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Integrating Service-Learning into Undergraduate Students' Curricula: Recommendations for Best Practices

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Abstract

Several recent studies have revealed that there is increasing individualism and declining interest in politics and civic engagement among college students. Accordingly, many scholars called for reinvigorating the civic mission of higher education. This thesis study examines academic service-learning as an effective pedagogy for promoting students' civic engagement. The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the best ways of integrating service-learning into the curricula of undergraduate students. Using McCarthy's (2003) conceptual framework, the "Concept of Triangles," this study provides a comprehensive review of literature on the theoretical underpinnings, partners, and relationships of academic service-learning. The results of the study suggest that establishing clear connections between course content and the kind of service students do, and making meaningful placements of students to service sites are necessary for establishing effective service-learning courses. Additionally, the findings of the study reveal that promoting critical reflection, encouraging active participation from all partners, and meeting real community needs are essential to the success of service-learning programs. Finally, the findings of this study indicate that effective campus/community partnerships are characterized by reciprocal, collaborative, democratic, caring, trusting, and respectful relationships.

Acknowledgements

Whatever I learned or accomplished, I could not have done it alone. This thesis research has been inspired and enriched by many people. I am indebted to all of them.

I would like to thank my committee members. A special thanks goes to Dr. Franklin A. Tuitt, who graciously agreed to serve as my thesis advisor and chair, and provided much guidance and support. I would like to thank Dr. Deborah S. Grealy, who generously agreed to serve on my committee five days before the oral defense, for her insightful edits to this work. I would also like to thank Dr. Enid Opal Cox for her willingness to serve on my committee when I needed her to do so, and for her encouraging words.

I would like to acknowledge the contributions of all the scholars who enriched the literature of service-learning. Their scholarly works promoted my appreciation and understanding of the pedagogy of service-learning.

I am grateful for the encouragement and support of all my immediate and extended family members. Their love and prayers have been invaluable to me throughout this process.

I am thankful for the support of my friends. They kept faith in me and believed that I would accomplish this work even when I doubt it.

Most importantly, I thank Almighty God. Indeed, this thesis would not have been possible without the divine support.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this thesis research to my beloved mother, Rokaia Saleh Abdel-Fattah, who nurtured the ethics of care in my soul.

I would also like to dedicate this thesis effort to my outstanding brothers, Mohammed Raghib Aayesh and Karim Raghib Aayesh, whose genuine love and support encouraged me to accomplish this work.

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Prelude

In this thesis the term ‘researcher’ is used as a formal way of referring to the author of this thesis study.

Preface

This thesis is about service-learning in higher education. Service-learning is a pedagogical concept that emphasizes the integration of academic learning and community service. This pedagogical approach holds great potential benefits for institutions of higher education in that it helps them both accomplish their goals of students' learning and development, and make profound contributions in their communities (Astin, 1996; Hollander, Saltmarsh, & Zlotkowki, 2001; Jacoby, 1996, 2003).

In choosing the topic of my thesis, I was driven by two major purposes. First, I wanted to ensure that my thesis research is meaningful and worthwhile. After reading about various topics, I decided to focus on academic service-learning because of its lofty aims and implications for academic institutions and the community as well. Second, I was keen on choosing a topic that has practical implications for my country, the Arab Republic of Egypt. In other words, I wanted to avoid the common mistake many international students make, namely doing research that is hard to be applied in their home countries. With this said, I would like to assert that I am fully aware of the cultural, social, political, and economic differences between Egypt and the United States of America. Accordingly, I am not calling for adopting the practices suggested in this thesis. Rather, my aim is to adapt these practices according to the unique structure of Egyptian higher education.

My passion for doing this research grew out of five main factors: my religious identity, my mother, my early childhood readings, my teaching experience, and my affiliation with one of the Egyptian non-profit organizations. The ethics of care is strongly highlighted in my religion, Islam. For example, Muslims are encouraged to

provide help to others, especially the needy, and promised that as long as an individual aids others, Almighty God will always assist him/her (Ibrahim, 1997). My mother's genuine care about our relatives, friends, and neighbors encouraged me to perceive other people's happiness as an integral part of my own happiness. My early childhood readings, especially a story about a person who devoted his entire life to alleviate the sufferings of disadvantaged people, contributed to the development of my sense of social responsibility. My teaching experience enabled me to be in direct and close contacts with a large number of students. My interactions with students made it clear to me that they are enthusiastic and eager to play active roles in society. Yet, they lack opportunities to be engaged in their communities. Finally, my volunteer experience at one of the Egyptian community-based agencies, "Egypt Message," developed my conviction that youth can be active agents in bringing positive social change in their societies.

On a personal level, this thesis effort is intended to ensure my life-long commitment to contribute positively to my community. On a broader level, I hope that this thesis study will encourage higher education leaders all over the world to endorse service-learning as a critical and an engaged pedagogy that promotes the civic mission of higher education.

Neivin Shalabi
November, 2008

Chapter One

Introduction

> Throughout high-quality service-learning, students perform activities that directly address human and community needs. In addition, students engage in critical reflection about what social responsibility means to them and how they will make socially responsible choices throughout all aspects of their lives. Communities benefit from new energy brought to bear on their problems and enhanced capacity to capitalize on their assets. When service-learning lives up to its potential to lead institutions of higher education to transform themselves into fully engaged citizens of their communities and the world, its ability to bring about positive social change is limitless. (Jacoby, 2003, p. xvii)

Several recent studies have revealed that there is increasing individualism and declining interest in politics and civic engagement among college students (Cone, Cooper, & Hollander, 2001; Hahn, 2001; Levine, 1994; Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1999). Specifically, these studies denoted recent declines in students' altruism and a general lack of interest and engagement in politics. Accordingly, many questions have been raised about the relevance and responsibility of higher education toward the contemporary society and its role in preparing students for good citizenship (McCarthy, 2004; Zlotowski & Williams, 2003). In this respect, Chickering and Stamm (2002) asserted that the major aim of higher education is to prepare students for social responsibility in a pluralistic democracy. Similarly, Gould (2004) contended, "The broadest context for the development of knowledge in higher education is its social mission to empower individuals to serve the public good" (p. 453). Additionally, educating students about their future roles in a democratic society is viewed by many scholars (e.g., Astin, 1996; Levine, 1994) as a central goal of institutions of higher

learning. In general, Hersh and Scheider (2005) argued that the development of students' personal and social responsibility should be viewed as an essential outcome of liberal education.

