty interviews were conducted using an interview guide (see Appendix C). Interview questions were developed after reviewing relevant literature. The director of the Center for Civic Engagement and a faculty mentor assisted with wording, sequencing, and testing of the interview questions. In developing the interview questions, a member of the dissertation committee anticipated that the open-ended questions would result a wide variety of responses. The committee member suggested that the open-ended questions be supplemented with a more structured inquiry. Consequently, after responding to the open-ended questions, the researcher asked participants to react to a list of student outcomes that were derived from the S-L literature (see Table 3). Participants were asked to select (from the list) the primary outcomes that they would expect to observe in a student as a result of the student's participation in S-L in general (rather than in a specific class) and to add items if the primary outcomes that they expected to see were not listed.

Table 3: Student Outcomes Reported in Literature

PERSONAL OUTCOMES

Sense of personal efficacy
Personal identity
Spiritual growth
Moral development
Interpersonal skills
Ability to work with others
Leadership skills
Communication skills

SOCIAL OUTCOMES

Reduce stereotypes/facilitate cultural and racial understanding
Sense of social responsibility
Citizenship skills
Commitment to service in the future

LEARNING OUTCOMES

Enhances learning of subject matter
Improves ability to apply knowledge to “real world”
Problem analysis
Critical thinking
Cognitive development

CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Abstracted from Eyler, Giles, et al. (2001). *At a Glance: What We Know About the Effects of Service-Learning on College Students, Faculty, Institutions and Communities, 1993-2000* (3rd ed).

Administrator Interviews

Four academic administrators at Aleon University (the director of the Center for Civic Engagement, the director of the General Education Program, the director of the Quality Enhancement Plan, and the associate vice president for the Office of Curriculum and Instruction) provided administrative perspectives through unstructured interviews. These administrators were included in the study because their areas of responsibility overlapped with S-L. The articulation of program theory is a process of discovery, so it was important to have administrative perspectives that provided balance to perspectives gained through observations,

document review, and faculty interviews. One additional academic administrator provided clarification regarding early events at the university.

Participant Observations

Generally, the explication of program theory requires successive iterations of data collection and feedback from individuals who have knowledge of the program. According to published accounts of prior efforts to describe program theory, these activities were most effective in small, interactive groups (Kaplan & Garrett, 2005; Rossi et al., 1999). Alcorn University's Service-Learning Transition Committee (formerly the Service-Learning Task Force) was the most logical group for this discussion and feedback. Interaction with this group also provided a venue for participant observation.

The Service-Learning Transition Committee met once in September 2005, once in October 2005, and again in early December 2005. At the September meeting, the researcher provided details of the study including an explanation about the anticipated role that committee would take in providing feedback. Eleven members of the committee, including the researcher, attended at least one meeting. Members agreed to participate and signed consent forms. Each meeting lasted approximately two hours. During the meetings, the researcher took notes and made observations. The notes, which were circulated back to the committee members for comment and verification, identified issues that could have an impact on the existing Service-Learning Program as well as the proposed transition from hour- to course- or program-based S-L.

Direct Observations

Direct observations, totaling approximately 12 hours, were used to help determine whether the program's intentions, as represented in program documents and accounts by program stakeholders, were generally realistic. A program theory that describes activities and outcomes that are generally unattainable is "overblown and cannot be realistically held up as a depiction of what is supposed to happen in the program context" (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 166). In order to get a sense of how S-L was addressed in the classroom setting, the researcher directly observed one class meeting of *Styles and Ways of Learning* and two class meetings of *Foundation of Civic Engagement*. The purpose of these observations was to provide first-hand experience in the setting, to provide additional insight into the operation of the Service-Learning Program, and to supplement program details derived from documents, interviews, and other observations. These observations were not intended to be representative of all S-L courses at Aleon University because the topics, goals, forms, and instructors varied across classes. No students were interviewed in these classes, and the researcher did not participate in discussions.

The researcher also attended a Government and Non-Profit Service Learning and Job Fair held at the university. The fair was co-sponsored by the Center for Civic Engagement, which manages the S-L program. The purpose in attending this event was to gain a better understanding of the range of service opportunities available to students. Over 35 non-profit and government agencies participated in the fair. The researcher collected brochures and talked with representatives from numerous agencies, including Hope Hospice; Interfaith Caregivers; ECHO Educational Concerns for Hunger Organization; the Candlelighters, an organization that provides aid and support to families of children with cancer and blood disorders; Big Brothers Big Sisters; the American Red Cross; the African Caribbean American Catholic Center; the local Child

Protection Team; and the Peace Corps. Each agency had a poster board with photos showing activities that they sponsored. Agency representatives described contributions that volunteers, including students earning S-L hours, made in achieving agency goals.

The researcher also attended two meetings of ad-hoc groups that were exploring ways of incorporating Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP) requirements into coursework. The purpose in attending these meetings was to gain insight into issues affecting administration of the Service-Learning Program. Topics discussed at the ad-hoc meetings included the developmental model of learning, student assessment instruments and processes, and curriculum review. The QEP is a regional accreditation requirement. In general, the purpose of a QEP is to enhance student learning. The goal of Aleon University's QEP was to develop in students an ecological and community involvement perspectives (two of the university's Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes). S-L will be one mechanism for achieving QEP goals. The curriculum of *Styles and Ways of Learning* and *Connections* (courses that currently include S-L) and *Colloquium* (a required upper division course that does not currently include S-L) will be revised effective fall 2006 to accommodate QEP requirements and assessments.

Data Analysis

Data analysis included both process and variance modes. The process mode used chronologies and looked for connections within the big picture, and the variance mode sought out similarities and conceptual patterns within the data, with less emphasis on sequence and time (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Scott, 2001). Processes associated program theory development were used to identify program goals, objectives, central intended outcomes for students, and processes. Data analysis began with the review of numerous documents for relevance to the

study. Documents were essential sources of information for background and context, for tracking changes over time, and for identifying environmental forces that influenced the development of S-L.

The researcher read and sorted documents into two categories: those that did and those that did not have passages that referred to service, S-L, or the institutional or social climate that influenced the development of S-L. Based on this preliminary sorting, the researcher identified 35 documents that needed further review and analysis. The researcher entered data from the documents into a two-column table. The first column included information such as document title, author, date, and/or audience. The second column contained excerpts from and summaries of the documents' contents. The 22-page table allowed me to study the data and to see exactly what words were used, how they were used, and the context in which they were used. The table also provided a timeline of S-L related events that could be compared with other events at the university and within the broader contexts of S-L and higher education. The researcher further reduced the data by extracting specific phrases or passages that were associated with program goals and objectives or intended student outcomes. These smaller chunks of data were entered into another table that was shared with study participants during the feedback process.

The researcher personally transcribed and coded the seven faculty interviews. In the first attempt to code the interview data, the researcher used categories such as "program goals and outcomes," "student outcomes," and "service-learning experiences." After careful study of the data, the researcher came to see that these preliminary codes conflated two levels of data: (a) information about specific S-L courses that were discussed during interviews and (b) information about S-L in general. After adjusting the coding process, the researcher prepared two summaries for each interview. The first summary contained demographic information about the faculty

member including college, time at institution, and motivation/encouragement for engaging in S-L. The summary also included information from the interview about the faculty member's beliefs and perceptions about S-L in general, including benefits or outcomes for students and others as a result of S-L. This summary also captured the faculty member's reactions to the outcomes reported in the literature.

The second summary included data specific to a particular course that was offered at the university within the past year, taught by the faculty member, and discussed during the interview. The researcher used information from the syllabi provided by faculty, the 2005-2006 University Catalog, and the interviews to prepare summaries of each course that contained the following data: course title and description; course discipline/level; role of course in the undergraduate curriculum; focus of course; outcomes/benefits for students from S-L; service activity (general guidelines/example); service location (general guidelines/example); reflection; and comments. As a form of member checking, the researcher sent summary sheets to the respective interview participants and asked that they review the information, make necessary corrections, and reply using electronic mail. The researcher also offered to discuss the summaries either by telephone or in person. Five replies were received through electronic mail. Two respondents indicated that the information was correct, one respondent added information to the "role of course in undergraduate curriculum" field, one respondent suggested a minor modification to wording in one outcome phrase, and one respondent clarified activities involved in reflection.

The researcher developed four constructs to further code and categorize central program outcomes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The purpose was to identify congruence across categories of data sources rather than to examine variation within a single category. These constructs drew

from previous works including the summary of the S-L literature by Eyler, Giles, et al. (2001) and a dissertation by Pollack (1997). Pollack developed five constructs that he used to code phrases and track the changing meanings of S-L over time. Two of his constructs addressed student outcomes: *career-oriented student outcomes*, which included terms like “career,” “job,” and “school-to-work;” and *common good-oriented student outcomes*, which included terms like “volunteer,” “citizen,” and “civic” (Pollack, p. 193). The four outcome constructs that were used in this study—*social/civic outcomes*, *personal outcomes*, *learning outcomes*, and *career outcomes*—and the terms and phrases used to signify the constructs are listed in Table 4.

Table 4: Constructs for Outcome Analysis

Social/Civic Outcomes	Personal Outcomes	Learning Outcomes	Career Outcomes
Citizen	Ability to work with others	Abstract thought	Career
Citizenship skills	Communication skills	Apply knowledge to real world	Employment
Civil society	Ethical decisions	Cognitive development	Job
Civic engagement	Interpersonal skills	Concrete concepts	Occupation
Commitment to service	Leadership skills	Content matter	Professional development
Community advocate	Lifelong learner	Course content	Workplace
Community awareness	Manage group conflict	Course materials	Vocation
Community involvement	Moral development	Critical thinking	
Concern for others	Personal efficacy	Discipline material	
Contribute to community	Personal identity	Learning of subject matter	
Cultural understanding	Personal meaning	Problem analysis	
Democracy	Presentation skills	Problem solving	
National heritage	Spiritual growth	Structures of mind	
Public service		Subject matter	
Racial understanding		Theoretical perspectives	
Reduce stereotypes		Think out of the box	
Relationships			
Service			
Social issues			
Social responsibility			
Volunteer			
Welfare of others			

Summary

A case study design, using qualitative research methods, was used to document and examine the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University, a public, comprehensive institution that that opened in fall 1997. This approach was used because the study focused on a particular program and formal research conventions have not been developed for S-L. Data sources included documents, interviews, and observations. Constructs were developed to sort data related to central outcomes and to compare data across categories of sources. The following chapter presents a chronological review of the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L at the study site and an analysis of the data in response to the research questions.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of analyses conducted for the purpose of documenting and examining the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University. Data sources included 35 documents, spanning the years 1991-2005; interviews with seven faculty members and four academic administrators; observations of three class meetings of S-L courses, a Government and Not-for-Profit Service Learning Job Fair, and five meetings where S-L was a primary topic of discussion. The chapter begins with a narrative describing a sequence of events and activities that contributed to the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L at Aleon University. The chapter continues with findings that respond to the research questions. These questions focus on concepts associated with program theory: program goals and objectives, intended outcomes for students, mediating processes, and program activities. The chapter concludes with an overall summary of findings.

Process of Developing the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University

The notion that the present and the future are built on the past is fundamental to institutional thought. In this study, process analysis was used to demonstrate how observed effects happened (Scott, 2001; Zucker, 1997). In process analysis, the focus is on the sequential order of contributing events rather than on abstract variables and their relationships. The

assumption is “that ‘history matters,’ that how things occur influences what things happen” (Scott, p. 91; see also Zald, 1990).

As described in Chapter 2, during the 1970s, most S-L practitioners operated outside of the norms of traditional higher education. In the 1980s and 1990s, regulative, normative, and cognitive-cultural mechanisms—the three pillars of institutional theory—were used to redefine acceptable S-L activity. The following passage, which describes the demise of the journal *Synergist* in 1982, shows how these mechanisms were used to influence individual and group behavior:

Doing an article about community organizing would absolutely drive people wild. It was unthinkable that we were encouraging students to go and rock the boat. It was unthinkable to them. In one of those last issues of *Synergist* there was an article about community organizing, and that is what did us in. It really created a horrible scene, and I almost got strung up by my heels. So, they dismantled the program. They canceled the *Synergist*, and took everyone away that I had as staff. And so that’s when I threw in the towel. (Baird, as cited in Pollard, 1997, p. 101)

The manner in which these mechanisms were used to redefine the boundaries of appropriate S-L activity is described below:

1. Regulative pillar: Appropriate S-L activity and maintenance of the social order were encouraged through the use of rules, surveillance, and sanctioning. Articles that appeared in *Synergist* during the early 1980s were at odds with the informal and formal rules that governed the use of federal funds. The new norms were enforced through the dismantling of the program that funded *Synergist*.

2. Normative pillar: The journal’s publishers and contributing authors, faculty and others associated with higher education, were operating outside of accepted roles for their positions. These individuals were encouraging students to “rock the boat.” Pressure was placed

on these individuals to change what they were doing and adopt new behaviors that were within accepted norms for their roles.

3. Cultural-cognitive pillar: The group who controlled federal funds had developed shared conceptions of how S-L activity should operate and how federal funds should be used. To this group, it was “inconceivable” that others (e.g., faculty and community organizers) would behave in a manner that was inconsistent with the shared understandings of the funders.

Table 5 presents events and activities described in Chapter 2, as well as events and activities associated with the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L at Aleon University. As the timeline indicates, planning for the new university occurred during a period of intense S-L activity at the national level. The 1994 letter from President William Clinton to higher education leaders was unprecedented and illustrated the prominent place that service held on the national agenda. The historical documents reviewed in this study suggest that the planners and administrators of the new university were aware of the discussions taking place across the nation, and they purposely included service initiatives as prominent features of the new university.

