SERVICE-LEARNING & COMMUNITY BASED LEARNING
A RESOURCE GUIDE FOR FACULTY

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Mission and Vision

Student Engagement has noted the urgency and opportunity to form a center that will coordinate and support the civic and leadership efforts of UWT faculty, students, and community partners. Below you will find a vision and mission for the center and we ask that you help provide feedback and guidance toward this new initiative.

Vision

The Center for Service and Leadership will be recognized across campus and in the south sound region as UW Tacoma's hub for community based learning initiatives, service and our first stop for effective partnerships.

Mission

The Center for Service and Leadership coordinates and supports the civic and leadership efforts of UW Tacoma faculty, students, and community partners to expand the boundaries of knowledge and discovery for positive community and student growth.

Introduction to Service-Learning & Community Based Learning

What is SL or CBL?

Many definitions of Service-Learning exist and currently UW Tacoma community has not defined what definition fits our community the best.   Therefore, you may see service-learning and community based learning used interchangeably.   Until an official definition can be established, SL and CBL can be defined broadly as:

 "Students engaged in community service activities with intentional academic and learning goals [with] opportunities for reflection that connects to their academic disciplines." (Cress, Collier, & Reitenauer, 2005).

Below you will find a model of service based experiences as they fall on a spectrum. Before engaging in any service based approach you will want to consider the beneficiary and the focus of your activity.
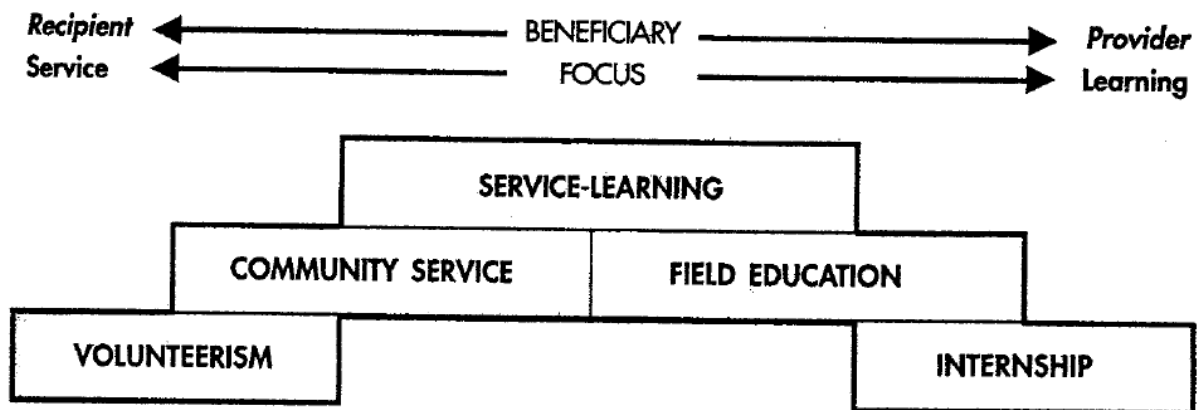
(Furco, 1996).

What are the Benefits

The [Association of American Colleges and Universities](#) and a growing body of evidence demonstrates that service-learning is a "high-impact" educational practice (Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray, 2001; Astin and Sax 1998 ;Cress, Burak, Giles, Elkins & Stevenson, 2010; Astin, Volgelgesang Ikeda & Yee, 2000).

Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray's report entitled *At a Glance: What We Know about the Effects of Service Learning on College Students, Faculty, Institutions, and Communities, 1993-2000: Third Edition (* 2001) provides an overview of service-learning benefits (see below):

The Impact of Service-learning on Faculty
- Satisfaction with quality of student learning;
- Commitment to research;
- Faculty increasingly integrate service-learning into courses;

The Impact of Service-Learning on Colleges and Universities
- Institutional commitment to service-learning curriculum;
- Availability of service-learning opportunities for students;
- Positively affects student retention & matriculation;
- Enhances community relations locally, regionally, nationally and globally;

The Effects of Service-Learning on Students:
- **Personal Outcomes**
  - A positive effect on student personal development such as sense of personal efficacy, personal identity, spiritual growth, and moral development; and
  - A positive effect on interpersonal development and the ability to work well with others, leadership and communication skills.
- **Social Outcomes**
  - A positive effect on reducing stereotypes and facilitating cultural & racial understanding;
  - A positive effect on developing social responsibility and citizenship skills;
  - A positive correlation to service; and
  - Volunteer service in college is associated with involvement in community service after graduation.
- **Learning Outcomes**
  - A positive impact on students' academic learning;
  - Improves students' abilities to apply what they have learned in "the real world"; and
  - An impact on academic outcomes as demonstrated complexity of understanding, problem analysis, critical thinking, and cognitive development.
- **Career Development**
  - Contributes to career development in better understanding the application of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)
- **Relationship with Institution**
  - Develops stronger faculty relationships;
  - Improves student satisfaction with their university and academic program of study; and Increases graduation rates (*especially first-generation).

How can the Center for Service and Leadership help?

Currently the CSL is able to consult and support faculty and staff with:

- Partnership development
- Curriculum consultation
- Limited student service placements
- Faculty Roundtable discussions
- SL support literature and teaching tools

In the future we hope to provide a more comprehensive and robust set of services to assist faculty and staff with student service orientations, placements, SL course designations and tracking and other services deemed necessary by faculty.

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Ash, S. L., Clayton, P. H., & Atkinson, M. P. (2005). Integrating Reflection and Assessment to Capture and Improve Student Learning. Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11(2), 49–60.

Astin, A. & Sax L. (1998). How undergraduates are affected by service participation. Journal of College Student Development, 39, 251-263.

Astin, A.W., Volgelgesang, L.J., Ikeda, E.K., & Yee J.A. (2000). How service learning affects students. Los Angeles: University of California, Higher Education Research Institute.

Cress, C. M., Burack, C., Elkins, J., & Stevens, M. C. (2010). A promising Connection. Campus Compact, Boston MA.

Eyler, J S., Giles, D. E. J., Stenson, C. M., and Gray, C. J. (2001). At a Glance: What We Know about the Effects of Service Learning on College Students, Faculty, Institutions, and Communities, 1993-2000: Third Edition. Retrieved from http://www.compact.org/wp-content/uploads/resources/downloads/aag.pdf

Jacoby, B. (ed) (1996). Service-Learning in Higher Education: Concepts and Practices. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Course Design

The Center for Leadership and Service is happy to meet with you regarding your interest in developing your course. Please contact Paul Prociv at paulpro@uw.edu to set up an appointment.

Below you will find resources that will help you conceptualize your service-based course, along with sample syllabi.

Fundamental Service-Learning Considerations (Eyler & Giles, 1999)

There are several essential factors to consider when developing a service-based course that will enhance both the student and faculty experience:

- Service Placement Quality
  - Does your placement provide a meaningful experience for each student? Are the community partner and the professor/student engaging in a reciprocal relationship?
- Application
  - Can students link what they are doing in the classroom to what they are experiencing in the community? Can students link their community experience to their academics?
- Reflection
  - Is the course set up for quality student reflection (pre, during and post)? Is the reflection connected and collaborative?
- Diversity
  - Is there a balance of challenge and support that encourages diverse populations, community partners and students to interact effectively?
- Community Voice
  - Does the community partner have a voice that is an active participant in the service course? Community voice often predicts personal development, cultural appreciation and seeing service as a rewarding experience.

Common Course Development Questions

Should I Make Service Mandatory? If your course objectives necessitate a specific service placement you may consider making it mandatory. However, providing students with a structured choice of their service site and the center can be a powerful way to engage students in the course.

How many hours should service be? **It** is suggested that students perform a **minimum of 15-20 hours.**

How can reflection be set up best for my course? Best practices in service based learning indicate that reflection is critical to learning and it is done best before, during and after the service (Eyler, Giles & Schmiede 1996; Eyler 2002; Toole & Toole 2001; Mabry 1998). Below are some quick references and ideas on how reflection may be done in your course. For more information regarding the structure and types of questions to ask please visit the resource section below.

	Before Service	During Service	After Service
Reflect Alone	Letter to self Goal statement	Reflective journal	Individual paper Film, Artwork
Reflect with Classmates	Explore "hopes and fears" Contrast expert views	List serve discussions Critical incident analysis	Team presentation
Reflect with Community Partners	Create contract Needs assessment	"Lessons learned"—on site debriefing	Presentation to community partner

How do I search for and approach potential community partners? The CSL recommends that you and your students contact us so we can search our growing database of community partners for you. There may already be a UWT relationship with a particular organization you are interested in! We can also provide guidance to you and your students on how to set up proper expectations with your community partner. Please see resources below for more specific strategies and tools.

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Eyler, J. (2002). Reflection: Linking Service and Learning—Linking Students and Communities. *Journal of Social Issues*, *58*(3), 517-534.

Eyler J., Giles D. E., & Schmiede. (1996) . *A Practitioner's Guide to Reflection in Service-learning: Student Voices and Reflections.* A Technical Assistance Project funded by the Corporation for National Service. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University.

Mabry, J.B. (1998). Pedagogical variations in service-learning and student outcomes. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 5*(1), 32–47.

Mapping Service-Learning Reflection Activities. From "Creating Your Reflection Map," by

J. Eyler, in M. Canada (Ed.), Service Learning: Practical Advice and Models, 2001, San Francisco: Jossey Bass. Copyright 2001 by Jossey-Bass. (Adapted).

Toole, J. & Toole, P. (2001). *The service-learning cycle*. Minneapolis: Compass Institute.

Curriculum Development Resources

Below are some suggested reading generally categorized into areas of interest. However, it is highly suggested and you may want to start with the following title as reference (it is found in our CSL library):

Battistoni, Richard M., Ph.D. Civic engagement across the curriculum: a resource book for service-learning faculty in all disciplines. Providence, RI : Campus Compact, 2002. (LC220.5 .B28 2002)

Framing Service-Learning

Category	Location	Resource Title
Exercises & Templates	CSL Book	Cress, C. M., Collier, P. J., & Reitenauer, V. L. (2005). Learning through Serving: A Student Guidebook for Service-Learning Across the Disciplines. Stylus Publishing.
Framing SL	Journal Article (Appendix I)	Furco, A. (1996). Service-Learning: A Balanced Approach to Experiential Education. Expanding Boundaries Service and Learning, 1(1), 2–6.
Strategies & Case Studies	CSL Book	Cress, C. M., & Donahue, D. M. (2011). Democratic Dilemmas of Teaching Service-Learning: Curricular Strategies for Success. Stylus Publishing, LLC.
Case Studies	CSL Book	Langseth, M., Plater, W. M., & Dillon, S. (2004). Public Work and the Academy: An Academic Administrator's Guide to Civic Engagement and Service-Learning. Jossey-Bass.

Service Placements

Use	Type	Resource Title
Partnership Assessment and Expectations	Journal Article (Appendix II)	Clayton, P., Bringle, R., Senor, B., Huq, J., & Morrison, M. (2010). Differentiating and assessing relationships in service learning and civic engagement: Exploitative, transactional, or transformational. Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 16(2), 5-21.
Partnership Development	Book Chapter (Appendix V)	Stoecker , R, Tryon A.E. & Hilgendorf A. (Eds.). (2009). The Unheard Voices: Community Organizations and Service Learning, PA: Temple University Press,
Partnership Expectation and Preparation Tools	Tools (Appendix VI)	Patti H. Clayton Independent Consultant, PHC Ventures Senior Scholar, Center for Service and Learning, IUPUI Visiting Scholar, Office of Research and Economic Development

Syllabi and Research

Use	Type	Resource Title
Research & Assessment	CSL Book	Clayton, P. H., Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (Eds.). (2012). Research on Service Learning: Conceptual Frameworks and Assessments. Sterling, Va: Stylus Publishing.
Frameworks: Service Perspectives	Journal Article (Appendix I)	Furco, A. (1996). Service-Learning: A Balanced Approach to Experiential Education. Expanding Boundaries Service and Learning, 1(1), 2–6.
Research & Assessment	Journal Article (Appendix III)	Ash, S. L., Clayton, P. H., & Atkinson, M. P. (2005). Integrating Reflection and Assessment to Capture and Improve Student Learning. Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11(2), 49–60.
Syllabi Lesson Plans	Web	The National Service Learning Clearinghouse:
Syllabi, Research & other tools	Web	Campus Compact: Syllabi, Research and other tools
Syllabi/Tools (Health)	Web	Community-Campus Partnerships for Health

Reflection Resources

Use	Type	Resource Title
Templates, Strategies	CSL Book	Eyler, J., & Giles, D. (Eds.). (1996). A practitioner's guide to reflection in service-learning: Student voices & reflections. Vanderbilt University.
Reflection Literature	CSL Book	Loeb, P. R. (2010). Soul of a Citizen: Living with Conviction in Challenging Times (2nd edition.). New York: St. Martin's Griffin.
Case Studies (Faculty and Students)	CSL Book	Cress, C. M., & Donahue, D. M. (2011). Democratic Dilemmas of Teaching Service-Learning: Curricular Strategies for Success. Stylus Publishing, LLC.
Template, Strategy	Journal Article (Appendix IV)	Ash, S. L., & Clayton, P. H. (2009). *Generating, deepening, and documenting learning: The power of critical reflection in applied learning.* Journal of Applied Learning in Higher Education, 1, 25-48.
Activities	Web	Reflection Manual for educators published by the University of Vermont with prompts and activities
Plans Case Studies	Web	Center for Civic Reflection - An organization that helps civic groups build capacity, commitment and community through reading and discussion (check out the Discussion Plans!)
Guide	Web	Structured Reflection (campus compact)
Prompts	Web	Reflection prompts from California State University Channel Islands
Guide	Web	Protocols & Facilitation suggestions from National School Reform

APPENDIX I

Service-Learning: A Balanced Approach to Experiential Education

BY ANDREW FURCO

The Service-Learning Struggle

For over a quarter of a century, education researchers and practitioners have struggled to determine how to best characterize service-learning. In 1979, Robert Sigmon defined service-learning as an experiential education approach that is premised on "reciprocal learning" (Sigmon, 1979). He suggested that because learning flows from service activities, both those who provide service and those who receive it "learn" from the experience. In Sigmon's view, service-learning occurs only when both the providers and recipients of service benefit from the activities.

Today, however, the term "service-learning" has been used to characterize a wide array of experiential education endeavors, from volunteer and community service projects to field studies and internship programs. By perusing schools' service program brochures, one realizes that the definitions for service-learning are as varied as the schools in which they operate. While some educators view " service- learning" as a new term that reveals a rich, innovative, pedagogical approach for more effective teaching, others view it as simply another term for well-established experiential education programs. As Timothy Stanton of the Haas Center for Public Service at Stanford University once asked, "What is service-learning anyway?... How do we distinguish service-learning from cooperative education, internship programs, field study and other forms of experiential education?" (Stanton, 1987). The National Society for Experiential Education, which for years has focused on various types of experiential education programs, broadly defines service-learning as "any carefully monitored service experience in which a student has intentional learning goals and reflects actively on what he or she is learning throughout the experience." (National Society for Experiential Education, 1994).

The Corporation for National Service provides a narrower definition that sees service-learning as a "method under which students learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet actual community needs, that [are] integrated into the students' academic curriculum or provide structured time for [reflection, and] that enhance what is taught in school by extending student learning beyond the classroom and into the community..." (Corporation for National and Community Service, 1990). The confounding use of the service-learning term may be one reason why research on the impacts of service-learning has been difficult to conduct.

In 1989, Honnet and Poulsen developed the Wingspread Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning (Honnet & Poulsen, 1989, Appendix B). While these guidelines offer a useful set of best practices for service oriented educational programs, they are not solely germane to service-learning and could easily serve as best practices for other types of experiential education programs (e.g., internships or apprenticeships). Similarly, the Association for Service-Learning in Education Reform (ASLER) has compiled a set of common characteristics of service-learning that help program directors determine whether their programs are meeting the overarching service-learning goals (ASLER, 1994 Appendix A). Again, while these characteristics are very useful in helping practitioners develop effective service-learning programs, they do not provide a definitive characterization of service-learning. ASLER characterizes service-learning as method of learning that enables school-based and community-based professionals "to employ a variety of effective teaching strategies that emphasize student-centered [sic.] or youth centered [sic.], interactive, experiential education... Service learning places curricular

FIGURE 1: A SERVICE AND LEARNING TYPOLOGY (Sigmon, 1994)

service-LEARNING:	Learning goals primary; service outcomes secondary
SERVICE-learning:	Service outcomes primary; learning goals secondary
service learning:	Service and learning goals completely separate
SERVICE-LEARNING:	Service and learning goals of equal weight and each enhances the other for all participants

concepts in the context of real-life situations... Service-learning connects young people to the community, placing them in challenging situations ... (ASLER, 1994). One could easily contend that other approaches to experiential education (i.e., internships or field education) purport to do the same. So then, how is service-learning different from other approaches to experiential education?

Developing a Definition

According to Sigmon, "If we are to establish clear goals [for service-learning] and work efficiently to meet them, we need to move toward a precise definition." (Sigmon, 1979). Recently, Sigmon attempted to provide a more precise definition of service-learning through a typology that compares different programs that combine service and learning. This typology broadened his earlier "reciprocal learning" definition to include the notion that "service-learning" occurs when there is a balance between learning goals and service outcomes. Herein lies the key to establishing a universal definition for service-learning (see Figure 1).

In this comparative form, the typology is helpful not only in establishing criteria for distinguishing service-learning from other types of service programs but also in providing a basis for clarifying distinctions among different types of service-oriented experiential

education programs (e.g., school volunteer, community service, field education, and internship programs).

Distinguishing Among Service Programs

To represent the distinctions among various types of service programs, a pictorial is offered that presents an experiential education continuum upon which various service programs might lie. The pictorial is based on both Sigmon's earlier "reciprocal learning" principles and his most recent typology. Where each service program lies on the continuum is determined by its primary intended beneficiary and its overall balance between service and learning (see Figure 2).

As the pictorial suggests, different types of service programs can be distinguished by their primary intended purpose and focus. Each program type is defined by the intended beneficiary of the service activity and its degree of emphasis on service and/or learning. Rather than being located at a single point, each program type occupies a range of points on the continuum. Where one type begins and another ends is not as important as the idea that each service program type has unique characteristics that distinguish it from other types. It is that ability to distinguish among these service program types that allows us to move closer toward a universal definition of service-learning.

FIGURE 2: DISTINCTIONS AMONG SERVICE PROGRAMS
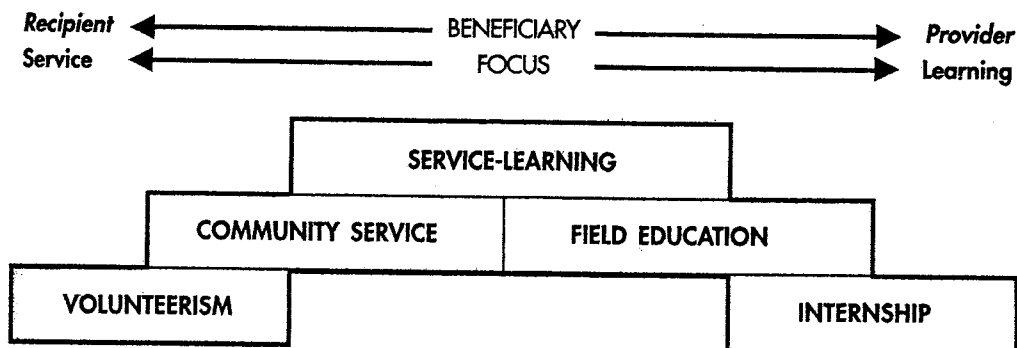
Using the pictorial as a foundation, the following definitions are offered for five types of service programs.

Volunteerism

Volunteerism is the engagement of students in activities where the primary emphasis is on the service being provided and the primary intended beneficiary is clearly the service recipient.

According to James and Pamela Toole, the term volunteerism refers to "people who perform some service or good work of their own free will and without pay" (Toole & Toole, 1992). The inherent altruistic nature of volunteer programs renders them as service focused, designed to benefit the service recipient. A prime example is a school-based program in which student-volunteers occasionally or regularly visit the local hospital to sit with Alzheimer patients who need some company. The primary intended beneficiaries of the service are the Alzheimer patients (the service recipients), and the focus of the activity is on providing a service to them. Although the student-volunteers may receive some benefits from the experience (e.g., feeling pleased with themselves) as well as learn something in the process, these outcomes are clearly serendipitous and unintentional. As the hospital visits of the student volunteers become more regular, and as the students begin focusing more on learning about Alzheimer's disease, the program moves toward the center of the continuum to become more like community service (or even service-learning).

Community Service

Community service is the engagement of students in activities that primarily focus on the service being provided as well as the benefits the service activities have on the recipients (e.g., providing food to the homeless during the holidays). The students receive some benefits by learning more about how their service makes a difference in the lives of the service recipients.

As with volunteer programs, community service programs imply altruism and charity. However, community service programs involve more structure and student commitment than do volunteer programs. School-based community service programs might include semester-long or year-long activities in which students dedicate themselves to addressing a cause that meets a local community (or global) need. Recycling, hunger

awareness, and environmental improvement are all forms of community service causes around which students have formed organizations to formally and actively address the issue. While the students' primary purpose for engaging in the service activity is to advance the cause, their engagement allows them to learn more about the cause and what is needed to be done to ensure the cause is dealt with effectively. As the service activities become more integrated with the academic course work of the students, and as the students begin to engage in formal intellectual discourse around the various issues relevant to the cause, the community service program moves closer to the center of the continuum to become more like service-learning.

On the opposite side of the continuum lie internship programs.

Internships

Internships programs engage students in service activities primarily for the purpose of providing students with hands-on experiences that enhance their learning or understanding of issues relevant to a particular area of study.

Clearly, in internship programs, the students are the primary intended beneficiary and the focus of the service activity is on student learning. Students are placed in internships to acquire skills and knowledge that will enhance their academic learning and/or vocational development. For many students, internships are performed in addition to regular course work often after a sequence of courses has been taken. Internships may be paid or unpaid and take place in either for-profit or nonprofit organizations. For example, a political science major might engage in an unpaid summer internship at a city hall to learn more about how local government works. Although the student is providing a service to the city hall office, the student engages in the internship primarily for his/her benefit and primarily for learning (rather than service) purposes. Similarly, a legal studies student may have a paid summer internship that allows that student to learn more about how a law firm operates. The student's primary motivations for partaking in the program—to learn legal skills and make some money—are clearly intended to benefit himself/ herself. As both these students place greater emphasis on the service being provided and the ways in which the service recipients are benefiting, the closer the internship program moves toward the center of the continuum and becomes more like field education (and service-learning).

Field Education

Field Education programs provide students with co-curricular service opportunities that are related, but not fully integrated, with their formal academic studies. Students perform the service as part of a program that is designed primarily to enhance students' understanding of a field of study, while also providing substantial emphasis on the service being provided.

Field education plays an important role in many service oriented professional programs such as Social Welfare, Education, and Public Health. In some of the programs, students may spend up to two years providing a service to a social service agency, a school, or health agency. While strong intentions to benefit the recipients of the service are evident, the focus of field education programs tends to be on maximizing the student's learning of a field of study. For example, students in Education programs may spend up to one year as student teachers to hone their teaching skills and learn more about the teaching process. Because of their long-term commitment to the service field, students do consciously consider how their service benefits those who receive it. However, the program's primary focus is still on the student teachers' learning and their overall benefit.

Service-Learning

Service-learning programs are distinguished from other approaches to experiential education by their intention to equally benefit the provider and the recipient of the service as well as to ensure equal focus on both the service being provided and the learning that is occurring.