With this strong emphasis on the civic mission of higher education, it becomes necessary to understand two related issues: first, what is meant by civic education and how it relates to civic engagement; second, how institutions of higher education can promote the desired civic outcomes for students. According to Saltmarsh (2005), the definition of civic education will differ from one institution of higher education to another according to the disciplinary perspective, the identity and mission of the institution, the academic strength on campus, and the particular social environment of the local communities of the institution. Yet, there is a general consensus that civic education has three essential components: knowledge, skills, and values (Clark, Croddy, & Philips, 1997; Saltmarsh, 2005).

Keaster (2005) pointed out that the aim of civic education is to "develop within students an awareness of, sensitivity toward, and engagement in civic issues and activities through participation in the society" (p. 53). This definition makes it clear that the rationale behind civic education is to promote students' civic engagement. Accordingly, institutions of higher education need to develop pedagogical practices to foster civic education. Examples of engaged pedagogies include: service-learning (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Jacoby, 1996; Jacoby & Associates, 2003), community-based research (Strand, Cutforth, Stoecker, & Donohue, 2003), cocurricular service, internships, interdisciplinary team teaching, and learning communities (Swaner, 2007).

Recently, emphasis has been put on service-learning as a significant pedagogical tool for advancing students' knowledge about democracy and their overall sense of civic responsibility (Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Yates &Youniss, 1998). After a thorough review of 219 empirical studies on the relationship between different forms of civic education and citizenship, Perry and Katula (2001) concluded that service-learning is the form of service that generates the most consistent positive results.

As it becomes clear that service-learning is an effective pedagogy for promoting students' civic engagement, this thesis research intends to examine how service-learning can be best integrated into the curricula of undergraduate students to promote their civic engagement. With this objective in mind, the following research questions guide this study:

> What are the key conceptual underpinnings of academic service-learning? Who are the central partners in academic service-learning and how can they establish meaningful programs? What kind of relationships should characterize campus-community partnership in academic service-learning?

Background of the Proposed Study

Theoretical origins.

Service-learning is grounded in the theories of experiential and democratic education of John Dewey, public philosopher and educational theorist. According to Dewey (1916, 1938), school learning experiences should be linked to actual life experiences, and formal education should promote continuity between internal development and exposure to external surroundings. Dewey argued that students' involvement in activities in the community stimulates an interest in learning about school

subjects, and that exposure to concrete problems generates more abstract learning. Dewey concluded that such an "interaction" develops the skills citizens need to act in a democracy. Additionally, the works of Lave (1988, 1990), Suchman (1988), and other theorists in "contextualized learning" provide theoretical basis for service-learning. Social theorists, such as bell hooks (1994) and Paulo Friere (2000) contributed to what service-learning has become.

Definitions of service-learning.

The literature provides several definitions of service-learning. For example, Kolibia (2000) noted that service-learning refers to "a set of pedagogical practices that attempt to synthesize and connect service experiences to specific spheres of knowledge for the dual purpose of mastering that knowledge and developing citizen skills that support one's active participation in democratic processes" (p. 825). Service-learning is also defined as a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to build skills, teach civic responsibility, and build community (Smith, 2004; Treuthart, 2003). Likewise, other researchers described service-learning as an experiential and reflective problem-based learning in which students enrolled in an academic course provide a needed service to a community partner. It aims to develop the skills, sensitivities, and commitments necessary for effective citizenship in democracy (Barber, 1994; Schwartzman, 2002; Stevens, 2001). In this thesis study, service-learning is defined as:

> course-based, credit bearing educational experience in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs, and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility. (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995, p. 112)

Distinction between service-learning and community service.

It is worth noting that service-learning is distinct from community service and other forms of volunteerism. Community service refers to a broad range of volunteer work in the community. Although it may provide volunteers with a learning experience, it is not part of a formal education. Service-learning is a form of community service in which academic courses are linked to service in the community; it is a deliberate experience that is usually overseen by academic departments or instructors as an integral component of a course (Gray, Ondaatje, & Zakaras, 1999; Kraft, 1996).

Rationale for service-learning.

Service-learning holds potential benefits to students, faculty, institutions of higher education, and the community. It is mainly recommended as a means for students to learn about and take part in their local communities, and be involved in questions about social justice and different cultural norms. In this way, service-learning promotes students' civility and tolerance (Barber, 1992; Battisoni, 1997; Campus Compact, 1994; Eyler & Giles, 1997; Hedin, 1989; Hepburn, 1997). In this regard, Astin and Sax (1999) reported that participation in service-learning positively affects students' civic responsibility: increased commitment to serve the community, interest in influencing the political structure, and helping others in difficulty. Other research findings on the impact of service-learning on students indicated that participation in service-learning increases students' sense of social responsibility and citizenship skills. It also reduces students' stereotypes and promotes their cultural and racial understanding (Astin & Sax, 1999; Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Keen & Keen, 1998; Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000).

The positive impact of service-learning on students is not limited to promoting their civic awareness and engagement. Rather, service-learning positively affects them in many other ways. For example, some research studies illustrated that student participation in service-learning is positively associated with persistence in college, interest in graduate studies, advanced critical thinking skills, and increased ability to apply course concepts to new situations (Astin et al., 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999). Likewise, there is ample evidence that service-learning has positive impact on students' learning outcomes (Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, Root, & Giles, 1998; Strage, 2000; Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). Additionally, other research findings demonstrated that service-learning has positive impacts on student personal development, such as a sense of personal efficacy, personal identity, spiritual growth, and moral development (Astin & Sax, 1999; Astin et al., 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). Service-learning has also been found to have positive effects on developing students' interpersonal development, communication, and leadership skills (Astin & Sax, 1999; Astin et al., 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Keen & Keen, 1998).

Service-learning has a positive impact on faculty as well (Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, & Kerrigan, 2001; Goldberg, Richburg, & Wood, 2006; Pribbenow, 2005). The results of a recent study on the impact of service-learning on faculty approaches to teaching and learning by Dean Pribbenow (2005) indicated that faculty who participate in service-learning courses become more engaged in and committed to teaching. Additionally, the findings of this study denoted that the pedagogy of service-learning enables faculty to better understand their students as individuals as well as learners. This, in turn, leads to a strong student-faculty relationship. These findings align

with the views of many educational reformers (e.g., Aquino, 2005; Berry, 2005, Gould, 2004; hooks, 1994) who asserted the importance of viewing the student as a "whole person." Moreover, the findings of Pribbenow's study indicated that undertaking service-learning led to a greater sense of connection to other faculty and to the institution in general.