Table 5: Extended Timeline of Events and Activities Associated with Service-Learning

LEVEL	TIME PERIOD		
	1964-1979 (Pioneer Period)	1980-1995 (Early Mainstream Period)	1996-2005
National	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 1st S-L program (1964) - Civil Rights Act (1964) - NSVP (1969) - S-L Conference (1969) - <i>Synergist</i> funded (1971) - UYA (1971) - SFEE (1971) - NCPSI (1972) - FIPSE (1972) - NSIEE (1978) - NCSL (1979) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Funding withdrawn for <i>Synergist</i> (1982) - COOL (1984) - Campus Compact (1985) - 20-Year CIRP Report (1987) - ISAS (1989) - Wingspread Principles (1989) - NCSA (1990) - NCSTA (1993) - Clinton letter (1994) - Presidents' Declaration on Civic Responsibility (1999) 	
State		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Founding Mission Statement (1991) - Ten Year Development Plan (1992) 	
Local			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Guiding Principles (1996) - Deans' Council Planning Retreat (1996) - Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes (1997) - University opening (1997) - S-L Mission Statement and Program Criteria (1997) - Arrival of university's second president (2001) - First S-L Course (2001) - S-L included in General Education courses (2001) - Center for Civic Engagement established (2002) - Campus Compact Institute (2002) - Faculty Senate sanctioned examination of S-L (2002) - Campus Compact Grant (2003) - Faculty Senate endorsed concept of curricular S-L (2003)

Initially, the university's planners reacted in a matter consistent with what Oliver (1991) termed *acquiescence*. Oliver theorized that organizations have five general strategies available to them when confronted with institutional pressures: *acquiescence*, *compromise*, *avoidance*, *defiance*, and *manipulation*. *Acquiescence*, defined as compliance with perceived demands of regulative, normative, or cultural forces, can be adopted for several reasons including "anticipation of enhanced legitimacy, fear of negative sanctions, or hope of additional resources" (Scott, 2001, p. 171). All of the early planning documents for Aleon University included passages that referred to community service, signifying early acquiescence to social and institutional pressures to promote service in higher education.

The implementation of S-L at Aleon University indicated that the strategy taken in 1996 and 1997 by senior university administrators may have been *compromise* instead of *acquiescence*. Oliver (1991) argued that organizations confronted with conflicting demands or inconsistencies between external and internal demands may employ balancing tactics. The founding vice president for academic affairs balanced the expectation that the university would have a S-L program with the expectation that a faculty member has autonomy in the classroom. This balancing tactic resulted in the implementation of S-L as a co-curricular graduation requirement rather than S-L as a component of the academic curriculum.

Stinchcombe (1965) recognized that some social and institutional influences present at the time of an organization's founding have particularly profound and long-lasting effects. He theorized that these early influences could become *imprinted* on an organization causing characteristics or actions to persist and become institutionalized. The analysis of the data indicated that S-L has persisted at the institution. Compromises were made during implementation and changes have been made to the program over the years (see Table 6); but, to

date, no individuals or groups at the institution have publicly challenged the legitimacy of S-L as a central feature of the university. In fact, discussions are under way to further institutional S-L by fully incorporating it into the academic curriculum. The continued prominence of S-L at Aleon University appears to support Stinchcombe's (1965) theory of *imprinting*.

Table 6: Compromises/Changes Associated with the Service-Learning Program

Topic	Initial Plan	Compromise/Change
Faculty Involvement	Faculty assignments were to be tied to student public service projects in order to "build a culture of contributed service" (Ten Year Development Plan, 1992).	Service projects have never been tied to faculty assignments. Prior to 2001, all students created their own service projects. After that time, some S-L placements were arranged by faculty.
Role of S-L in the Curriculum	Community-based public service was to be incorporated into the academic curriculum. Complicating factor was that faculty have autonomy in the classroom and could not be required to include S-L.	S-L program was implemented as an administratively mandated hour-based graduation requirement that was fulfilled through student action. Beginning in 2001, S-L was integrated into two General Education courses. The primary purpose of these courses is not to further S-L objectives. S-L "shares space" with other curricular purposes including General Education, the QEP, and course content.
Time Frame	Students were expected to complete all S-L hours prior to Senior Seminar. Complicating factor was that are no mechanisms to monitor S-L in the course registration, maintenance, and tracking system. (Note: The current system makes tracking very difficult.)	S-L became a graduation requirement that was verified by S-L office staff who keep track of hours through paper documentation submitted by students.
Portfolio	A portfolio of activities was to be developed by students and submitted during the Senior Seminar course.	Students did not complete portfolios. Senior Seminar was used to satisfy other purposes within the curriculum, and S-L was never integrated into the course.
Assessment	Assessment of S-L was to take place within the context of Senior Seminar.	No formal assessment has taken place in regards to impact on students, university, or community.
Reflection	Reflection component was to be built into the program. Complicating factor was that S-L was not attached to a particular course.	No mechanisms for formal reflection are in place for S-L that occurs outside of the courses that have been offered since 2001.

The environment shapes and constrains organizational behavior, but actions taken by individuals within an organization can also shape and constrain behavior. *Agency*, a concept used by institutional theorists, refers to the ability of “individual actors to ‘make a difference’ in the flow of events” (Scott, 2001, p. 75). The actions of the planners of Aleon University influenced the development of both the university and the Service-Learning Program. Their “interrelated planning process” (Adams, 2003, p. 78) resulted in university documents that served as symbolic carriers of ideas and expectations. These artifacts promoted shared understandings and practices that have become “deeply embedded in time and space” (Giddens, 1984, p. 13). The following pages contain descriptions of events and activities that contributed to the development the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University.

Founding Mission Statement

The Founding Mission Statement for Aleon University was approved by the state higher education governing board in 1991, two years before the founding president was hired, four years before the university was officially named, and six years before the university opened its doors to students. This document served as a blueprint for institutional planning and decision-making until a new mission statement was adopted in 2002. It included specific references to undergraduate education, alternative teaching and learning methods, and public service:

The new university has as its primary mission, undergraduate education, with a broad range of programs in arts and sciences, business, environmental science, computer science, education, nursing/allied health, and social services An important element of the university will be the variety of alternative teaching and learning systems Faculty will be expected to focus on public service activities and projects that are primarily community-based with the relative need being assessed with input from regional community organizations. Complementing the public service mission will be a

student volunteer service designed to provide each student with exposure to a planned community project, thus developing in the student a commitment to public service after graduation. Faculty research will support the teaching and service mission and will have as its primary focus the application of research to serve state and regional needs. (Founding Mission Statement, 1991)

Ten Year Development Plan for a New University

The service theme described in the 1991 Founding Mission Statement was reinforced in the Ten Year [sic] Development Plan for a New University, which was adopted by the state higher education governing board in 1992. The plan included a separate paragraph describing the “Public Service Focus:”

A special area of emphasis is to develop public service which will tie faculty assignments and evaluation, in their primary discipline area, with student public service projects in order to build a culture of contributed service that makes a real difference in the lives and welfare of other citizens or in the preservation and protection of our natural heritage. Long one of the trio of goals of higher education, this area has been viewed almost exclusively as a faculty domain. Here, the plan is to educate students, in part, by formal participation in and evaluation of defined projects which will become a part of the undergraduate degree program. (Ten Year Development Plan, 1992, p. 12)

State-level planners and administrators created both the Founding Mission Statement and the Ten Year Development Plan. The group included eight senior administrators from around the state: two from public universities, one from a public community college, and two from the state higher education governing board. One of the representatives from the state higher education board was appointed president of the new institution in 1993.

The Ten Year Development Plan outlined specific steps that would be taken during the university’s development and its first years of operation. It addressed routine matters such as types of programs to be offered, but it also authorized an unusual administrative power to be granted to the university’s future president:

The new president, once other staff have been appointed to the new university, may designate another person to participate in the interview and selection process. He or she will have the prerogative to withhold approval of any appointment to the tenth university. We must select persons who fit both the branch mission and the new university mission. (Ten Year Development Plan, 1992, p. 7)

The new university's faculty and professional staff were a blend of individuals hired specifically for the university, individuals hired jointly by the university and the branch campus during the transition period (1993-1997), and transfers from the local branch campus that closed when Aleon University opened in 1997. As the university's first president later explained,

A section was added to the plan to specifically give to the new president the authority to evaluate each branch campus staff member's commitment to the new university before offering an appointment. If any faculty member could not or did not endorse the Mission, then they would be reassigned to the main campus or one of the other campuses [of the older state university]. Fortunately, most of the faculty were enthusiastic, and saw a great future for the community and themselves. (Adams, 2003, p. 26)

Each new candidate was given a copy of the mission and asked to study it before the visit and interview. Later, if offered a position, each candidate was asked to commit to that mission as an integral part of employment. (Adams, p. 104)

The act of employing only those individuals that supported the official vision facilitated the creation of a unique organizational identity. The faculty and staff developed shared meanings and routines, which quickly became the reality of "how things were done around here." This shared vision was sustained for years, in part, because only those individuals that committed to the vision were invited to join the university.

Guiding Principles

In 1993, one of the initial university planners was selected to be the new university's president. He brought interrelated planning from the state to the local level. In 1994, the founding vice president for academic affairs joined the university and assembled a team of deans

and academic administrators who were committed to implementing the vision laid out in the existing planning documents. The deans were responsible for putting “substance on the bones of the Mission Statement” (Adams, 2003, p. 77). In June 1996, the group created a document that contained guiding principles that would serve as a “bridge from Mission to operations and support the long-term planning process with philosophy and principles that would serve students, faculty, and staff well as successive generations populated the university” (Adams, 2003, pp. 77). The Guiding Principles, reproduced below, were administratively reaffirmed in 2002 when the Aleon University’s Board of Trustees approved a new mission statement:

Student success is at the center of all university endeavors. The university is dedicated to the highest quality education that develops the whole person for success in life and work. Learner needs, rather than institutional preferences, determine priorities for academic planning, policies, and programs. Acceleration methods and assessment of prior and current learning are used to reduce the time it takes to earn a degree. Quality teaching is demanded, recognized, and rewarded.

Academic freedom is the foundation for the transmission and advancement of knowledge. The university vigorously protects freedom of inquiry and expression and categorically expects civility and mutual respect to be practiced in all deliberations.

Diversity is a source of renewal and vitality. The university is committed to developing capacities for living together in a democracy whose hallmark is individual, social, cultural, and intellectual diversity. It fosters a climate and models a condition of openness in which students, faculty, and staff engage multiplicity and difference with tolerance and equity.

Informed and engaged citizens are essential to the creation of a civil and sustainable society. The university values the development of the responsible self grounded in honesty, courage, and compassion, and committed to advancing democratic ideals. Through Service Learning requirements, the university engages students in community involvement with time for formal reflection on their experiences. Integral to the university’s philosophy is instilling in students an environmental consciousness that balances their economic and social aspirations with the imperative for ecological sustainability.

Service to [the region], including access to the university, is a public trust. The university is committed to forging partnerships and being responsive to its region. It strives to make available its knowledge resources, services, and educational offerings at

times, places, in forms and by methods that will meet the needs of all its constituents. Access means not only admittance to buildings and programs, but also entrance into the spirit of intellectual and cultural community that the university creates and nourishes.

Technology is a fundamental tool in achieving educational quality, efficiency, and distribution. The university employs information technology in creative, experimental, and practical ways for delivery of instruction, for administrative and information management, and for student access and support. It promotes and provides distance- and time-free learning. It requires and cultivates technological literacy in its students and employees.

Connected knowing and collaborative learning are basic to being well educated. The university structures interdisciplinary learning experiences throughout the curriculum to endow students with the ability to think in whole systems and to understand the interrelatedness of knowledge across disciplines. Emphasis is placed on the development of teamwork skills through collaborative opportunities. Overall, the university practices the art of collective learning and collaboration in governance, operations, and planning.

Assessment of all functions is necessary for improvement and continual renewal. The university is committed to accounting for its effectiveness through the use of comprehensive and systematic assessment. Tradition is challenged; the status quo is questioned; change is implemented. (2005-2006 University Catalog, p. 10; emphasis in original)

These Guiding Principles have appeared in every university catalog since the institution opened in 1997. They have been frequently cited in institutional publications and, whenever possible, were presented in close proximity to the university's 2002 (current) mission statement.

Deans' Council Planning Retreat

During a December 1996 retreat, members of the Deans' Council endorsed a structure for the proposed Service-Learning Program at Aleon University:

1. Volunteer hours will make a contribution toward the community at large.
2. Course credit will not be awarded for the volunteer activities.
3. Volunteer hours will be exclusive of internships and field placements.

4. Students must provide evidence of volunteer work based on admission status—80 volunteer hours for freshmen and sophomores and 40 volunteer hours for juniors and seniors.
5. Completion of the service-learning requirement will be assessed in the senior seminar.
6. Students will be required to maintain a portfolio of activities, which will be submitted in the senior seminar.
7. Expectations for senior seminar will be included in student orientation activities through student services.
8. Each college may define the service learning model within established university parameters.

This S-L planning document was not widely distributed. In fact, the current director of the Center for Civic Engagement who started the S-L program at Aleon University was not aware of the document's existence. She said that she implemented the program based on handwritten notes on a half sheet of yellow legal pad paper given to her by the vice president for academic affairs in summer of 1997. Although those original "marching orders" have since disappeared, she believes that the yellow paper contained the vice president's notes from the December 1996 Deans' Council retreat.

Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes

During fall 1996 and spring 1997, the vice president for academic affairs and the deans continued the "interrelated planning process" (Adams, 2003, p. 78). They developed a set of goals and outcomes that "were to guide the teaching-learning process in fulfilling both the Mission and the Guiding Principles" (Adams, p. 78). The following Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes have been a guiding force for the development of undergraduate, and to some extent graduate, curricula during the entire history of the institution:

Goal 1: Aesthetic sensibility. Know and understand the variety of aesthetic frameworks that have shaped, and continue to shape, human creative arts. Analyze and evaluate the aesthetic principles at work in literary and artistic composition, intellectual systems, and disciplinary and professional practices. Collaborate with others in projects involving aesthetic awareness, participation and/or analysis.

Goal 2: Culturally diverse perspective. Know and understand the diversity of the local and global communities, including cultural, social, political and economic differences. Analyze, evaluate, and assess the impact of differences in ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, native language, sexual orientation and intellectual/disciplinary approaches. Participate in collaborative projects requiring productive interaction with culturally-diverse people, ideas and values.