To do this, service-learning programs must have some academic context and be designed in such a way that ensures that both the service enhances the learning and the learning enhances the service. Unlike a field education program in which the service is performed in addition to a student's courses, a service-learning program integrates service into the course(s). For example, a pre-med student in a course on the Physiology of the Aging might apply the theories and skills learned in that course to providing mobility assistance to seniors at the local senior citizen center. While the program is intended to provide a much needed service to the seniors, the program is also intended to help the student better understand how men and women age differently, how the physical aging of the body affects mobility, and how seniors can learn to deal with diminishing range of motion and mobility. In such a program, the focus is both on providing a much-needed service and on student learning. Consequently, the program intentionally benefits both the student who provides the service and the seniors for whom the service is provided. It is this balance that distinguishes service-learning from all other experiential education programs.

Conclusion

While conceptually, this pictorial can assist in bringing us closer to a more precise definition of service-learning, it is obvious that many gray areas still exist. What about the field education program or community service project that is located near the center of the experiential education continuum? How might we distinguish these programs from service-learning? I might argue that no experiential education approach is static; that is, throughout its life, every experiential education program moves, to some degree, along the continuum. Thus, at a particular point in time, a community service program may be farther left of center appearing to have greater focus on the service and its benefit to the recipient. At another point in time, the same program might appear to have an equal emphasis on service and learning, providing benefits to both the recipients and providers of the service. It is this mobility within program types that suggests that to fully distinguish service-learning programs from other forms of experiential education approaches, one must first determine a program's intended focus(es) and beneficiary(ies). From there, every service program's continuum range can be gauged to determine where it falls among the myriad of experiential education endeavors.

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Andrew Furco. "Service-Learning: A Balanced Approach to Experiential Education." Expanding Boundaries: Serving and Learning. Washington, DC: Corporation for National Service, 1996. 2-6.

APPENDIX II

Differentiating and Assessing Relationships in Service-Learning and Civic Engagement: Exploitative, Transactional, or Transformational

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As a defining aspect of service-learning and civic engagement, relationships can exist among faculty members, students, community organizations, community members, and administrators on campus. This research developed procedures to measure several aspects of these relationships. Investigators collected information from 20 experienced service-learning faculty members about their relationships with representatives of community organizations using the newly-developed Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale (TRES). Results indicate that transactional and transformational qualities can be differentiated using TRES and are related to other characteristics of relationships (e.g., closeness). Conceptual work underlying this study aims to advance practitioner-scholars' understanding of partnerships as one type of relationship, offering a refinement on and an expansion of the terminology associated with service-learning and civic engagement.

Relationships are a central, defining dimension of community-campus engagement (e.g., Cruz & Giles, 2000; Dorado & Giles, 2004; Jacoby & Associates, 2003), and "partnership" may be among the most frequently used words in the literature on service-learning and civic engagement. The label "partner" is used to indicate both a person in the community (e.g., staff member at a community organization) and an organization in the community (e.g., nonprofit or governmental agency); and the term "partnership" is most often applied to the relationship and interactions between the community and the campus. But are these terms being applied appropriately and clearly? This research is based on the conviction that the field needs clearer nomenclature and tools to conceptualize, investigate, evaluate, monitor, and nurture partnerships.

We contend that the terms "relationship" and "partnership" are not interchangeable. Relationships may be casual, short-term, and/or informal in nature; or they may be formal, complex, long-term, and/or multi-faceted; in any of these cases, they may be characterized by any of a wide range of interactions

with differing characteristics, capacities, goals, and outcomes. The term partnership is too often casually applied to the full range of connections between communities and campuses. For the sake of clarity, we use *relationship* to refer to interactions between persons and *partnership* to describe a particular subset of relationships characterized by three qualities: closeness, equity, and integrity (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Bringle, Officer, Grim, & Hatcher, 2009). Thus, not all relationships are partnerships, perhaps because the relationship in question is new and developing, has deteriorated, or has reached a stasis short of partnership (i.e., low levels of closeness, equity, and integrity) that may or may not be appropriate. Although other studies (e.g., Janke, 2009) examine inter-organizational relationships and partnerships in service-learning and civic engagement, our analysis focuses on interactions between and among persons.

Delineating the nature of relationships in civic engagement,[1] including characterizing their attributes, provides a basis for evaluating their status, under-

standing the changes that occur in them over time, and nurturing them in desired directions. Experience and research (see, for example, Dorado & Giles, 2004) confirm that relationships can progress and regress in quality because of a variety of circumstances (e.g., changes in work, individuals involved, goals, resources), although it may be the case that all civic engagement relationships could benefit from aspiring to some, if not all, of the attributes of partnerships. Understanding and operationalizing good practice associated with various types of relationships will be facilitated by enhancing the clarity and precision of terminology and developing capacities to assess the qualities of these relationships. A better understanding of the dynamics and aspirational qualities of relationships may enable practitioners to strengthen their own relationships and those of others. In turn, improving relationships in intentional ways may enhance outcomes for all constituencies, although this is a hypothesis that can be empirically evaluated. Such improved understanding also may allow civic engagement administrators to evaluate a range of relationship-building processes as well as facilitate the development and testing of theory related to the formation, evolution, and dissolution of relationships (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002). Saltmarsh, Giles, O'Meara, Sandmann, Ward, and Buglione (2009) conclude from their analysis of Carnegie Elective Classification dossiers that a consistent shortcoming of community engagement efforts is the lack of convincing evidence about the authentic nature of campus-community reciprocity.

This article reviews the relevant literature related to relationship development in service-learning and civic engagement, the nature and type of relationships found in community-campus interactions, and the attributes of transactional and transformational relationships. A structural model and conceptual framework for relationships in civic engagement is offered, and an instrument designed to distinguish between exploitative, transactional, and transformational aspects of these relationships is presented, along with data from its pilot use. Based on this work, implications for future research and practice are discussed.

Moving Beyond the "Community-Campus Partnership"

Reviewing the state of research related to external communities in service-learning, Cruz and Giles (2000) identify difficulties of conceptualizing "the community" as an entity: Which community? Which part of the community? How will the community be represented? Further, they suggest that "the university-community partnership itself be the unit of analysis" (p. 31), calling the field to do a better job of

assessing not only the outcomes of service-learning in communities (e.g., enhanced reading skills among children) but also the nature of the partnership itself.

When considering institutional approaches to service-learning as an integral component of civic engagement, practitioner-scholars are broadening their descriptions of the constituents involved to encompass multiple participants and groupings of participants (Jacoby & Associates, 2003). In the pairing of "community" and "campus," multiple entities can be differentiated, since neither of these is a homogeneous body; such precision has the potential to enhance practice and research. For example, one simple, graphical representation of the partners in service-learning is a Venn diagram (e.g., Clayton et al., 2005) with overlapping circles for (a) students, (b) faculty/staff, and (c) community partners – a triad that explicitly differentiates campus into students and faculty/staff and supports examination of the heterogeneous nature of each stakeholder population. Students, for example, may include those enrolled in a service-learning class as well as those in leadership roles supporting the class, and community partners can include representatives of community organizations, clients of those organizations, or residents of geographic communities. Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, and Kerrigan (2001) advocate comprehensive assessment of service-learning focused on four stakeholders: students, faculty, community partners, and institutions. Similarly, in addition to including the community, Bringle and Hatcher (1996, 2000; Bringle, Hatcher, Hamilton, & Young, 2001) identify three constituencies – administrators, faculty, and students – in the Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning, a framework useful for assessment and planning. The work in South Africa on the Community-Higher Education-Service Partnership program (Lazarus, 2004) similarly distinguishes community residents and service providers, thus suggesting a faculty-resident-service provider triad for capturing the important relationships.

Bringle, Clayton, and Price (2009) further differentiate the community and campus in the SOFAR framework (Figure 1), identifying five key constituencies associated with civic engagement: *S*tudents, *O*rganizations in the community, *F*aculty, *A*dministrators on the campus, and *R*esidents in the community (or, in some instances, clients or special interest populations). Across these five stakeholders, there are ten dyadic relationships, and each of the ten has two vectors representing the primary directions of influence.

SOFAR provides a structural model for examining dyadic interactions between persons and explicitly broadens and refines the set of potential partners in civic engagement beyond "community" and "cam-

Figure 1
SOFAR Structural Framework
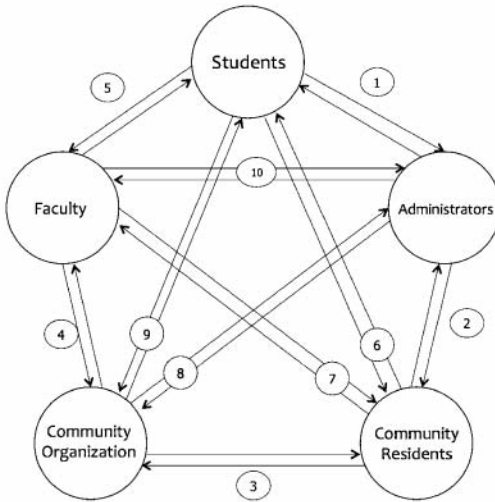
pus." This allows a more detailed analysis of the nature of the wide range of interactions and relationships involved. The differentiation of community into Organizations and Residents acknowledges that persons in these two groups often have different cultures, goals, resources, roles, and power and that they do not necessarily represent one another's views; it also encourages investigation of the relationships among the various types of individuals that comprise "community." There could be additional differentiation among residents (e.g., by neighborhoods, by demographic attributes), among organizational staff (e.g., executive director, mid-level staff), and across organizations (e.g., government, business, community). The differentiation of campus into Administrators, Faculty, and Students acknowledges similar heterogeneity across perspectives, agendas, cultures, resources, power, and goals. It allows for an analysis of both the dyadic intra-campus relationships and the construction of campus social networks focused on civic engagement; in addition, it acknowledges that each of these three campus constituencies has its own relationship with residents and community organizations that warrants unique attention. Here too, there could be additional differentiation, among students (e.g., students enrolled in a service-learning course, student leaders helping to facilitate the course, and co-curricular volunteers involved in the same project), administrators (e.g., executive officers, academic leaders, and program staff), and faculty (e.g., faculty teaching a service-learning course and faculty providing leadership to service-learning initiatives or offices) (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009).

Furthermore, SOFAR is not limited to the analysis of dyadic relationships but rather provides a starting

point for examining more complex interactions among larger groupings and networks (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009). There may be multiple persons in each constituent group in SOFAR who warrant differentiation, representation, and analysis. For example, although interactions may occur between one student and one community organization staff person during a service-learning project, there also can be many students involved in the project and therefore interacting with one or various organizational staff. In addition, students are not only participants in isolated courses but also members of the broader campus community, and their service-learning activities may result in interactions with other students (e.g., in other courses, in student organizations or student government, in their major, with peer mentors). Further, SOFAR also has the potential to examine how relationships between two or more individuals in these primary groupings can develop into networks, coalitions, common interest groups, communities of practice, and communities beyond these groupings. An elaboration of this graphic representation of SOFAR that includes networks at each of the five nodes (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009) provides a template for delineating networks of persons outside each primary constituency and for considering how service-learning courses provide a basis for additional relationships across many persons. Although these extrapolations beyond the primary five constituencies and ten dyadic relationships are possible and may be meaningful, the nodes identified in SOFAR represent an important starting point for developing structural analyses, conceptual frameworks, and research projects that study sets of relationships.

Investigating the Quality of Relationships

But what about the quality of the relationships among this range of constituents in civic engagement? Building on the work of Burns (1978), who distinguishes between transactional and transforming leadership, Enos and Morton (2003) offer a framework for examining partnerships in service-learning. They define *transactional* relationships as instrumental and often designed to complete short-term tasks. Persons come together on the basis of an exchange, each offering something that the other desires. Both benefit from the exchange, and no long-term change is expected. This is distinct from *transformational* relationships wherein both persons grow and change because of deeper and more sustainable commitments. In a transformational relationship, persons come together in more open-ended processes of indefinite but longer-term duration and bring a receptiveness – if not an overt intention – to explore emergent possibilities, revisit and revise their own goals and identities, and develop systems they work within

beyond the status quo.

The study reported here operationalized the distinction Enos and Morton bring to the civic engagement literature by developing an instrument to assess relationships in light of their transactional and transformational qualities. Transactional relationships and outcomes may be appropriate in some situations; movement toward mutual transformation may be desirable in other situations. What is needed is a means of making visible the full range of possibilities and distinguishing between actual and desired states, so that persons involved in any given relationship (and those who support them) can more effectively discuss, diagnose, and, as desired, deepen the quality of interactions.

The primary research question under investigation in this project was whether the differences between transactional and transformational relationships in service-learning can be meaningfully measured. The project included developing, administering, and evaluating an instrument and protocol for investigating relationships with respect to their exploitative, transactional, or transformational attributes. This first phase of this research focused on one of the ten dyadic relationships in Figure 1: the faculty-community organization relationship, viewed from the perspective of the faculty member (F–O in SOFAR).

Method

Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale

The Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale (TRES) was developed from a review of the literature and through feedback from service-learning practitioners and researchers. The initial version of the instrument (Clayton & Scott, 2008) was a simple continuum (Figure 2) based on Enos and Morton (2003), ranging from 1 (*transactional*) to 10 (*transformational*) as a quantitative rating of any given relationship.

Discussions with practitioners and researchers identified the need to expand the continuum to embody one-sided relationships that fall short of transactional and in some instances are even exploitative (i.e., so unilateral that, intentionally or unintentionally, they take advantage of or harm one or both parties). Further, principles of best practice in designing scales (e.g., Bringle, Phillips, & Hudson, 2004) suggest the need for a more complex set of descriptors and a finer level of discrimination in articulating the characteristics of transactional and transformational relationships.

TRES was developed based on an analysis of attributes of transactional and transformational relationships (Burns, 1978; Enos & Morton, 2003) and the relationships literature applied to civic engagement (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002). Items for TRES were written around nine key attributes: outcomes, common goals, decision-making, resources, conflict management, identity formation, power, significance, and satisfaction and change for the better (Table 1).

Item response options reflect different possibilities along a continuum from exploitative to transactional to transformational (E-T-T). Options in the exploitative range of the continuum reflect negative outcomes (e.g., costs exceeding benefits) to one or both parties. Options in the transactional range reflect net benefits to one or both parties but no growth. Options in the transformational range capture growth and enhanced capacity in and through the relationship.

When constructing the nine items, variable numbers of options were included to capture different possibilities and nuances across the continuum for a particular attribute. The uneven number of response choices for different items was shaped by the desire to present respondents with reasonable choices spanning the conceptual continuum. Some analyses are based on these raw score responses, which were obtained by summing responses to the nine items and finding the mean score for each research participant. Despite the unequal number of response categories, summing or averaging these responses across items

Figure 2
Preliminary Continuum

Transactional	Transformational
[———————————————————————————————]	
1	10
*Short-term	*Long-term; indefinite
*Project-based	*Issue-based
*Limited, planned commitments	*Dynamic, open commitments
*Work within systems	*Create new systems
*Maintain separate identities	*Create group identity
*Accept institutional goals	*Critically examine goals
EACH BENEFITS	EACH GROWS

Table 1
Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale (TRES)

Analysis of Partnership

Mark with an X the alternative that best characterizes the actual nature of the partnership from your point of view (as it is now, if this is a current partnership, or as it was at the time of the course, if this is a previous partnership).

Mark with a circle the alternative that best characterizes the desired nature of the partnership from your point of view (note that this might be the same alternative you marked with a X or it might be different)

1. Outcomes of the service-learning partnership
   a. _____ There are more costs than benefits for both of us in this partnership#
   b. _____ One of us benefits but at a cost to the other#
   c. _____ Neither of us benefits to a significant degree from this partnership, but neither experiences a significant cost either#
   d. _____ One of us benefits much more than the other, although not at a significant cost to either of us##
   e. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) from the partnership*
   f. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and one of us grows through the partnership**
   g. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and both grow through the partnership
   h. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and both grow and the relationship itself grows
   i. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and both grow, the relationship itself grows, and the systems (e.g., organizations) that we are part of become more capable of generating growth because of our partnership

2. Relationship among goals in service-learning the partnership: To what extent would you say that you and your community partner do or do not have / did or did not have common goals in your service-learning collaboration?
   a. _____ Generally our goals are at odds#
   b. _____ Generally our goals are not connected, although not at odds*
   c. _____ Our goals converge at some points*
   d. _____ We have common goals

3. Decision-making: When decisions have been made about the service-learning activities, to what degree have you and your community partner collaborated?
   a. _____ Decisions about this project are made in isolation and without any consideration of the other partner#
   b. _____ Decisions about this project are made in isolation but with some consideration of the other partner##
   c. _____ Decisions about this project are made in isolation and with significant consideration of the other partner*
   d. _____ Decisions about this project are made in consultation with the other partner*
   e. _____ Decisions about this project are made collaboratively and are generally driven by the interests of one or the other of us**
   f. _____ Decisions about this project are made collaboratively and are generally reached through a consensus process that reflects our shared commitment to our shared goals

4. Resources: In this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ One of us has contributed most or all of the resources to the work, and the other has contributed very little or no resources#
   b. _____ One of us has contributed more resources than the other, but the other has contributed some resources*
   c. _____ Both of us have contributed significant resources to the work

5. Conflict management: If (or when) conflicts arise about the work of this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Both of us would actively avoid dealing with the conflict#
   b. _____ One of us would attempt to deal with the conflict while the other would avoid it##
   c. _____ We would both deal with the conflict, but it would be uncomfortable for us*
   d. _____ We would both deal with the conflict openly, with the shared expectation of resolving the issue

6. Role of this partnership in work and identity formation: This service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Has on balance hindered work for both of us#
   b. _____ Has on balance hindered work for one of us#
   c. _____ Has helped one of us to do our work but has no impact on the other's work##
   d. _____ Has helped both of us to do our work*
   e. _____ Has helped both of us do our work and has helped define "who I am" for one of us, but not the other**
   f. _____ Has helped both of us do our work and has helped define "who I am" for both of us
   g. _____ Has helped both of us do our work and has helped define "who I am" for both us and has enhanced the ability of one of us to contribute in significant ways through our work
   h. _____ Has helped both of us do our work, has helped define "who I am" for both of us, and has enhanced the ability of both of us to contribute in significant ways through our work

7. Power: In this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ One of us has most or all of the power, and the other has very little or any power#
   b. _____ One of us has somewhat more power than the other*
   c. _____ The power is equally shared in this partnership

8. What matters in this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Nothing of significance to either of us really matters#
   b. _____ What one of us gets from this relationship matters##
   c. _____ What both of us get from this relationship matters*
   d. _____ What both of us get and the extent to which one of us grows matters**
   e. _____ What both of us get and the extent to which both of us grow matters
   f. _____ What both of us get, the extent to which both of us grow, and the capacity of our partnership to nurture growth around us matters

9. Satisfaction and change: As a result of the service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Both of us are dissatisfied and both of us have been changed for the worse#
   b. _____ Both of us are dissatisfied and one of us has been changed for the worse#
   c. _____ Both of us are dissatisfied but neither of us is changed for the worse#
   d. _____ Only one of us is dissatisfied and neither is changed for the worse##
   e. _____ Both of us are satisfied and neither of us is changed for the better or the worse*
   f. _____ Both of us are satisfied and one of us is changed for the better**
   g. _____ Both of us are satisfied and both of us are changed for the better
   h. _____ Both of us are satisfied and are changed for the better and the relationship itself is changed for the better
   i. _____ Both of us are satisfied and are changed for the better, the relationship itself is changed for the better, and the world around us is changed for the better

Notes: Raw TRES scores were calculated by summing scores on individual items, where alternative "a" receives a score of "1," alternative "b" a score of "2," and so on, and then dividing by the number of response options to calculate the mean.
Conceptual TRES scores were calculated by giving scores of "1" for an item indicated above as # = exploitative for at least one; a score of "2" for items marked as ## = beneficial for one but not both; "3" for * = beneficial for both and therefore mutually transactional; "4" for ** = beneficial for both and transformational for one; and a score of "5" for an item left blank in the table above = mutually-transformational.

still provides an index of relationship quality (higher numbers indicate relationships closer to transformational), and other analyses may still be conducted on these values (e.g., calculating internal consistency), noting that items with larger numbers of options (and higher values) receive disproportionate weight.

Alternatively, because of the conceptual dimension underlying the response options and regardless of the number of options, responses can be collapsed to one of the five types of relationships: 1 = *exploitative for one or both*; 2 = *transactional for one but not the other*; 3 = *mutually-transactional, with both benefiting*; 4 = *mutually-transactional and, in addition, transformational for one but not the other*; 5 = *mutually-transactional and -transformational, with growth for both* (see Note in Table 1). This 5-point conceptual scoring scheme was used to obtain a TRES score for each participant by averaging responses (scored in the manner indicated in Table 1) across the nine items. The TRES score yields an index of the quality of the relationship and, furthermore, permits interpretation of the numerical value in terms of the continuum (e.g., if a respondent's TRES average is ~3.0, this indicates that across those nine attributes the relationship is perceived, generally, as transactional).

Research Protocol

As the first phase of research using TRES, the faculty-community organization (F–O in SOFAR) relationship from the faculty member's perspective was selected for study. The investigators chose to begin with faculty to avoid imposing on community members' time with a not-yet-refined or proven instru-

ment; we also recognized that the first draft of the instrument contained somewhat academic language that will need to be revised in the next version, given the goal of developing a single instrument for use by all constituents represented in the SOFAR framework. Twenty experienced service-learning faculty participated – five each from Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, North Carolina State University, the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, and Elon University.

The data collection process consisted either of (a) a 60-90 minute face-to-face interview guided by a questionnaire ($n = 15$) or (b) the same questionnaire completed individually by respondents ($n = 5$). Face-to-face interviews were conducted by an undergraduate or graduate assistant to remove potential distortion of responses that could arise if a professional staff member in the institution's service-learning office or one of the investigators were involved. A unique identifier was assigned to each respondent to preserve anonymity in data analysis.

The protocol began with respondents identifying two community partners (representatives of community organizations) associated with a service-learning course, providing a total of forty relationships to be analyzed (some analyses were based on a smaller number due to incomplete data). Respondents labeled these as community partner "A" and "B." The questionnaire included four sections; the order in which they were completed varied across respondents (those who completed it individually received the sections in a different order than that used by the interviewers). Sections I and II were completed twice, once for partner "A" and once for "B"; sections III and IV were completed once.

In Section I, respondents described each relationship's history, rationale, and characteristic types of interactions by responding to a set of specific prompts (Table 2). This section evaluated the nature of the relationship on four characteristics posited to describe *closeness* (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989; Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002): (a) frequency of interaction, (b) diversity of interaction, (c) the strength of influence of the faculty member on the community partner's decisions, and (d) the strength of influence of the community partner on the faculty member's decisions.

Section II of the questionnaire opened with a graphic measure (Figure 3) of the perceived degree of closeness in the relationship, as represented by the

Table 2
Protocol Section I: Description of Partnership

---

1) Is this partnership CURRENT or RECENT or DID IT OCCUR SOME TIME AGO? *(circle one)*

   When did this partnership begin?

   How long did it last? / How long has it lasted?

2) Overall, what are the purposes of this partnership?
   What brought you and this partner together initially?
   What do you / did you do together?