Faculty can employ service-learning as a pedagogical approach that enhances classroom learning by connecting classroom instruction to community service, and hence makes theoretical concepts more meaningful to students (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Hedin, 1989; Hondagneu-Sotelo & Raskoff, 1994; Shumer, 1994; Waldstein & Reiher, 2001). Given this positive impact on the pedagogy of service-learning on both learning and teaching, Zlotkowski (1998) considered it as a faculty development. Similarly, Goldberg et al. (2006) viewed service-learning as an important means in advancing the scholarship of teaching and learning.

In addition to its great potential benefits for students and faculty, service-learning holds great potential benefits for institutions of higher education as it enables them to embrace their civic responsibility and prepare students to become civically engaged citizens. In this vein, service-learning is increasingly cited as a driver of the civic engagement of higher education (Astin, 1996; Hollander, Saltmarsh, & Zlotkowki, 2001; Jacoby, 2003). Along these lines, Carney (2004) noted that service-learning encourages meaningful connections between the academic work of university scholars—faculty members and students—and their communities. In this way, service-learning challenges the notion of the university as an "ivory tower," committed to reserve discrete knowledge and detached from the concerns of the real world. Carney concluded that service-learning

addresses the responsibility of institutions of higher education to prepare active and morally responsible citizens.

The community benefits from service-learning in various ways. For example, service-learning enables community agencies to access university resources and provides their members with opportunities for professional development. Through service-learning projects, community organizations can establish positive relationships with institutions of higher education. Moreover, service-learning allows the staff of community organizations to be involved in the educational process. Therefore, they can raise awareness of the community issues and needs (Sandy & Holland, 2006).

The above noted introduction shed light on service-learning as an engaged pedagogy. It first explained that there is a declining interest and engagement in politics among college students. Accordingly, many scholars (e.g., Astin, 1996; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Jacoby, 1996, 2003; Levine, 1994) called for reinvigorating the civic mission of higher education, and considered preparing students for social responsibility central to the aims of institutions of higher education. The introduction then gave examples of engaged pedagogies, such as service-learning, community-based research, cocurricular service, and internships. Next, the discussion focused on service-learning and explained its theoretical origins. This section indicated that the pedagogy of service-learning is rooted in the theories of experiential education of Dewey (1916, 1938) and the ideas of engaged pedagogies of some social scientists, such as hooks (1994) and Friere (2000). The discussion also provided a number of definitions of service-learning. These definitions illustrated that service-learning is a pedagogical practice in which classroom instruction is linked to community service, aiming to provide students with opportunities to be

engaged in their communities. Additionally, this section stressed the fact that service-learning is distinct from community service and other forms of volunteerism. That is, in service-learning, community service is part and parcel of academic courses for which students gain credits. Finally, the discussion presented some of the potential benefits associated with using the pedagogy of service-learning in teaching college students. This section highlighted the positive impacts of service-learning on students, faculty, institutions of higher education, and the community.

Statement of the Problem

The problem this thesis research examined is how service-learning could be best integrated into the curricula of undergraduate students to promote their civic engagement. Specifically, this study intends to analyze the key conceptual underpinnings of academic service-learning, its main partners, and the ideal relationships that should characterize campus-community partnership in service-learning. In doing so, this study can provide higher education leaders (faculty, students, and administrators) with recommendations for best practices to best incorporate service-learning into the curricula of undergraduate students.

Research Significance

The importance of this problem is twofold. First, research on the relationship between service-learning course components and the quality of the service-learning experience indicates that characteristics of service-learning courses are critical to students' learning outcomes (Batchelder & Root, 1994; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Marby, 1998). Specifically, as many advocates of service-learning asserted its potential impact on promoting students' civic engagement, they placed a great emphasis on the quality of service-learning experience and argued that only high-quality service-learning courses are able to achieve the potential benefits associated with the pedagogy of service-learning. For example, Morgan and Streb (2001) noted that taking part in service-learning is not enough to fulfill its aims of promoting students' civic engagement and asserted, "Service-learning is a great tool to develop better citizens, but it is imperative that it is done correctly" (p. 167). Similarly, Zlotkowski (1996) argued that more attention needs

to be given to the quality of service-learning for students, faculty, and the communities served.

Second, this problem is important because of the negative consequences of failing to integrate service-learning properly into the curricula of undergraduate students. In this regard, Eby (1998) warned against the consequences of inappropriate integration of service-learning and noted, “If done poorly service-learning can teach inadequate conceptions of need and service, it can divert resources of service agencies and can do real harm in communities” (p. 8). The aforementioned points illustrate the significance of this research problem. In other words, to attain the desired learning outcomes of service-learning, it is imperative for institutions of higher learning to investigate what constitutes effective programs, which will eventually lead to fulfilling the promises of service-learning.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this thesis study is to provide a comprehensive review of literature on how service-learning can be best integrated into the curricula of undergraduate students. In particular, this study will first examine the key conceptual underpinnings of academic service-learning. Second, it will identify the major partners of service-learning and describe their roles in establishing meaningful projects. Third, the study will explore the characteristics of ideal relationships between institutions of higher education and community organizations in service-learning.

Moreover, this thesis study seeks to identify the gaps in the literature with regard to academic service-learning. Further, this study aims to differentiate between service-learning, and community service and other forms of volunteerism. That is, the term "service-learning" is commonly used interchangeably with the term "community service" without a thorough understanding of the difference between the two terms. By providing multiple definitions of service-learning and explaining how it is distinct from other forms of volunteerism, this research will elucidate the existing confusion and enable students and practitioners to use each term properly. In this respect, it is important to note that the researcher is not addressing community service or any other forms of volunteerism where people volunteer to do work in the community from a philanthropic standpoint without a complete understanding of the causes the problem. Rather, this study is intended to explore service-learning as an engaged pedagogy that allows students to have hands-on experiences while addressing authentic problems in their societies. The pedagogy of service-learning also provides students with safe venues to reflect on their experiences, think critically of the core causes of community problems, and how to solve them.

Research Questions

The overarching question of this thesis study is: how can service-learning be best integrated into the curricula of undergraduate students to promote their civic engagement? Specifically, this study seeks to answer the following sub-research questions:

Research question 1.

What are the key conceptual underpinnings of academic service-learning?

Research question 2.

Who are the central partners in academic service-learning and how can they establish meaningful programs?

Research question 3.

What kind of relationships should characterize campus/community partnership in academic service-learning?

The above stated questions structure this thesis research effort and explore three major areas with regard to academic service-learning. In particular, the fist question examines the key concepts of academic service-learning—knowledge, experience, and reflection. The second question investigates the central partners in academic service-learning—students, faculty, and community agencies, describing their roles in establishing effective programs. The third question explores the characteristics of ideal relationships that should characterize campus/community partnership in academic service-learning.