Goal 3: Ecological perspective. Know the issues related to economic, social and ecological sustainability. Analyze and evaluate ecological issues locally and globally. Participate in collaborative projects requiring awareness and/or analysis of ecological and environmental issues.

Goal 4: Effective communication. Know the fundamental principles for effective and appropriate communication, including reading, writing, speaking and listening skills. Organize thoughts and compose ideas for a variety of audiences, using a range of communication tools and techniques. Participate in collaborative projects requiring effective communications among team members.

Goal 5: Ethical responsibility. Know and understand the key ethical issues related to a variety of disciplines and professions. Analyze and evaluate key ethical issues in a variety of disciplinary and professional contexts. Participate in collaborative projects requiring ethical analysis and/or decision-making.

Goal 6: Information literacy. Identify and locate multiple sources of information using a variety of methods. Analyze and evaluate information within a variety of disciplinary and professional contexts. Participate in collaborative analysis and/or application of information resources.

Goal 7: Problem-solving abilities. Understand the multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary nature of knowledge. Apply critical, analytical, creative and systems thinking in order to recognize and solve problems. Work individually and collaboratively to recognize and solve problems.

Goal 8: Technological literacy. Develop knowledge of modern technology. Process information through the use of technology. Collaborate with others using technology tools.

Goal 9: Community awareness and involvement. Know and understand the important and complex relationships between individuals and the communities in which they live

and work. Analyze, evaluate and assess human needs and practices within the context of community structures and traditions. Participate collaboratively in community service projects. (2005-2006 university Catalog, pp. 10-11; emphasis in original)

These institutional planning documents served as mechanisms for creating a stable social order at the new university. The Guiding Principles and the Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes were both “internalized and imposed by others,” and they provided the “moral roots” (Scott, 2001, p. 56) to sustain the university’s core values during periods of uncertainty and rapid growth.

Service-Learning Mission Statement and Program Criteria

Working protocol and guidelines for S-L at Aleon University were developed between July 1 and August 25, 1997, the date when the institution officially opened. An advisory board for S-L was assembled in fall 1997. All units of the university were required to develop mission statements; and, in October 1997, the Service Learning Advisory Board approved the following mission statement for S-L:

Through mission and function, the university takes pride in partnerships forged with the communities it serves. Students are central to these partnerships and are provided opportunities for community involvement through the Service Learning Program. Students are expected to meet university learning outcomes in classrooms, in field experiences and through community experiences. Community service experiences support learning outcomes, foster civic responsibility and develop informed citizens who participate in their communities after graduation in personally and professionally relevant ways. An appreciation for the interconnectedness of individuals, the communities in which they live and the resources required to sustain both is facilitated by the reflective component built into the Service Learning Program. Documenting service learning activities enables each student to build a portfolio which highlights goal attainment and skill acquisition.

The Service Learning Advisory Board also approved program criteria:

1. Undergraduate students at Aleon University perform service learning hours as part of their degree programs. Students entering university degree programs as freshmen or

sophomores will complete a total of 80 hours before registering for senior seminar. Students entering university degree programs at the junior or senior level will complete a total of 40 hours before registering for senior seminar.

2. Graduate students and non-degree seeking students are strongly encouraged to participate in service learning opportunities.
3. Due to transitional issues and policy development schedules, students receiving university degrees by the end of Spring Semester 1999 are exempted from the service learning requirement, although these students are invited to participate.
4. A database of service learning opportunities, a program newsletter, a discussion group and other service information are available at the Service Learning website which is accessed via the university's homepage.
5. Service learning activities enhance the educational experience and must meet two or more university student learning goals and outcomes.
6. Academic transcripts reflect the total number of service hours performed. Students may request co-curricular transcripts which detail service learning experiences.
7. Students are responsible for completing appropriate forms to document their service learning experiences.

Change of Leadership but Continuity of Message

On September 15, 1999, Aleon University welcomed its second president. The second president, who followed the founding president and two interim presidents, continues in this role as of December, 2005. The following excerpt from a speech referred to as Initial Address and Welcome, delivered August 27, 1999, illustrates the new president's apparent acceptance of institutional norms:

The vision, mission and guiding principles are unusually attractive to me at this stage of my career. To play a role in leading a "cutting edge" university is a very exciting prospect for me personally Where else could one find, under a single university umbrella, a major commitment to a learning centered environment; student success; service learning; interdisciplinary approaches in the liberal arts and sciences; team teaching; active learning and undergraduate research; distance learning; innovative staffing design; partnerships with schools, the health care community, community colleges, and sister institutions within the state university system, business and

governmental agencies; international initiatives; a coherent curriculum with strong professional programs solidly centered in the liberal arts and sciences; a beautiful new campus constructed with respect for its pristine environment; a dedicated and creative faculty committed to innovation and student success; indefatigable staff and energetic bright students; a frontier ethic; an extraordinarily strong community support, both political and financial; very strong support from the system chancellor . . . the state legislature and governor. For all these reasons, Aleon University appears to have no equal in the world.

On May 6, 2000, the president delivered a commencement address at the local community college. In this address, the president referred to the numerous social problems caused by the “*disconnect* to the skills, ideas and practice that are critical for citizens in a democratic society.” The president cited the work of Dr. Alexander Astin, a professor at UCLA, who had conducted research on the impact of service learning:

[Dr. Astin’s] long-range studies demonstrate that participation in volunteer service during the undergraduate years enhances a student’s academic development, civic responsibilities and life skills. As a consequence of service participation, students become more strongly committed to helping others, serving their communities, and promoting racial understanding. On measures of academic success and service learning, he found that college grade point averages go up; persistence levels go up; general knowledge increases, and overall academic self-confidence is improved.

Four months later, the president addressed the Aleon University Faculty Senate regarding issues affecting the institution. According to the minutes of the September 19, 2000, Faculty Senate meeting, “the president requested that the faculty give more thought to including service learning into curriculum [sic].”

First Service-Learning Course

In spring 2001, the university offered its first academic credit course with a S-L component integrated into coursework. This S-L course resulted from the efforts of two faculty members who had developed a lower-division ethics course approximately two years earlier.

During an interview for this study, one of the course developers reported that they wanted to enhance the educational value of the course by incorporating service experiences:

[The] traditional, rational, legalistic perspective . . . has no effect whatsoever when it comes to changing peoples' behavior You can learn all the principles you want about ethics—about what you should do from Confucian categorical and utilitarian perspectives—but, but it doesn't change behavior. An analogy is that if studying laws really worked . . . then you would never see any attorneys in jail. Because they studied the law, they should have internalized the law, but they didn't They learned that it is nothing more than an elaborate set of principles and they learn to maneuver around the stuff. So, we switched our whole approach to ethics.

The course developer continued with a description of how service experiences supported ethics education:

You have to have contact with people who have fallen down on their luck or have experienced a bad time or something, a disaster or whatever it is The assumption was that you would . . . [meet] people, the homeless or [people] in the shelters and that you would . . . come into contact with them and you would talk to them and see what has happened to them and by so doing, whatever the empathetic ability you had would be triggered and over a period of 10 hours it would be strengthened.

The course developers believed that students should be able to apply service hours earned through a course to the university's S-L graduation requirement. They collaborated with the Service-Learning Office to change guidelines governing S-L at the university. Their efforts were successful, and the vice president for academic affairs approved course-based S-L and the use of hours earned through courses to fulfill the hour-based S-L graduation requirement.

Service-Learning Incorporated into General Education Courses

In fall 2001, S-L was incorporated into two interdisciplinary, lower division courses required in the General Education Program. These courses have been referred to as the “bookend courses” for General Education. The 2005-2006 University Catalog described them as “introductory and capstone experiences [that] tie General Education into a coherent whole and

launch the student toward acquiring the broad knowledge and perspective necessary for personal growth and success” (p. 65). All first-time-in-college students take the one-credit-hour course *Styles and Ways of Learning* during their first semester at the university. According to the syllabus, course objectives include (a) examination of the “idea that all learning involves a relationship among self, content, and context;” (b) introduction to the university’s nine Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes, including self-assessment in each of the outcome areas; and (c) analysis of individual learning styles and preferences. Students also complete 10 hours of S-L teaching or assisting in some meaningful capacity in an educational/learning setting. Service locations usually include public elementary schools, after-school programs, or agencies such as Big Brothers/Big Sisters. A common perception among faculty and administrators is that this course is “packed full” and course objectives and content will need to be evaluated in the future.

The second bookend course, *Connections*, is commonly taken during the second year at the university. According to the syllabus, a goal of this two-credit-hour course is to “explore the role of the active relationship of self to content, environment, and to community.” The Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes are prominent in this course. An instructor said in an interview that the course placed particular emphasis on ecological literacy, effective communication, problem solving, and community awareness and involvement. The S-L aspects of *Connections* vary but generally focus on group projects dealing with native wildlife, marine life, and water management. University students learn about wildlife issues under the direction of an individual who has coordinated the S-L activities for this course since 2000.

In most sections of *Connections*, university students go to local elementary school classrooms and share what they have learned about wildlife with the younger students. Due to

enrollment growth and program management challenges, some students do not go to the elementary schools; instead they make end-of-semester presentations to their classmates in the *Connections* course. Over the years, the S-L aspect of this course has become its own “program.” According to the Wings of Hope Program brochure, the S-L experiences in *Connections* are “designed to build bridges of hope from [Aleon University] to the community in a joint effort to improve the condition of the environment, wildlife and the human community, instilling an awareness that an individual can make a difference” (p. 5)

Center for Civic Engagement Established

On August 22, 2000, Aleon University’s second president, gave an Inaugural Address to students, faculty, staff, and the community. In the speech, the new president referred to S-L and his desire to establish a Center for Civic Engagement:

Last year [during the fall convocation ceremonies], I talked about service learning and the social purposes of higher education. I was delighted to learn during the interview process that Aleon University opened with a commitment to service learning and ethics. I’m pleased to announce that this year we established a new endowed chair This Chair, and our service learning and mentoring programs, will become a part of an established University outreach program. It is our hope to establish a Center for Civic Engagement to provide structure for realizing our social responsibilities as actively engaged citizens.

The Center for Civic Engagement (CCE) was established in 2002. At that time, personnel and functions of the former Service Learning Office were transferred to the CCE. The CCE is responsible for disseminating information about S-L at the university; recruiting agencies to serve as S-L placement sites; maintaining a database of approved placement sites, which as of 2005 included more than 180 locations; faculty development; grant writing and fund raising; coordination of group service and tutoring projects; oversight of Americorps VISTA program activities; and management of community partnerships.

Examination of Service-Learning

In April, 2002, five faculty and administrators from Aleon attended a three-day state-level Campus Compact Institute that included workshops with nationally prominent figures in S-L. Teams were encouraged to develop plans to implement or enhance S-L on their campuses. This institute focused the team's attention on the differences between what the university called S-L, which was primarily co-curricular volunteer service, and what most authorities in the field called S-L, service integrated into academic coursework. While at the institute, the team developed a draft local definition for S-L.

In mid-April 2002, several faculty, including individuals who had attended the Campus Compact Institute, approached the president of the Faculty Senate regarding the issue of S-L. The minutes of the April 19, 2002, meeting of the Faculty Senate provided a record of the discussion:

Faculty Senate President's Report: A group of faculty have asked the Senate to sanction a task force to examine Service Learning at Aleon University. The Senate generally supported this with a recommendation for the task force to collaborate with the Undergraduate Curriculum Team.

Shortly thereafter, the Service-Learning Task Force adopted the following definition of S-L for Aleon University, which was based on the draft developed at the Campus Compact Institute:

Service-learning is an educational experience designed to meet mutually identified community and university needs. It is integrated into the classroom for an enhanced understanding of course and discipline content. Service-learning is a reflective activity that increases knowledge and skills, and provides an enriched learning experience that contributes to personal and career growth. In addition, service-learning facilitates civic engagement and responsibility through reciprocal learning and sensitivity to cultural, economic, and social differences.

This working definition of S-L is displayed on the CCE/S-L website and has been referred to in numerous discussions about S-L at the university; however, the definition has not been not publicly debated at the institution, nor has it been submitted for approval by the Faculty Senate or university administration.

The director of the CCE made a presentation at the March 21, 2003, meeting of the Faculty Senate. The following excerpt of the meeting minutes described the presentation and the action taken by the Senate:

Service Learning Courses:

- Program and course based instead of 'hour' based
- Creates strong community relationships
- Program could be nationally recognized
- Faculty to debrief and integrate experience into the classroom
- Motion made and seconded that the Faculty Senate endorse from hour-based to course or program-based graduation requirement in concept; participate in refining definition of service learning and authorize the current task force to study and make recommendations on course based service learning. Passed unanimously.

Campus Compact Grant

In 2003, the university received a state Campus Compact grant that provided stipends for the purpose of encouraging faculty to integrate S-L into their classes. These stipends were available to all faculty. The university went from having three S-L courses in 2001 to approximately 38 courses in January 2005 (see Table 7). All courses that include S-L except *Styles and Ways of Learning* and *Connections* are offered at the discretion of the faculty; consequently, the actual number of S-L courses offered each term varies. Two of the faculty most active in offering S-L courses attended the April 2002 Campus Compact Institute described above. These faculty teach in the areas of Communication and Spanish and are from the College

of Arts and Sciences. The Campus Compact grant that funded stipends ended in May 2005. The Director of the CCE is exploring options for securing funds to continue faculty stipends.

Summary

This retrospective review of the development of Service-Learning at Aleon University shows that external forces and interrelated planning had a significant impact on the development of S-L at the university. Compromises were made during implementation and what was to be S-L incorporated into the academic curriculum became a co-curricular S-L graduation requirement for the baccalaureate degree. In 2001, faculty offered the first courses with integrated S-L components. Since then more than 35 different S-L courses have been offered. The following sections address individual research questions, which relate to program goals and objectives, intended outcomes for students, and mediating process that are presumed to lead to intended outcomes.