3) Would you say that you and this partner interact(ed) frequently (at least a couple times a month) during the current (or most recent) semester/period of your partnership? YES or NO *(circle one)*
   Would you say that your interactions with this partner have INCREASED or DECREASED or REMAINED THE SAME in the past 12 months? *(circle one)*

4) Would you say that you and this partner have / had a HIGH or a LOW level of diversity in your interactions? In other words, do you / did you engage in
   _____ MANY DIFFERENT TYPES OF ACTIVITIES TOGETHER
   or
   _____MOSTLY JUST ONE OR TWO TYPES OF ACTIVITIES? *(check one)*
   Please provide examples of how you interact(ed).
   Would you say that the diversity of your interactions with this partner have INCREASED or DECREASED or REMAINED THE SAME in the past 12 months? *(circle one)*

5) Would you say that you and this partner have / had a HIGH or a LOW degree of interdependence in your relationship? In other words, would you say that there are
   _____ MANY or _____ FEW (check one) examples that you have contributed to decisions made by your community partner (including but transcending the SL collaboration per se)?
   Would you say that there are _____ MANY or _____ FEW (check one) examples that your community partner has contribute to decisions that you have made (including but transcending the SL collaboration per se)?
   Please provide examples.

Figure 3
Venn Level of Closeness (from Machek, Cannady, & Tangey, 2007).
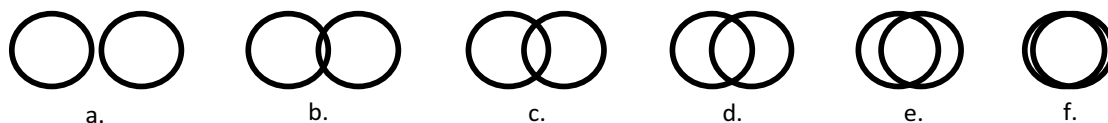
overlap between circles in two-circle Venn diagrams (Mashek, Cannaday, & Tangney, 2007); respondents were asked to indicate which Venn diagram represented the current degree of closeness and which represented the desired degree of closeness in the relationship. Responses could range from $a = 1$ to $f = 6$.

Respondents then rated the relationship on each of the nine items in TRES (Table 1). They placed an "X" on the response option corresponding most closely with their perception of the current status of the relationship and an "O" on the response option that corresponded most closely with the desired status (instructions clarified that these could be the same option).

Having completed Sections I and II twice, once for each relationship, in Section III respondents compared each of the two sets of scale ratings using a series of open-ended and fixed-answer questions. These open-ended questions included the similarities and differences between the ratings, the sources for each rating, the perceived capacity for partnership development in each case, and the barriers to partnership development overall. In Section IV, respondents were asked to reflect on the data gathering process to assess and refine the protocol and TRES scale. They were also contacted by email several weeks later and asked to reflect on what, if anything, they may have learned about themselves and their relationships with community partners from participating in this study (Table 3).

Results

First, the psychometric properties of TRES were examined. The raw scores for the nine items constituting TRES had a coefficient *alpha* = .90 for perceived current status of the relationship and .82 for desired status. These values indicate that the nine items were a uni-dimensional, internally consistent set for both

Table 3
Protocol Sections III & IV: Respondent Analysis of TRES Ratings and Overall Process

Section III

1) Summary discussion of the ratings of the 2 partnerships in terms of where the responses were similar and different.
   Similarities
   Differences

2) In general terms, what are the sources of the ratings on each? What factors led each of these 2 relationships to the point indicated by the ratings? (e.g., your own previous experience, your partner's, the design of your course or of their organization, personalities, etc.)
   A:
   B:

3) What do you see as the capacity for partnership development in each of these relationships? In other words, do you and this partner have the capacity to move toward the level you marked with a circle (if that is different than the level you marked with an X)? What resources do you have together to enable that movement?
   A:
   B:

4) What do you see as the barriers to partnership development in each of these relationships? In other words, what obstacles may keep the partnership at a lower than desired level on these continua, if that is the case?
   A:
   B:

Section IV

Overall, how well do you believe we have captured the nature of the relationship between you and these 2 community partners?

Is there anything you did not understand or struggled with as you completed the scale and/or answered my questions?

Is there anything you want to add?

Table 4

Frequencies of Relationships Described as Exploitative, Transactional, or Transformational, Based on TRES Conceptual Scores

Type of Relationship	Frequency: Current Relationship	Frequency: Desired Relationship
Exploitative for one or both (TRES < 1.5)	0	0
Transactional for only one (1.51<TRES<2.5)	3	0
Transactional for both (2.51<TRES<3.5)	8	6
Transformational for only one (3.51<TRES<4.5)	17	8
Transformational for both (4.51< TRES<5.0)	9	24

Note: Some data missing from total of N = 40 relationships studied.

types of ratings (i.e., current, desired). A paired or dependent t-test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference between the mean rating for raw scores for the current relationships and the desired relationships – in other words, to determine whether respondents wanted their relationships to be different than currently perceived. A significant difference $t(35)$ = -6.11, $p < .01$, was found between raw scores for the current ($M = 4.16$) and the desired ($M = 5.07$) status of the relationship. The greatest discrepancy between current and desired was on power (item #7); the least discrepancy was on satisfaction and change (item #9).

Responses to TRES items were converted to the 5-point conceptual scoring scheme and the frequencies for each of the five categories of responses, for both current and desired states of the relationship, were determined (Table 4). The three highest rated items for both current and desired were satisfaction and change (item #9), managing conflict (item #5), and resources (item #4); the lowest rated item was collaborative decision making (item #3).

To evaluate the relationship of TRES scores to a different and independent index of the characteristics of the relationship, the correlation between the mean TRES rating on the 5-point conceptual scoring scheme and the selection among Venn diagrams representing degrees of closeness was investigated. For the current status of the relationships, the mean TRES 5-point (conceptual) rating correlated $r(36)$ = .63, $p < .01$ with the choice on the Venn graphic representation of closeness for the current relationship; the mean rating for the desired status of the relation-

ships correlated $r(35) = .62$, $p < .01$ with the Venn graphic representation of closeness for the desired relationship. Thus, the independent measure of closeness of the relationships aligned well with the extent to which the relationship was described as exploitative or transactional or transformational.

On the basis of the interdependency theory of relationships (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Rusbult, 1980, 1983), several other indicators of closeness were identified (Berscheid et al., 1989; Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002): frequency of activity, diversity of activity, and interdependency (which was measured with two different items representing the direction of interdependence, yielding a total of four indicators). The mean 5-point TRES ratings for the current relationship were significantly lower for less frequent interactions, less diverse interactions, and less involvement in contributing to the other's decisions (Table 5).

These four indicators of closeness were combined into an overall measure of closeness that correlated $r(36) = .56$, $p < .01$ with current 5-point TRES scores and $r(34) = .47$, $p < .01$ with desired 5-point TRES scores. These two correlations demonstrate that relationships that were rated as being closer were also described as being more transformational. These findings converge with the findings for the Venn diagram measure of closeness, signaling that TRES is measuring closeness of the relationship between the faculty member (respondent) and community partners, from the faculty member's point of view.

Qualitative data were examined by each investiga-

Table 5

TRES Ratings for Indicators of Closeness.

Measurement	TRES *M*	TRES *M*
Frequent interactions	Yes = 4.71	No = 3.62 **
Diverse interactions	Many = 4.81	One or two =3.97 **
Respondent contributed to community partner's decisions	Many examples = 4.76	Few examples = 3.87 **
Community partner contributed to respondent's decisions	Many examples = 4.70	Few examples = 3.86 **

Notes: TRES conceptual range: 1 = exploitative for one or both, 5 = mutually transformative
** $p < .05$

tor to determine themes within the responses from his or her own campus' five respondents. These themes were compiled and analyzed across the four institutions. Investigators have completed a preliminary analysis of the qualitative data and offer here suggestive results.

Overall, respondents selected two community partners to analyze with whom they had dissimilar levels of "closeness," without prompting from the questionnaire or interviewers. Describing the interactions with their community partners, respondents generally noted that they were more often at a distance (e.g., e-mail, phone) than face-to-face, across all levels of perceived closeness.

The primary barrier to growth in partnerships identified by the respondents was lack of time. This barrier was thought to be lessened – but not eliminated – when the partnership was a priority, built on a personal relationship, or accomplished multiple objectives, (e.g., in the case of faculty, teaching and research). A key theme was that some faculty had difficulty focusing on their own growth in their relationships with community partners and instead more frequently mentioned their students' growth. Several respondents slipped from discussing their own relationships with community partners to discussing those of their students. They frequently suggested that their students' perspectives, levels of satisfaction, and learning outcomes were more important than their own or their community partners'. For example, one respondent said, "The transformative dimension that I focus on is within my students. I do not necessarily expect a transformative experience for the agencies, or with my relationship with agencies." They frequently spoke of themselves more as facilitators of others' learning than as learners themselves. Such responses suggest that the faculty respondents viewed the student-community organization (S–O or O–S in SOFAR) relationship as being both more relevant and the locus of benefits and growth in the service-learning process. One interpretation of these responses, which begs further investigation, is that the faculty respondents not only did not view their outcomes as important as students', but they may not even have seen themselves as candidates for growth in the process.

The identification of this theme and a concomitant project examining faculty learning through service-learning (Jaeger, Clayton, Hess, McGuire, & Jameson, in preparation) prompted investigators to probe further into the effects of this study itself on faculty respondents. Several respondents indicated that it helped them to realize the potential extent and significance of their role in service-learning relationships; for example:

> As faculty, we may enter into partnerships assuming that we provide a "service" for our partner, but not realizing that we also stand to gain from this relationship…not only is it important to ask our community partners if the partnership was meaningful for them, we should also share the variety of ways we have grown as faculty through the partnership.

Respondents also noted that the study helped them problematize some of their own assumptions about service-learning. Said one, "Participating in this research has made me realize that closeness of a relationship with an individual community partner and length/quality/depth of the service-learning partnership do not necessarily correlate." Others did not believe their participation changed their understanding of their own service-learning relationships, as evidenced by the following quote: "It served as a good opportunity to reflect on partnerships, but I don't think participating in the study has had a long-standing impact on my normative practices and professional goals."

Discussion

General Implications

Giles and Eyler (1998) identify community impact of service-learning as one of the top ten unanswered questions in service-learning research. Clark's (2003) 3-"I" model – which focuses on the initiators, the initiative, and the impact of community-campus partnerships – captures the importance of relating process and outcomes. In addition to outcomes in communities (e.g., improved reading scores through tutoring), the relationships formed through service-learning constitute a tangible and significant outcome themselves. The quality of these relationships is not only important for the work in which the partners are currently engaged, but also because it may represent the capacity of the individuals to engage in future work together, without needing to initiate new relationships with others.

Following Cruz and Giles' (2000) call that the community-campus partnership be considered a unit of analysis, this research focused on developing and refining tools to measure qualities of relationships; it was preceded by the development of models intended to improve analyses of the relationships at the heart of service-learning (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009). SOFAR, a structural model, and the associated conceptual models for closeness and for the exploitative, transactional, and transformational nature of relationships yield at least eight improvements on past work on partnerships (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009):

(a) expansion of the community-campus relation-

ship from a single dyad to multiple dyads;

(b) expansion beyond the dyad to additional, higher-level units of analysis (e.g., networks);

(c) differentiation of campus into students, faculty, and administrators (noting that each of these stakeholder sets can be further differentiated, as in distinguishing between administrators at the executive level and at the service-learning program level, or between students enrolled in service-learning enhanced courses and student leaders who help to facilitate those courses);

(d) differentiation of community into staff at organizations and residents (alternately understood as clients or consumers of services, as advocates, or as geographic neighbors);

(e) differentiation in the language of partnership and relationship;

(f) analysis of the quality of interactions between individuals in terms of closeness;

(g) differentiation of relationship processes and outcomes along a continuum from exploitative to transactional to transformational; and

(h) development of tools to support consideration of each person's perspective on the same interactions in a relationship.

Scores on TRES from this research provide a meaningful summary of the faculty-community organization dyad (F–O) from the point of view of the faculty member. The results indicate that TRES captures important differences in the qualities of relationships that are related to indicators of closeness. The results also indicate that faculty members desired relationships with their community partners are more transformational than they perceive them to be at present.

Implications for Future Research and Practice

TRES taps key dimensions identified by (a) Burns (1978), who distinguished between transactional and transforming leadership, (b) Enos and Morton (2003), who offer a framework for examining the distinction between transactional and transformational service-learning partnerships, and (c) Bringle and Hatcher (2002), who apply the interpersonal relationships literature to civic engagement. The nine items comprising TRES (outcomes, common goals, decision-making, resources, conflict management, identity formation, power, significance, and satisfaction and change for the better) are offered as a representative sample of key attributes of relationships but not as an exhaustive list. Presumably, they will apply to many if not all relationships in civic engagement (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009). As such, TRES possesses content validity as adequately sam-

pling the conceptual domain as scholars have described it. Therefore, TRES can be used to evaluate the status of existing relationships on the E-T-T continuum. The Venn diagram that presents graphic representations of closeness characterized by overlapping circles (Mashek et al., 2007; Figure 3) correlated very highly with TRES and can be considered a good summary of closeness that is short, nonverbal, and user-friendly. Similarly, one practitioner-scholar who examined TRES (personal communication) posited that the original transactional-transformational continuum (Figure 2) might serve as a sufficient proxy for TRES scoring when time or other constraints limit research. Nevertheless, TRES can provide additional, nuanced diagnostic information about how the attributes compare in terms of the E-T-T continuum. For example, one could learn that several of the attributes receive high ratings, but one (e.g., decision making) does not, and such information could guide future research by raising new questions about the conditions under which the various attributes do and do not align as well as future programming to improve relationships.

Because TRES does not presume to be exhaustive, there may be other, equally important attributes that would be important to include in assessing the quality of the relationships involved in particular activities. Similarly, it is likely that closeness, equity, and integrity are necessary but not sufficient conditions for relationships to take the form of partnerships. As an example of additional attributes, Saltmarsh, Hartley, and Clayton (2009) speak of a democratic orientation that values and integrates knowledge from multiple sources and shares authority for knowledge construction. Similarly, Jameson, Clayton, and Jaeger (in preparation) explore the meaning of and necessary conditions for positioning all partners in civic engagement as "co-educators, co-learners, and co-generators of knowledge" and posit such elements as transformational learning and commitment to a shared developmental journey.

The results of this research provide preliminary evidence for the validity of TRES, although these measures (i.e., TRES, closeness, Venn diagram) possess common-method variance (they all involve self-reports rating methods) and, in this research, they were used with the same type of respondent (i.e., faculty). Any individual's perspective captured by TRES also may be related in future research to other types of information and sources of quantitative and qualitative evidence, such as antecedents of the relationships (e.g., characteristics of the individuals, resources invested), to other indicators of the processes involved in the relationship (e.g., archival records of communications, decisions about the distribution of resources), and to other outcomes (e.g.,

changes on performance indicators) associated with the relationship. Such research will provide an enhanced understanding of the processes that underlie improvement and regression in civic engagement relationships.

In addition, although this project investigated only one perspective on the relationships, data could also be collected with TRES from the other half of the dyad (i.e., in this research, the community organization representative in SOFAR) or any of the other persons associated with the particular service-learning projects in question. Similarities and discrepancies between the perceptions of the persons involved in the same relationship could then be analyzed. Furthermore, each person in the relationship could give estimates of the other person's ratings; then actual similarity (difference between each person's actual ratings), perceived similarity (differences between one person's actual ratings and the same person's perceived ratings of the other person), and mutual understanding (differences between one person's perceived rating of the other person and actual rating of the other person) could be investigated. Montoya, Horton, and Kirchner (2008) found in a meta-analysis of research in the field of interpersonal attraction that perceived similarity was a significant correlate of attraction across a wide range of relationship types (e.g., limited interactions, short-term relationships, existing relationships) and a better predictor of attraction than actual similarity. Similar analyses could be undertaken in the area of civic engagement relationships to understand better the dynamics of both developing and established relationships.

Dorado and Giles (2004) provide an analysis of three different pathways of engagement between campus and community organizations: tentative engagement, aligned engagement, and committed engagement. The relationships literature, for the sake of analogy, similarly has provided descriptions of different pathways as social and romantic relationships develop (Surra, 1987). TRES provides an additional tool for describing patterns of change over time within relationships in service-learning and civic engagement. Longitudinal research on these relationships can help practitioners anticipate and nurture different kinds of relationships resulting from civic engagement activities and identify specific areas warranting attention for relationship development. Conducting research that increases understanding of progression and regression of relationships over time and/or that compares and contrasts different dyadic relationships in the same or different engagement activities can contribute to a knowledge base about civic engagement relationships and when and how they become transformational partnerships.

SOFAR can be adapted to include constituencies other than those identified in Figure 1. Bringle, Officer, Grim, and Hatcher (2009) conducted an analysis of a campus-school partnership across a variety of civic engagement activities (e.g., service-learning courses, volunteers, Federal Work Study tutoring, research) by examining dyadic relationships between the campus (collapsing across faculty, students, administrators), the public school, residents, and community organizations because this set of constituencies best aligned with the particularities of the activities in question. Other configurations could be developed that fit a particular set of circumstances.

Interestingly, even though the focus of this research was on the faculty-community organization dyad (F–O), the responses from the faculty members indicated that often the quality of that relationship was related to or dependent upon the quality of the student-community partner (S–O or S–R) relationship. This suggests that only considering single dyadic relationships may be too limiting. SOFAR provides the opportunity to examine social relationships involving multiple dyads and groupings beyond the dyad (e.g., triads). Each of the five stakeholder categories in SOFAR is also embedded in its own network of relationships. Students and faculty in a service-learning course, for example, have relationships with a range of other student and faculty populations that may be affected by or involved in the service-learning experience, and administrators on campus are involved in networks of relationships with individuals at other institutions; directors and staff at community organizations involved in a service-learning course have relationships with colleagues at similar organizations, just as their clients are involved in multiple relationships with family, friends, and community members (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009 for an elaboration of SOFAR in terms of networks).

Although SOFAR puts an appropriate emphasis on the interactions between and among persons, analyses can also be expanded to include relationships among organizations and institutions (Domegan & Bringle, in press; Janke, 2009). Domegan and Bringle, for example, note that service-learning research may be dominated by analysis at the individual level and suggest that more emphasis needs to be placed on structural and environmental influences (e.g., community, inter-organizational, media, political forces, corporate sector, policy and policy makers, and international factors). Transformational relationships may contain not only higher-order growth and outcomes for the individuals involved but also for other persons, organizations, and communities. When relationships in service-learning and civic engagement implicate others, as is often the case,

they can be the basis for developing long-term relationships between groups and networks. Analysis of the strategies and methods used to develop relationships between individuals into coalitions and networks will enable researchers to understand additional outcomes from civic engagement and allow campus administrators to develop and revise their policies, processes, infrastructure, and protocols (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009).

Input from practitioner-scholars suggests a wide range of questions that SOFAR and TRES can help the field investigate. For example, to what extent is the sustainability of a civic engagement partnership a function of the exploitative, transactional, and transformative qualities of the relationships involved? How and under what conditions do relationships move back and forth along the E-T-T continuum? What interventions facilitate and/or hinder such movement? What characteristics of individuals, disciplines, and professional fields lend themselves to either transactional or transformational relationships? In what ways do closeness in relationships and/or positioning along the E-T-T continuum influence short- and long-term term student and community outcomes? How does a service-learning office mediate perceptions of relationships, and under what conditions does such an office's involvement enhance the transformational potential of civic engagement? When might transactional relationships or moderately close relationships among participants in service-learning be judged "healthier" than transformational and/or closer relationships? How could we measure the ways in which each SOFAR constituent influences the evolution and qualities of relationships between other stakeholders?

Understanding the interactions and relationships between the constituencies represented in SOFAR is highly instructive for practitioner-scholars concerned with the quality and effectiveness of student learning and community engagement. Practitioners play an important role in connecting the constituents in SOFAR, whose relationships, in turn, deeply influence the processes and outcomes of service-learning and civic engagement. The investigators hope this work provides a stimulus for posing and answering a broad range of questions that can inform practice, such as: Why do some relationships flourish while others falter? Why do some faculty integrate community partners in their curriculum design while others minimally engage partners only on a logistical level of providing placements? Under what conditions do some community partners identify themselves as co-educators, while others retain more limited views of their roles (Sandy & Holland, 2006)? How are the benefits experienced by the various constituencies in SOFAR evaluated, and how are they related to rela-

tionship characteristics? How can relationships become more balanced in nature and impact over time, and through what sorts of interventions and supports? What role can institutions play in nurturing the processes of relationship development? Dewey (see Hatcher, 1997) emphasizes the importance of face-to-face interactions in building relationships and a sense of community, but how critical are they in a world of increasing technology-assisted communication? Bringle and Hatcher (1996) identify the importance of drawing on exemplars in developing service-learning programs and courses; what role does the availability and visibility of exemplary transformational partnerships play in fostering the development of other civic engagement relationships? In what ways and under what conditions does the transformational quality of one relationship in SOFAR render it an effective model for others? For example, if the faculty-community organization relationship (F–O) in a service-learning course is transformational or growing in that direction, will student-community organization relationship (S–O) be of higher quality than if the faculty-community organization relationship is transactional? Will student's academic learning be higher? Will their civic growth be greater? If so for any or all of these outcomes, why?

SOFAR and TRES also may be of direct use in the practice of civic engagement and associated capacity-building activities. For example, they could be used to structure reflection mechanisms that support students in examining the relationships involved in their service-learning activities, their own and others' experiences of and aspirations for those relationships, and changes in the quality of those relationships during the course or project. Further, they could be used to facilitate goal-setting with faculty, students, and community partner teams at the beginning of projects and to provide guidance in enacting changes they might wish to make in their relationships as they evolve. And they could be used in a variety of professional development activities with faculty and/or community members to introduce the complexities of establishing and maintaining partnerships.

Finally, the investigators' goals for this ongoing project include refining TRES on the basis of this pilot. A single instrument that is easily used by all constituents – students, representatives of community organizations, community residents, and institutional administrators and staff, as well as faculty members – is highly desirable. The next phase of this project involves modifying the items in TRES in accordance with feedback from users to date. Response options for the original nine items are being simplified, and additional items are being developed. Usability tests are being conducted with community partners and students. The second ver-

sion of TRES will then be used with various dyads (e.g., S–O, O–F), and with student-faculty-community (S–F–O and/or S–F–R) triads. A version of TRES for use at the level of inter-organizational, rather than interpersonal, relationships is also being developed and piloted.

The Exploitative – Transactional – Transformational Conceptual Framework

Principles of good practice in service-learning and civic engagement recommend that community relationships be mutually-beneficial as a minimum standard (see, for example, Jacoby & Associates, 2003), although relationships that are beneficial to only one party might exist in this undesirable state temporarily, perhaps in their early stages, when they show promise of movement in the direction of mutual benefit. Furthermore, some persons may accommodate to short-term costs (e.g., start-up activities in establishing a working relationship) because of the promise of long-term benefits. The term "reciprocity" is sometimes used to convey this minimal commitment to mutual benefit through exchange of resources; however, a "thicker" use of this term is more resonant with mutual transformation. According to Jameson et al. (in preparation), such an understanding of reciprocity "emphasizes shared voice and power and insists upon collaborative knowledge construction and joint ownership of work processes and products" and therefore nurtures conditions supportive of growth on the part of everyone involved. TRES therefore has the potential to enable more precise distinctions between "thin" and "thick" reciprocity and, in turn, partnership processes that enact the latter.

Aligned with this distinction, educators may bring to this work a bias toward aspiring to transformational relationships. For example, in the case of faculty relationships with students (F–S in SOFAR), there is often the intention that service-learning experiences will enhance the students' understanding of academic material and result in civic learning and personal growth (Ash & Clayton, 2009; Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005). Beyond these goals, faculty and students may seek to develop deep mentoring relationships that enhance transformational outcomes. Faculty and students who utilize service-learning pedagogy may strive to integrate readings, research, community experiences, and critical reflection so that students will have an educational experience that improves learning and meta-cognitive abilities and transforms students' identities and capacities as learners, citizens, scholars, and leaders. A small group of student leaders at NC State University (Whitney, McClure, Respet, & Clayton, 2007) coined the phrase "shared developmental journey" to articulate their experience of moving through ever-higher levels of learning, responsibility, and contribution across multiple community engaged teaching, learning, and scholarship activities:

> We understand service-learning to be most fundamentally a relational process focused on capacity-building…; all participants…are engaged in relationships not only of ["thin"] reciprocity, in which all contribute and all benefit, but of mutual learning, growth, and change.… Mutual transformation through a process of co-creation in the context of a mentoring community is a powerful framework for the relationships that are at the heart of [this work]…We have each mentored and been mentored, challenged others and been challenged in our turn, given and received support. The growth of one has therefore been intimately linked to – indeed, interdependent with – the growth of another… (pp. 186, 187, 194).