Conceptual Framework

Florence McCarthy (2003) defined service-learning as "linking academic instruction with the community service, guided by reflection" (p. 2). Based on this definition, she proposed a conceptual framework, the "Concept of Triangles" (Figure 1.). This conceptual framework is comprised of three overlapping triangles: concepts, partners, and relationships. McCarthy posited that using the "Concept of Triangles" helps students, faculty members, and community organizations realize that they are interconnected in service-learning projects. This framework also enables the central partners to recognize the connections among the component concepts in service-learning. Moreover, McCarthy noted that these triangles are equal-sided, which denotes strength, stability, and reliability. Furthermore, the lines which connect the corners of each triangle have arrows pointing both ways, indicating the mutual reciprocity that should be developed and maintained among the main participants of solid service-learning programs.

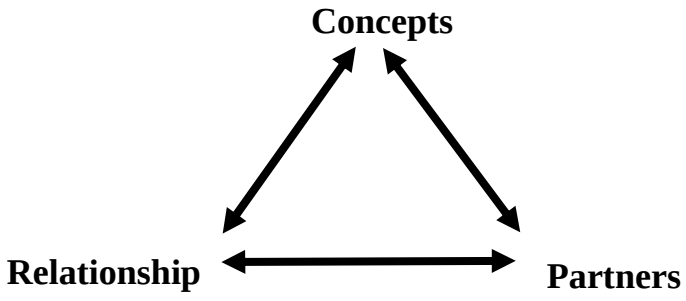

Figure 1. McCarthy's 'Concept of Triangles' for Service-Learning.

The triangle of concepts.

This triangle (Figure 1.1) introduces the fundamental components of service-learning: knowledge, experience, and reflection. McCarthy (2003) contended that these concepts are mutually dependent and interconnected.

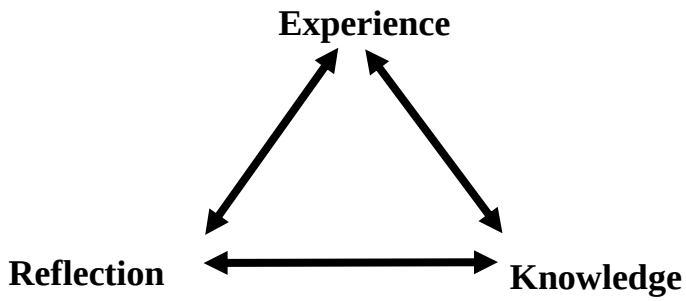

Figure 1.1. The triangle of concepts.

McCarthy (2003) posited that in meaningful service-learning programs, each concept plays a significant function. Experience results from student involvement with community agencies. Specifically, it is a combination of building social relationships and taking part in different activities as well as doing classroom assignments and being engaged in reflective classroom discussions. Knowledge refers to what students already know in addition to what they learn from fulfilling the requirements of their faculty members and agency staff. Reflection motivates students to be engaged in what they learn in their classes and what they experience at their service-learning sites. It also enables them to connect theory to practice. In other words, Reflection helps students put their experiences into context.

The triangle of partners.

This triangle (Figure 1.2) portrays the central partners of service-learning programs: students, faculty members, and community agency staff. Diagramming these partners in a triangle indicates the necessity of the presence of each one. McCarthy (2003) argued that the absence of any of these partners leads to the collapse of this triangle, and consequently to the failure of these programs. She maintained that successful service-learning programs require mutual participation from the central partners.

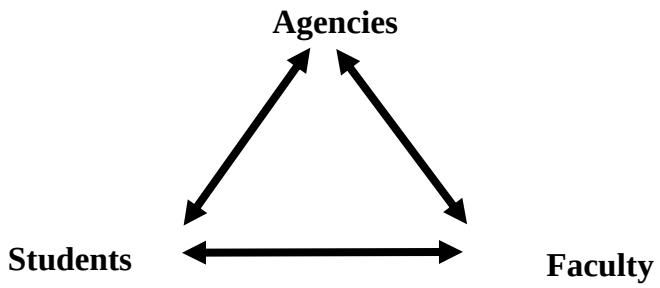

Figure 1.2. The triangle of partners.

According to McCarthy (2003), taking part in service-learning provides students with opportunities to be engaged in their communities. It also enables them to gain more insights about their own abilities in coming to see that they can be productive and useful for their communities. Moreover, students are usually treated by their faculty and agency staff as adults who bear responsibility toward their own learning as well as toward others. Gradually, students will be able to develop a deeper sense of their communities. For faculty, McCarthy noted that participating in service-learning requires them to reshape their teaching strategies so that they can establish a healthy balance between lecturing

and allowing time for students to reflect on their experience at the service sites. McCarthy also maintained that faculty should use untraditional tools of assessment so that they can accurately evaluate the development of students' analytical and critical thinking skills. McCarthy contended that students usually join community organizations with great eagerness and willingness to provide as much help as they can. Yet, they lack experience. Accordingly, she noted that agency staff members ought to devote some of their time to guide and direct students. Additionally, McCarthy encouraged agency staff members to build mentorships or supervisory relationships with students.

The triangle of relationship.

McCarthy (2003) affirmed that in order to establish meaningful and successful service-learning programs, the central partners should be connected with each other through mutual and interactive relationships (Figure 1.3.) These forms of interdependent relationships are illustrated in overlapping triangles that link the essential components of service-learning with the partners involved. In this respect, McCarthy argued that it is crucial to understand that these partners are equally important to the success of service-learning programs.

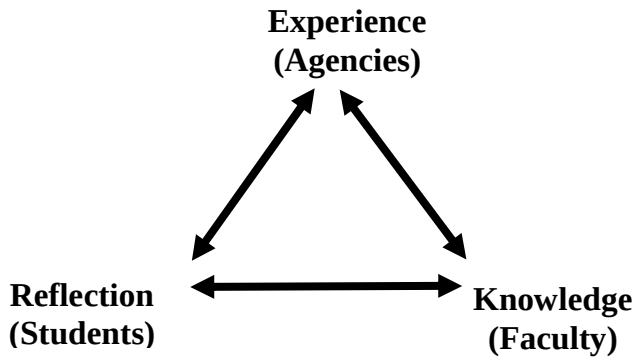

Figure 1.3. The triangle of relationship.