Table 7: List of Service-Learning Courses

College	Discipline/Department	Course
Arts and Sciences	Anthropology	Methods in Anthropological Research
Arts and Sciences	Arts and Sciences	Marginality and the Experience of Other
Arts and Sciences	Communication	Connections
Arts and Sciences	Communication	Integrated Core Senior Seminar
Arts and Sciences	Communication	Nonprofit Public Relations
Arts and Sciences	Communication	Political Campaign Rhetoric
Arts and Sciences	Communication	Public Relations Tactics
Arts and Sciences	Communication	Speech Senior Seminar
Arts and Sciences	Communication	Styles and Ways of Learning
Arts and Sciences	English	Environmental Literature
Arts and Sciences	Political Science	Foundations of Civic Engagement
Arts and Sciences	Spanish	Advanced Oral Expression
Arts and Sciences	Spanish	Interpreting
Arts and Sciences	Spanish	Intro to Oral Translation
Arts and Sciences	Spanish	Oral Skills
Arts and Sciences	Spanish	Spanish Composition
Business	Accounting	Financial Reporting and Analysis II
Business	Communication	Entrepreneurial Field Studies
Business	Management	Business Ethics
Business	Management	Ethical Issues
Business	Marketing	Marketing Analysis and Strategy
Business	Marketing	Marketing Research
Education	Education	Intro to Education (planned)
Education	Education	Teaching Diverse Populations
Education	Education/ESOL	Second Language Acquisition, Community & Culture
Education	Science Education	Science Methods
Education	Special Education	Teaching Children with Moderate/Severe Disabilities
Education	Special Education	Young Children with Special Needs
Health Professions	Gerontology	Foundations of Therapeutic Recreation
Health Professions	Gerontology	Intro to Health Professions
Health Professions	Gerontology	Principles & Practices in Recreation Therapy
Health Professions	Health Sciences	Intergenerational Interaction
Health Professions	Nursing	Community Based Practice
Health Professions	Occupational Therapy	Community Practice
Health Professions	Occupational Therapy	Principles of Development
Professional Studies	Legal Studies	Advanced Legal Research
Professional Studies	Legal Studies	Real Estate Law
Professional Studies	Social Work	Intro to Human Services

Source: Aleon University Quality Enhancement Plan, January 2005

Response to Research Question One

What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding the goals and objectives of the service-learning program at the case study site?

A goal is a “program’s desired outcome” (Weiss, 1998, p. 331). Goals can be extracted from various sources including (a) written statements found in planning, funding, recruiting, and public relations documents; (b) speeches and presentations; (c) discussions and interviews with individuals associated with the program; and (d) observations of program operations. Weiss identified different types of goals including official goals, multiple goals, unstated goals, and real goals. Goals and objectives associated with S-L at Aleon University are described in the following sections.

Official Goals

Official goals found in documents were entry points for understanding what a program was trying to accomplish. Weiss (1998) noted that official goals were frequently written in vague, abstract, or ambiguous language, such as “*improve education*,” “*enhance the quality of life*,” and “*strengthen democratic processes*” (p. 52). In some cases, goals were purposely written in fuzzy terms in order to garner support from multiple constituencies or to mask “underlying divergences in intent” (Weiss, p. 52).

Four documents provided the first written record of goals for S-L at Aleon University:

1. The Founding Mission Statement (1991): This document described a planned “student volunteer service” program that would develop in the student a “commitment to public service after graduation” (p. 3).

2. Ten Year Development Plan (1992): This document described a public service program in which students and faculty, working together, would “built a culture of contributed service that makes a real difference in the lives and welfare of other citizens or in the preservation and protection of our natural heritage” (p. 12).

3. Guiding Principles (1996): According to this document, S-L would be a mechanism for producing “informed and engaged citizens” who could contribute to the “creation of a civil and sustainable society” (2005-2006 University Catalog, p. 10).

4. Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes (1997): This document described the importance of “community awareness and involvement” in understanding “complex relationships between individuals and communities” and in being able to analyze, evaluate, and assess “human needs and practices within the context of community structures and traditions” (2005-2006 University Catalog, p. 10).

These S-L goals were written in broad terms and ambiguous language, a finding consistent with prior research (Rossi et al., 1999; Waring, 1995; Weiss, 1998). The S-L goals found in documents were not presented with related operational objectives. Operational objectives have a single aim and describe what evidence will be produced when the objective is achieved.

Unstated Goals

Programs frequently have unstated goals in addition to stated (official) goals. Some unstated goals are “system-maintenance goals” (Weiss, 1998, p. 54), such as improving community relations, addressing regulatory requirements, and securing funding. System-maintenance goals are legitimate and a “part of organizational life” (Weiss, p. 54). Nonetheless,

efforts directed toward attainment of system-maintenance goals should not substantially detract from attainment of primary goals.

During interviews, faculty identified unstated goals for S-L at Aleon University. Six of the seven faculty interviewed reported that (a) S-L provided needed assistance to community partners including agencies and schools, and (b) S-L enhanced relationships between the university and the community. Two reported that (c) S-L served as a mechanism for getting the university's name out in the public, and (d) S-L served as a conduit of information to and from the community. One faculty member reported that (e) S-L served as a mechanism for demonstrating positive qualities of university personnel and students to community members, one reported that (f) S-L provided a more meaningful experience for teachers, and one reported that (g) S-L was a means for fulfilling the university's mission.

An example of the importance of S-L in promoting good community relations as a system-maintenance goal was illustrated by the inclusion of "service learning hours" in the Aleon University Fact Sheet compiled at least annually by the special assistant to the president. These fact sheets have been widely distributed within the university and have been used as talking points for presentations. The brochure for the S-L course *Connections* contained another example of the focus on community relations. According to the brochure, the S-L experiences in *Connections* build "bridge of hope from the university to the community"

In 2005, S-L may be viewed as a mechanism for promoting good community relations, but it has not always served that purpose. An October 1997 editorial in the local newspaper offered the following critique:

Making service to the community an aspect of a student's university experience is commendable. Making it a requirement is not. Voluntary service to the community is worthwhile, a way of giving back, of building ties, of inculcating spirit. If colleges and

universities can incorporate community service in their curricula in a way that makes it meaningful and motivational, great A university's focus should be on education first. Let community service spring from that—not the other way around.

Multiple Goals

Weiss (1998) described programs that were complex with multiple goals that represented various facets of a multi-modal program. When a program had multiple goals, personnel often focused their energies in some areas but not others. Weiss noted that people often “choose those aspects of the multiple mission that are congenial to them and ignore the rest” (p. 54). As the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University evolved, it became more complex and acquired new goals.

Shortly after the institution opened in 1997, the Service Learning Advisory Board developed a mission statement for S-L that identified the following goals: (a) “support learning outcomes” [both the Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes and course outcomes], (b) “foster civic responsibility,” and (c) “develop informed citizens who participate in their communities after graduation in personally and professionally relevant ways.” Five years later, the Service-Learning Task Force adopted a definition for S-L, that included additional goals: (a) “meet mutually identified community and university needs,” (b) “provide an enhanced understanding of course and discipline content,” (c) “increase knowledge and skills,” (d) “contribute to personal and career growth,” and (e) “facilitate civic engagement through reciprocal learning and sensitivity to cultural, economic, and social differences.” The complex nature of S-L and the multiple goals for S-L at Aleon University meant that some goals received more attention than others. As described in detail later in this chapter, individual faculty members have focused on different aspects of S-L.

Real Goals

According to Weiss (1998), “goals are real to the extent that people are actively devoting time and effort to working toward them” (p. 54). Official documents, program funders, and program managers have not always served as the best sources of information about real goals. They often held idealized conceptions of program purposes, goals, and activities. Consequently, observing program operations and talking with direct-service personnel or clients are recommended.

As of fall 2005, S-L at Aleon University was a blend of co-curricular and curricular activities. One set of real goals for the Service-Learning Program was associated with the mandatory, hour-based graduation requirement for the baccalaureate degree. Staff actively worked to provide S-L placement sites for students, provide information to students about S-L opportunities and expectations, and document S-L hours. The process for attaining these real goals was illustrated in the Service Utilization Flowchart (see Figure 4). At orientation, students were given an information sheet describing the program and its requirements. Students who entered at the freshman and sophomore levels documented 80 S-L hours prior to graduation, and students who entered the junior or senior levels documented 40 S-L hours prior to graduation. Students who entered the university at the freshman or sophomore levels or who had not satisfied General Education requirements earned 10 S-L hours in each of two required General Education courses, *Styles and Ways of Learning* and *Connections*. For all students, remaining hours were earned through either S-L courses or through co-curricular community service activities. All S-L hours were approved by the Center for Civic Engagement. The course instructor also approved S-L hours earned in conjunction with academic courses.

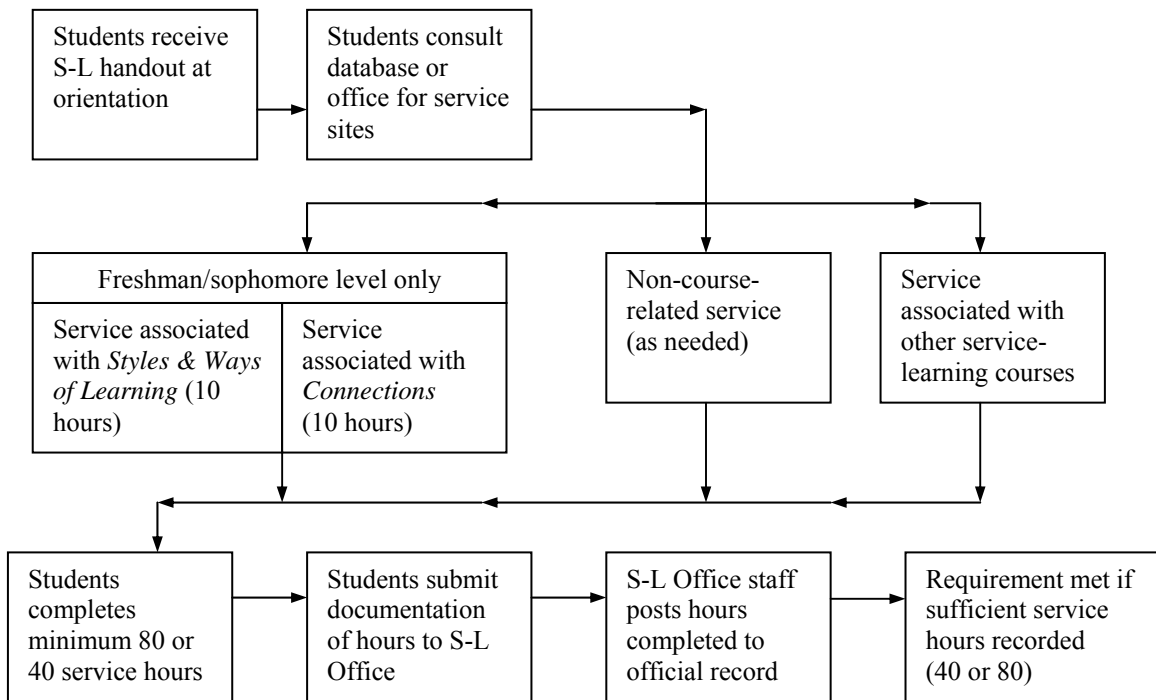


Figure 4: Service Utilization Flowchart

The Center for Civic Engagement documented and tracked S-L hours for students.

During an interview for this study, the center’s director described the process for documenting S-L hours:

Currently, we use agreement and verification forms to document hours. Students bring completed forms to our office, and we enter their hours into an Access database. When students apply for graduation, we get a graduation list from the advisors that shows the hours each student needs; we check to see how many hours each student has completed. When it is as many or more than needed, their student records are marked “Completed” in the section for service-learning. Total hours do not show up on their transcripts, however, they can get a co-curricular transcript on letterhead from our office. This shows the hours they have done plus where they have been.

Another set of real goals for the Service-Learning Program was associated with the courses *Styles and Ways of Learning* and *Connections*. These courses included S-L components

and faculty expended effort toward attaining both S-L goals and course-specific goals. Each of these courses had a coordinator who was responsible for managing the courses.

Finally, real goals existed for faculty who, at their discretion, incorporated S-L into courses. As of 2005, faculty who planned to offer S-L courses are encouraged, but not required, to inform the Center for Civic Engagement of their intentions. No mechanisms were in place to identify courses as S-L in the university's course registration, maintenance, and tracking system. Only one of 38 courses identified as S-L in the Quality Enhancement Plan (see Table 7) included a reference to S-L in official course descriptions, and none of the courses discussed in faculty interviews for this study included references to S-L in course descriptions. One reason for this lack of visibility could be that, for all courses except *Styles and Ways of Learning* and *Connections*, the instructor, not course content or Service-Learning Program objectives, was the critical factor in determining whether a course included S-L. Consequently, the same course, even within a single semester, has been offered with or without S-L depending on instructor preference.

Response to Research Question Two

What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding student outcomes that are expected to result from participation in the service-learning program at the case study site?

Weiss (1998) defined *outcomes* as the “end results of the program for the people it was intended to serve” (p. 8). Other terms have been frequently used interchangeably with the term *outcomes*; they included *consequences*, *results*, *effects*, *benefits*, and *impact* (Rogers, 2000, 2005;

Rossi, et al., 1999; Weiss). A clear and shared understanding of central intended outcomes is important for successful program operation. As Weiss noted:

Where there is little consensus on what a program is trying to do, the staff may be working at cross-purposes If differences can be reconciled (and the program may not be viable if they are not), the clarification can hardly help but rationalize program implementation. (Weiss, 1998, p. 53)

Analyses using the variance mode were conducted to determine if intended outcomes for students were consistent across the data sources of documents, interviews, and observations. The following constructs were used in this analysis: *social/civic outcomes*, *learning outcomes*, *personal outcomes*, and *career outcomes*. As previously noted, this purposeful data set was not intended to represent all beliefs and perceptions about S-L outcomes at Aleon University. In the final analysis, phrases associated with the construct *social/civic outcomes* appeared more frequently in documents than did phrases associated with the other constructs. This was in direct contrast to the seven faculty interviews where *learning outcomes* and *personal outcomes* were cited most frequently. In the observed course, the constructs *social/civic outcomes* and *learning outcomes* were more prominent than the other constructs, which partially supported statements in documents and reports from faculty interviews.