TRES can provide a conceptual framework, a diagnostic tool, and a research instrument for better understanding how students and those who support them might capitalize on the transformational potential of service-learning and civic engagement.

One possible interpretation of the E-T-T continuum is that transformational relationships are always to be preferred over transactional relationships. Sometimes, however, transactional, mutually-beneficial levels of relationship are satisfying and perhaps appropriate. Because of time constraints and other responsibilities of both persons, a more involved transformational relationship may be neither possible nor desirable. Expecting transformational relationships when such is not appropriate (e.g., given the goals and investment of either or both persons involved) might inhibit the relationship operating effectively at a transactional level to the benefit of all participants. Most relationships in social networks are of short duration and limited scope (Milardo, 1982). In this study, faculty most frequently described relationships with persons in community organizations as transactional, with some but not all desiring that they become transformational. Time, investments of resources, past experiences, other priorities, and the nature of the goals at stake, among other factors, may constrain expectations.

Further, there are strong norms in the academy that explicitly position students, but rarely faculty as well, in the position of learning and growing through service-learning. Therefore, it may be the case that transformative relationships have not been a goal for other relationships in SOFAR besides those that involve students. As results in this project suggest, faculty members generally have not been as concerned with their own transformational learning or

the transformational potential of their relationships with one another, with students, with community members, or with university administrators. Additional research can determine what expectations and aspirations are held by students, representatives of community organizations, residents, and/or administrators – as well as other populations of faculty – and, similarly, what factors influence whether any individual from any of these groups aspires to transformational relationships and with whom. Respondents indicated informally that completing the measurement protocol caused them to reflect on their relationships and the desirability of improving them (i.e., the measurement was an intervention). There may be similar effects that result from having other constituencies in SOFAR complete TRES. The role of faculty as learner (Jaeger et al.; O'Meara, Terosky, & Neumann, 2009) is increasingly under investigation, and instruments like TRES can help advance the field's understanding of how the relationships faculty members engage in within civic engagement shape and are shaped by their own learning and growth. Not only may "students best undertake a developmental journey when those who support and mentor them are also striving for growth through the same process" (Whitney et al., 2007, p. 195), but learning and growth among all stakeholders may be key to institutional change and sustainable community impact.

Conclusion

The nature of the research questions yet to be answered makes clear the significance of the stakes underlying investigation of relationships in service-learning and civic engagement. It is our hope that these models and tools will help build the capacity of the field to explore such questions and use what we learn together to enhance practice and, in turn, to generate ever-better questions regarding this important aspect of our work. We tend to expect that higher quality relationships are good (a) for their own sake (e.g., are more highly valued by participants) and (b) because they result in more desirable short-term and long-term benefits; however, each of these assertions warrants empirical investigation so that practitioner-scholars can have more confidence in both the importance of and the means of promoting relationships with these qualities. And, ultimately, the extent to which the field enacts engagement in democratic ways and toward democratic ends will depend on, in part, how well we operationalize a shared commitment to relationships that are at least mutually beneficial and often transformational. Authentically reciprocal and highly collaborative partnerships are challenging on many levels and therefore "require and foster collaborative capacity

building, which in turn engenders transformation in individual and collective ways of being, knowing, and engaging" (Jameson et al., in preparation). Improving understanding of what it means to be in and to nurture such partnerships may be a central dimension of deepening the practice of service-learning and institutionalizing within the academy and the broader community the cultural norms underlying authentic engagement.

Notes

[1] "Civic engagement" is used here as an umbrella term to encompass service-learning. We use "service-learning" to indicate that particular method of civic engagement.

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APPENDIX III

Integrating Reflection and Assessment to Capture and Improve Student Learning

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Intentionally linking the assessment of student learning outcomes of service-learning with reflection allows each to inform and reinforce the other. This paper traces the evolution of a strategy that uses reflection products as data sources to assess and improve both individual student learning and program-wide approaches to reflection. Two tools were developed to guide the process of reflective writing in two courses. Associated rubrics were used to evaluate the quality of thinking demonstrated in the written reflection. Results suggest that these tools can improve students' higher order reasoning abilities and critical thinking skills relative to academic enhancement, civic engagement, and personal growth, and as a result, can improve the overall quality of their thinking and learning. However, this assessment has also surfaced the need for further improvement, particularly with respect to academic learning outcomes.

Much has been written about the benefits of service-learning to students, ranging from greater self-awareness, to the development of interpersonal and leadership skills, to enhanced preparedness for lives of civic and professional responsibility (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000). Increasingly, however, the focus has been on the need to document the academic and cognitive outcomes produced by the pedagogy (Eyler, 2000; Steinke & Buresh, 2002). Underlying the calls for more research in this particular area are concerns that failure to demonstrate significant intellectual gains will reduce service-learning's legitimacy in the eyes of both administrators—who are deciding how to allocate limited resources across programs—and educators— who are deciding whether the cost of additional time and effort is offset by student learning. As noted by Osborne, Hammerich, and Hensley (1998), "Non-academic benefits are unlikely to motivate many faculty who have not yet tried service-learning," and adoption of the pedagogy will require that "service-learning can be shown to impact the *learning of course content.*" (p. 6).

From our own experience as instructors, the development of critical thinking and meta-cognitive skills is an equally important outcome underlying our commitment to service-learning (SL) pedagogy. Following a call from the Wingspread Conference for research dedicated to identifying and assessing SL-related student learning outcomes (Giles, Honnet, & Migliore, 1991), numerous studies have sought to compare SL and non-SL courses, but the results have been mixed. Some have found improvements in grades (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993) while others have not (Kendrick, 1996; Miller, 1994), and still others have noted gains only in essay, not multiple choice, tests (Kendrick, 1996; Strage, 2000) and in written work (Osborne, Hammerich, & Hensley, 1998), suggesting that "type" of learning may be differentially affected. That is, service-learning may not improve the ability to recall facts over traditional classroom methods, but it may increase the ability to use evidence to support claims or to identify and solve complex problems. Finally, several studies have found that students at least *report* a better understanding of course material as compared to their peers in non-SL classes (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Steinke & Buresh, 2002).

Unfortunately, some of the findings of positive academic and cognitive outcomes can be challenged based on the nature of the research design. For example, students may have self-selected into a service-learning enhanced class, raising the possibility that they are qualitatively different from those in a more traditional classroom to whom they are being compared if random assignment is not part of the protocol. In fact, Sax and Astin (1997) found that service-learning students were more likely to spend more than 20 hours a week studying and doing homework as compared to their traditional classroom peers. The assignments on which grades are based may likewise be qualitatively different. In the study by Markus, Howard, and King (1993), although participants were randomly assigned to either a SL-enhanced or traditional section of the same course, students in the control sec-

tions were required to write a longer research paper to balance time spent in the community by their service-learning counterparts; thus, their lower final grades for the course could have reflected the greater difficulty associated with that requirement. Finally, there are significant limitations associated with the currently common practice of presenting evidence of learning in the form of data from student surveys with Likert-scale statements such as, "The service experience helped me to better understand course material." Students who say they agree with that statement have not said *what* they learned or provided any evidence in support of their claim to better understand the material. As Eyler (2000) suggested, self-report as an assessment strategy often confuses student *satisfaction* with student *learning*. She, therefore, has called for the development of mechanisms that support students in demonstrating concrete learning outcomes—that is, "that they have attained greater understanding, ability to apply their knowledge, problem-solving skills and cognitive development" (p. 11).

The difficulty in demonstrating expected outcomes, as evidenced by the inconsistent research, results at least in part because our approaches, particularly to reflection, do not always tap the full potential of the pedagogy. It is through careful reflection that service-learning—indeed any form of experiential education—generates meaningful learning; as Eyler, Giles, and Schmiede (1996) conclude from their review of approaches to service-learning, "It is critical reflection...that provides the transformative link between the action of *serving* and the ideas and understanding of *learning"* (p. 14). Eyler and Giles (1999) found that the more rigorous the reflection in service-learning, the better the learning, including academic outcomes: deeper understanding and better application of subject matter, increased complexity of problem and solution analysis, openness to new ideas, problem-solving, and critical thinking skills. Despite its centrality, however, quality reflection is perhaps the most challenging component of service-learning, stemming in part from the difficulty of developing and implementing both effective structures to guide it and meaningful strategies to evaluate and deepen its associated learning outcomes (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Rogers, 2001). Hatcher, Bringle, and Muthiah (2004) suggest that research into the relationship between reflection mechanisms and student learning can help put into practice guidelines for the design and implementation of effective reflection; their own guidelines suggest that explicit learning objectives, instructor feedback, and the use of assessment criteria (among other variables) are important influences on student learning outcomes in service-learning.

The authors have developed an integrated approach to reflection and the assessment of student learning that supports students in achieving and demonstrating academic and cognitive outcomes as well as outcomes with respect to personal growth and civic engagement (Ash & Clayton, 2004). A rigorous course-embedded assessment process can help to frame and support reflection, in turn producing stronger learning outcomes. A focus on classroom-based assessment itself as a way to continuously improve learning, rather than simply measure learning after the fact, is increasingly being recommended by those designing assessment strategies: "[F]ormulating assessment procedures for classroom use can spur the teacher to think more specifically about learning goals, thus leading to modification of (both) curriculum and instruction" (National Research Council, 2001, p. 229). In other words, an integrated approach to reflection and assessment can improve our ability to align the practice of service-learning with the theoretical claims of its learning potential. If, as a result of these efforts, we are more convincing in demonstrating significant outcomes, including academic and cognitive outcomes, then we will also have a compelling and effective way to promote, and ultimately expand, the use of this teaching and learning strategy.

We present here the results of a year-long investigation of the effectiveness of this model. This research has confirmed the potential of the model and given us a better understanding of how to refine it further. Of equal importance, however, it has led us to reconsider the fundamental objectives of research into service-learning's student learning outcomes. Perhaps the question ought not to be whether service-learning is "better" than other forms of classroom instruction but whether and how our practice is aligned with the student learning outcomes we believe service-learning is capable of producing. We suggest that as researchers we ought to be asking how we can use the challenge of demonstrating service-learning's effectiveness to facilitate our own careful and deliberate analysis of what it *can* do in theory as compared to what it *does* do in practice. The knowledge gained from such inquiry can then be used to improve the implementation of service-learning such that we more consistently fulfill its promise and actually produce the student learning outcomes we claim for it.

Background
Use of Reflection Products for Course-Embedded Assessment

From its inception, our service-learning program has been guided by a definition of the pedagogy that explicitly identifies the types of student learn-

ing outcomes at stake and the process through which reflection on service helps students to attain them. As we understand it:

> Service-learning is a collaborative teaching and learning strategy designed to promote academic enhancement, personal growth, and civic engagement. Students render meaningful service in community settings that present them with experiences related to academic material. Through guided reflection, students-individually and in groups-examine their experiences critically and articulate specific learning outcomes, thus enhancing the quality of their learning and of their service.

As is increasingly the case across higher education, our administration has for several years focused attention on assessment of student learning. Service-learning is one of several teaching and learning initiatives on The North Carolina State University campus that has emerged during this period of scholarly attention to the relationships among learning objectives, teaching strategies, and learning outcomes. The need to assess student learning outcomes at the program level has been an important driver in the refinement of our service-learning practice.

Encouraged to develop and implement program-wide assessment, we considered a range of possible mechanisms in light of the experience of other programs. We were disinclined to add a survey to end-of-the-semester course evaluations that would provide the data that is more suited to assessing satisfaction than learning, for the reasons described earlier. In addition, limited human and financial resources precluded the use of individual interviews or focus groups (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, & Kerrigan, 2001) that have the potential to produce more rigorous results than student surveys alone. Our previous participation in the development of course-embedded approaches to assessment in the context of an inquiry-guided learning initiative called our attention to the value of using products generated by students in the course of the semester for assessment. We already had in place a program-wide approach to reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2004) that produced written products called Articulated Learnings (AL). These seemed to be a natural fit for a course-embedded approach to the assessment of learning outcomes, especially given the deliberately close correlation between the types of issues examined in the reflection process and the learning objectives of the program.

The AL is a series of paragraphs written as the culminating step of reflection sessions in each of three categories of learning objectives: academic, civic, and personal. These small group discussions are guided by a reflection framework, which is a series of questions designed to support students in *describing* (stage 1) and then *analyzing* (stage 2) their service experiences in such a way as to generate important learnings in each of the three categories. *Articulating learning* is the third stage in our reflection model; an AL is a vehicle through which students express and continue exploring important learnings that have surfaced through discussions regarding the content of the course (academic), their or others' participation in collective change-oriented processes (civic), and their personal strengths, weaknesses, assumptions, skills, etc. (personal). The AL is structured in accordance with four guiding questions: (a) What did I learn? (b) How, specifically, did I learn it? (c) Why does this learning matter, or why is it significant? and (d) In what ways will I use this learning, or what goals shall I set in accordance with what I have learned in order to improve myself, the quality of my learning, or the quality of my future experiences or service?

Thus, we are able to assess more directly what students actually have learned (because they have to articulate it in their written work), which in turn allows us to determine how closely that learning matches our expectations. This provides us with much more information regarding our program's effectiveness than, for example, the results of a survey from which we might only know what percentage of students think they learned a lot more than they would have in a traditional class.

The AL is designed to be a foundation for learners to carry the results of the reflection process forward beyond the immediate experience, improving the quality of future learning and experience (related to service or to other aspects of their lives). Students refine these reflection products through an iterative process of feedback, on their first draft from the reflection leader—a student trained to guide the reflection session process through which the ALs are produced—and then again after feedback from the instructor on their second drafts, to produce a final product. This process is repeated over the course of several reflection sessions throughout the semester. Instructors integrate the process of articulating learning into the assignment structure of their courses, such that the set of ALs each student produces serves as an alternative to an exam or essay or other assignment that would otherwise gauge particular learning outcomes.

Developing Tools to Assess Reflection Products—Formatively and Summatively

Having identified the ALs as the data source for program-wide student learning outcomes assessment, we began collecting them from SL instruc-

tors at the end of the semester, hoping to be able to qualitatively document learning outcomes across courses in all three categories of service-learning learning objectives. Reviewing these ALs, we quickly realized the disconnect between what the students were learning and what we had hoped they would learn. Taking the academic ALs as an example, we wanted to see deeper understanding of the complexities of course material in light of "real world" application, but many of the ALs demonstrated little more than the students' ability to recognize course concepts when they saw them. Two important realizations followed: a) that we needed a more precise understanding of the learning objectives than "academic enhancement," "civic engagement," and "personal growth" if we were to adequately assess learning in each of these categories, and b) that we needed to better support both students and faculty in achieving important outcomes in each category.

We therefore continued our process of developing program-wide assessment mechanisms by developing a set of learning objectives written specifically for each of the three categories but applicable to any course. This process was informed by our critical evaluation of actual ALs. For example, we read Academic ALs that expressed only statements of fact—as in "I learned that the elderly often do not get the nutrients that they need, even in an institutionalized setting with structured meals"—but that could have expressed deepened understandings of the complexities and subtleties of course concepts (in this case nutrition). For example:

> I learned that attempts to improve the poor nutrient intake that is often seen in the diets of the elderly in an institutionalized setting is complicated by the fact that for many of these residents the immediate pleasure of eating nutrient-poor cakes and cookies far outweighs, at least in their minds, some vague 'long-term risk,' especially since many tell me that they have lived this long eating this way and they aren't about to change. It makes me question whether we should even be telling these people what they should or should not eat.

The difference between the learning expressed in the statement actually produced and the learning that *could* have been expressed echoed the difference between lower and higher order reasoning and thus led us to Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) as a source of structure for the more precise statements of learning objectives we wanted to develop. We realized that the prerequisites for the academic outcomes we had envisioned—the more complex understanding of course material—included *identifying* a course con-

cept when students saw it emerge in their experiences, *applying* the concept in the context of these experiences, *analyzing* the concept as presented in theory through comparing and contrasting its emergence in practice, and ultimately *evaluating* the adequacy of the theory. Clearly many could not reach the higher levels of thinking on their own; the learning objectives therefore were conceived as a way to make transparent and model the very cognitive process in which we were expecting our students to engage. The hierarchical learning objectives thus generated through this process are closely matched to the reflection framework that guides the students as they examine their service experiences from academic, civic, and personal perspectives in the reflection sessions; they are also annotated with a series of prompting questions to help the students use them in guiding their thinking. (See Appendix A for the academic learning objectives.)

Achieving and articulating this more precise understanding of the learning objectives was an important first step. However, we also realized that the process that takes a student from description of an experience to meaningful evaluation of that experience also requires the intellectual discipline of critical thinking. Critical thinking, as outlined by Paul (1993), is based on universal intellectual standards that include accuracy, clarity, relevance, depth, breath, logic, and significance. The oft-cited (Conrad & Hedin, 1990; Stanton, 1990; Strand, 1999) shortcomings of student reflection—reinforced stereotypes, interpretation based on unchallenged assumptions, inappropriate generalizations on the basis of limited data, shallow analysis that yields simplistic solutions to complex issues—appeared frequently in the ALs we reviewed and were clear examples of poorly developed critical thinking abilities. As a result, we recognized the need to provide guidance in this area as a necessary corollary to the hierarchical learning objectives. We therefore produced a second handout with definitions of Paul's standards of critical thinking along with sample AL passages that exemplify the absence of each to introduce students to the elements of critical thinking; this document is intended to support their effort to integrate each element into their thinking process and take their learning from the levels of identification and application, to the levels of analysis and evaluation.

Our assessment approach thus has an explicitly formative component; that is, the learning objectives and critical thinking guide are tools to be used by the students to help focus and deepen their reflective thinking. As noted by the National Research Council (2001), "Students will learn more if instruction and assessment are integrally

related. [P]roviding students with information about particular qualities of their work and what they can do to improve is crucial for maximizing learning" (p. 258). However, these same tools can also be used by instructors or program administrators in a summative fashion. An AL can be evaluated with respect to the highest level of learning objective it achieves, from a "1" indicating thinking at the level of "identify and describe only," to a "4" indicating "thinking encompassing all levels," from identification through evaluation. An AL can be given a "0" on this learning objectives rubric if it fails to follow the guidelines at all (e.g., if a student does not identify a course concept in an Academic AL). In addition, the critical thinking standards can be applied to the ALs in the form of a holistic rubric we developed that organizes the elements into four levels of mastery. (See Appendix B.)

Research Questions

Because the learning objectives and critical thinking guide are grounded in well-established learning theory, we believe that improvements in student scores on these written reflection products represent improvements in student learning. Therefore, as a concluding step in developing our assessment process, we decided to test their effectiveness by asking: (a) do the assessment tools improve the ALs *across drafts within a reflection session*, from first to final version? (b) do the assessment tools improve the *first drafts* of the ALs *over the course of the semester*, from early to later reflection sessions? and (c) are there differences in the degree to which students can achieve mastery among the three categories (Academic, Civic and Personal)?

Answers to the last two questions in particular should help to tease out specific areas of strengths and weaknesses in our ability to support our students' intellectual development and help to further refine course and program approaches to reflection specifically and to the integration of service-learning into our courses more generally. The study under discussion here spanned two semesters and is ongoing; it utilizes student ALs as the data source and generates scores for quantitative analysis through applying learning objectives and standards of critical thinking as rubrics. This study allows us to examine a wide range of learning outcomes associated with service-learning, not only specific outcomes in the Academic, Civic, and Personal categories but—transcending category— cognitive outcomes more generally.

Study Design

Articulated Learnings were collected from a random sample of two classes: a seminar on leadership in the 21st century with 9 students (4 selected) and a course on nutrition across the life cycle with 22 students (10 selected). In the first class, students helped residents at assisted living facilities learn to use computers, and encountered such course concepts as the nature of power in a technologically-intensive society and the various forms "community" takes in contemporary society. In the second class, students worked with community nutrition programs serving children, pregnant women, and older adults, encountering course concepts related to changes in nutrient needs and nutrition-related attitudes and behaviors across the life cycle. At the beginning of the semester, every student received a copy of our *Service-Learning Guidebook, Student Edition*, which includes introductory material on service-learning, the reflection framework itself and discussion of the reflection session process, and the learning objectives and critical thinking standards. Each of the two instructors partnered with a trained Reflection Leader, who met with the students in their service-learning project groups in out-of-class reflection sessions throughout the semester; the guidebook served as a tool to support their work together. The instructor and Reflection Leader both used the learning objectives and the standards of critical thinking to shape the feedback they provided students in the process of AL revision.

The students wrote one AL in each of the three categories (Academic, Civic, and Personal) following each of four reflection sessions. These "raw" ALs were reviewed by the Reflection Leader and returned to the students, who then reworked them to produce "revised" ALs submitted to the instructor for a second round of feedback. The students selected one AL in each category from the first two reflection sessions and, after revising once more following the instructor's feedback, turned in one "final" AL in each category. This selection and submission of three final ALs then repeated during the second half of the semester. Thus for each student there was a *raw*, *revised*, and *final* version of two ALs in each of the three dimensions: Academic, Civic, and Personal. Raw and revised ALs that were not finalized were not included in the analysis. Identifying information was removed from the ALs to maintain student anonymity and then they were randomly sorted. Trained student and faculty scorers independently—and blind to author, draft, and date so as not to prejudice their assessment— rated each AL based on the highest level of learning objective achieved (0-4) and the degree of critical thinking demonstrated (1-4). Scorers then came together at a series of group meetings to dis-

Table 1

Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across Revisions

(Academic, Civic, and Personal ALs Combined)

	Score	Version
	Raw	Final
0	26% (22)*	15% (12)
1	4% (3)	2% (2)
2	58% (48)	35% (29)
3	11% (9)	43% (36)
4	1% (1)	5% (4)
Total	100% (83)	100% (83)

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

cuss and resolve discrepancies between their rankings. Through this process, a single consensus-based learning objective score was ultimately assigned to each AL by the group and differences in critical thinking scores was resolved to within one level. This was done to allow us to more carefully evaluate and improve on the learning objectives themselves so as to better communicate to the students how to achieve each level. Critical thinking scores were resolved to within one level as the demarcations between these levels is not as precise, nor are they linked to specific types of mastery. A Test for Observer Agreement identified the scorer whose critical thinking ratings were most likely to represent the majority, and those scores were used in the data being presented. ALs that received a learning objective score of 0 were not given a critical thinking score. There were three essays per student per category (raw, revised, final), in three categories (personal, academic, and civic), written twice during the semester (early and late). Therefore, 249 individual essays were read from the sample of 14 students. (One student did not finalize an Academic AL during the second half of the semester.)