McCarthy's (2003) synthesis of the concepts, partners, and relationships of service-learning provides the conceptual framework for the researcher's review of the literature (see Appendixes A, B, C, D). The researcher believes that this conceptual framework is a significant pedagogical tool for integrating service-learning into undergraduate students' curricula for a number of reasons. First, unlike other service-learning models (e.g., Cone & Harris, 1996; Delve, Mintz & Stewart, 1990) which focus intensively on students at the expense of other important partners (e.g., faculty members and community members), McCarthy's framework counts for the essential components, partners, and relationships of service-learning programs.

Additionally, McCarthy's (2003) framework is a practical and realistic model. In other words, it does not advocate one ideal way of incorporating service-learning into the academic curricula. Rather, it demonstrates understanding of the unique nature of institutions of higher education and encourages them to implement service-learning programs according to their own goals and the needs of their local communities. Moreover, McCarthy's conceptual framework is an interactive model. Diagramming this conceptual framework in overlapping triangles illustrates the mutual and interdependent relationships among the components and partners. Furthermore, it is a motivating and welcoming pedagogical framework for all the participants. Specifically, it entails what hooks (1994) called "authentic help" where those who provide help do not presume superiority or predomination over those being helped. Rather, McCarthy's conceptual framework suggests that all the involved partners are equally important.

Chapter Two

Review Of Literature

What are the key conceptual underpinnings of academic service-learning? Who are the central partners in academic service-learning and how can they establish meaningful programs? What kind of relationships should characterize campus/community partnership in academic service-learning?

The purpose of this chapter, a review of literature, is to provide answers to the above noted questions by presenting an "objective" review of the relevant literature. McCarthy's (2003) synthesis of the concepts, partners, and relationships of academic service-learning provides the framework for the researcher's review of the literature.

The first section of this chapter introduces and defines the key concepts of academic service-learning, including: knowledge, experience, and reflection. This section establishes the theoretical foundation of academic service-learning. The next section focuses on the central partners—students, faculty, and agencies—in academic service-learning, examining their roles in establishing meaningful courses. This section provides insights into the major responsibilities and challenges of each partner in the process of integrating service-learning into the curriculum of undergraduate students. The last section explores the nature of the relationships among the main partners and highlights the characteristics of the ideal relationships that should characterize campus/community partnership in academic service-learning.

Concepts

Knowledge.

According to McCarthy's (2003) framework, the "Concept of Triangles," the key concepts of service-learning are knowledge, experience, and reflection. Knowledge can be defined as the facts and information students already know as well as what they learn in the context of experiential learning (McCarthy, 2003; Washington Internship Institute, 2004). Many scholars argued that there is a gap between conventional curricular content in higher education and the need of society for citizens with new skills (Association of American Colleges, 1991; Boyer, 1987). This gap exists in the lack of connectedness between theory taught in classrooms and its application in real-life situations. These scholars further explained that this lack of connectedness prevents students from connecting classroom learning to their personal lives, and hinders their engagement in public issues.

Whitehead (1929) contended that traditional educational processes lead to "inert knowledge"—knowledge that is memorized but not used when the learner faces real-life challenges. Inert knowledge enables students to pass tests, but is less likely to be used as a tool for continuous learning, problem-solving, or action (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Whitehead, 1929). Dewey (1933) differentiated between information which is merely saved in memory and knowledge that is truly understood, noting that educators often assume that students comprehend the subject matter whereas they just saved it in their memories. He contended that without a deep understanding of the subject matter, we cannot assume that learning occurred. Understanding academic materials refers to the learner's ability to relate the already known information to new situations (Dewey, 1933;

Eyler & Giles, 1999). Dewey asserted that unless students become able to apply already known material to new situations, this knowledge would be useless. Similarly, Eyler and Giles (1999) highlighted the importance of understanding the subject matter by noting that learners find meaning in the material which they understand. They further explained that understanding cannot be detached from active use of information that provides students with opportunities to interrogate presumptions and modify the way they think about the subject matter. They pointed out, "Acting and thinking cannot be severed; knowledge is always embedded in context, and understanding is in the connections" (p. 66). The inseparable relationship between thinking and acting is also emphasized by Whitehead (1994), "We cannot think first and act afterwards. From the moment of birth we are immersed in action, and can only fitfully guide it by taking thought" (p. 223).

A fundamental barrier to transforming knowledge to new situations is attributed to the fact that knowledge entails an interaction between the learner and the context in which learning occurs. To get over that barrier, students should learn in rich contexts, such as sophisticated simulations or community settings. Additionally, students should be challenged in their reflection to think of the meaning and use of what they are learning (Eyler, 1993). Other experiential theorists explained that knowledge which is used to solve unfamiliar problems is most likely learned in a setting where it is used as a problem-solving tool (Dewey, 1933; Freire, 2000; Whitehead, 1994). Similarly, Eyler and Giles (1999) noted that "knowledge is not organized in discrete bits, but is connected to a complex network of principles, concepts, and other factors" (p. 65). Based on this argument, they contended that acquiring information in rich experiential and problem-solving contexts helps students apply it to new situations.

Cognitive scientists noted that students seldom apply knowledge learned in classroom practices to new situations (Bransford, 1993). Both cognitive scientists and experiential theorists attributed the difficulty to developing "knowledge in use" (Schön, 1995) to the decontextualized nature of most classroom instruction. To overcome this barrier, they suggested that learning takes place in complex contexts and the "active construction of knowledge." They maintained that frequent attempts to solve similar problems, continuous challenge to previous conceptions, and support as well as encouragement to apply what was learned lead to transferring knowledge to new situations. In other words, such models of instruction shift students learning from memory to action (Schön, 1993; Bransford & Vye, 1989; Resnick, 1987a). In the same context, Ewell (1997) highlighted the role of instruction in helping students connect theory to practice when he defined "remarking instruction" as approaches that emphasize application and experience.

In order to urge students to use what they learn about sophisticated social problems, they should be provided with opportunities to examine these issues and use the acquired information in various settings. Based on this view, Eyler and Giles (1999) noted that service-learning is a perfect way to experience the complexities of social issues. In other words, service-learning avoids the problem of inert knowledge by involving students in real problems in the real world. Eyler and Giles maintained that in such learning conditions, "Concepts become tools for action rather than words to memorize, and memories are anchored in emotionally powerful experiences" (p. 92). Similarly, Jarosz and Johnson-Bogart (1996) argued that connecting civics to education

produces forms of applied knowledge that raise students' social awareness and increase their motivation to learn.