This lack of congruence across data categories regarding intended outcomes for students was important because it suggested that there was minimal consensus on what the Service-Learning Program was supposed to do. Lack of consensus on outcomes was problematic for the explication of a valid program theory because central intended outcomes were the starting points for the backwards mapping that linked outcomes with program processes and activities. The following pages present the findings in each data source category.

Central Student Outcomes from Documents

In selected university documents, phrases associated with the construct *social/civic outcomes* appeared more frequently than did phrases associated with the other constructs (see Table 8). The emphasis on *social/civic outcomes* was consistent with Pollack (1997) who reported that during the period 1983-1996 “individual civic responsibility” was a “vital student outcome” (p. 206). Four documents included phrases associated with *learning outcomes*, *personal outcomes*, and *career outcomes* in addition to phrases associated with *social/civic outcomes*. These four documents were created after the university opened in 1997 by individuals actively involved in S-L. The inclusion of other outcomes in later documents was consistent with the movement during the 1990s to incorporate S-L into “traditional learning processes” (Pollack, p. 206).

Table 8: Central Student Outcomes from Documents

Year	Document	Expected Outcomes Identified in Document in Association with Student Service or Service-Learning			
		Social/Civic	Learning	Personal	Career
1991	Founding University Mission Statement	•			
1992	Ten Year Development Plan	•			
1996	Guiding Principles	•			
1996	Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes	•			
1997	Service-Learning Mission Statement	•	•	•	
2000	President's Inaugural Address	•			
2002	Working Definition of Service-Learning	•	•	•	•
2002	2 nd University Mission Statement	•			
2005	Service-Learning Catalog Description	•	•	•	•
2005	University Strategic Plan	•			
2005	University Quality Enhancement Plan	•	•		

Central Student Outcomes from Interviews

Analysis of interviews with seven faculty members resulted in three categories of data: (a) expected student outcomes related to S-L in general, (b) expected student outcomes related to a specific S-L course discussed during the interview, and (c) reactions to a prepared list of student outcomes reported in the S-L literature. The expected student outcomes associated with S-L in general and with a specific S-L course were reported using the language of faculty at Aleon University, while the outcome phrases on the prepared list were presented to faculty using the language found in the S-L literature (see Appendix D).

Table 9 includes frequency counts of phrases by S-L data category and outcome construct. The following findings are based on these frequency counts: Four of seven faculty

(A, B, D, and F) reported *personal outcomes* most often; two of seven faculty (C and E) reported *learning outcomes* most often; and one of seven faculty (G) reported equal numbers of *personal* and *learning outcomes* most often. In the aggregate, faculty reported *personal outcomes* the most (N=58), followed by *learning outcomes* (N=45), then *social/civic outcomes* (N=22), and finally *career outcomes* (N=6).

An in-depth analysis to identify further variation across faculty responses was not conducted because the purpose of collecting and analyzing these data was to identify congruence (or variability) across categories of data (documents, faculty, interviews). It is interesting to note, however, that the rank order of reported expected outcomes by construct varied across faculty. For example, the rank order of reported outcomes from Faculty A was *personal*, *learning*, *social/civic*, and then *career outcomes*, while the rank order of reported outcomes from Faculty E was *learning*, *personal*, and then *career outcomes*, with no mention of *social/civic outcomes*. This variability suggested that S-L at Aleon University had complex (multiple) goals and that faculty selected from among these goals as they constructed educational plans.

Table 9: Central Student Outcomes from Faculty Interviews

	<u>Data Category</u> Phrases Associated with	Outcome Construct				<u>Totals</u>
		Phrases Supporting Personal Outcomes	Phrases Supporting Learning Outcomes	Phrases Supporting Social/Civic Outcomes	Phrases Supporting Career Outcomes	
Faculty A	S-L in General	3	1	0	1	5
	S-L in a Course	4	6	2	1	13
	Prepared List	3	1	4	0	8
	Total Faculty A	10	8	6	2	26
Faculty B	S-L in General	3	1	2	0	6
	S-L in Course	5	1	1	0	7
	Prepared List	5	3	3	0	11
	Total Faculty B	13	5	6	0	24
Faculty C	S-L in General	2	5	1	0	8
	S-L in Course	2	3	1	0	6
	Prepared List	3	5	3	0	11
	Total Faculty C	7	13	5	0	25
Faculty D	S-L in General	1	1	1	0	3
	S-L in Course	4	0	0	0	4
	Prepared List	--	--	--	--	--
	Total Faculty D	5	1	1	0	7
Faculty E	S-L in General	1	1	0	1	3
	S-L in Course	1	3	0	0	4
	Prepared List	4	5	0	0	9
	Total Faculty E	6	9	0	1	16
Faculty F	S-L in General	3	1	1	1	6
	S-L in Course	1	3	0	1	5
	Prepared List	8	0	1	0	9
	Total Faculty F	12	4	2	2	20
Faculty G	S-L in General	0	2	2	0	4
	S-L in Course	2	0	0	1	3
	Prepared List	3	3	0	0	6
	Total Faculty G	5	5	2	1	13
Total		58	45	22	6	131

Table 10 presents student outcomes selected by faculty from the prepared list of outcomes reported in the S-L literature, and Table 11 presents a summary of these responses in order of frequency selected. As previously noted, *personal outcomes* and *learning outcomes* were selected most frequently. The prepared list contained more subcategories for Personal Outcomes (N=8) and Learning Outcomes (N=5) than did Social Outcomes (N=4) or Career Development (N=0). This discrepancy in available subcategories may have had an impact on the frequency with which faculty selected an item from the list. Nonetheless, the overall ordering of *personal outcomes*, *learning outcomes*, *social outcomes*, and then *career outcomes* is consistent with the ranking resulting from faculty reports without prompting.

An analysis of the faculty interview data suggested that some outcomes may be specific to the study site. Faculty added six outcomes to the prepared list of outcomes from the literature. One faculty member added the phrase “ecological perspective.” Another faculty member added four outcomes: “goal setting and attainment,” “reducing stereotyping of socioeconomic status and special populations/persons with disabilities,” “group skills/collaborative learning,” and “professional behaviors.” Another added, “responding to the ability to understand how to work with diverse populations with differing abilities.” Two of these additional outcomes, as well as other outcomes voluntarily reported, were similar to language found in the Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes. This finding suggested that specific student outcomes were expected in this setting.

Table 10: Faculty Responses to Outcome List

Outcomes From Literature	Faculty Member					
	A	B	C	E	F	G
PERSONAL OUTCOMES						
Sense of personal efficacy			•		•	•
Personal identity		•			•	
Spiritual growth			•		•	
Moral development			•		•	
Interpersonal skills		•		•	•	
Ability to work with others	•	•		•	•	•
Leadership skills	•	•		•	•	
Communication skills	•	•		•	•	•
SOCIAL OUTCOMES						
Reducing stereotypes/facilitating cultural and racial understanding	•				•	
Sense of social responsibility	•	•	•			
Citizenship skills	•	•	•			
Commitment to service in the future	•	•	•			
LEARNING OUTCOMES						
Enhances learning of subject matter			•	•		
Improves ability to apply knowledge to “real world”	•	•	•	•		
Problem analysis		•	•	•		•
Critical thinking		•	•	•		•
Cognitive development			•	•		•
CAREER DEVELOPMENT						

Note: Table 9 includes responses from six of the seven faculty interviewed. Due to an oversight, the researcher failed to present the prepared list to one participant. A follow-up inquiry was made to gather these data, but the respondent did not reply.

Table 11: Summary of Faculty Responses to Outcome List

Expected Outcome	Number of Respondents Selecting Item (N=6)
Ability to work with others (P)	5
Communication skills (P)	5
Leadership skills (P)	4
Improves ability to apply knowledge to real world (L)	4
Problem analysis (L)	4
Critical thinking (L)	4
Sense of personal efficacy (P)	3
Interpersonal skills (P)	3
Sense of social responsibility (S/C)	3
Citizenship skills (S/C)	3
Commitment to service in the future (S/C)	3
Cognitive development (L)	3
Personal identity (P)	2
Spiritual growth (P)	2
Moral development (P)	2
Reduce stereotypes/facilitate cultural and racial understanding (S/C)	2
Enhances learning of subject matter (L)	2
Career development (C)	0

P=Personal Outcome; S/C=Social/Civic Outcome; L=Learning Outcome; C=Career Outcome

Central Student Outcomes from Observations

The syllabus for *Foundations of Civic Engagement* included formal course objectives that emphasized *social/civic outcomes* and *learning outcomes*. Through group work and student presentations, the course also emphasized *personal outcomes*, however, this outcome was less prominent than the two primary outcomes of civic engagement and learning through critical thinking. The course objectives, as described in the syllabus, were (a) to gain fluency with a particular model of critical thinking through both classroom learning and practical experience, and (b) to develop a clearer understanding of concepts, experiences, and dilemmas associated with civic engagement in contemporary American society. These objectives were

operationalized during classroom discussions and student presentations. The instructor frequently asked students to critically reflect upon and discuss various points of view, including those of individuals, community partners (agencies and organizations), and governmental entities.

The course included a minimum of 10 hours of S-L in association with a civic engagement project. In one class meeting, students described their proposed projects. Project criteria included the following: (a) develop a project that is purpose driven, (b) articulate the purpose, (c) negotiate the purpose within community, and (d) achieve progress toward bringing the purpose to fruition through the production of some tangible good for the community. Communities were defined as forms of human association bound together by shared meaning (e.g., neighborhood, church, school, region, country, world at large, agencies, organizations). Some students worked in groups; all were expected to work closely with community partners in fulfilling civic engagement/service projects.

Response to Research Question Three

What are the processes by which service-learning program activities and resources are expected to come together to produce intended outcomes for students?

Impact theory, a component of program theory, addresses the processes by which program activities were expected to bring about desired outcomes (Rossi et al., 1999). The primary emphasis was on “the responses of people to program activities” (Weiss, 1998, p. 57), rather than on the production of program activities. In this context, *theory* meant plan, blueprint, or “set of beliefs that underlies action” (Weiss, p. 55). In Figure 5, the thin upper arrows illustrate the logic of a simple impact theory for a hypothetical program (Rossi et al.). The

resources available to the program were used to produce activities A (mass media campaign on nutrition) that were presumed to lead to processes B (awareness and knowledge of healthy diets) that were presumed to lead to desired outcomes C (a healthier diet and fewer nutrition-related illnesses). Efforts to explicate program theory for this same program would begin at the end—the intended outcomes for participants, which should flow from the social conditions that the problem addresses.

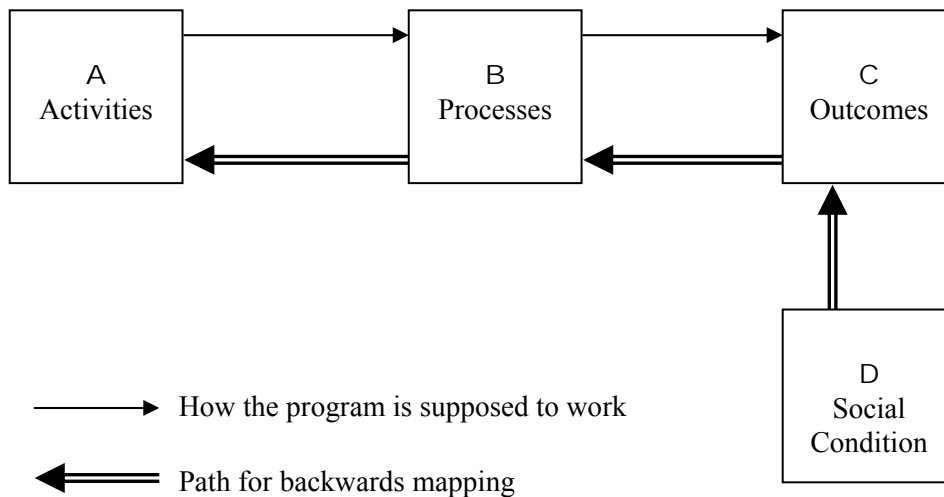


Figure 5: Illustration of Program Theory Concepts

Following this logic of backwards mapping (illustrated by the heavy double-lined arrows), the data were grouped according to impact theory concept: social condition to be addressed, intended outcomes, processes, and activities (see Table 12). In the final analysis, the concepts only partially came together to present a “plausible and sensible model of how a

program is supposed to work” (Bickman, 1987 p. 5). These data are described in the following paragraphs.

Table 12: Data Related to Program Theory Concepts

Concept	Relevant Data for the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University
Social Condition to be Addressed (D)	A disconnect from the skills, ideas, and practices that are critical to citizens in a democratic society (Address by Second President, May 2000). Historically low student interest and engagement in politics (Astin, 1995). Greater interest in material and power goals, coupled with decreased social concern and altruism (Astin et al., 1987).
Intended Outcomes for Students (C)	Multiple outcomes clustered within the constructs of <i>social/civic outcomes</i> , <i>learning outcomes</i> , <i>personal outcomes</i> , and <i>career outcomes</i> . Each construct consists of a variety of outcomes.
Processes (B)	Reflection as reported by all faculty interviewed and described in university documents. Formal opportunities for reflection occur in course-based S-L only.
Program Activities (A)	Community placements where students perform community service. Service experiences are arranged by either the students themselves or by faculty. Wide variation in placements and experiences.

Social Conditions: The social conditions to be addressed by the Service-Learning Program were not well articulated in the data analyzed for this study. The most direct statements about a social problem to be addressed appeared in a May 2000 commencement address given by the university’s second president. He cited previous work by Astin and referred to social problems that related to the nation’s “*civic condition*” including distressed families, neighborhoods, and communities; unsafe streets and public spaces; a mindless popular culture; coarse and uncivil public discourse; public distrust in leaders and institutions; and historically low levels of participation in political activities.

The social condition to be addressed by S-L at the time of the founding of Aleon University can be inferred from the literature. The work of Astin et al. (1987) brought national

attention to what was later perceived as an unsatisfactory social condition: significant and complex changes in the attitudes and values of freshmen who entered college during the years 1966 and 1985. These students were reported to have greater interest in material and power goals and decreased social concern and altruism. The report introduced the notion that public service, as a required component of the undergraduate curriculum, could “promote values of concern for others, generosity, empathy, and community responsibility” (Astin et al., p. 27). In a 1995 *Chronicle of Higher Education* article, Astin reported, “student interest and engagement in politics are at all-time lows” (¶1).