Results

Table 1 presents the overall frequency of learning objective scores for the ALs across revisions in all three categories combined, from first draft ("raw") to third draft ("final"). (Data for second drafts have

been omitted from all tables for clarity. We plan on analyzing the relative effects of instructor vs. Reflection Leader feedback in a future study.) There was definite improvement across revisions, as the proportion of students writing at levels 3 or 4 (analysis and evaluation) went from only 12% (11% +1%) on the first, or raw, drafts to 48% (43% + 5%) by the final versions. Table 2 shows the change in learning objective scores across revisions by learning category. In the Academic dimension, while 74% of the raw ALs were written at level 2 (application) and only 7% were written at level 3 (analysis), this improved to 48% at level 2 and 37% at level 3 by the final draft. Improvements were also seen in the Civic and Personal dimensions. In addition, the percentage of Civic ALs that did not meet the minimum criteria, level 0, dropped from 46% to 18%. In general, students appeared to have had a more difficult time making improvements in the Academic dimension. Only 37% of Academic ALs were written at levels 3 or 4, while 47% (36% + 11%) of the Civic and 61% (57% + 4%) of the Personal ALs achieved these scores.

Table 3 shows the frequency of learning objective scores from the first two reflection sessions relative to the final two, comparing the students' first drafts from early in the semester to their first drafts from later in the semester. Here the improvement was less marked as compared to that seen across revisions. Although the percentage of the raw ALs written at level 3 or 4 improved from 2% (2% + 0%) to 22% (20% + 2%), 24% (22% +2%) of the first draft ALs were still being written at levels 0 or 1 by the second half of the semester. Table 4 shows no significant trends when this same data from across the semester is broken down by category. Only a few students were able to write raw ALs at learning objective level 3 or 4 by the second half of the semester. Comparing all three learning categories, a greater percentage of Civic than Personal or Academic ALs still did not meet the minimum requirements, level 0, of the learning objectives, and no raw Academic or Personal ALs achieved level 4.

Table 5 presents the overall frequency of critical

Table 2

Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across Revisions by Category

Score	Academic		Civic		Personal	
	Raw	Final	Raw	Final	Raw	Final
0	19% (5)*	15% (4)	46% (13)	18% (5)	14% (4)	11% (3)
1	0%	0%	7% (2)	7% (2)	4% (1)	0%
2	74% (20)	48% (13)	36% (10)	28% (8)	64% (18)	28% (8)
3	7% (2)	37% (10)	7% (2)	36% (10)	18% (5)	57% (16)
4	0%	0%	4% (1)	11% (3)	0%	4% (1)
Total	100% (27) †	100% (27)	100% (28)	100% (28)	100% (28)	100% (28)

*Values in parentheses represent number of ALs. † One student did not write an Academic AL in the second half of the semester.

Table 3

Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across the Semester

(Academic, Civic, and Personal ALs Combined)

Score	Version and Time in the Semester	
	Early, Raw	Late, Raw
0	31% (13)*	22% (9)
1	5% (2)	2% (1)
2	62% (26)	54% (22)
3	2% (1)	20% (8)
4	0%	2% (1)
Total	100% (42)	100% (41)

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

thinking scores for the ALs across revisions in all three categories combined. A clear trend in improvement was seen, from only 22% of the ALs being written at levels 3 or 4 in the first drafts, to 69% (61% + 8%) being written at those levels by the final version. Table 6 shows that change by category. While only 18% of the Academic ALs were written at levels 3 or 4 in the first draft, 52% (48% + 4%) were written at those levels by the final version; Civic scores improved from 31% at levels 3 or 4 to 74% (65% + 9%); and the percentage of Personal AL scores at a 3 or 4 went from 21% to 80% (68% + 12%). Overall, the improvements were again somewhat greater in the Civic and Personal dimensions as compared to the Academic category.

Unlike the learning objective scores, the data in Table 7 indicate that students did improve on their ability to write a first draft relative to the critical thinking criteria over the course of the semester as the percentage of ALs with a score of 2 went down from 79% after the first half of the course to 52% after the second half, while those written at a level 3 went up from 0 to 42%. Table 8 shows that this trend was similar across categories.

Discussion

Our own informal comparison of ALs produced before and after developing these tools confirms that using learning objectives and critical thinking standards can improve the quality of student reflec-

tion and deepen student learning. And the analysis from this initial study also suggests the potential for deepening student thinking further over the course of the semester through their use. The study design is limited by the small number of students and use of only two instructors' classes; however, the classes did represent two very different disciplines (nutrition and leadership development). As we work with other faculty across campus on using this reflection and assessment model, we believe that the general pattern of results could be replicated in other disciplines as well.

Our first research question concerned whether the assessment tools could improve the ALs across drafts within a reflection session, from first to final version. With respect to both the learning objectives and critical thinking standards, we did see improvement in the scores, indicating improvement in the level and quality of thinking, across revisions. The second research question concerned whether the tools could improve the first drafts of the ALs over the course of the semester, that is, whether students could "internalize" them so as to produce higher quality ALs on their own as the semester progressed. The answer with respect to the critical thinking standards was yes—there was a clear shift upward by one level. The results for the learning objective scores, however, were disappointing. The students appeared to remain much more dependent on Reflection Leader and instructor feedback to refine their thinking.

Of course, expecting students largely unfamiliar with service-learning in general and this form of reflection in particular to be able to reason consistently at the highest levels after only 15 weeks is, perhaps, unrealistic, as Perry's (1970) now landmark work on intellectual development has made clear. We were also hampered by having only a few good models of strong ALs to show the students, given the relative newness of the tools themselves. In addition, our own reflection on the process has made clear that the feedback Reflection Leaders and instructors gave the students tended to focus more on critical thinking standards than on learning objectives, perhaps because the former tool can

Table 4

Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across the Semester by Category

Score	Academic		Civic		Personal	
	Early, Raw	Late, Raw	Early, Raw	Late, Raw	Early, Raw	Late, Raw
0	14% (2)*	23% (3)	57% (8)	36% (5)	21 (3)	7% (1)
1	0%	0%	7% (1)	7% (1)	7% (1)	0%
2	86% (12)	62% (8)	36% (5)	36% (5)	64% (9)	64% (9)
3	0%	15% (2)	0%	14% (2)	7% (1)	29% (4)
4	0%	0%	0%	7% (1)	0%	0%
Total	100% (14)	100% (13) †	100% (14)	100% (14)	100% (14)	100% (14)

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs. † One student did not write an Academic AL in the second half of the semester.

Table 5

Frequency of Critical Thinking Scores Across Revisions

(Academic, Civic, and Personal ALs Combined)

Score	Version	
	Raw	Final
1	13% (8)*	1% (1)
2	65% (40)	30% (21)
3	22% (14)	61% (43)
4	0%	8% (6)
Total	100% (62) ‡	100% (71)

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.
‡ ALs given a 0 on the learning objective rubric were not given a critical thinking score.

be more quickly and easily applied—with comments such as, "what do you mean by that," "why might this be true," and "does this follow from what you said earlier"—on a cursory, sentence-by-sentence read of an AL. Effective formative use of the learning objectives as a rubric, however, requires the reviewer to go back and evaluate the AL from a holistic perspective, considering how the learning might best be refocused or strengthened to take it to a higher level; its use seems to come a bit less naturally to Reflection Leaders and instructors. The learning objectives rubric takes more time and is thus apt to be the more easily neglected of the two tools. Improving the use of this rubric will be an important focus for future training efforts.

Our goal is to have students reflecting deeply and articulating quality learning as early in the semester as possible. Students bring fresh experiences to each class discussion and reflection session, and the process for improving their learning and their service is a cumulative one; so the longer it takes to develop solid reflection abilities, the greater risk of "wasting" opportunities. And of course we would like to see a substantial percentage of the ALs demonstrating thinking at the level of evaluation (a Learning Objective score of "4"). Driven by the suggestive but still unsatisfactory nature of our research results, we have developed a four-part tutorial that introduces students to the reflection model, process of articulating learning, and learning objective and critical thinking tools so that they

are less dependent on us to help guide them. We plan to gauge the effectiveness of this tutorial in improving the overall quality of the ALs and in producing quality ALs earlier in the semester during the next phase of this research.

Our final research question concerned whether there would be differences in students' ability to achieve mastery among the three dimensions—Academic, Civic, and Personal. We found that, in fact, the Academic dimension posed the most substantial challenge, though it was more problematic for the learning objectives than it was for the critical thinking standards. Upon reflection we have come to realize that while all three categories of learning objectives require students to develop higher-order reasoning and critical thinking skills, the higher level academic learning objectives explicitly require students to critique course material, to look for gaps in the adequacy of a theory. While students seem able to reflect on service-related academic concepts utilizing at least some of the elements of critical thinking, it is clear that bringing specifically analytical and evaluative thought to bear on what they are learning in a course is one of the many ways in which service-learning is "counter-normative" to traditional learning (Howard, 1998), and therefore a reason why higher-order academic learning outcomes related to specific elements of course content may be harder to achieve. Before students can achieve such levels of reasoning they have to be given—and give themselves—permission to judge the work of established authors, and they have to come to believe that their own experience is a legitimate source of knowledge. Our students have helped us understand that to maximize this articulated learning process it is also necessary for them to learn to see writing as a vehicle for ongoing learning, rather than as a representation of learning that has already occurred—which is how they tend to approach academic writing especially. These "shifts in perspective and practice" (Clayton & Ash, 2004) are not easily made, so it follows that demonstration of the associated reasoning levels in the academic arena might lag behind. One of our conclusions from this pattern in the data is the need to provide better sup-

Table 6

Frequency of Critical Thinking Scores Across Revisions by Category

Score	Academic		Civic		Personal	
	Raw	Final	Raw	Final	Raw	Final
1	14% (3)*	0%	0%	4% (1)	21% (5)	0%
2	68% (15)	48% (11)	69% (11)	22% (5)	58% (14)	20% (5)
3	18% (4)	48% (11)	31% (5)	65% (15)	21% (5)	68% (17)
4	0%	4% (1)	0%	9% (2)	0%	12% (3)
Total	100% (22)	100% (23)	100% (16)	100% (23)	100% (24)	100% (25)

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

Table 7

Frequency of Critical Thinking Scores Across the Semester

(Academic, Civic, and Personal ALs Combined)

Score	Version and Time in the Semester	
	Early, Raw	Late, Raw
1	21% (6)*	6% (2)
2	79% (23)	52% (17)
3	0%	42% (14)
4	0%	0%
Total	100% (29)	100% (33)

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

port to our students as they learn to learn through service-learning; specifically, we are developing a range of reflection mechanisms designed to help students confront and adjust to the counter-normative nature of service-learning, so they are less hindered by its unfamiliar requirements than they might otherwise be and therefore able to make more progress more quickly, including reflection on academic material.

We began this research seeking to document program-wide student learning outcomes. We have done so, and, moreover, this research process has helped us to refine not only a program assessment strategy but also tools and materials that are serving to encourage if not "enforce" more consistent quality in the service-learning initiative on campus. Thus, the research has played a distinctly formative role in the evolution of our Service-Learning Program as a whole. Through the research process of reaching consensus on AL scores, we have surfaced several ambiguities in the learning objectives and identified specific ways to strengthen them to better support students' thinking in the AL process; the language of the learning objectives has thus been revised, producing the current version represented in Appendix A. The very existence of program-level objectives also gives us a structure around which to build faculty development. It allows us to provide instructors with much-needed guidance as they struggle to give meaningful feedback on their students' service-learning related work, interjects common language into our faculty learning community to support dialogue and schol-

arship, and helps to focus our understanding of service-learning pedagogy around a set of shared values (e.g., critical thinking). We believe that the tutorial will also make the reflection framework and its associated AL process easier to implement for otherwise reluctant faculty because of the support it provides them in reflection—an area with which they are often unfamiliar and/or uncomfortable.

We realize that there are at least two potential challenges to this process. One could argue that we are "teaching to the test" because we are so explicit about our expectations in the form of learning objectives. However, the "tests" are based on the well-established Bloom's (1956) *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* that organizes the cognitive domain of learning into a series of levels that build on each other toward the development of intellectual skills, and on equally well-established standards of critical thinking that serve as a guide to the quality of the reasoning being used. A benefit of this transparent process is that it helps to develop both a common language in the classroom and an independent capacity for learning, which students can carry with them into other classes and other areas of their lives.

Second, it can be argued that this reflection model and the associated feedback process is simply too time-intensive to be useful to over-loaded faculty; it may also be suggested that the learning curve requires too many trade-offs of class or homework time and that the model implies inappropriately replacing other assignments with reflection assignments and thus devoting too large a portion of the course to reflection. We would never argue that this process does not take time, on the part of faculty and students alike, or that it does not require us to make changes in our use of time and assignments; it most certainly does, as, of course, does almost any approach to implementing quality service-learning. For us, however, and increasingly for the faculty we work with, time spent on deepening the learning outcomes associated with our teaching is time well-spent. As Howard (1998) suggests, whether we judge time as "away" from the "task at hand" depends on how we define our task. We believe that the power of service-

Table 8

Frequency of Critical Thinking Scores Across the Semester by Category.

Score	Academic		Civic		Personal	
	Early, Raw	Late, Raw	Early, Raw	Late, Raw	Early, Raw	Late, Raw
1	25% (3)*	0%	0%	0%	27% (3)	15% (2)
2	75% (9)	60% (6)	100% (6)	50% (5)	73% (8)	46% (6)
3	0%	40% (4)	0%	50% (5)	0%	39% (5)
4	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Total	100% (12)	100% (10)	100% (6)	100% (10)	100% (11)	100% (13)

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

learning resides primarily in its ability to cultivate capacities for self-directed learning, personal growth, and citizenship, and that this potential can only be tapped through rigorous and high-quality reflection. This conviction helps guide us through the inevitable and admittedly difficult trade-offs that the implementation of this model requires.

Conclusion

We have presented a model for demonstrating the effectiveness of learning in service-learning courses that involves identifying desired student learning outcomes and then crafting an integrated reflection and assessment strategy around them. The following are equally important in this model: (a) the design of reflection mechanisms in accordance with the desired learning outcomes; (b) the recognition that more general cognitive outcomes (improvements in critical thinking and higher order reasoning skills) are tied to the more course- or program-specific learning outcomes; (c) the use of the same tools for formative and summative assessment; and, (d) the use of reflection products as a vehicle for assessment. It is our hope that our approach to integrating reflection and assessment can serve as a model for other faculty and staff as they seek to design service-learning courses and programs. As individual instructors and program administrators, we have found this approach most useful at both levels, in large part because—as any good assessment protocol should—it facilitates continuous improvement in our practice while also giving us data—both qualitative and quantitative—of interest to our institution. In particular, it is helping us to understand better both how our students think and how we can support them in learning to think more deeply and with greater capacity for self-directed learning. The research process helps us maximize the potential for student learning outcomes associated with service-learning.

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Appendix A: Academic Learning Objectives

Learning Objective (LO) Level	Academic Enhancement Learning Objectives	Associated Guiding Questions
LO 1: Identify and Describe	Identify and describe a specific academic concept that you now understand better as a result of reflection on your service-learning experience.	1.1 Identify an academic concept that relates to your service-learning experience. AND 1.2 Describe the academic concept that relates to your service-learning experience
LO 2: Apply	Apply the academic concept in the context of these experiences.	2.1 How does the academic concept apply to/emerge in your service-learning experience? (e.g., How did you or someone else use the material? When did you see it?)
LO 3: Analyze	Analyze the relationship between the academic material* (and/or your prior understanding of it) and the experience.	3.1 Compare and contrast the academic material and your experience: In what specific ways are the academic material (and/or your prior understanding of it) and the experience the same and in what specific ways are they different? AND 3.2 What are the possible reasons for the difference(s) between the material (and/or your prior understanding of it) and your experience? (e.g., bias/assumptions/agendas/lack of information on the part of the author/scientist or on your part.) AND 3.3 In light of this analysis, what complexities (subtleties, nuances, new dimensions) do you now see in the material that were not addressed or that you had not been aware of before?
LO 4: Evaluate	Evaluate the adequacy of the material (and/or your prior understanding of it) and develop a strategy for improved action.	Based on the analysis above: 4.1 How specifically might the material (and/or your prior understanding of it) need to be revised? AND 4.2 If applicable, what additional questions need to be answered and/or evidence gathered in order for you to make a more informed judgment regarding the adequacy/accuracy/appropriateness of the material (and/or your prior understanding of it)? AND 4.3 What should you and/or your service organization do differently in the future (or have done differently in the past) AND what are the associated benefits and risks/challenges?

*Note: "Academic material" includes the concept itself and its presentation (in class, in readings).

Appendix B: Level 4 of 4-Level Holistic Critical Thinking Rubric

Level 4 does most or all of the following:

Integration: Makes clear the connection(s) between the service experience and the learning being articulated

Relevance: Describes learning that is relevant to the AL category and keeps the discussion focused on the learning being articulated

Accuracy: Makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence
   (For academic ALs, accurately identifies, describes, and applies appropriate academic material)

Clarity: Consistently provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways

Makes very few or no typographical, spelling, and/or grammatical errors

Depth: Thoroughly addresses salient questions that arise from statements being made; avoids over-simplifying when making connections; considers the full complexity of the issue

Breadth: Gives meaningful consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes good use of them in shaping the learning being articulated

Logic: Draws conclusions and/or sets goals that consistently follow very well from the line of reasoning presented

Significance: Draws important conclusions and/or sets meaningful goals that address the most significant issue(s) raised by the experience

Modified source: Paul, R. & Elder, L. (2001). *The miniature guide to critical thinking.* Santa Rose, CA: The Foundation for Critical Thinking.

APPENDIX IV

Generating, Deepening, and Documenting Learning: The Power of Critical Reflection in Applied Learning

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Applied learning pedagogies—including service-learning, internships/practica, study abroad, and undergraduate research—have in common both the potential for significant student learning and the challenges of facilitating and assessing that learning, often in non-traditional ways that involve experiential strategies outside the classroom as well as individualized outcomes. Critical reflection oriented toward well-articulated learning outcomes is key to generating, deepening, and documenting student learning in applied learning. This article will consider the meaning of critical reflection and principles of good practice for designing it effectively and will present a research-grounded, flexible model for integrating critical reflection and assessment.

Applied learning pedagogies share a design fundamental: the nurturing of learning and growth through a reflective, experiential process that takes students out of traditional classroom settings. The approach is grounded in the conviction that learning is maximized when it is active, engaged, and collaborative. Each applied learning pedagogy provides students with opportunities to connect theory and practice, to learn in unfamiliar contexts, to interact with others unlike themselves, and to practice using knowledge and skills.

Despite the oft-cited maxim that "experience is the best teacher," we know that experience alone can, in fact, be a problematic teacher

(Dewey, 1910; Conrad & Hedin, 1990; Hondagneu-Sotelo & Raskoff, 1994; Stanton, 1990; Strand, 1999). Experiential learning can all too easily allow students to reinforce stereotypes about difference, to develop simplistic solutions to complex problems, and to generalize inaccurately based on limited data. The service-learning student, for example, may think that all food assistance programs function exactly like the one at which he is working, causing him to make sweeping generalizations about the effectiveness of such programs despite widespread variations in size, structure, and sources of food and funding.

In addition, students may not derive the most important or significant learning from their experiences. The undergraduate researcher in the physiology lab may be frustrated by the tediousness of the research and not appreciate that scientific inquiry is intentionally a slow process of trial and error. She may not fully understand why the research questions she is investigating are important or how the data she is collecting fit into previous findings.

Students may leave applied learning experiences with little capacity to turn learning into improved action. The study abroad student may believe he has developed a greater sensitivity to cultures different from his own but six months later find himself jumping to conclusions about others based on their background or ethnicity. The intern who finds her collaborative project frustrating may end up repeating patterns of poor teamwork in her next group project.

Finally, students in applied learning pedagogies may have a vague sense of the impact their experiences have had on them but not be fully aware of the nature of their own learning, its sources, or its significance. They may only be able to describe outcomes vaguely, with phrases such as "I learned a lot from working with community members" or "I got so much out of living abroad." The service-learning student may fail to understand the different ways in which the classroom and the community present her with learning challenges. The study abroad student may be unable to identify specific changes in her attitudes toward others or

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to articulate what led to the changes. Students may, in other words, miss the opportunity to learn about their own learning processes—to develop the meta-cognitive skills required for lifelong, self-directed learning that applied learning is so well suited to cultivate.

The students in these examples would all benefit from a process of strong reflection, to help them avoid what T.S. Eliot (1943) once described as having the experience but missing the meaning. Learning—and understanding learning processes—does not happen maximally through experience alone but rather as a result of thinking about—reflecting on—it. As noted by Stanton (1990), when reflection on experience is weak, students' "learning" may be "haphazard, accidental, and superficial" (p. 185). When it is well designed, reflection promotes significant learning, including problem-solving skills, higher order reasoning, integrative thinking, goal clarification, openness to new ideas, ability to adopt new perspectives, and systemic thinking (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Conrad & Hedin, 1987).

However, reflection and its central role in applied learning are often misunderstood or seen as unnecessary. The word itself frequently connotes stream-of-consciousness writing, keeping a diary, or producing a summary of activities. It can easily be associated with "touchy-feely" introspection, too subjective to evaluate in a meaningful way and lacking in the rigor required for substantive academic work. Dewey (1910), one of the early champions of experiential learning, provides a strong foundation for re-conceptualizing reflection, defining it as the "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p. 6). Schön (1983) emphasizes the link between reflection and action; he defines reflection as "a continual interweaving of thinking and doing" and suggests that what he calls the reflective practitioner is one who "reflects on the understandings which have been implicit in [one's] action, which [one] surfaces, criticizes, restructures, and embodies in further action" (p. 281). The reflection required if applied learning pedagogies are to be maximized as learning opportunities is best understood in these terms, as a process of meta-cognition that functions to improve the quality of thought and of action and the relationship between them.

When understood in this light and designed accordingly, reflection becomes "critical reflection." It *generates* learning (articulating questions, confronting bias, examining causality, contrasting theory with practice, pointing to systemic issues), *deepens* learning (challenging simplistic conclusions, inviting alternative perspectives, asking "why" iteratively), and *documents* learning (producing tangible expressions of new understandings for evaluation) (Ash & Clayton, 2009a and 2009b; Whitney & Clayton, in press). As we understand it, critical reflection

is an evidence-based examination of the sources of and gaps in knowledge and practice, with the intent to improve both. Designing reflection effectively so as to make applied learning educationally meaningful first requires that we make clear its meaning as an integrative, analytical, capacity-building process rather than as a superficial exercise in navel-gazing (Ash & Clayton, 2009b; Whitney & Clayton, in press; Zlotkowski & Clayton, 2005).

A critical reflection process that generates, deepens, and documents learning does not occur automatically—rather, it must be carefully and intentionally designed. Welch (1999) points out that it is not enough to tell students "it is now time to reflect" (p. 1). Eyler, Giles, and Schmiede (1996) note that reflection "need not be a difficult process, but it does need to be a purposeful and strategic process" (p. 16). Especially given how unfamiliar most students are with learning through reflection on experience (Clayton & Ash, 2004), they need a structure and guidance to help them derive meaningful learning when they are outside the traditional classroom setting, otherwise reflection tends to be little more than descriptive accounts of experiences or venting of personal feelings.

This article explores principles of good practice across three steps in the design of critical reflection in applied learning:

1) determining the desired outcomes: learning goals and associated objevices,
2) designing reflection so as to achieve those outcomes, and
3) integrating formative and summative assessment into the reflection process.

It then presents a model for critical reflection—the DEAL model—that has been explicitly designed to embody these principles and refined through several years of research.

The discussion here is grounded in the conviction that facilitators of student learning in applied learning pedagogies are instructional *designers*; they make choices throughout the design process that are influenced by their goals and constraints and by their students' abilities as well as their own. Designing reflection proceeds best when framed in scholarly terms: as a process of experimentation, of continual assessment and refinement, of learning with and alongside the students. In other words, the designer of applied learning opportunities is best understood as a reflective practitioner herself—one who engages in the same critical reflection that she expects from her students— thereby improving her thinking and action relative to the work of generating, deepening, and documenting student learning in applied learning.