Based on the findings of extensive quantitative and qualitative data collection, Eyler and Giles (1999) concluded that service-learning provides students with opportunities to be engaged in authentic learning in complex community contexts. It also deepens students' understanding of social issues and enables them to apply theory taught in classrooms into practice in other relevant situations so that students feel "inside" the subject matter rather than being indifferent and passive "observers." Additionally, they noted that students' understanding of information through service-learning is "multidimensional" moving students from what Anderson (1982) called "knowing what" to "knowing how." That is, service-learning enables students to better understand and play active roles in their world.

Experience.

> Service-learning is the various pedagogies that link community service and the academic study so that each strengthens the other. The basic theory of service-learning is Dewey's: the interaction of knowledge and skills with experience is key to learning. Students learn best not by reading the Great Books in a closed room but by opening the doors and windows of experience. Learning starts with a problem and continues with the application of increasingly complex ideas and increasingly sophisticated skills to increasingly complicated problems. (Ehrlich, 1996, pp. xi-xii)

Service-learning is a form of experiential learning, which makes deliberate application of students' experiences by integrating them into the curriculum (Carver, 1997). Dewey (1916) highlighted the significance of experience in learning, arguing that all genuine learning comes out through experience. Dewey contended that experiential learning is essential to civic education, noting that students develop the skills required to participate in a democracy through experiential learning. Indeed, experience is a core concept in service-learning. According to Dewey (1938), experience involves two principles, interaction and continuity. By interaction he meant that students' experiences result from their interactions with their environment. Dewey posited that students' experiences are affected by "internal" factors related to students and "objective" ones associated with the environment. Similarly, Ross and Nisbett (1991) noted that the way students perceive and react to their surrounding environment is influenced by their thoughts, beliefs, behavior, and prior experiences. As for the second principle, continuity, Dewey (1938) noted, "Every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after" (p. 35). He also argued that the habits people develop from past experiences influence their future experiences.

Dewey (1938) called for combining experience with conventional teaching methods to better prepare students for real-life work. Additionally, he named the learning which is acquired outside the borders of the subject matter, "collateral" and asserted that the substance of student learning occurs both collaterally and through traditional curriculum. Dewey posited that experiential learning is superior to conventional teaching methods because of the role experience plays in students' development (the principle of continuity), in addition to its potential of engaging students' in their environment (the principle of interaction).

With regard to the role of service experience in promoting undergraduate students' civic engagement, Boyer (1987) highlighted the importance of:

> an undergraduate experience that helps students go beyond their private interests, learn about the world around them, develop a sense of civic and social responsibility and discover how they, as individuals, can contribute to the larger society of which they are a part. (pp. 67-68)

Overall, the educational value of experience is emphasized by experiential theorists as well as cognitive scientists. For example, Kolb (1984) contended that learning is an ongoing process that is grounded in experience. Likewise, Ewell (1997) argued that direct experience strongly structures people's understanding. Similarly, Dewey (1938) asserted that experience is at the heart of education and that student experience is both a process of interaction with a learning environment and an outcome which results from these interactions.

Reflection.

Reflection is an essential component of effective service-learning (Carney, 2004; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gwin & Mabry, 1998; Jacoby, 1996; McCarthy, 2003; Mintez & Hesser, 1996; Mulvaney, 2005). It is often described as the hyphen in service-learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, 2001). Cannon, Cupito, Lagoo, Maggard, Parkins, and Payne (2006) defined reflection as a bridge that links what students learn in the classroom to the community service and activism they do outside the classroom. Indeed, this definition emphasizes the role of reflection in connecting service to learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, 2001; Honnet & Poulsen, 1989) and theory to practice (Eyler & Giles, 1999). It also acknowledges the student active participation in service-learning programs, which has been emphasized by numerous scholars (e.g., Cone, Kiesa, & Longo, 2006; Zlotkowski, Longo, & Williams, 2006).

Other scholars defined reflection as "the ability to step back and ponder one's own experience, to abstract from it some meaning or knowledge to other experiences" (Hutchings & Wutzorff, 1988, p. 15). These scholars argued that the capability for reflection is what transforms experience into learning. This definition suggests that reflection enables students to apply already learned knowledge to new situations which many experiential theorists (e.g., Dewey, 1933; Whitehead, 1994) and cognitive scientists (e.g., Bransford, 1993; Schön, 1995) considered critical for developing applied knowledge. Whether a course is service or content based, ultimately, reflection is crucial to accomplish student learning and developmental goals (Morton, 1996).

The rationale behind reflection in service-learning has been addressed by many scholars. For example, Toole and Toole (1995) explained that reflection helps students

prepare for and learn effectively from service experience. Acosta (1995) pointed out that reflection focuses students' attention, and provides a space for observation, inquiry, conjecture, and self-awareness. Other scholars argued that reflection can help students become aware that not only does the community benefit from their service, but they also benefit from their service-learning engagement. Additionally, reflection sets a context for students' experiences in broader social dynamics and power relations (Boyle-Baise & Sleeter, 2000; McCarthy, 2003).

Eyler and Giles (1999) pointed out that reflection promotes students' learning by linking concepts and theories to their community service. They maintained that if the aim is to motivate students to go beyond mere understanding of the current situation, critical reflection should be encouraged. In order for reflection to be critical, students should consider questions that systematically examine power, history, and agency in addition to thinking about previous experiences (Freire & Macedo, 1996; King, 2004). For Eyler and Giles (1999), critical reflection entails challenging students to analyze the way society is arranged and the assumptions that frame students' perceptions. In this regard, Brunner (1994) emphasized the need to "rupture the codes" (p. 7) of traditional thinking. Kerdemen (1998) noted that reflection involves a component of "defamiliarization" in which students become situated in the "circular interplay between the familiar and the strange" (p. 248). That is, what was unusual becomes normal and what was once ordinary turns questionable. In this process, uncertainty and skepticism are introduced into situations where students used to feel safe and comfortable. King (2004) extended the same idea noting that students' service experiences lead them to recognize and comprehend situations that were previously vague and remote from their own world.