Intended Outcomes: A set of well-articulated outcomes, which flow from the social problem to be addressed, should be the point of departure for describing how a program is supposed to work. Central intended outcomes for the Service-Learning Problem were not well articulated. University documents emphasized civic engagement and social responsibility, yet faculty emphasized personal development and learning. According to the literature, a “sense of common purpose” (Weiss, 1998, p. 53), is needed so that activities and personnel do not work at cross purposes.

Processes: Processes, or causal mechanisms, are the ideas and assumptions that link program activities to desired outcomes. Weiss (1998) noted that causal elements are “not likely to be laid out in rational terms” (p. 53). University documents and faculty interviewed for this study reported that reflection was a mediating process between services experience and intended outcome. This emphasis on reflection was consistent with reports in the S-L literature. In the data collected for this study, no details were identified that describe how reflection was assumed to lead to the multiple and varied outcomes expected from S-L. It is important to note that

formal, structured opportunities for reflection were not provided for S-L experiences that occurred outside of a course.

Activities: Service experiences were the primary activities associated with this program. These experiences varied widely. S-L experiences associated with some courses were carefully selected and arranged by the faculty in charge of the course. For S-L not associated with a course, students arranged their own service activities.

In summary, the findings from this study relating to program theory concepts (social condition to be addressed, intended outcomes for students, processes, and activities) only partially came together to present a “plausible and sensible model” (Bickman, 1987 p. 5) of how the program was expected to work.

Summary

Planning for the new university occurred during a period of intense S-L activity at the national level. The university’s planners were aware of the prominent place that service occupied on the national agenda. They responded to perceived external pressures to support service in higher education by including service as a prominent feature of the new university.

Internal Influences

Individuals at the state and local levels influenced the development of S-L at the new university. The products and process of interrelated planning created shared understandings and expectations that were both internalized and imposed by others. The founding president noted that institutional documents contained “philosophy and principles that would serve students, faculty, and staff well as successive generations populated the university” (Adams, 2003, p. 77-

78). During the university's early years, rules and norms for acceptable behavior were reinforced by the employment of only those individuals who supported the mission and vision laid out by institutional planners.

Compromises

The university administrators who were responsible for implementing the abstract conceptions of student community service in higher education had to make compromises in order to balance conflicting demands. What was to be service integrated into the academic curriculum turned out to be co-curricular service enforced as a graduation requirement placed on students. Formal reflection and assessment that was to take place in a particular course never took place because other demands were more pressing.

Multiple Program Goals and Objectives

The social conditions to be addressed by S-L in general were ill defined, and the social conditions to be addressed by the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University were also ill defined. Correspondingly, S-L goals and objectives and desired results for students were not are not well specified. Official goals described in university documents clustered around social and civic involvement. This was in contrast to reports by faculty, which clustered around personal development and learning. Because of the nature of hour-based S-L at the university, program personnel actively devoted time and energy to goals that were related to the S-L exit requirement for the baccalaureate degree. Other unstated goals were associated with the desire to maintain and promote good community relations. These multiple, ill-defined goals meant that individuals

could focus their energies on the attainment of some goals but not others. It also meant that individuals might have been working at cross-purposes.

Ongoing Commitment

Commitment to S-L at the institution has persisted despite challenges in implementation. Initially, faculty served on a S-L advisory board, but otherwise, they were only minimally involved in S-L. Later, faculty successfully advocated for the ability to incorporate S-L into their courses. Since then over 35 S-L courses have been developed and offered by faculty. Another expression of commitment to S-L was the endorsement by the Faculty Senate to explore moving from hour-based to course- or program-based S-L. These actions indicated an on-going commitment to the ideals associated with the S-L.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview of the Study

A case study design and qualitative research methods (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990; Stake, 1995) were used to document and examine the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University (a pseudonym). Aleon University was a public, comprehensive university that was located in one of the five largest and fastest growing states in the nation. The institution opened in 1997 with an hour-based S-L requirement for the baccalaureate degree. This requirement was still in place as of spring 2006. In 2001, the university offered its first S-L course. Since that time, approximately 38 S-L courses have been developed and offered by faculty.

Data sources included the following: 35 documents, spanning the years 1991-2005; interviews with seven faculty members and four academic administrators; and observations of three class meetings of S-L courses, a Government and Not-for-Profit Job Fair, and five meetings where S-L was the primary topic of discussion (see Table 2). The study examined S-L from multiple perspectives. Institutional theory (Oliver, 1991; Scott, 2001) provided a framework for examining the influence of the environment on the conceptualization, adoption, and implementation of S-L. Program theory (Bickman, 2000; Rogers, 2005; Rossi et al., 1999; Weiss, 1998) was used to identify and analyze the program's conceptual underpinnings, including goals and objectives, intended outcomes for students, and program processes. Previous studies served as the basis for the following researcher-developed constructs used to

code text across data sources: *social/civic outcomes, personal outcomes, learning outcomes, and career outcomes* (see Table 4).

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding the goals and objectives of the service-learning program at the case study site?
2. What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding student outcomes that are expected to result from participation in the service-learning program at the case study site?
3. What are the processes by which service-learning program resources and activities are expected to come together to produce intended outcomes for students?

Summary and Discussion of the Findings

The summary and discussion of the findings for the three research questions are presented below. Table 11 provides an overview of the data sources and findings for each research question.

Table 13: Research Questions, Data Sources, and Findings

Research Question	Data Sources	Findings
Research Question 1: What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding the goals and objectives of the service-learning program at the case study site?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Documents 2. Faculty interviews 3. Observation of program operations 4. Participant observation 5. Administrator interviews 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multiple goals exist for S-L at the university. 2. Official goals in documents are broad and ambiguous, but generally focus on public service, community involvement, and citizenship. No operational objectives were identified. 3. The two most frequently reported unofficial (unstated) goals include providing assistance to the community and promoting good relationships with the community. 4. Goals that receive time and effort (real goals) include (a) satisfaction of the required S-L graduation requirement; (b) goals associated with the two General Education courses that include S-L; and (c) goals developed by faculty who, at their discretion, incorporate S-L into courses.
Research Question 2: What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding student outcomes that are expected to result from participation in the service-learning program at the case study site?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Documents 2. Faculty interviews 3. Observation of program operations 4. Participant observation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. There is minimal consensus about central intended S-L outcomes for students. 2. Documents focused on social/civic outcomes. 3. Reports from faculty during interviews focused on personal outcomes and learning outcomes. 4. An observed course had a dual focus, social/civic outcomes and learning outcomes. 5. Some faculty reported outcomes using locally defined language. 6. Constructs were broadly defined and included multiple outcomes within each area.
Research Question 3: What are the processes by which service-learning program resources and activities are expected to come together to produce intended outcomes for students?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Documents 2. Faculty Interviews 3. Observation of program operations 4. Participant observation 5. Administrator interviews 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. No well-defined central intended outcomes or objectives exist for S-L at the university. 2. Additional discussions are needed with key individuals to develop consensus on central intended outcomes and objectives. After this is accomplished, backwards mapping can be performed to identify processes that link activities to outcomes. 3. Reflection was identified by faculty and described in documents as a process linking activities to intended outcomes. 4. Activities (service experiences) vary and may be arranged by faculty or by the students themselves.

Research Question 1: Summary of Findings

What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding the goals and objectives of the service-learning program at the case study site?

The multiple goals that exist for S-L at Aleon University can be categorized as official goals, unofficial goals, and real goals. Official goals found in university documents are broad and written in ambiguous terms. These goals were created prior to the institution's opening in 1997 by individuals from around the state in response, at least in part, to institutional pressures to promote service in higher education. The focus of these official goals is on public service, community awareness, and citizenship. Operational objectives were not defined for official goals.

Unofficial (unstated) goals were reported by faculty during interviews. The two most frequently reported unofficial goals include (a) providing needed assistance to community partners including agencies and schools, and (b) enhancing relationships between the university and the community. The role of S-L in enhancing community relationships was also observed in promotional brochures that highlight the university's S-L efforts. Other unofficial goals include (c) serving as a mechanism for getting the university's name out in the public, (d) serving as a conduit of information to and from the community, (e) serving as a mechanism for demonstrating positive qualities of university personnel and students to community members, (f) providing a more meaningful experience for teachers, and (g) serving as a means of fulfilling the university's mission.

Real goals are those that received time and effort. The primary real goal for the Service-Learning Program centered on fulfillment of the hour-based S-L graduation requirement. Personnel from the Center for Civic Engagement (S-L office) spent time developing placement

sites for students; providing information to students about the graduation requirement; and tracking student service hours. Additional real goals were associated with the two required, interdisciplinary, lower-division General Education S-L courses and other S-L courses offered at the discretion of faculty. In general, S-L goals for these courses supported course content.

Research Question 1: Discussion of Findings

The finding in this study that official S-L goals were written in broad and ambiguous language was consistent with Waring (1995) who found that public service was defined in such a way “that few could argue with it” (p. 212). She studied three universities that were considered to be exemplars in promoting service: Brown University, Georgetown University, and Stanford University. These institutions were presumed to be S-L exemplars because their presidents co-founded Campus Compact, a national organization created in 1984 to promote student service at colleges and universities. According to Weiss (1998), program goals were often written in ambiguous terms. Further, goals were often purposely vague in an effort to gain support from multiple constituencies or to mask divergent opinions about program intent.

The ambiguous S-L goals at Aleon University and at other institutions could be attributed to the multiple conceptualizations of S-L that emerged during the last four decades. As described in the review of the literature, the S-L movement began in the 1960s when individuals worked to promote community development and social justice at the local and regional levels through internships and experiential education. In the 1980s, S-L was reconceptualized to make it more compatible with the traditional workings of higher education. S-L became more of an institutional or national effort with the involvement of college and university presidents. As the meaning of S-L changed, so did the parameters for acceptable practice. For example, Jacoby and

Associates (1996) argued that S-L could be both curricular and co-curricular. Conversely, Bringle and Hatcher (1996) argued that S-L must occur within the context of a credit-bearing educational experience. The multiple goals for S-L and the simultaneously co-curricular and curricular nature of S-L at Aleon University were consistent with the multiple and changing conceptualization in the broader field. The efforts of Aleon to move away from hour-based S-L to S-L fully integrated into the academic curriculum was consistent with the overall movement toward course-based S-L.

The official S-L goals at Aleon University that focused on public service, community awareness, and citizenship were consistent with numerous writings in the literature. Alexander Astin (Astin, 1995; Astin et al., 1987; Astin & Sax, 1998) has been a strong advocate for student volunteer service and S-L. In 1987, Astin et al. put forward the idea that public service should be included in the undergraduate curriculum. Astin and Sax (1998) argued that S-L could be used to enhance academic development, life skill development, and sense of civic responsibility in students, while concurrently fulfilling a basic institutional mission of providing service to the community.

Thomas Ehrlich (2000) extended the notion of civic responsibility when he argued that the concept encompassed two interrelated strands. The first strand involved the preparation of students for lives of civic responsibility, and the second strand involved the role of colleges and universities as responsible institutional citizens in a community. According to Ehrlich, the first strand was more closely aligned with the educational mission of higher education than the second, but neither strand could be successful without the other. Further, mutually interdependent and necessary sets of knowledge, virtues, and skills were central to civic development and integral to a sound undergraduate education. Ehrlich recommended that civic

responsibility be enhanced through the cumulative and interaction effects of curricular and extracurricular efforts. Overarching goals should focus on citizenship as part of the broader social fabric, social problems as shared responsibility, the ability to see and understand the civic dimensions of issues, and the ability to take action when appropriate.

The overall meaning of the findings related to this research question for Aleon University was that official goals were somewhat aligned with the civic priorities described by Astin and Ehrlich; however, there was no clear statement of official goals for S-L, and there were no coordinated process to ensure that co-curricular and curricular efforts were directed toward achieving official goals.

Research Question 2: Summary of Findings

What are the beliefs and perceptions of key stakeholders regarding student outcomes that are expected to result from participation in the service-learning program at the case study site?

There was minimal consensus regarding central intended outcomes for students who participated in the Service-Learning Program. In the final analysis, documents focused on social/civic outcomes. This was in contrast to reports from faculty, which emphasized *personal and learning outcomes*. The observed course had a dual focus, social/civic outcomes and learning outcomes, which meant that it was partially consistent with both documents and faculty reports.

In the 11 documents examined for this question, phrases associated with the construct *social/civic outcomes* appeared more frequently than did phrases associated with the other constructs of *personal outcomes*, *learning outcomes*, and *career outcomes*. The four planning documents created prior to fall 1997 focused exclusively on social/civic outcomes. Two

documents created in 2002 and 2005 by individuals associated with the Service-Learning Program contained phrases associated with all four constructs.

Reports from faculty during interviews focused on personal outcomes and learning outcomes, which was in contrast to the focus on social/civic outcomes found in documents. Seven faculty members described expected S-L outcomes in three categories: (a) expected student outcomes related to S-L in general, (b) expected student outcomes related to a specific S-L course discussed during the interview, and (c) reactions to a prepared list of student outcomes reported in the S-L literature. Frequency counts of responses across all three categories resulted in the following: four faculty members reported personal outcomes most often; two reported learning outcomes most often; and one reported equal numbers of personal and learning outcomes most often. In the aggregate, faculty reported personal outcomes the most (N=58), followed by learning outcomes (N=45), then social/civic outcomes (N=22), and finally career outcomes (N=6).

In-depth analyses to identify variation across faculty were not performed because faculty interviews were conducted for the purpose of identifying congruence (or variability) across categories of data (documents, interviews, and observations). It was interesting to note, however, that the prioritized order of expected outcomes varied across faculty. This variability suggested that S-L at Aleon University had multiple goals and that faculty selected from among these goals as they constructed educational plans.