DETERMINING DESIRED LEARNING OUTCOMES

Just as with any other intentional design process, designing critical reflection requires beginning with the end in mind (Covey, 1989; Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). Specifically, it begins with the identification of desired learning outcomes. It then proceeds with the expression of learning goals in terms of assessable learning objectives and continues to the design and implementation of teaching and learning strategies (such as reflection) aligned with those objectives, all the while developing assessment strategies that are well-matched to the objectives and to the teaching and learning strategies and that can be used to inform future revisions of either or both.

Instructors, as well as the programs that support them, have a range of desired learning outcomes that underlie their use of any particular applied learning pedagogy (or combination of them). Figure 1 provides a conceptual framework for articulating a categorization of these outcomes and the role of critical reflection in advancing them, using service-learning as an example. Most instructors use service-learning to help their students engage more effectively with the content of the course or the perspective of the discipline while also learning about citizenship and about themselves as individuals. In other words, they use service-learning to help students learn at least in the general categories of *academic enhancement*, *civic learning*, and *personal growth*. These categories can apply to other applied learning pedagogies as well, along with additional ones such as *intercultural learning* (particularly relevant

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for the Role of Reflection in Achieving Categories of Learning Goals (service-learning example)
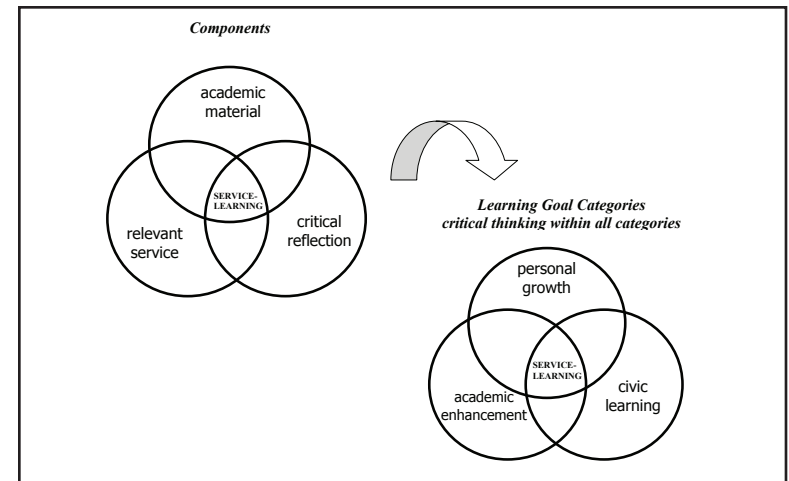
in study abroad), *professional development* (especially for internships), and *research skill development* (in undergraduate research). *Critical thinking* might be seen as its own category of outcomes or as a dimension of other categories; additional meta-level outcomes related to learning processes might include *emotional intelligence* or the ability to make *connections* between ideas.

Given the public purposes of higher education (Boyer, 1996; Saltmarsh, Hartley, & Clayton, 2009; O'Meara & Rice, 2005; Saltmarsh, 2005), designers of any applied learning pedagogy might well consider *civic learning* as a relevant category of learning. Battistoni (2002) offers thirteen conceptual frameworks for understanding "civic" that are linked to various disciplines and thereby suggests a wide variety of ways it can be defined, such as in terms of participatory democracy, social justice, or an ethic of care. Specific learning goals in this category might relate to such issues as change agency, power, privilege, leadership, economic and political systems, governmental processes, community organizing, and public problem-solving. In light of the multi-faceted nature of this category, applied learning opportunities of all types can be designed to include it. For example, students involved in undergraduate research can consider the social drivers for and implications of both their research questions and their process of inquiry; those studying abroad can focus attention on the interconnections between local and global issues and on the ways culture shapes notions of citizenship; interns can explore the roles of corporations as citizens and the range of opportunities to integrate their professional and civic lives.

Similarly, applied learning pedagogies often involve interactions with others—classmates, mentors, community members, lab partners, officemates—and therefore lend themselves readily to learning in the general category of *collaboration*. Associated learning goals might include developing students' abilities to communicate with diverse others, make decisions as a group, assess group members' strengths and weaknesses and allocate responsibility accordingly, handle interpersonal conflict effectively, hold themselves and others accountable to group norms, develop shared visions, and monitor progress toward collective objectives and reach consensus on appropriate changes in their approach.

As the previous example suggests, learning goals within any one category of learning can often cross into another category—collaboration could also be understood as an element of diversity learning, professional development, personal growth, or civic learning. It is therefore up to instructors, program administrators, and/or students to decide how best to express the categories of learning and the associated learning goals for their particular situation. Because these categories are likely going to become headings in, for example, assessment reports, particular attention should be paid to what best represents the key arenas of learning that are

to be cultivated through the pedagogy. Toward that end, it may be helpful to begin by listing more specific goals (such as the ones given above for collaboration) and then determining how best to organize them into more general categories. Such an activity may be particularly important when a group of instructors undertakes instructional design together as part of a program or curriculum, so as to make sure that everyone is in agreement with and working towards the same desired outcomes.

Figure 2 provides an example of the use of Venn diagrams to express the learning goals associated with various categories of learning that might be developed for internships. As the use of the Venn diagrams suggests, learning outcomes are often conceptualized as the intersection of two or more categories. A Nonprofit Studies curriculum at North Carolina State University that is designed with threaded service-learning, for example, articulates learning outcomes at the intersection of academic enhancement and civic learning in terms of learning goals including: aligning mission, methods, and resources; balancing individual interests and the common good; moving beyond charity to systemic change; capitalizing on opportunities associated with diversity; and earning the public trust (Jameson, Clayton, & Bringle, 2008).

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework for the Role of Reflection in Achieving Learning Goals (internship example)
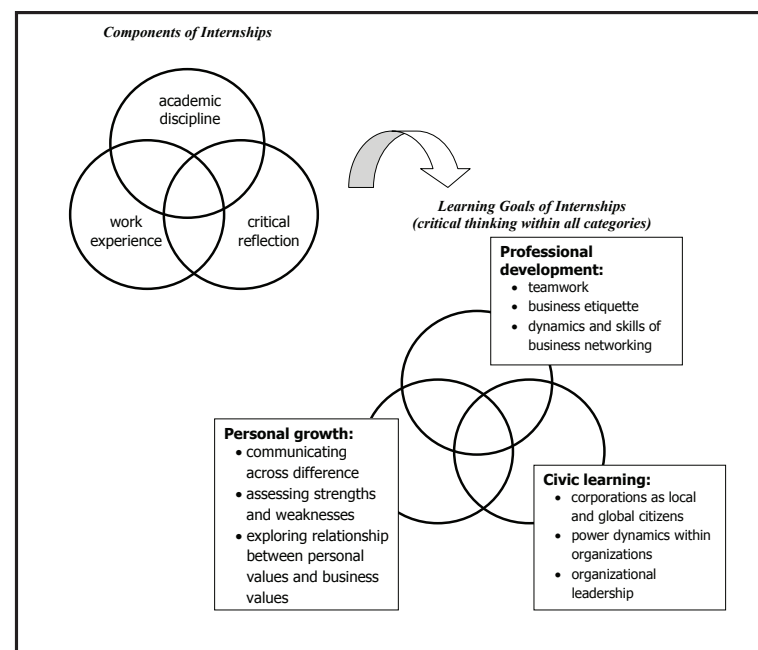
Whether starting with the general categories and working down to more specific learning goals within them or starting with learning goals and then determining the most useful way to categorize them, developing this broad structure to express and organize desired learning outcomes is key to undertaking an intentional instructional design process, to communicating the rationales for applied learning to students and colleagues, and to structuring assessment strategies and sharing resultant data. This structure for thinking about learning outcomes provides an important foundation for developing strong approaches to critical reflection.

FROM LEARNING GOALS TO LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Once the general categories of learning and their associated learning goals have been determined, the instructional designer's next task is to express the learning goals as assessable learning objectives. Goals such as "students will learn about project management" (internship), "students will understand the challenges facing schools in their attempts to implement state and federal education policies" (service-learning), "students will appreciate the similarities as well as the differences between their home and host cultures" (study abroad), or "students will understand the differences between quantitative and qualitative research methods" (undergraduate research) are difficult to translate into effective pedagogical practice.

Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1956) provides a foundation for turning learning goals into assessable learning objectives, which then drive the rest of the design process. The taxonomy includes learning in three domains: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor; this discussion refers to the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in the Cognitive Domain. Although modified and re-ordered by some scholars in recent years, Bloom et al. originally identified six levels, each with associated—and assessable— learning behaviors, as summarized in Table 1. A central and widely shared, although not universal, tenet of our reading of the taxonomy is its hierarchical nature—each level builds toward

Table 1: Bloom's Taxonomy and Associated Learning Behaviors

Bloom's Classification	Examples of Learning-Related Behaviors
Knowledge	Identify, define, order
Comprehension	Explain describe, restate
Application	Apply, solve, choose
Analysis	Analyze, compare, contrast
Synthesis	Synthesize, develop, propose
Evaluation	Evaluate, assess, judge, critique

the next, from simpler to more complex dimensions of reasoning. For example, applying an academic concept effectively requires having a good understanding of it, which itself involves having basic knowledge of the underlying facts or theories.

Table 2 provides an example, drawn from service-learning, of the use of Bloom's Taxonomy to move from general categories of learning to specific learning goals and then to assessable learning objectives.

Table 2: Using Bloom's Taxonomy to Move from General Categories of Learning to Specific Learning Goals to Assessable Learning Objectives (service-learning example)

Learning Objective Level	Category: Personal Growth — Learning Goal: Students will consider ways to refine their skills	Category: Civic Learning — Learning Goal: Students will become more effective change agents	Category: Academic Enhancement — Learning Goal: Students will understand the Stages of Change model
LO 1: Identify	Identify a particular skill of yours that you need to develop further.	Identify the collective objectives at stake and the approach you or others took toward meeting them.	Identify the Stages of Change model.
LO 2: Explain	Explain the skill so that someone who does not know you can understand it.	Explain the objectives and the approach you and / or others took toward meeting them so that someone not involved can understand.	Explain the Stages of Change model so that someone not in the course can understand it.
LO 3: Apply	Apply your understanding of this skill in the context of your service-learning experience and (as applicable) in other areas of your life.	Apply your understanding of the approach in the context of the objectives at stake.	Apply your understanding of the Stages of Change model in the context of the experience.
LO 4: Analyze	Analyze the sources of this skill in your life.	Analyze the approach in light of alternatives.	Analyze the similarities and differences between the Stages of Change model as presented in the text and as it emerged in the community.
LO 5: Synthesize	Develop the steps necessary to improve upon this skill in the short term, in your service-learning activities and (as applicable) in other areas of your life.	Develop the steps necessary to make any needed improvements in your / their approaches (and/or in the objectives) in the short term.	Develop an enhanced understanding of the Stages of Change model in light of the experience.
LO 6: Evaluate	Evaluate your strategies for refining your skills over the long term.	Evaluate your / their approaches in terms of the prospects for long-term, sustainable, and/or systemic change.	Evaluate the completeness of your understanding of the Stages of Change model and of its use in the community.

Using Bloom's Taxonomy in this way, to achieve a high level of clarity regarding desired learning outcomes and to express them in assessable language, enables instructors to design reflection that targets learning objectives in developmentally-appropriate ways, building toward the highest level of learning deemed appropriate in any given instance. The learning objectives thus become both the road map that guides the design of reflection activities and the basis for determining whether the intended destination has been reached and adequately expressed in the products of reflection.

DESIGNING REFLECTION TO
ACHIEVE DESIRED LEARNING

Effectively designing critical reflection involves making a series of choices that are informed by the desired learning outcomes as well as by the opportunities and constraints that come with the specific context in which applied learning is being implemented and by the abilities of the participants. These choices produce an overall reflection *strategy* or over-arching structure that may combine various reflection activities or *mechanisms*—such as journal entries, online chat sessions, poster presentations, worksheets, or discussion sessions. Questions such as those in Table 3 can help guide the design of reflection strategies and mechanisms.

The result of such intentional design work is a customized plan that integrates critical reflection into the core of applied learning experiences. This plan may be maximized by designing the reflection strategy such that individual reflection mechanisms build on one another cumulatively, so that students learn how to learn through reflection as well as improve the quality of their learning and their practice over time. Table 4 summarizes a body of principles of good practice that has emerged to support the instructional designer in making the choices that produce high quality reflection strategies and mechanisms.

Table 3: Questions to Guide the Design of Reflection Strategies and Mechanisms

Reflection Strategies

When and how often will reflection occur?
     Before, during, and after the experience?
     Will students reflect iteratively such that reflection builds on itself over time?

Where will reflection occur?   In or outside the classroom?
Who will facilitate and/or particpate in reflection?   Instructors, members of the community or workplace, peers?

How will feedback be provided and/or reflection products graded?
     What is the relationship between amount of feedback and level of expected outcomes?
     What is the relationship between the reflection products and the overall grade?

Reflection Mechanisms
Toward what *specific learning goals and objectives* will the particular activity be guided?
What *medium* will be used for the activity: written assignments, worksheets, spectrum activities, photographs, videos, games, drawings, online forums, in-class discussion, out-of-class reflection sessions, concept maps, etc.?
What *prompts* will be used to guide the activity?
What *products* will demonstrate the learning the activity generates: essays, PowerPoint or poster presentations, oral exams, etc.?   Note that in a critical reflection process, the products used to demonstrate learning are in many cases the same as the medium used to generate it
What *criteria* will be used to assess the learning so demonstrated ?

Table 4: Characteristics of High Quality Reflection

	High Quality Reflection …
Eyler et al. (1996)	is continuous (ongoing)
	is connected (with assignments and activities related to and building on one another and including explicit integration with learning goals and academic material)
	is challenging (including in terms of the expectation that students take responsibility for their own learning)
	is contextualized (to the community setting and broader public issues and to the students' own particular roles)
Bringle & Hatcher (1999)	links experience to learning
	is guided
	occurs regularly
	involves feedback to the learner to enhance the learning
	helps clarify values
Zlotkowski & Clayton (2005)	is oriented toward specific learning objectives
	is integrative
	is assessed in terms of critical thinking
	includes goal setting
	generates change in the learner's life

Each of these sets of characteristics of high quality critical reflection includes explicit linkage to desired learning outcomes, and Bloom's Taxonomy provides a structure to facilitate the design of reflection accordingly. The example reflection activity provided in Figure 3 demonstrates the design of reflection prompts—for the learning goal of understanding strengths and weaknesses, in the category of personal growth—that guide students step-by-step to ever-higher levels of reasoning through prompts that are explicitly structured in accordance with the levels of the taxonomy.

A focus on critical thinking is a key characteristic of critical reflection. The reflection guided by the prompts in Figure 3 can progress to ever-higher levels of reasoning but do so poorly, in an illogical, unclear way that is uninformed by consideration of multiple perspectives and that fails to engage with the true complexity of the issues. Critical thinking, as outlined by Paul and Elder (2002), is based on universal intellectual standards that include accuracy, clarity, relevance, depth, breadth, logic, significance, and fairness. Many of the potential shortcomings of reflection described in the introduction—reinforcing stereotypes, generalizing inappropriately on the basis of limited data, missing the most significant learning in an experience—are indicative of and result from poorly developed critical thinking abilities. Providing guidance in this area is, therefore, a necessary corollary to the use of hierarchical learning objectives in the design of critical reflection (Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005). Table 5 provides an overview of the standards of

Figure 3: Sample Bloom-based Reflection Mechanism (undergraduate research example)

According to Parker Palmer (2000), "limitations and liabilities are the flip side of our gifts … a particular weakness is the inevitable trade-off for a particular strength." There is nothing "wrong" with us that we need to "fix," he suggests. Rather, we are who we are; sometimes our personal characteristics serve us well (and we think of them as strengths), and sometimes they serve us ill (and we think of them as weaknesses) The attempt to "fix" our liabilities will inevitably alter their "flip side" gifts as well. (pp. 52-53).

Individually and in writing ...
Identify and explain a personal characteristic that you tend to think of as a weakness in your role as a researcher
Apply Palmer's distinction to this characteristic: What gift or strength could be the "flip side" of this "weakness"?

Discuss with a partner ...
Compare and contrast a research-related situation in which the "weakness" emerged and one in which its "flip side" strength emerged. Why do you think each emerged as it did and what were the consequences?
If Palmer is correct regarding the relationship between our gifts or strengths and our limitations or liabilities, what do you think are the implications for your approach to personal and professional development as a researcher?

Individually and in writing ...
Critique Palmer's distinction: Do you agree with him? Why or why not? What, if anything, would you change in his thinking?

critical thinking (with the addition of integration and writing quality), along with prompting questions that can be used by students themselves to improve the quality of their reasoning and by peers and/or instructors as feedback on reflection products.

Using these tools together—designing reflection mechanisms through the use of hierarchical learning objectives and improving the quality of thinking at each of the levels of reasoning through the use of critical thinking standards—will help to *generate* and *deepen* learning in an applied learning environment. The products of such intentionally designed reflection, in turn, *document* learning for purposes of grading or research as well as for student use in guiding future thinking and action.

INTEGRATING FORMATIVE AND SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT INTO THE REFLECTION PROCESS

Designing an intentional approach to critical reflection in applied learning also involves the development of an assessment strategy. Just as reflection is much more effectively implemented not only at the end of an applied learning course or project but throughout, so too is assessment more valuable when it is designed from the beginning and is itself evaluated and modified as needed throughout.

Table 5: Critical Thinking Standards

Critical Thinking Standard	Description	Associated Questions to Check your Thinking
Integration	Service experience clearly related to the learning.	▪ Have I clearly shown the connection between my experience and my learning?
Clarity	Expands on ideas, express ideas in another way, provides examples or illustrations where appropriate.	▪ Did I give an example? ▪ Is it clear what I mean by this? ▪ Could I elaborate further?
Accuracy	All statements are factually correct and/or supported with evidence.	▪ How do I know this? ▪ Is this true? ▪ How could I check on this or verify it?
Precision	Statements contain specific information.	▪ Can I be more specific? ▪ Have I provided sufficient detail?
Relevance	All statements are relevant to the question at hand; all statements connect to the central point.	▪ How does this relate to the issue being discussed? ▪ How does this help us/me deal with the issue being discussed?
Depth	Explains the reasons behind conclusions and anticipates and answers the questions that the reasoning raises and/or acknowledges the complexity of the issue.	▪ Why is this so? ▪ What are some of the complexities here? ▪ What would it take for this to happen? ▪ Would this be easy to do?
Breadth	Considers alternative points of view or how someone else might have interpreted the situation.	▪ Would this look the same from the perspective of….? ▪ Is there another way to interpret what this means?
Logic	The line of reasoning makes sense and follows from the facts and/or what has been said.	▪ Does what I said at the beginning fit with what I concluded at the end? ▪ Do my conclusions match the evidence that I have presented?
Significance	The conclusions or goals represent a (the) major issue raised by the reflection on experience.	▪ Is this the most important issue to focus on? ▪ Is this most significant problem to consider?
Fairness	Other points of view are represented with integrity (without bias or distortion).	▪ Have I represented this viewpoint in such a way that the person who holds it would agree with my characterization?

Modified source: Paul, R.P. & Elder, L. 2001. The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking. The Foundation for Critical Thinking, Santa Rosa, CA. www.criticalthinking.org

Assessment can be designed for *summative* purposes and used at the end of a process to measure and document outcomes, and it can be designed for *formative* purposes and used during a process as a way to continuously improve both the process and the outcomes. A summative assessment process that is grounded in well-articulated learning objectives can be used both to grade student products and to report outcomes at program or curriculum levels. Summative assessment in the form of grading generally involves judging the degree to which students have met the learning objectives. Such assessment can be standards based and therefore measure the ultimate attainment of an objective at the end of the experience, or it can be based on improvement and therefore measure change over time. A related design choice that often emerges at the program or curriculum level is whether the ultimate attainment or the change over time is to be assessed within a single course or applied learning project, across a sequence of courses or projects, or both. Instructors and/or administrators need to decide on the form summative assessment reports should take, in light of the uses to which they will be put and the audiences for whom they are intended. For example, will the assessment be expressed quantitatively, such as the percentage of students whose reflection on experience demonstrates fulfillment of the desired outcomes, or will the report provide qualitative information with examples of student learning outcomes, or both?

Faculty and students using applied learning pedagogies will find value in formatively assessing both learning and the teaching and learning process and programs that generate it. Formative assessment is increasingly recognized as key to effectively designing teaching and learning. As noted by the National Research Council (2001), "Students will learn more if instruction [in this case, reflection in applied learning] and assessment are integrally related. [P]roviding students with information about particular qualities of their work and what they can do to improve it is crucial for maximizing learning" (p. 258). Feedback combined with opportunities to apply it (e.g. through revision of their work) is an approach to formative assessment that helps students learn not only content, but meta-cognitive skills as well—in this case, learning how to learn through the often unfamiliar process of critical reflection.

Formative assessment can also be used to check the reflection process against the learning outcomes it generates so as to refine both the learning goals and objectives and the reflection strategies and mechanisms designed to meet them. Instructors might review student products critically not only in order to provide helpful feedback to improve students' thinking but also to gauge the effectiveness of their own design (e.g., the clarity of the reflection prompts) and to provide themselves with feedback to improve it. Such formative assessment also provides valuable feedback to instructors regarding, for example, concepts or skills that

prove difficult for students to grasp; such information can inform discussion of how these concepts or skills are taught in the courses or programs associated with or prerequisite to the applied learning activity.

Having sorted through the various purposes of assessment, the designer of applied learning pedagogies faces additional choice points related to how assessment is implemented, including the nature of the products or evidence that will be examined. Will assessment involve extra activities that are not related to the learning process (for example, pre and post questionnaires) or assignments and products that are already part of the course or project (for example, reflection products or essays)? In a questionnaire, students might be asked to what degree they think they have met the learning objectives of their applied learning experience; in a course-embedded assignment, students would be asked to respond to a prompt or prompts, and the resultant product would be evaluated against the objectives. Practitioner-scholars such as Eyler (2000) suggest that the former often confuses student satisfaction with student learning and therefore call for the development of approaches that support students in doing the latter. In addition, a course-embedded process is generally less time-consuming, for both students and instructors, than the interview, focus group, or portfolio methods often used (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, & Kerrigan, 2001) and requires more intentional integration of assessment with the teaching and learning process.

Another issue is the determination of criteria that will be used to evaluate the products that demonstrate learning. In other words, what will be the indicators of the degree to which the student has met the learning objectives or of the quality of learning outcomes? The creation of a rubric that expresses varying levels of quality or mastery, from novice to expert or from under-developed to excellent, can be extremely helpful in guiding this process. For example, if the objective is for interns to be able to determine the appropriate approach to a particular workplace situation (e.g., a team member not pulling her weight), a rubric in which responses are categorized by degree of sophistication and/or efficacy could be used for assessment. If an objective is meta-cognitive and/or is unique to the students as individuals and their particular experiences (for example, that students are able to evaluate a personal strength or weakness in light of their professional goals), then a rubric based on Bloom's Taxonomy that expresses levels of reasoning may be in order. The Standards of Critical Thinking described earlier can also be turned into a rubric (see Table 6, for example) that can be used to assess quality of reasoning.