Although these situations perplex students Dewey, (1933) argued that such a perplexity is frequently the starting point for learning to take place. Additionally, critical reflection has been found to be central to the process of perspective transformation and leads to transformational learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

There is a growing body of literature that supports the educational value of reflection. The findings of research suggested that reflection has a positive impact on students' moral development (Boss, 1994), enhances students' critical thinking, which is required for solving complex problems, connects the personal to the academic (Eyler & Giles, 1999), and promotes a greater understanding of the beneficiaries of the service (Greene & Diehm, 1995). Engaging students in a continuous review and commentary "structured" or "guided" reflection has been found to be a critical element of the service-learning experience because it helps students learn about social and political institutions, and about issues related to their service experiences (Buchen, 1995; Eyler & Giles, 1997; Gibboney, 1996; Goldberg, Richburg, & Wood, 2006; King, 2004; Krans & Rourke, 1994; Markus, Howard & King, 1993). Further, guided reflection deepens students' knowledge and enables them to self-correct their misconceptions (Goldberg et al., 2006). Similarly, Bradley (1997) concluded, "When coupled with structured reflection, the service experience can be the source of the kind of cognitive challenge that may encourage and invite changes in student attitudes and perceptions associated with the service site" (p. 161). Reflection has also been found vital to establish a habit of questioning, and connect experience with the subject matter (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Structured Reflection can be implemented according to various models: individual, group, oral, and written (Cone & Harris, 1996; Jacoby, 1996). Common

activities for reflection include journals (Albert, 1996; Cone & Harris, 1996; Eyler, 2001; Morton, 1996; Goldberg et al., 2006; Oates & Leavitt, 2003), daily logs, simulations, focused conversations (Sterling, 2007), small group discussions (Eyler, 2001; McCarthy, 1996; Morton, 1996; Scheuermann, 1996), dialogues, presentations, projects, research reports (Albert, 1996), artistic expression (Albert, 1996; Eyler, 2001; Scheuermann, 1996), videos (McCarthy, 1996), and papers (Eyler, 2001; Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthiah, 2004; Goldberg et al., 2006; Morton, 1996).

Some attempts have been made to offer guidelines for designing effective reflection activities in service-learning courses. For example, Eyler and Giles (1999) proposed a framework which included five elements of sound refection practices: explicit connection between course content and service experience; continuity of reflection activities before, during, and after the service experience; context of applying theory to real-life situations; challenging students to get out of their comfort zones and reexamine their assumptions; and coaching as well as providing emotional support to students. Bringle and Hatcher (1999) presented another set of guidelines for designing successful reflection activities in service-learning classes. They noted that reflection should tie the service experience to the course content and learning objectives. Reflection should also be planned with respect to description, expectations, and criteria for evaluating the activity. Additionally, reflection should take place constantly during the course, and that faculty members should provide feedback to students. Finally, Bringle and Hatcher noted that reflection should encompass opportunities for students to examine, understand, and change their personal values. Significantly, both models highlight the importance of

regularity, connection between experience and course content, and challenging as well as supporting students during their service experiences.

Empirical evidence denoted that involving students in multiple types of reflection is better than having them participate in only one form of reflection. The results of a study that assessed the relationship between specific student learning outcomes (i.e., critical thinking abilities, civic attitudes) and particular course variables (i.e., frequency of reflective activities, variety of written reflective activities) in service-learning courses, indicated that students who took part in both continuous reflection (e.g., journals) and summative reflection (e.g., presentation, final paper, report) exhibited higher gains in personal values and civic attitudes than those who participated in only one type of reflection (Mabry, 1998).

Feeling detached from and disgusted by the people students meet in their service experiences is normal, especially for students new to service courses. However, these feelings may lead students to recognize the complexity of social problems and reconsider the governing rules in society (Eyler & Giles, 1999). In order to attain the full educational value of reflection, the climate of the classroom should encourage students to express their feelings of frustration, confusion, and shock. On the other hand, Eyler and Giles (1999) noted that settings where tension is not addressed and honest discussions are discouraged may strengthen presumptions and stereotypes. One way to establish a safe and an encouraging classroom climate is to allow students to make comments or ask questions anonymously by writing them on cards.

It is also beneficial to set rules for interactive reflective activities. These rules may include emphasis on mutual respect by giving every student the opportunity to share their

perspectives, agreeing or disagreeing with each other's opinions without judging them, and using first-person to express one's views (Albert, 1996; Eyler & Giles, 1999).

In general, the combination of knowledge, experience, and reflection can further students' understanding of the core causes of social problems (Jacoby, 2003). It is worth noting that the literature on the theoretical underpinnings of service-learning supports the conceptual framework employed in this thesis research, namely that knowledge, experience, and reflection are mutually dependent and interconnected. The connection between knowledge and experience is emphasized in Kolb's (1984) definition of learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experiences" (p. 38). Likewise, reflection is linked to knowledge as it is a central factor in "the discovery and internalization of knowledge" (Sterling, 2007, p. 339). In a parallel manner, reflection is also linked to experience. Specifically, Kolb (1984) defined experiential learning as learning through action, or learning by doing. Yet, he asserted that experience alone is not enough to guarantee that learning occurs. He rather noted that there is a need to integrate the new experiences with previous ones through the course of reflection, and affirmed that reflection is the very thing that turns experiences into experiential learning. In essence, Eyler and Giles (1999) contended that knowledge, experience, and reflection ultimately alter both the way students address complex issues and the way they construct the expertise required for examining the causes and the potential solutions of a given problem. Thus, engaging students in a learning experience that involves knowledge, experience, and reflection can positively inform the way they examine and handle challenges in their communities.

Partners

Service-learning is distinct from other educational pedagogies in that it cannot be implemented within the boundaries of a classroom, a discipline, or a campus. Rather, it entails a range of partnerships within and across the institution (Jacoby, 2003). In essence, Bailis (2000) noted, "Service-learning and partnerships are two sides of the same coin" (p. 5). McCarthy's (2003) framework identifies students, faculty members, and community-based agency staff as the main partners in service-learning programs. This section examines how these partners can contribute to the establishment of effective courses.

Students.

> Civic education requires not only that students implement faculty and community agendas, but also that they have a substantive opportunity to shape those agendas. Students must be partners in service-learning in order for it to realize its full civic and academic potential. (Zlotkowski, Longo, & Williams, 2006, p. 6)

For a long time, students have been viewed by colleges and universities as passive consumers rather than producers of their education (Cone, Kiesa, & Longo, 2006; Zlotkowski et al., 2006). In contrast, there is a growing body of literature that perceives students as agents of social change on their campuses and in their communities. The advocates of this vision (e.g., Cone, 2006; Zlotkowski et al., 2006) contended that students bring assets and unique perspectives to the educational institutions exactly as faculty members, staff, and community members do, and thus they should be perceived as knowledge producers, and allowed to participate equally within institutions of higher education. Likewise, many scholars considered student active participation as a necessary condition for high quality service-learning programs, as they noted, "Quality service-

learning, by definition, expects and requires student voice, student leadership, and student empowerment" (Archer, Galeano, Hanauer, Hickey, Lasanta, & Young, 2006, p. 147).