The four student outcome constructs developed in this study were needed to analyze the large volume of data. These constructs were useful for seeing broad similarities and differences across data sources, but they masked the true variation found in the data. For example, moral development, communication skills, and sense of personal efficacy were all considered personal

outcomes. Yet, these outcomes were very different, and the development of one outcome in an individual may not be related to the development of another.

Research Question 2: Discussion of Findings

The primary finding relating to Research Question 2 (minimal consensus regarding central intended outcomes for students who participate in the Service-Learning Program) is consistent with prior findings in the literature. Waterman (1997) reported that student outcomes from S-L focused on (a) learning material that was part of the traditional in-school curriculum, (b) promoting personal development, and (c) fostering the development of civic responsibly and other values of citizenship. The finding of a low priority on career development was consistent with the admonition to higher education that the curriculum not be vocational in its outlook (AASCU, 1986).

The finding of minimal consensus regarding central intended outcomes was consistent with Rama et al. (2000) who examined 20 research studies of S-L. All but one of the studies focused on higher education. The studies yielded mixed or ambiguous results, in part, because intended student outcomes were poorly specified. Rama et al. suggested that future research be conducted to “clarify the student outcomes achieved from S-L” (p. 686). The *Wingspread Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning* (Honnett & Poulsen, 1989) noted that clear service and learning goals are important for an effective program. Both Chickering and Reisser (1993) and McEwen (1996) recognized that clear, unambiguous, and internally consistent intended student outcomes for students are essential for effective learning and development.

The overall meaning of the findings related to this research question for Aleon University was that lack of consensus and focus regarding intended student outcomes could hinder student learning and development. Colleges and universities have been expected to create environments that enhance student learning and development (CHEA, 2003). Further, they have been expected to provide evidence of student learning (Ewell, 2001; Maki, 2001; Newman, 2003). Well-specified intended outcomes have been identified as essential for evaluating the impact of educational programs (Mohr, 1995).

Research Question 3: Summary of Findings

What are the processes by which service-learning program resources and activities are expected to come together to produce intended outcomes for students?

The conceptual framework for this study included concepts and principles associated with the development of program theory. In the framework of program theory, efforts to link activities, processes, and outcomes began by identifying a set of clearly defined and agreed-upon central intended outcomes. As previously reported, there was lack of consensus regarding central intended S-L outcomes for students at Aleon University. For this reason, a valid program theory (a description of program activities and their relationships to outcomes) could not be developed from the available data. Additional discussions were needed to come to consensus on central intended outcomes.

S-L experiences were the primary activities that are produced by the Service-Learning Program. Reflection was identified by faculty and in documents as a causal process linking S-L experiences (program activities) with intended student outcomes. Initially, reflection was to be incorporated into all S-L experiences, but compromises during implementation meant that formal

reflection does not occur in co-curricular S-L that took place outside of the classroom environment. During interviews, all faculty reported that they provided opportunities for reflection in their S-L courses.

The emphasis on program theory is on how people respond to program activities. As previously stated, S-L experiences were the primary activities of the Service-Learning Program. S-L experiences varied widely at the university. Service experiences associated with co-curricular S-L were arranged by the students themselves. The CCE identified potential placement sites and offered guidelines for selecting appropriate placements, but individual students made all of the arrangements for co-curricular service. Service experiences associated with the various S-L courses were generally arranged or approved by the faculty in charge of the course.

Research Question 3: Discussion of Findings

Research Question 3 addressed the conceptual underpinnings of the Service-Learning Program, including processes that linked activities with intended outcomes. The finding that a valid program theory could not be developed from the available data was related to the findings for Research Question 1 (no set of clearly defined, agreed-upon goals and objectives for the program exists) and Research Question 2 (minimal agreement regarding central intended outcomes for students).

A primary reason for the lack of consensus about program goals, objectives, and intended outcomes could be related to the conceptualization of S-L as either program or pedagogy. These were two distinct concepts but they were often used indiscriminately in the S-L literature. Jacoby and Associates (1996) was one of the few authorities that attempted to delineate the

differences between program and pedagogy. A program was a “planned, organized, and usually ongoing set of activities carried out for the purpose of improving some social condition” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 23). As a program, S-L was a subcomponent of a college or university’s curriculum. Toombs and Tierney (1991) referred to similar subcomponents as *patterns*. Patterns were tools used to achieve specific outcomes in areas such as civic responsibility, leadership, or professional ethics. The S-L program at Loyola University, described as “civic engagement across the curriculum” (Jeandron & Fields, 2005), represented a curricular pattern. Pedagogy, on the other hand, referred to “knowledge about what to teach and how to teach it to students” (Posner, 1992, p. 87). As a pedagogical method, S-L was a type of experiential education and an instructional tool that faculty could use at their discretion. Precision in the use of terminology was one of the major challenges facing S-L practitioners and researchers. This point was illustrated by the more than 147 different definitions of S-L found in the literature (Kendall, 1990).

In Pollack’s (1997) study of the emergence of S-L as an institutional field, he reported that by 1997 the S-L course had eclipsed the S-L program. Yet, in his conclusion he reported on the prevalence of S-L programs:

Anecdotal evidence indicates that the more fully-developed service-learning programs have received substantial support—both material resources and institutional—from their host institutions. Comparative studies could provide important insight into the factors that encourage or inhibit the type of support necessary to sustain a more fully-developed service-learning program. (Pollack, 1997, p. 220)

If S-L is used as a pedagogical method to achieve goals and outcomes specific to a course, then assessment to demonstrate attainment of those goals and outcomes will focus on the course. S-L in this instance is one of several teaching tools that instructors may use. If, on the other hand, S-L is used to achieve goals and outcomes associated with an overarching concept or

curricular pattern, for example civic responsibility (Ehrlich, 2000), then assessment would focus on the attainment of the goals and outcomes associated with the overarching concept or pattern. In the case of civic engagement, assessment would focus on the cumulative and interaction effects of curricular and co-curricular activities that are presumed to lead to *civic responsibility*.

Figure 6 depicts a S-L program that emphasizes civic responsibility. In this figure, various courses and experiences contribute to outcomes associated with the overarching goal or curricular pattern of civic responsibility. Each course in the pattern would focus on civic responsibility in whole or part and would use S-L pedagogy. The program could also involve co-curricular service experiences. Other courses, not shown in the figure, could also use S-L pedagogy, but these course would not directly contribute to the “program” because they do not emphasize civic responsibility.

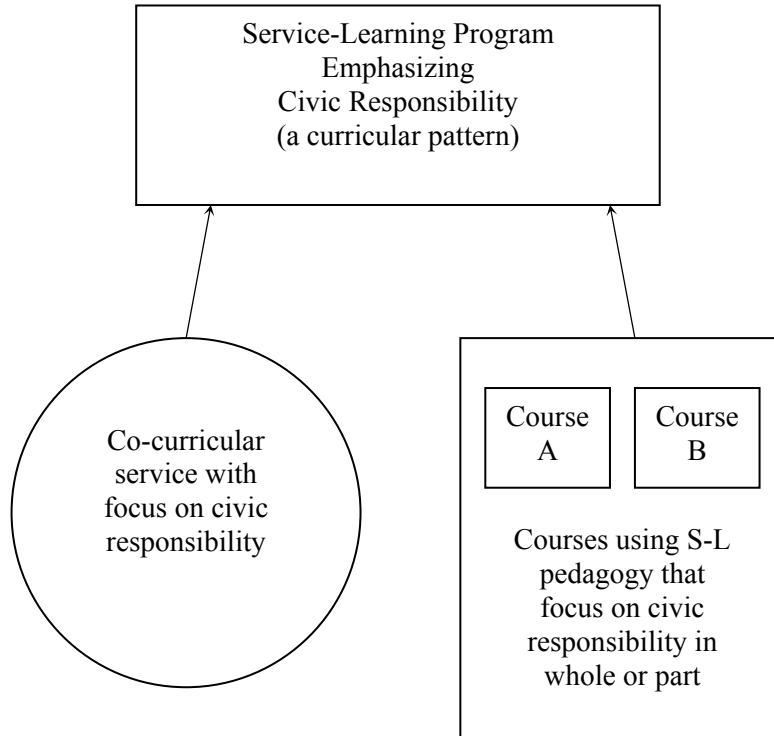


Figure 6: Model of S-L Program as Curricular Pattern

The overall meaning of the findings related to the third research question for Aleon University was that the institution needs to clarify the role and purpose of S-L on campus and in the curriculum. After the role and purpose of S-L have been articulated, then the Service-Learning Program, including courses and service experiences, should be carefully designed to enhance student learning and development associated with the outcomes of interest (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Eyler & Giles, 1999; McEwen, 1996). This process of developing *theory* for the program (also referred to as a plan or blueprint) could be used to create assessment and evaluation plans that could generate evidence of student learning and development and overall institutional effectiveness.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study documented and examined the Service-Learning Program at Aleon University (a pseudonym). Aleon was a comprehensive university that opened in fall 1997 with an hour-based S-L graduation requirement for the baccalaureate degree. At that time, S-L was exclusively co-curricular (student community service outside of academic coursework). In 2001, the university offered its first credit course with an integrated S-L component. In 2003, the university's Faculty Senate voted to endorse, in concept, the migration from hour-based S-L to S-L fully integrated into courses or degree programs.

Interrelated planning played an important role in the direction of Aleon University during the early years. Its Founding Mission Statement was approved by the state higher education governing board in 1991, two years before the founding president was hired, four years before the university was officially named, and six years before the university opened its doors to students. Key planning documents included the Ten Year Development Plan for a New University (1992), Guiding Principles (1993), and Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes (1997). These documents, which included references to public service, community service, and citizenship, set the stage for S-L at the university. Compromises were made during implementation of S-L, but the data revealed that individuals and groups at Aleon University have demonstrated commitment to S-L in numerous ways, including the following:

1. Senior administrators have (a) acknowledged S-L activities and events in speeches, presentations, and official communications; (b) promoted S-L through the creation of the Center for Civic Engagement, a unit of Academic Affairs; and (c) provided funding for various S-L initiatives.

2. The Center for Civic Engagement has (a) developed relationships with groups, agencies, and organizations that serve as placement sites for students; (b) created a website for information dissemination; and (c) coordinated numerous activities and events in support of S-L.

3. Individual faculty members have spearheaded initiatives to incorporate S-L into the academic curriculum. Further, they have actively organized and participated in various S-L events and efforts.

4. The Faculty Senate has supported S-L through its endorsement of a task force to develop a plan to move from hour-based S-L to S-L that is associated with courses or degree programs.

Further, the institutional environment was supportive of S-L and assessment. The Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP), a major initiative associated with regional accreditation, focused on two of the university's Undergraduate Student Learning Goals and Outcomes—ecological perspective and community involvement. For the purposes of the QEP, community involvement was operationalized as S-L. The QEP included a five-year assessment plan to measure impact on student learning and development. In addition, the entire university community has graciously and genuinely supported me in conducting this study. Those associated with S-L were understandably proud of their accomplishments, but they were equally eager to find ways to enhance the institution's legacy of S-L.

While Aleon University has exhibited strong commitment to service and S-L, the results of this study indicated that some areas could be strengthened. As noted in the findings, goals for S-L were ambiguous and there was minimal consensus regarding central intended S-L outcomes for students. According to Weiss (1998), clarification of what a program is trying to do

. . . can hardly help but rationalize program implementation. It may reveal discrepancies between program goals and program content, in which case either the content or the goals should be changed. When a sense of common purpose is reached, the logic and rationality of practice are likely to be enhanced. (p. 53)

Clear, unambiguous, and internally consistent intended outcomes for students enhance student learning and development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; McEwen, 1996). These efforts rely upon “a set of clear expectations for student learning, aligning curricula with these expectations, assessing student attainment, and using assessment results to effect changes to promote better student learning” (American Psychology Association, 2001). The significance of outcomes to institutions was echoed in the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (2003) *Statement of Mutual Responsibilities for Student Learning Outcomes*: “Institutions and programs are responsible for establishing clear statements of student learning outcomes and for collecting and using evidence of student achievement” (p. 1). With these perspectives in mind, the following actions could strengthen S-L at Aleon University:

1. Convene a small group to lead dialog aimed at clearly defining the role and purpose of S-L at the university and in the curriculum. This dialog would identify the boundaries of S-L, which may range from S-L as a program with overarching goals to S-L as a pedagogical method used at the discretion of individual faculty. S-L as a program should have an ultimate goal of “specifiable improvement in the social conditions the program addresses” (Rossi et al., 1999, p. 167).

2. Identify central intended outcomes for students and associated goals and objectives for the program. Use central intended outcomes as the point of departure for developing a *theory* (plan or blueprint) for S-L as a program.

3. Identify assumptions and causal mechanisms that are expected to result in intended outcomes for students. Existing knowledge and theory about student learning and development provide insights into mechanisms that promote learning and development.

4. Develop activities and service experiences that take into consideration environmental factors and student characteristics, including students' backgrounds, expectations, levels of maturation, and prior experience.

5. Consistent with best practices for S-L (Honnett & Poulsen, 1998), involve the external community to be served and students when developing outcomes, goals, objectives, and service experiences.

6. Develop an assessment and evaluation plan to determine the impact of S-L experiences on students and the attainment of goals and objectives. Use assessment results to improve program performance and promote student learning.

Final Thoughts

While this study focused on documenting and examining S-L at one institution, it served a broader purpose for the researcher. It was a vehicle for expanding understanding of how some events influenced other events, how institutions responded to environmental forces, and how the field of S-L came to have multiple conceptualizations. The data used in this study were drawn from a small sample of willing participants and available materials. Admittedly, findings were the interpretations of what the researcher saw observed and experienced. Other researchers using different methods or samples could arrive at different conclusions. Even with these limitations, the model of program theory development used in this study could help regularize research into S-L, which ultimately could improve practice and enhance student learning.