An integrated approach to assessment and reflection includes using the same set of objectives and standards and tools to generate learning (through reflection prompts), to deepen learning (through formative assessment or feedback), and to document learning (through summative

Table 6: Critical Thinking Rubric [excerpts]

	completely lacking (1)	under-developed (2)	good (3)	excellent (4)
Accuracy	Consistently makes inaccurate statements and/or fails to provide supporting evidence for claims	Makes several inaccurate statements and/or supports few statements with evidence	Usually but not always makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence	Consistently makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence
Clarity	Consistently fails to provide examples, to illustrate points, to define terms, and/or to express ideas in other ways	Only occasionally provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways	Usually but not always provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways	Consistently provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways
Depth	Fails to address salient questions that arise from statements being made; consistently over-simplifies when making connections; fails to consider any of the complexities of the issue	Addresses few of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; often over-simplifies when making connections; considers little of the complexity of the issue	Addresses some but not all of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; rarely over-simplifies when making connections; considers some but not all of the full complexity of the issue	Thoroughly addresses salient questions that arise from statements being made; avoids over-simplifying when making connections; considers the full complexity of the issue
Breadth	Ignores or superficially considers alternative points of view and/or interpretations	Gives minimal consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes very limited use of them in shaping the learning being articulated	Gives some consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes some use of them in shaping the learning being articulated	Gives meaningful consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes very good use of them in shaping the learning being articulated
Fairness	Consistently represents others' perspectives in a biased or distorted way	Occasionally represents others' perspectives in a biased or distorted way	Often but not always represents others' perspectives with integrity	Consistently represents others' perspectives with integrity (without bias or distortion)

[Modified source: Paul, R.P. & Elder, L. 2001. *The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking*. The Foundation for Critical Thinking. Santa Rosa, CA. www.criticalthinking.org]

assessment or grading and reporting outcomes). Reflection prompts based on Bloom's Taxonomy can both guide students to desired levels of reasoning and determine the level of reasoning they have attained. Critical thinking standards can be used as both a formative guide to improve student reasoning and a summative tool to evaluate its quality in the end. Making visible such integration of reflection and assessment is key in helping students become increasingly aware of and responsible for their own learning processes.

The creation of an assessment strategy is as important as the articulation of the learning goals and associated objectives, and all should be developed in parallel during the design of the reflection activities. Trying to assess a learning goal that has not been articulated as an assessable objective (e.g., "students will understand …," "students will appreciate …," "students will learn about …") is usually an exercise in frustration. A reflection mechanism that is not mapped to learning objectives is often a missed opportunity for maximized learning as well as a hindrance to using reflection products to assess learning. And an objective that expresses desired learning that cannot be achieved through the pedagogy in question, much less assessed, should, like all of the above, send the designer back to the drawing board.

THE DEAL MODEL FOR CRITICAL REFLECTION

An example of an approach to critical reflection explicitly designed in accordance with the principles of good practice discussed above is the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Ash & Clayton, 2009a, 2009b)—the product of a multi-year scholarship of teaching and learning project involving students and faculty from a variety of disciplines. Originally developed in the context of service-learning, DEAL has been used across a range of traditional and experiential pedagogies; in K-12, undergraduate, and graduate courses and curricula; and in co-curricular as well as professional training settings.

The DEAL model consists of three sequential steps (see Figure 4):

1. *D*escription of experiences in an objective and detailed manner;
2. *E*xamination of those experiences in light of specific learning goals or objectives; and
3. *A*rticulation of *L*earning, including goals for future action that can then be taken forward into the next experience for improved practice and further refinement of learning.

Figure 4: Schematic Overview of the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection
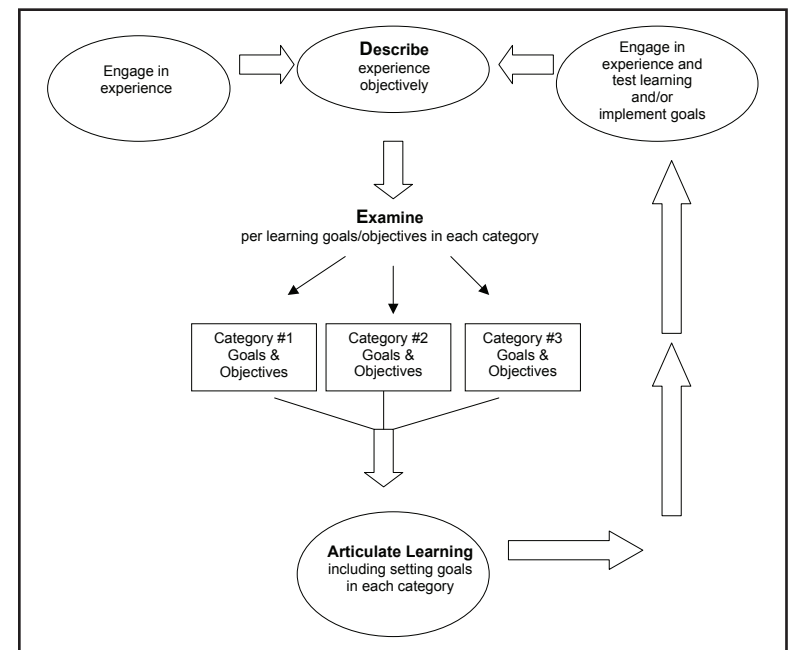
Each step of this model requires specific prompts, which provide the guidance necessary for students to engage in the oftentimes counter-normative activity of developing their own learning rather than reproducing what their instructors have taught them (Clayton & Ash, 2004; Howard, 1998). The discussion that follows summarizes each step in the DEAL model and provides sample prompts.

DESCRIBE

Objective, detailed description of an experience provides a strong foundation for meaning-making in the critical reflection process; it is a way to make the experience present and to ensure that students have access to all relevant aspects of it as they engage in reflection. This step is not as simple as it might appear, as students often prefer to jump straight into interpretation. It is also easy to overlook or under-value the details that are often most significant, so enhanced skills of mindfulness and attentiveness are often required for—and developed by—this step. Reflection prompts associated with the Describe step ask students to address such issues as when and where the experience in question took place, who was and was not present, what they and others did and did not do, what they saw and heard, and so on.

EXAMINE

The DEAL model is explicitly designed to move students beyond summarizing their experiences, which all too often results when a reflection activity is assigned, into meaning-making. In the second step of DEAL, prompts that help students Examine their experiences are linked to the desired learning outcomes—whether expressed as learning goals or, in a more assessable fashion, as learning objectives—within each category of learning. Table 7 provides examples of prompts drawn from learning goals in the general category of *civic learning*; some instructors may prefer to develop Examine prompts from learning goals such as these rather than from assessable objectives when, for example, the intent is to stimulate questions or surface issues for further discussion rather than to evaluate students' reasoning.

ARTICULATE LEARNING

The third step of the DEAL model supports students in Articulating the Learning that the two previous steps have begun to generate, while providing further guidance in continuing to expand and deepen that learning. It helps them capture their learning in such a way as to be able to act on it and thereby improve the quality of their learn-

Table 7: DEAL Model Sample "Examine" Prompts Based on Learning Goals in the General Category of Civic Learning

Learning Goals	Sample Examine Prompts
Students will explore the dynamics of change agency	What was I / someone else trying to accomplish?
	In taking the actions I / they did, was the focus on symptoms of problems or causes of problems?
	Was the focus (symptom or cause) appropriate to the situation?
	How might I / they focus more on underlying causes in the future?
Students will learn about power and privilege	In what ways did differentials in power and privilege emerge in this experience?
	What are the sources of power and privilege in this situation?
	Who benefits and who is harmed?
Students will appreciate the tension between individual interests and the common good	What is in the interest of the common good in this situation? What is in the interest of (whose) individual interests or rights?
	In what ways is the individual good (mine / others) linked to and/or contrary to the common good?
	What trade-offs between them are involved? Who made the trade-offs? Were the trade-offs made appropriate or inappropriate and why?

ing and their future actions. It consists of four prompts: (a) *What did I learn?;* (b) *How did I learn it?;* (c) *Why does it matter?;* and (d) *What will I do in light of it?* The DEAL model thus does not begin but rather ends with the question "What did you learn," in accordance with the understanding of reflection as the component of applied learning that generates learning.

The general structure provided by the DEAL model can be used to guide critical reflection online, in an oral discussion, in a written journal entry or essay, or in any combination of mechanisms. For example, Description might be done online by each student individually, Examination orally by a group of students, and Articulation of Learning as a written essay. The DEAL model can be used to structure "light" reflection, as in a 30 minute in-class activity or an online chat that produces simple (e.g., four sentence) Articulated Learnings.

A BLOOM-BASED USE OF DEAL

DEAL can also guide more in-depth critical reflection that targets higher order reasoning and critical thinking through prompts that are tied directly to hierarchical learning objectives. Such an approach might be used not merely to stimulate questions and surface issues for further discussion, as in the goal-based example in Table 7 above, but also to support students explicitly in developing reasoning abilities and to assess the quality of their reasoning.

In a particularly comprehensive version of the DEAL model (Ash & Clayton, 2009a, 2009b), designed to facilitate student reasoning all the way up to the level of evaluation in Bloom's Taxonomy, the Examine

and the Articulate Learning steps each have two parts. After students Describe an experience, they surface one or more key ideas for further thought in Examine Part I and then take one of those ideas from identification and explanation through application and to analysis in Examine Part II. In Part I of the Articulate Learning step they synthesize a new understanding of the key idea and evaluate changes in their thinking, and in Part II they evaluate the written expression of that thinking and revise it as needed.

For example, in the category of *personal growth*, Examine Part I might include some or all of the prompts in Table 8, which are oriented toward the learning goals that comprise this category and which encourage students to focus on their own particular personal characteristics.

Then Part II of the Examine step might use prompts such as those in Table 9—specifically mapped to Bloom-based learning objectives up to the level of analysis—to support students in developing their thinking about that characteristic further.

The Articulate Learning step then supports students in re-thinking and extending the thinking from the Examine step, to create a more meaningful and fully thought out reflective essay, moving them through Synthesis and Evaluation with additional sub-prompts and supporting them in documenting all six levels of reasoning in Bloom's Taxonomy. Continuing with the example in the category of personal growth, Part I of this step includes the expanded prompts represented in Table 10.

Table 8: Bloom-based Version of DEAL: Sample "Examine" Part I Prompts (Personal Growth Category)

Examine Part I (Personal Growth): Sample Prompts to Surface a Personal Characteristic
What *assumptions* or *expectations* did I bring to the situation? How did they affect what I did or didn't think, feel, decide, or do? To what extent did they prove true? If they did not prove true, why was there a discrepancy?
How did this experience make me *feel* (positively and/or negatively)? How did I handle my emotional reactions? Should I have felt differently? Why or why not?
How did I *interpret* the thoughts, feelings, decisions, and/or behaviors of others What evidence do I have that my interpretations were or were not accurate?
In what ways did I succeed or do well in this situation (e.g., interacting with others, accomplishing tasks, handling difficulties) and what *personal characteristics helped me to be successful* (e.g., skills, abilities, perspectives, attitudes, tendencies, knowledge)? In what ways did I experience difficulties (e.g., interacting with others, accomplishing tasks) and what *personal characteristics contributed to the difficulties* (e.g., skills, abilities, perspectives, attitudes, tendencies, knowledge)?
How did this situation challenge or reinforce my *values, beliefs, convictions* (e.g., my sense of right and wrong, my priorities, my judgments)? My sense of *personal identity* (e.g., how I think of myself in terms of gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, age, education level, ethnicity, nationality, mental/physical health)?

In Part II of the Articulate Learning step, students are asked to evaluate their written products using a checklist, which includes the standards of critical thinking, and to rewrite their "I learned that" statement as needed to ensure that it expresses the highest level of learning they have achieved.

Table 9: Bloom-based Version of DEAL: Sample "Examine" Part II Prompts (Personal Growth Category)

Examine Part II (Personal Growth): Prompts to Develop Understanding of a Personal Characteristic Using Bloom's Taxonomy	
Identify	What personal characteristic are you coming to understand better as a result of reflection on your applied learning experiences?
Explain	Explain the characteristic so that someone who does not know you would understand it.
Apply	How does / might this characteristic positively and/or negatively affect your interactions with others, your decisions, and/or your actions in your applied activities and (as applicable) in other areas of your life?
Analyze	What are the possible sources of / reasons for this characteristic? How does your understanding of these sources / reasons help you to better understand what will be involved in using, improving, or changing this characteristic in the future?

Regardless of how it is implemented—written or oral, individual or collaborative, lightly or in-depth—the DEAL model offers students the opportunity to use writing or speaking as vehicles *for* learning rather than as expressions of learning *after* it has already occurred (Clayton & Ash, 2004). Generating their own learning in this way is yet another counter-normative aspect of critical reflection on experience and, as suggested in the set of characteristics of high quality reflection in Table 4, students will benefit from feedback on their thinking, with associated opportunities to revisit and revise (e.g., through application of the Standards of Critical Thinking presented in Tables 5 and 6) to maximize the quality of their learning.

In addition, the development of a critical reflection model such as DEAL facilitates scholarly work relative to teaching and learning in an applied learning pedagogy, helping instructors improve the former to enhance the latter. For example, DEAL and its associated rubrics (including the critical thinking rubric in Table 6) were used to examine changes in students' critical thinking and higher order reasoning abilities across drafts of a single reflection product and over the course of a semester, as well as across the categories of academic enhancement, civic learning, and personal growth in several service-learning enhanced classes (Ash et al., 2005). Building on this work, Jameson et al. (2008) modified the DEAL reflection prompts and rubrics for application across the course sequence of a Nonprofit Studies minor, investigating changes in students' critical thinking and reasoning abilities across the learning goals

Table 10: Bloom-based Version of DEAL: "Articulate Learning" Part I Prompts (Personal Growth Category)

1.   What did I learn?
• Identify and explain (so that someone who doesn't know you can understand it) a personal characteristic that you are beginning to understand better
• Express the learning in general terms, not just in the context of the experience, so that it can be applied more broadly to other areas of your life (personally or professionally) and help you in your ongoing personal growth process
• Introduce a judgment regarding whether the characteristic serves you well (and thus needs to be capitalized on) or poorly (and thus needs to be changed) – or both
2.   How did I learn it?
• Clearly connect the learning to your specific applied learning activities so that someone who was not involved would understand, including discussion of the <u>positive</u> and <u>negative</u> impacts of the personal characteristic
3.   Why does it matter?
• Consider how the learning has value over the short and long term, both in terms of your applied learning activities and in terms of your life more generally
4.   What will I do in light of it?
• Set specific goals and assessable goals (that you could come back to and check on to see if they are being met) relative to this learning over the short and long term
• Consider the benefits and challenges associated with fulfilling these goals, especially in light of the sources of or reasons for the characteristic

of five leadership challenges facing the nonprofit sector. McGuire et al. (2009) examined critical thinking demonstrated in Articulated Learnings produced by students in multiple disciplines using a variety of assignment and feedback-revision formats.

The DEAL model and its associated rubrics therefore demonstrate the intentional design of critical reflection: identifying desired student learning outcomes, articulating them as specific goals and as assessable learning objectives, and then crafting an integrated reflection and assessment approach around them. In addition to providing tools needed to generate, deepen, and document student learning, DEAL facilitates investigation of the learning processes (Clayton, Ash, & Jameson, 2009).

CONCLUSION

It is our hope that our work can serve as a model for faculty, staff, and students as they seek to design reflection associated with applied learning opportunities, courses, and programs. Our individual and collective learning as practitioner-scholars across the field of applied learning can be enhanced through a scholarly approach to the instructional design process. In turn, it can contribute to advancing the academy's understanding of both how our students think and how we can support them in learning to think more deeply and with greater capacity for self-directed learning.

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APPENDIX V

3 Finding the Best Fit

How Organizations Select Service Learners

Cassandra Garcia, Sarah Nehrling, Amy Martin, and Kristy Seblonka

Given the combined motives of community organization staff to both educate service learners and expand services to the community, how does a community organization find and recruit students who fit the bill? We know amazingly little about this question. Perhaps we have not considered the community's role in recruiting and selecting service learners because students historically have been recruited on the college campus and presented to the agencies. In this research, however, the organization staff were as likely to seek out students as they were to simply receive them. And the people we spoke to had plenty to say about the techniques, logistics, and various pros and cons of recruiting and choosing service learners to work with. Some of their comments and concerns presented here overlap with the themes of communication (detailed in Chapter 6) and expectations (a running theme throughout this volume and also described in Chapter 5). But in terms of the nuts and bolts of "how to get people in here to do stuff" at nonprofit agencies, there are a few distinct issues that deserve consideration in a separate space through a distinct lens. The issues we consider here are:

- *Making the First Contact:* How to develop the connections that lead to good service learning relationships.

- *Selecting and Placing Service Learners:* What criteria to use in choosing who to host and what to host them for.
- *Preferred Service Learner Characteristics:* What skills and attitudes characterize the best service learner?
- *The Role of Organizations' Expectations in Selecting Service Learners:* How a match between what the organization staff want and what students can provide influences service learning placements.

Making the First Contact

The first step in any service learning experience is making the initial connections among the organization, the professor, and the student. This can be initiated by any one or a combination of the three, and can happen through many different mediums (Bringle and Hatcher, 2002; Jacoby, 1996; Mihalynuk and Seifer, 2008; Pribbenow, 2002).

For nine of the sixty-seven organizations, the professor made the first contact. Organization staff explained that "professors contact us because students want a place they can speak Spanish," or maybe "the professor lets us know who she thinks are the best students and we bring them in for interviews." Sometimes, as two organizations mentioned, the professor recommends a student to an organization or "pitches us on a student." Many organization staff welcome this faculty-initiated contact. An alternate approach is for students to make the first contact with the organization, as was the case for another nine interviewees. Some organization staff, although happy to have students, are befuddled as to how the student learned about them:

It was really interesting because this particular student sought us out. I was surprised when she contacted us and asked us to be our intern. She knew about [our organization], but I didn't know where the information had come from; we must have been on some resource list or I really don't know. She sought us out and said, "I would really like to work with you."

The third situation is when organization staff actively recruit students. There is some advice on recruiting volunteers or service learners written from various professional perspectives (Network for Good,

2007; McCurley and Lynch, 1989) as "how-to" guides to help nonprofits, but virtually no information on how community agencies say they are presently doing it. Web site databases are mentioned as useful recruitment tools, which is more prominent in urban areas such as Madison, Wisconsin, through volunteeryourtime.org. The distinction here is that the term "service learning" isn't a keyword, or even mentioned on many of these Web sites. So the distinction between service learners and the regular volunteer cadre is invisible to an agency visiting or posting on the site, and sometimes they have no way to document where a particular volunteer is coming from. The National Service Learning Clearinghouse has many detailed articles about how faculty recruit service learners, or how umbrella organizations like Learn and Serve America recruit volunteers. Bringle and Hatcher (2002) have mentioned this issue from the community perspective. So this is a hit-and-miss method of finding students, even in places where there are many Web-based options. The challenges can be compounded in smaller towns that have less options for searching out students or making their needs known (Stoecker and Schmidt, 2008). In our research, we found that organizations approach recruitment through three identified strategies:

1. Attending volunteer fairs
2. Talking with classes and/or professors of certain classes
3. Using service learning centers and Web sites that post service learning opportunities

Community organization reactions to volunteer fairs were interesting. Some of the organizations that had staff members sit at volunteer fair booths suggested that this activity allowed them to present their programs to a wide audience all at once and keep current on the higher education institutions' service learning programs. But the majority of interviewees who discussed participating in volunteer fairs did not see them as efficient, since the large amount of time spent staffing a booth rarely produced new service learning recruits. Volunteer fairs were especially problematic for small agencies that really couldn't afford the time away from daily operations for a minimal return. To add insult to injury, some institutions charge a booth fee, which could mean that a nonprofit might actually come out behind if no one signs up to volun-

teer with them. Even if the organization doesn't have to buy booth space, the time commitment can be a net loss:

We've taken part in the . . . volunteer days where you can go in and sit at a booth and talk to students . . . but if you sit there all day and end up with one volunteer, it's hard to justify that [use of time].

Volunteer fairs also tend to lump service learning and volunteer activities together, so in some cases agencies don't know whether a student's goal is to complete civic engagement for course credit.

Other organization staff look to take a bit more control over the situation by making the first contact with either a class whose topic is relevant to their work or a professor in a discipline compatible with their needs. They will make the first move to find out what field might be suitable and then work to find an instructor who is amenable to the idea of allowing an in-class presentation:

Generally, they are in some type of class that has a connection to an issue here: poverty, class issues, [or] education. We rarely get volunteers who have nothing to do with the issues.

If our work has some interest or something to offer students or professors whose classes they might be coming from . . . I try to find out what that connection really is and to make that work.

One organization staff person sums up the effects of visiting a class by saying that, after presenting to the class, "everyone is always intrigued and wants to do their student teaching or internship with us."

Sometimes it is difficult to determine who made the first contact (the professor, the student, or the organization) because a number of first contacts are made through relatively informal connections or even simply through word of mouth. But this can be a hit-and-miss proposition. While some interview participants talked about how students spread the word about their organization, others felt that "the momentum [is not] carried through from the student side of things."

Stronger relationships seem to work better for recruiting students. Three organizations mentioned using their personal connections, and

about twelve said they rely on professional connections—often professors they already know—to jump-start service learning involvement in their organization. Three more organizations said they had firmly established contacts with professors at a higher education institution because staff within the organization were alumni of that institution. Others stressed the fact that the longevity of a relationship only strengthened their ties: "One school has been sending students to [our organization] so long, and they know what we have to offer, and it is a good fit for them."

The timing of the first contact, in whatever form, is crucial. Organization staff agree that the contact should be made early on, preferably before the semester begins (Peacock, Bradley, and Shenk, 2001). They also encourage students and possibly the faculty to be energetic in establishing a relationship with the organization:

Students need to realize that nonprofits are working on limited resources and that it is really better to call ahead and to plan ahead. . . . Make sure that the students know that it is good to be assertive—send an application in, make the call, find out what is going on, and that will be very helpful.

Of course, it is also helpful for that initial contact to have some depth and structure. Otherwise, some community organization staff may wonder if they are wasting valuable time:

Usually, for some reason, every single [course] requires that they interview the director about our program and our funding sources . . . [laughing] I'm tempted to videotape it and just plug it in for them!

This preterm contact is recommended in service learning manuals (Cress et al., 2005; Campus Compact, 2003), but many of our organizations gave the impression that they believe few faculty or students read those manuals. A number of organizations, especially those who need to do a background check on every volunteer they utilize, expressed frustration when "someone [calls] on Friday and says, 'Oh, I'd like to be a tutor,' and they need something signed by Monday saying they're going to be placed." Agencies also said that they do not appreci-

ate it when someone "come[s] in the third week of February saying, 'I need seventy hours by April.'" This puts an unfair burden on the organization to restructure volunteer opportunities to fit the student's needs, if they want to have that help at all.

On the other hand, a few organizations said they themselves were the cause of missed opportunities because they did not get their requests for service learners out early enough, and lacked adequate planning and recruitment on their side:

As far as recruiting volunteers and service learners, we don't really have anything formal right now. I'm trying to do a little volunteer coordination, but I don't really have a lot of time for it. . . . I've sent some volunteering queries, but no one has taken me up on it. I think I need to get into classrooms and make a pitch or something and take the time to be over there personally because e-mail is just not doing it right now.

Most important, a number of our organizations had not developed a specific strategy for recruiting and using service learners; often because they were too busy just doing the day-to-day work of the organization. Developing a service learning plan and actively recruiting students is a luxury for which too few organizations have the capacity. Organizations that are farther away from the higher education institutions need to recruit especially hard, as students will more likely want to fill their service obligations as conveniently close to campus as possible. This can be especially burdensome for rural organizations, but the challenge is present even for those organizations that may just be a few miles from campus.

Selecting and Placing Service Learners

Once the organization gets in contact with a student, the selection and placement process begins. Some of these organizations start from the position that they will not "just accept whoever is available." Almost half of our interviewees mentioned holding interviews with prospective service learning students, and some even do a follow-up interview to make sure the organization and student fit well with each other. Others use a more orientation-style interview, where organization staff

"arrange a meeting with them and get to know them; tell them about our organization and find out in a more holistic sense what they are about."

The range of selectivity varies among organizations, sometimes because they need only a certain number of volunteers. One agency staff person justified their selectivity by saying that "when you have too many volunteers, there will be one or two who do a really good job and there will be one or two that just sit around and do nothing." Another nonprofit representative explained that "it's sort of that fine line between being really beneficial to the student and the organization and kind of failing for both the organization and the students." Some organization staff are "very selective" in choosing service learners, setting aside any fears that their high standards may alienate those who provide the students. Conversely, along with having a plethora of nonprofits in this city, at least one-fifth of the population is college students, a likely target for volunteer recruiting:

I have worked with other organizations and they have a real crisis or panic mind-set, like whenever volunteers come in the door we have to take them because we won't get more, and I am really of the exact opposite mind-set. This is Madison, Wisconsin. If there is anyplace with an abundance of volunteers. . . . It is our goal to make our volunteer program as volunteer-friendly as possible, but at the same time, we don't need to take an inappropriate volunteer or a bad match because there is always someone else that will step up and take their place.

Other agencies just require that potential service learners have passed a background check and are in moral agreement with their mission. Finally, there are organizations that do not turn any students away. They are "willing to take anybody willing to do it."

Approximately twenty of the interviewees said they try to place students in activities that fit the students' interests. They generally attempt to determine those interests either during an interview or through casual conversation. A few organizations mentioned receiving letters of interest from students, and they wished more students would submit such letters. One interviewee also noted that writing a letter of interest prepares students for writing application cover letters. A few

organizations have encountered students who specify certain experiences or client contact, such as:

For certain types of children—Special Ed, ESL, a wide range of different types . . . it runs the gamut. If we know about what people are looking for, almost all of the time we can accommodate them."

And while some organizations find themselves in a position to select among several service learning prospects, other organizations must compete with each other to get the most qualified students with the best fit for the organization:

What often happens is that the service learning program asks me to write up a brief description of what I want the students to do. In some cases the students get to select out of a list, so they might have ten organizations apply but only five of them get selected because that is what the students are interested in. In some cases, it's basically "this is what the students do" and that is it.

Preferred Service Learner Characteristics

What are community organization staff looking for in service learners? Many do not have clear criteria, but others make important distinctions between categories of students, differentiating first between undergraduate and graduate students, and then making finer-grade distinctions that produce a composite definition of the ideal service learner.

Service learning students include both undergraduate and graduate-level students in a variety of disciplines. Of the sixty-seven research participants interviewed, twenty-six reported that they had worked only with undergraduate students, thirty-three worked with both levels, and eight did not specify. Organization staff saw challenges in working with undergraduates that related to their level of maturity, their level of professionalism, and their work quality.

Despite those misgivings, there were things that organizations liked about undergraduates. Nine organizations had primarily positive

commentary on working with undergraduate service learning students, and saw the final outcome as positive, even with the challenges. Evidently, undergraduates are in plentiful and ready supply, and in some situations (like working with middle school or high school youth), they are seen as "more hip" by the younger kids and have an advantage over older adults in building rapport. They can also have an almost endless supply of energy and enthusiasm, which is invaluable in situations like after-school recreation programs:

The [undergraduate] college student has really been our key solution. I can't see that changing, despite schedules and short time commitments. . . . I think that's why the college students are such a good fit for our program; they can relate better, they can establish a relationship in trust faster.

With that youthful energy, however, often comes a lack of maturity. Six organizations cited immaturity as a significant challenge in working with undergraduate service learners, especially first- and second-year students, as illustrated by these two interviewees:

Some [service learners] are just more mature, more motivated. The younger the student, the less invested they seem to be.

It might be a maturity issue that students who have been in college a little while longer see their classes as being more of a job or that they need to be more responsible for them. The only time[s] I've had problems in the past have been with much younger, freshman/sophomore-level students.

Related to the issue of maturity and professionalism is the feeling among some agency staff that undergraduates do not understand their importance to the organization and the obligations that entails. A quarter of our organizations saw undergraduate service learners as lacking an understanding of nonprofit professional culture and their role in such a culture. On the one hand are those students who enter the situation with a charity attitude that undermines the goals of service learning and who don't take the situation seriously enough. The charity philosophy, which

reinforces perceptions of students as giving handouts and community members as unworthy and needy, is one of the most widely criticized aspects of contemporary service learning in the literature (Noley, 1977; Kahne and Westheimer, 1996; Bringle and Hatcher, 1996; Brown, 2001; Marullo and Edwards, 2000; Ward and Wolf-Wendel, 2000). One organization staff person expands on those critiques:

It can be really hard with undergrad interns . . . to give them negative feedback or critical feedback that they need to hear . . . there tends to be such an assumption [from the students] that because they're here at all, they should get all kinds of kudos . . . and the level of maturity, presentation, understanding . . . has just varied widely from individual to individual. . . . You have some folks who spend the whole time talking on their cell phones, or two interns talking to each other, or they want to chat with the staff, which means instead of getting time freed up, you have staff people worried about getting their work done.

This points to a need to train students in professional etiquette specific to the nonprofit world, which we discuss in later chapters.

On the other hand are those students who can only see the work through the eyes of a corporate culture:

Undergraduates often "try too hard to be professional" in such a way that doesn't quite fit into a more informal nonprofit organizational culture. It's hard for some to figure out how to "fit in," but "they do get more comfortable through the course of the semester."

The quality of actual work produced by undergraduates is also a factor in community organization staff's low opinion of them. Four-teen organizations cited work quality as a major challenge in working with undergraduates, and here again we see the contradiction between the learning goals and community service goals of service learning. Undergraduates act differently based on whether they see themselves as primarily a learner in the setting, or as a volunteer on whom the organization and its clientele are relying:

I think I've had some prejudice against it [service learning] in a certain way that I kind of imagine, I don't know where this came from—maybe it is from hearing stories from other organizations; that you're seeing the result of some work that you know is sloppy, first-year, freshman undergraduate work. I mean not sloppy—maybe it's very good for where they are, but it's not something that is going to be very useful or up to the standard that we would need.

Sometimes the real consequences of what the students are doing for the client is where the disconnect is. They understand that the client probably relies on this, but maybe they don't realize that the client is banking on it, or the client really needs this to happen for x, y, z reasons . . . they . . . just don't have enough experience with some of these things to be able to make the decisions or to do diligent work that needs to be done.

Consequently, many of the organization staff we interviewed prefer to work with graduate students, or at least advanced undergraduates, and this is also a common preference among community organizations elsewhere (Bacon, 2002). But even places without strong graduate programs can design service learning standards around the characteristics of graduate students that community organization staff value—the maturity of the student, regardless of their class standing, and their ability to commit to longer-term placements. The more-experienced and older college student, especially the graduate student, is often regarded as the gold standard, sometimes even seen as substituting for staff:

The grad students are actually working on providing direct services, twelve to fifteen hours a week . . . we do training for a couple months, that gives us four or five extra hours of staff time, of client time, for the next six months, so that's worth the investment . . . and it's promoting our services; we only have one and a half staff members in our Community Education Department . . . and the amount of time that they spend supervising interns is pretty minimal.

Interview participants stated several benefits to working with graduate-level service learning students, which in many cases involved more intensive internships and practicums rather than the more frequent short-term service learning. Community organization staff gave such field-based education programs extremely positive feedback. Since graduate students tend to be coming out of specific programs that require fieldwork and longer terms of service, the experiences on the whole were much more structured, involved more time, and provided more skilled service than many undergraduate service learners are capable of, as these three interviewees describe:

I've seen it work much better with the grad students, because their practicum supervisors come in for the meetings, and so there's a definite change—you know that person and you have some relationship to the goals of the program.

Graduate student interns are fantastic and spend a lot of time here . . . they know what we're doing, the profs know what we're doing, the work they contribute is significant.

Graduate students are more motivated, more focused, [with] more skills. They are building their career, and that works better for us . . . undergraduates on the other hand might lose their interest in our work after a semester. There is no continuity.

Discussing the advantages of graduate-level service learners provides an initial foundation on which to build a definition of the ideal service learner. Again, that definition begins with the issue of maturity. Four organization staff members stated directly that they were looking for students who were self-motivated, who "can move forward and just do it" without "standing around and waiting for specific instructions." Some also prefer active people who get involved, get "down and dirty" in the activities of the organization, and "don't consider anything beneath them." In the same sense, they are looking for students who are outgoing and work well with people, especially when working with populations of different backgrounds than those of the students:

When I think about the number of interns that we've had, they've been regular students who've come from small towns; this is a new experience for them. . . . In terms of my experience, [they are] very conscientious, wanting to learn, really valuing the whole family structure, open and wanting to have an experience with a diverse population.

They prefer those students who are interested in gaining general experience in the field, exploring "new passions" and possible career paths, and developing personal skills. They appreciate those students who "want to learn about people that are different than them," and "care about our community."

Organization staff also tend to look for professional and responsible students who—regardless of age, work experience, and busy schedules—are "able to manage [their] time very well" and be accountable for their actions. One organization director who worked with two service learning students on the same project provided a very insightful comparison of the two service learners in relation to these variables:

One of the downsides of [service learners] is that you never know going in if this is going to be one of those stellar people that perform like a staff person and you wish you could hire them, or if they're going to flake out midway through and not follow through . . . especially in the context of one semester, it's really not enough time to figure that out, if that's somebody who's going to be worth putting time and energy into. . . . One of [the students] worked on media and outreach and analyzing our [sexual assault awareness] . . . and was just phenomenal. [She] put in way more time than required. The other one was a really good-hearted person that just didn't have the time to meet the commitment that the program asked, which wasn't even to go above and beyond like the other person did, so we had a really mixed experience just in that little microcosm. . . . They came from the same class; one was a sophomore premed that was way overwhelmed, the other was a senior communications/media major, with hardly any classes left to take, and just

really wanted to do this . . . so I think that individual situations make a huge difference.

Actual skills are also an important consideration for organization staff when they think about the ideal service learner. The vast majority of organizations mentioned a preference for service learners with some type of applicable knowledge. As one interviewee explained:

We have some people that were kind of high maintenance that came in. . . . And then we spend the day, here is the computer . . . and you have got to spend a lot of time getting people oriented to how we do things. People have to come here with a certain level of skill.

While most organizations looked for a certain level of competence and general skills, more than ten had very specific skill requirements, most often knowledge of a foreign language or a certain level of schooling:

And in any event, we require that anyone who works here has had experiences living in cultures that are predominantly English-speaking and cultures that are predominantly Spanish-speaking, so if it is a European American student, we would require that they had spent at least a semester living and studying abroad or just living abroad in a Spanish-speaking country.

Others have more general expectations. For example, one staff member mentioned that, "Usually, in the department [the students come from] they have completed all their course work and I think that is the key." A few of the organizations require students to have had certain relevant life experiences or a certain level of knowledge of the organization; skills not necessarily learned in a classroom:

To be helpful for us, you typically have to bring a range of experiences. . . . A lot of it is connected with comfort with working with regular people.

Then there are the organization staff who prefer that a student have certain skills, but are willing to accommodate those who do not by assigning them different tasks:

> Usually I put something in about it being helpful if you speak Spanish or if you want to do these things you need to speak Spanish, so we tend to get people who do at least speak a little, but if they didn't, we can find things, but they're not as . . . [Interviewer: versatile?] Yeah. They can do the food pantry; they can do the ESL course, but not other things like the reception desk.

Professors play into this situation as well. A few of the organizations commented on the role that professors can play in making sure a student is a good fit for a particular organization:

> I think where the intern situation works really well is when you have field instructors or university people who know their students and place their students in appropriate placements.

> I think it is important for faculty members to spend time with the community to see what happens, build relationships, and make a good fit.

One challenge cited by nearly a third of the organizations is that students participated in service learning primarily to fulfill a class requirement, without necessarily caring about the work itself. The problems caused by this credit-driven motive are exacerbated by the fact that much service learning is not only required but short-term, as we explore in Chapter 4, which is a significant problem in itself. Most organizations were frustrated with this attitude, noting that it produced either neutral or negative results for both the student and the organization:

> If they're just doing the twenty hours and they don't really engage themselves in what we're doing, and don't really ask a few questions and don't really get it, then they're not going to take away as much as if they really invest themselves for [a certain amount of time] in what we're doing.

Some organizations echoed the concern expressed by one staff person that "[this] person could just find something else to do because it's a lot of work to make those matches . . . schedules, etcetera."

The Role of Organizations' Expectations in Selecting Service Learners

Whether or not the organization is able to recruit its ideal service learner, the student and organization must find a match of expectations (Jacoby, 1996). It can't be stressed enough that, if this step is overlooked, the service learning arrangement may run into some serious structural difficulties once the student is actually on-site and working. Some organizations do try to match students with their expectations for the work they need done. However, the matching process can be complicated by students seeing themselves first as learners and the organization seeing them first as volunteers. The service learning literature emphasizes the difference between service learning and volunteerism or even campus-based community service. Service learning, the experts say, is based on an explicit and essential linkage of service experience and course content, with each informing the other (Eyler and Giles, 1999; Fiske, 2001). These definitions seem to be based on the pedagogy developed and adhered to at many educational institutions.

Maybe the community agencies didn't get the memo. From the standpoint of the organization staff we interviewed, and as seen in Chapter 2, the distinction between community service and service learning was not prominent. Only eight agency staff commented on whether or not their expectations for service learners differed from what they expected from other volunteers or staff. Five of those organizations mentioned having the same expectations for students as they do for either regular volunteers or employees, and only three made a definite distinction between the students and other groups. In many cases, the staff we interviewed didn't even know if the students at their agency were receiving course credit. So when we asked the organization staff members about how they determine and communicate their expectations for students, most of them approached the question from the same framework through which they develop expectations for volunteers, and a few apply the same standards as for their staff:

I often do an initial conversation with these folks to say, "I treat our interns like staff; essentially, we have the same expectations that they're going to be here, and if they're not, they let us know." I'm sort of the bad cop, and then their supervisor gets to be the good cop, and that works pretty well [laughing]! Because volunteers that you can't count on, in any capacity, aren't worth having, and we're real clear with people about that going in; it's better than getting midway into it and them ending up getting bad grades from it, and us ending up frustrated with projects undone.

Approximately fifteen organization interviewees mentioned the importance of sharing clear and defined expectations with the students during the recruitment process. If they don't do that, they could be recruiting students that they don't want, as these two staff people illustrate:

I think another thing that is really important in doing this is to have some mutually agreed-upon objectives to this project. If you don't have that, then I don't think anybody is going to be satisfied.

I think agencies have to be honest with the students too, you know. You can't just sort of sell this in a way that, you know, you have got to talk about the glamorous things you do, but, you know, on Wednesdays you take the trash down to the curb, Fridays you water plants.

Another aspect of this issue of expectations is the question of *whose* expectations should be a priority in the service learning relationship. Historically, service learning has been structured to meet higher education curricular objectives (Boyer, 1996; Bringle and Hatcher, 2002). Here the service learning dialectic becomes prominent, as the focus on institutional needs can actually undermine community needs. This dialectic has created problems throughout service learning's history for community organizations, as seen in Chapter 2. And it is not as easy as the analysts imply to find a good match between community and student expectations.

Another way that the dialectic exerts itself occurs when the higher education bias of service learning pressures the organizations to support student-defined projects. Five organization interviewees specifically mentioned situations where the outcomes of student-defined projects created problems:

We sort of learned our lesson a couple of years ago. A lot of it comes down to making sure the student is a good fit because we have had a couple of situations where someone came to us saying, "I want to do this." When someone comes to you like that, your gut reaction is, "Well, this is great; we'll find something for you to do." But I really think you have to interview them because we have ended up with a couple of people who came to us saying [that] and then we have realized very quickly that they actually were not a really good fit with what we wanted them to do. I don't think they got much out of it and we didn't either. It ended up just sucking our time rather than helping to build on what we are doing.

One staff member articulated particularly well how they needed to protect their own organization's interests in the service learning relationship:

They came in with really sort of clear learning objectives . . . there was some negotiation at the beginning of that process about what would fit . . . so they get a general sense of the agency's stuff, but the learning comes from the processing they do back in their class and the journals they write and analysis that they do; and from our perspective, that works a lot better than coming in with really rigid goals to do like, these four things while they're here, but these may not be things that we need done . . . so how much are we getting out of the experience, and how much are we accommodating some sort of preformed expectation? We're not an educational agency, so the main point for us is—we're glad that they're learning, but we're really focused on the service that we're getting from them, so if it's more about them, then it's not worth it for us to do it because it ends up diverting energy away from our mission.

Conclusion

We have documented a variety of ways that community organizations find and choose service learners from colleges and universities. The type of student—his or her interests, skills, background of course work, and major—all play into the fit that a particular student will have with an agency. It is really crucial to communicate the expectations on both sides, as we again address in Chapter 6. Aside from these individual characteristics factoring into the success of a project, however, are the ways that the service learning has been structured by the institution. As we have alluded to in this chapter, underlying the issue of finding the right students for a certain organization's needs are problems created by the institution's focus on structuring service learning as primarily a short-term learning experience for students, rather than a long-term commitment to the community. The short-term service learning model is so great a problem that we needed to add a separate chapter of evidence on this phenomenon. It was one of the most provocative findings of this research, as we didn't go into the interviews expecting this to come up, and most of the current literature did not alert us to be on the lookout for it.

4 ■ The Challenge of Short-Term Service Learning

AMY MARTIN, KRISTY SEBLONKA, AND ELIZABETH TRYON

Introduction

Perhaps one of the most popular forms of service learning today is the service learning component grafted onto a regular course, which nearly always involves a short time commitment on the part of the student. In this study, one of the most consistent themes involved the challenges associated with short-term service learning, which is somewhat surprising given how seldom the problem of "time" has been raised in the literature (see Wallace, 2000; Daynes and Longo, 2004; and Birdsall, 2005).

Loosely, short-term service learning would be described as serving a few hours at a time over the course of several days, or an hour or so a week during part of a semester. But even service learning experiences lasting as long as a full semester are considered short-term by many of our community organizations. In our research, twenty-one participants

APPENDIX VI

Building Capacity for Reciprocal Partnerships:
Identities, Roles, Competencies, and Growth of All Partners as Co-Educators,
Co-Learners and Co-Generators of Knowledge

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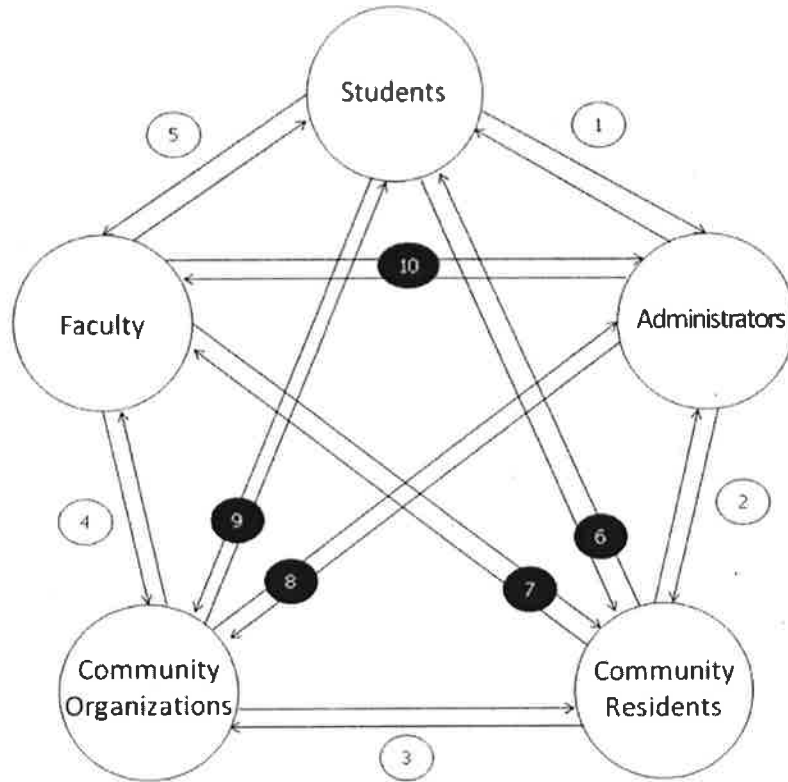New York, NY
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SOFAR Model of Partnerships*

Partnership Matrix

Relationship: _____   *Element of Reciprocity:* _____

	Individual / Interpersonal Level	**Systemic Level**
Enhancers		
Barriers		

* Bringle, R., Clayton, P. & Price, M. (2009). Partnerships in Service Learning and Civic Engagement. *Partnerships: A Journal of Service Learning & Civic Engagement.* 1(1): 1-20.

Examples of Essential Elements in Reciprocal Partnerships*

Goals/Objectives

1   10
individual   collective whole

Orientation to Relationships

1   10
for others   *with* others

Perception of Power

1   10
hierarchical authority   shared authority

Partner Identity

1   10
maintain institutional   larger definition of
identities   community

Outcomes

1   10
recipients changed   all parties changed

Scope of Commitment

1   10
tightly defined   generative

- -

What contributes to your rankings? In other words, what are the barriers and/or enhancers within these elements of the partnerships?

An Example of University/Community Partnership*

A nonprofit organization (referred to here as SSO) left a voice mail message at a local university's center for nonprofit studies, saying "We really need someone from the university to come help us out. Our 5-year review will be conducted in 6 months, and our Board has asked us to come to make a case for our impact on our clients. We know we're doing good work, and we've been evaluating our program all along, but we think research from the university will provide better data as well as credibility." The center identified a faculty member with expertise in program evaluation, who spoke with SSO's Director to discuss possible approaches to the project. She suggested that students in her course on nonprofit leadership could use an interview protocol she had previously developed to provide evidence of the impact of SSO's programs through the voices of its clients while she conducted a parallel process of investigating and quantitatively documenting organizational outcomes through a survey of their clients. She also suggested that an Honors student she was mentoring in an Independent Study could guide the class activities, serve as a connecting point between the students' research activities and her own, and support her in analyzing the statistical data she would obtain through her survey.

The Director of SSO met with the faculty member and students in class at the beginning of the semester and provided contact information for several clients. The students divided up the list, met with the Honors student to review the interview protocol, conducted five interviews each, and as a class produced a written summary of key themes highlighted with respondent quotes. Throughout the semester they reflected individually in weekly written assignments on the connections between the academic content of the course (leadership challenges facing the nonprofit sector) and what they were hearing in their interviews. The faculty member developed the survey, showed it to the Director for input before finalizing it, and then worked with the Honors student to collect and analyze the data. Together the students and faculty member presented their findings to SSO at a staff meeting at the end of the semester. The staff and students together identified ten quotes from clients that could be used effectively in SSO's report to its Board, and the faculty member shared 5 PowerPoint slides she had made with the Honors student with summary quantitative data. The Director took her up on her offer to present at the next Board meeting.

Several outcomes resulted from this project. Students heard the story of SSO clients who had come from difficult situations including homelessness, incarceration, and drug addiction, yet worked with SSO to find employment or build their own nonprofit organizations to support others in their community. Class discussions and students' written products revealed and challenged their assumptions about people with these backgrounds, and they came to better understand that leadership can come from people's goals, values, and commitment, rather than status, money, or power. After the faculty member made her presentation to the Board, Board members viewed the organization differently, understanding better what the staff did on a day-to-day basis and their impact in the community rather than just seeing the organization primarily through the lens of a balance sheet. This reframing of the organization's work deepened the Board's relationship with the Director and created new levels of trust that empowered the staff in new ways. The faculty member was so impressed by the impact of this organization in the community and with her students that she set up a meeting with the Director to explore additional ways to continue their partnership beyond the semester.