APPENDIX A: LIST OF DOCUMENTS

List of Documents

No.	Year	Month, Day	Title, Author, Topic
1	1991		Mission Statement – New university
2	1992	November 20	Ten Year Development Plan for a New university
3	1994	May 24	Letter from Interfraternity Council to chair, state higher education governing board supporting the concept of “service learning” for students at major institutions in the state*
4	1995	December 18	Op-Ed Article: “An Atomized America” by Anthony Lewis in <i>The New York Times</i> *
5	No date		Concept Paper: Developing a Community-Based Student Volunteer Service Component as Part of a Degree Requirement in a Public university System (author unknown, marked draft)*
6	1996	March	Correspondence between VP academic affairs and an administrator at Brandeis/Heller School regarding S-L*
7	1996	May	Article: “Combining Service and Learning On Campus and in the Community” by Barry Checkoway in <i>Phi Delta Kappan</i> *
8	1996	December 16	Minutes from Aleon University Deans’ Retreat.
9	1996/97		Aleon University Inaugural Catalog
10	1997	January 17	Communication from the executive director, State Commission on Community Service; the state program director, Corporation for National Service; and the director, Learn & Serve, to the Aleon VP academic affairs*
11	1997	January 27	Memorandum to Vice Presidents and Deans from Special Assistant to the President on community dialogue sessions
12	1997	September 3	Deans’ Council Meeting; presentation and discussion of Service-Learning
13	1997	October 2	Editorial: “Keep university Goal Clear” in local newspaper*
14	1997	October 15	S-L policy recommendation: program mission and criteria*
15	1997	October-December	Correspondence with Alexander Astin regarding S-L and longitudinal study of American college students
16	1998	July 14	Service Learning Advisory Committee Minutes*
17	1998	November 22	Article: “Students Learn to Fulfill Their Service Requirement with a Smile” in local newspaper*
18	1999	January 11	Service Learning Advisory Committee Minutes*
19	1999	January 12	Email from director of S-L regarding discussion with VP academic affairs about possibility of offering S-L courses*
20	1999	April	Article: “Building the Service-Learning Pyramid” in Campus Compact Newsletter*
21	1999	July 11-14	Paper presented by Aleon University president-elect titled, “The Beyond the Campus: Civic Engagement” to the International Association of university Presidents XIIth Triennial Conference, Brussels, Belgium
22	1999	August 27	Initial address and welcome to Aleon from president-elect
23	1999	December 10	President’s 100-Day Report to faculty and staff
24	2000	February	A Call to Civic Engagement, by Aleon’s second president
25	2000	May 6	Commencement address titled “The Power of Connected” given at local community college by Aleon’s second president

26	2000	June 7-10	Itinerary for Dr. Barbara Holland, civic engagement consultant
27	2000	August 22	President's Inaugural Address
	2000	September 19	Faculty Senate Minutes
28	2002	April 19	Faculty Senate Minutes
	2002		Campus Compact Service-Learning Institute. Action Plan prepared by delegation from Aleon University.
29	2002		Aleon University Mission Statement (revised)
	2003		Book: <i>On Task, On Time: The Development of Aleon University</i> , by President Adams (period 1980-1997)
30	2003	March 21	Faculty Senate Minutes
	2003	April 4	Form Letter from Faculty Senate Leadership describing accomplishments for the year
31	2004	May 4	Meeting with members of Service-Learning Task Force and Provost
32	2005	January	University Strategic Plan for 2005-2010
33	2005	February	University Quality Enhancement Plan
34	2005	August	Accreditation Response Report
35	2005	As of September 29	Service-Learning handbook and website

* Document from a file labeled "SERVICE LEARNING – Academic Affairs," which was maintained in the office of the founding vice president for academic affairs who served in that capacity from 1994 until 1999.

APPENDIX B: CONTACT SUMMARY FORM

Contact Summary Form

1. Interviewee Name/Unit:
2. Interview Date/Time:
3. Interview Location:
4. Others Present/Setting Characteristics/Researcher Role:
5. Course Taught/Discussed:
6. What were the main issues or themes that emerged in this contact?
7. Summary of information obtained (or failed to obtain) on questions.
8. Question
 - Involvement in S-L:
 - Successful S-L course:
 - S-L experience/student link:
 - Outcomes/benefits to students/skills:
 - Benefits to others:
 - Reflection use/value:
9. Anything else that is salient, interesting, important in this contact.
10. What new (or remaining) are there in considering a future contact?

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview Guide

Date: _____ Time: _____

Person being interviewed: _____ Location: _____

Title: _____ City/State: _____

Introductions. Collect signed consent to participate forms, ask permission to record, and read the following:

Thank you for allowing me to meet with you. I am a doctoral student at the University of Central Florida. As part of my program, I am conducting a research study to help me better understanding of service-learning and its intended outcomes. For the purposes of this study, outcomes are the benefits or changes for student, others, or society as a whole that result from service-learning activities and initiatives.

I appreciate your participation in this study. Please be assured that the information you provide will be kept in strict confidence. Your participation is voluntary, and you are under no obligation to answer individual questions. You may stop the interview at any time. Do you have any questions before we begin?

1. How did you first become involved in service-learning?
 - a. Probe: About how long ago was that?
 - b. Probe: What was the primary source of encouragement for you to become involved in service-learning?

2. I'd like for you to reflect back for a moment on what you believe was a successful service-learning course:
 - a. Could you describe the course?
 - b. Could you describe the service-learning experience?
 - c. Would you say that this experience was typical?
 - d. If it was not typical, what do you think was special about the experience?

3. In the course that you just described:
 - a. What were you goals for students (learning or development)?
 - b. Can you recall what happened?
 - c. How did the goals relate to your activities (or vice versa)?

4. In general, could you describe the benefits that one would see as a result of service-learning program?
 - a. Probe: You mentioned benefits for xxxx, could you describe benefits
 - i. For students?
 - ii. For teachers?
 - iii. For the institution?
 - iv. For the community?
 - b. Probe: You mentioned near-term benefits, can you see any intermediate-term (or ultimate) benefits? (or vice versa)

5. Would you describe how service-learning supports the student learning goals of “XYZ” course? What would be a typical service experience for this course?
 - a. What are the skills (knowledge, etc.) a student is expected to master?
 - b. How do students learn (practice) these skills in activity x if at all?

6. Reflection is said to be an important part of service-learning. Could you describe how reflection is used in this course?
 - a. How does the reflection activity support student outcomes?

7. Is there any other information that you would like to share?

Thank you for your participation in this study.

APPENDIX D: DATA FROM FACULTY INTERVIEWS

Data from Faculty Interviews

Note: Items in the “other” category were added by respondents to a previously prepared list of outcomes derived from the S-L literature.

Outcome	Reported in Association With S-L in General	Reported in Association With a Specific S-L Course	Selected from Outcomes in Literature
Faculty A			
Personal	-Greater sense of fulfillment. -Contribute to values development. -Students have ownership of project.	-Effective communication. -Personal fulfillment. -Organizational skills. -Ethical responsibility.	-Ability to work with others. -Leadership skills. -Communication skills.
Learning	-More meaning in course.	-Problem solving skills. -Critical thinking skills. -Aesthetic sensibility. -Ecological literacy. -Information literacy. -Technological literacy.	-Improves ability to apply knowledge to “real world.”
Social/ Civic	None.	-Community awareness and involvement. -Culturally diverse perspective.	-Reduce stereotypes/facilitate cultural and racial understanding. -Sense of social responsibility. -Citizenship skills. -Commitment to service in the future.
Career	-Contribute to career choice (C).	-Career development.	None
Other			<i>-Ecological perspective.</i>
Faculty B			
Personal	-Practice in managing group conflict. -Enhanced ability to work with others. -Hone skills, especially interpersonal and group communication.	-Become more empathetic. -Have another lens to view life. -Develop skills to manage conflict/problems. -Develop communication skills. -Develop interpersonal and group skills.	-Personal identity. -Interpersonal skills. -Ability to work with others. -Leadership skills. -Communication skills.
Learning	-Practice in problem solving; think out of the box.	-Ecological perspective.	-Improves ability to apply knowledge to “real world.” -Problem analysis. -Critical thinking.

Outcome	Reported in Association With S-L in General	Reported in Association With a Specific S-L Course	Selected from Outcomes in Literature
Social/ Civic	-Community awareness and involvement; more effective citizenship. -Increased awareness of social issues.	-Community involvement and awareness.	-Sense of social responsibility. -Citizenship skills. -Commitment to service in the future.
Career	None.	None.	None.
Faculty C			
Personal	-Helps make ethical choices and see impact of choices. -Promotes lifelong learning.	-Enhanced value system for practical application to future work and personal decisions. -Enhanced communication skills.	-Sense of personal efficacy. -Spiritual growth. -Moral development.
Learning	-Makes the abstract and theoretical more concrete. -Theoretical and practical perspectives. -Provides greater meaning. -Practical application of what is discussed in class. -Enhances critical thinking and communication skills.	-Better understanding of environmental and sustainability issues. -Enhanced critical thinking skills. -Better understanding of course materials (makes theoretical and abstract more concrete).	-Enhances learning of subject matter. -Improves ability to apply knowledge to "real world." -Problem analysis. -Critical thinking. -Cognitive development.
Social/ Civic	-Better understanding of communities, relationships, and how we define and interact with communities in relationships.	-Better understanding of issues relating to community and relationships.	-Sense of social responsibility. -Citizenship skills. -Commitment to service in the future.
Career	None.	None.	None.
Faculty D			
Personal	-Enhance empathy, compassion, and courage.	-Become more empathetic. -Decision-making skills, esp. moral reasoning. -Develop/awaken concern and empathy for others. -Courage to confront uncomfortable/unfamiliar situations.	
Learning	-Develop structures of the mind.	None.	No data.
Social/ Civic	-Move away from self-centeredness to selflessness and concern for others.	None.	No data.
Career	None	None.	No data.

Outcome	Reported in Association With S-L in General	Reported in Association With a Specific S-L Course	Selected from Outcomes in Literature
Faculty E			
Personal	-Develop interpersonal skills.	-Communication skills.	-Interpersonal skills. -Ability to work with others. -Communication skills. -Leadership skills.
Learning	-Gain a richer understanding of course materials.	-Knowledge of diverse environment of business. -Critical and analytic thinking skills. -Technological proficiency.	-Enhances learning of subject matter. -Improves ability to apply knowledge to “real world.” -Problem analysis. -Critical thinking. -Cognitive development.
Social/ Civic	None.	None.	None.
Career	-Understand professional functions.	None.	None.
Faculty F			
Personal	-Develop interviewing and communication skills. -Develop presentation skills. -Develop group skills.	-Skills in advocating for others.	-Sense of personal efficacy. -Personal identity. -Spiritual growth. -Moral development. -Interpersonal skills. -Ability to work with others. -Leadership skills. -Communication skills.
Learning	-Experience real life.	-Knowledge of child development, assessment, and evaluation issues, and. -Knowledge of issues/strategies for family/community involvement. -Awareness of impact of services on children and families.	None.
Social/ Civic	-Promotes understanding and reduction of stereotyping.	None.	-Reduce stereotypes/facilitate cultural and racial understanding.

Outcome	Reported in Association With S-L in General	Reported in Association With a Specific S-L Course	Selected from Outcomes in Literature
Career	-Develop professional behaviors.	-Knowledge of professional education and practices; team planning.	None.
Other			-Set/attain goals. -Reduce socioeconomic, special populations, persons with disabilities stereotyping. -Group skills; collaborative learning -Professional behaviors.
Faculty G			
Personal	None.	-Understand the influence of communication on others. -Develop group leadership skills.	-Sense of personal efficacy. -Ability to work with others. -Communication skills.
Learning	-Immersed in the setting; understand subject matter; connect knowledge. -Put into practice what learned.	None.	-Problem analysis. -Critical thinking. -Cognitive development.
Social/ Civic	-Become advocates. -Fulfillment because of contribution to community.	None.	None.
Career	None.	-Develop professional skills and knowledge of professional practices.	None.
Other			-Responding to the ability to understand how to work with diverse populations with differing abilities.

APPENDIX E: IRB APPROVAL



Office of Research and Commercialization

March 21, 2005

Cathy J. Duff
17390 Stepping Stone Drive
Fort Myers, FL 33912

Dear Ms. Duffy:

With reference to your protocol #05-2468 entitled, "A Case Study: Using Program Theory to Understand the Service-Learning Program at Florida Gulf Coast University" I am enclosing for your records the approved, expedited document of the UCFIRB Form you had submitted to our office. **The expiration date for this study will be 3/20/06.** Should there be a need to extend this study, a Continuing Review form must be submitted to the IRB Office for review by the Chairman or full IRB at least one month prior to the expiration date. This is the responsibility of the investigator. **Please notify the IRB when you have completed this study.**

The UCF IRB has reviewed and approved this study because you are a doctoral student at UCF, but you may not begin research at Florida Gulf Coast University until you receive FGCU IRB approval.

Please be advised that this approval is given for one year. Should there be any addendums or administrative changes to the already approved protocol, they must also be submitted to the Board through use of the Addendum/Modification Request form. Changes should not be initiated until written IRB approval is received. Adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur.

Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors.

Cordially,

Barbara Ward

Barbara Ward, CIM
IRB Coordinator

Copy: IRB file



TO: Ms. Cathy Duff
Planning and Institutional Performance

FROM: FGCU Institutional Review Board *CMR*

DATE: August 19, 2005

RE: **A Case Study: Using Program Theory to Understand the Service-Learning Program at Florida Gulf Coast University**

Protocol ID # 2005-05
This Protocol ID number must be used in all communications about this project with the IRB.

Thank you for submitting the required consent forms on UCF letterhead. The requested forms have been reviewed and are accepted as submitted.

This protocol has been approved as of August 19, 2005 for a period of one year. Approximately two months prior to the approval end date, you will receive a Continuing Review Request form. Please complete it and return it to Research and Sponsored Programs, even if the project has been completed or is discontinued.

Attached to this memo is the approved version of the Informed Consent Form. You will be asked to provide copies of signed Informed Consent Forms to the IRB at a future date; please make sure that you use only the approved form.

Please remember that any changes to the protocol will require the submission of a revised protocol to the IRB. Any adverse reaction by a research subject are to be reported immediately to the Chair of the IRB through Ms. Donna Stremke in the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs, at 239-590-7029 or via e-mail at dstremke@fgcu.edu.

Questions concerning the IRB decision or any concerns may be directed to the IRB Chair, through Ms. Stremke.

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