Indeed, this vision is consistent with current research on the teaching-learning process. For instance, Ewell (1997) differentiated between knowledge based on recall and profound types of understanding by noting that in the latter, learners are not recipients of knowledge. Rather, they play active roles in acquiring their learning. Within the paradigm of experiential learning, many scholars (e.g., Morgan & Streb, 2001; Zlotkowski, et al., 2006) argued that unless the circle of academic service-learning expands to include students themselves, it will not accomplish its full academic and social impact. Accordingly, they asserted the need to rethink the roles students can and ought to play in institutionalizing service-learning in institutions of higher education.

Not surprisingly, student leaders opposed the notion that college students are "apathetic, self-centered" (Cone, 2006) and argued that college students can play active roles on their campuses and initiate positive change in their communities. In particular, 30 student leaders from campuses all over the United States spent a week in Chicago in 2004 sharing their initiatives in impacting campus-community relationships. After that week-retreat, five student leaders—Tara Germond (University of Rhode Island), Ellen Love (Brown University), Liz Moran (University of Illinois, Springfield), Sherita Moses (Langston University), and Stephanie Raill (Macalester College)—in the (Raise Your Voice) Campaign under the auspices of Campus Compact, an American association devoted to fulfilling the civic mission of higher education, wrote a statement that summarized their discussions in Chicago and reflected their visions on college students' civic engagement. In this document, they presented a conceptual framework for

promoting students' leadership in impacting societal change. This frame consists of three components: voice, action for change, and reflection.

According to these student leaders, voice is central to civic engagement and a critical element of social change. They explained that voice equips students with the required skills to initiate dialogue with their peers. It also helps connect them with influential people, such as legislators and administrators. Using voice means expressing one's ideas and views to advance understanding and/or bring change in a community or in an institution. They further noted that exercising voice enables students to change the resignation and helplessness some students may feel. Additionally, student leaders pointed out that voice is a crucial factor for students' activism because it is the foundation of a democratic society. Thus, unless students learn the proper ways of expressing opinions, there is a risk that they may be passive spectators or mere consumers of the democratic process. They also may be unable to practise democracy and have no political influence. Furthermore, student leaders noted that voice entails active listening in the sense that students become receptive to other people's ideas and be willing to change by others' voices.

The second component of student leaders' framework is action for change, which means acting in a way that brings a particular change in a community or in an institution. The student leaders posited that cohesiveness and effective groundwork are essential to successful actions. By cohesiveness they mean that an action has to be "sustained" and "strategic." In other words, individual actions ought to be linked to others' actions by a common goal. In order for students' actions to be effective, these actions must be well-designed and accomplished by using collaborative skills to empower others to work

toward a specific aim. As for the effective groundwork, student leaders noted that action should be guided by the use of voice and collected information. They pointed out that talking with and listening to other people can help students choose a course of action and urge people of power to collaborate with them.

According to student leaders' framework, reflection means that students should think of the extent to which their actions have been effective in bringing social change and whether their actions reflect their values. They noted that reflection involves two fundamental elements, self- and group reflection as well as critical examination of strengths and weaknesses. They further explained that all civic engagement projects should involve opportunities for individual and group reflection on the process and its results. They pointed out that individual reflection enables students to understand their way of addressing their objectives, their individual and collective values, and their role in the success or failure of a project. Group reflection provides students with an overall feedback on a certain project. By critical reflection, student leaders emphasized that reflection should include honest analytical examination of the strengths and weaknesses of students' actions, and inform their future steps.

Significantly, student leaders stressed the connectedness of the three components: voice, action for change, and reflection. That is, they noted that reflection helps students learn from their actions and be aware of their values and beliefs. Accordingly, students can share these values and beliefs with others by raising their voices and working to meet them through action for change. Moreover, they explained that unless students use their voice before taking an action, they may lose others' willingness to provide support and co-operation.

Research on service-learning has suggested that courses which integrate the three components of student leadership—voice, action for change, and reflection—result in both more effective community service and enhancement of students' academic learning (Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray, 2001). Other findings indicated that service-learning has a considerable impact on promoting students' civic engagement when students have meaningful responsibilities, are assigned stimulating tasks, assist in planning the projects, and participate in the decision-making process (Morgan & Streb, 2001).

In general, student leadership in service-learning projects contributes to their civic engagement and the quality of their service-learning experience as a whole. For example, Morgan and Streb (2001) contended that in order for service-learning to effectively promote students' civic engagement, students must be engaged in leadership roles. In other words, they should have a voice and be in charge of leading the projects themselves. Based on the results of their empirical study, Morgan and Streb concluded, "By having a voice in service-learning, students are becoming more educated, more tolerant, and more active. Service-learning can indeed build better citizens" (p. 167). Other researchers confirmed that students' voices and leadership are critical factors in establishing a permanent and vital service-learning experience (Beyer, 1996; Dewey, 1938; Melchior, 1998; Morgan, 1995) and in making learning authentic to students (Beyer, 1996; Dewey, 1938). It is even argued that programs in which students do not take leadership roles are not real service-learning programs (Wade, 1997). In essence, student voice and leadership are key elements of effective service-learning programs.

Examples of the roles students can play to connect their academic subjects with the needs of their communities include serving as staff members, site coordinators, and

facilitators. They can also act as trainers—training and empowering less experienced peers (Zlotkowski et al., 2006). Moreover, students can collaborate with faculty members to define, plan, and implement service courses (Cone et al., 2006; Zlotkowski et al., 2006).

Faculty.

Many scholars (e.g., Bringle, Games, & Malloy, 1999; Checkoway, 2001; Fairweather, 1996; Finkelstein, Seal, & Schuster, 1998) asserted that faculty involvement and commitment is essential to applying and institutionalizing new curriculum and pedagogy in higher education institutions. Specifically, Pribbenow (2005) explained that service-learning is an innovative pedagogy, and thereby it requires faculty participation and commitment. In this respect, Bringle and Hatcher (1998) stated that service-learning in its most typical form is linked to the curriculum, which is controlled by the faculty, and a responsibility usually referred to as "faculty ownership" (Zlotkowski, et al., 2006). Eyler and Giles (1999) noted that quality service-learning entails: meaningful and adaptive placement; connection between the subject matter, community concerns, and experience; critical reflection; and preparation for diversity and conflict. For the most part, these criteria almost always require direct faculty involvement.

The driving force of faculty interest in service-learning varies. Some view it as a means of promoting students' civic engagement. Within this context, Palmer and Standerfer (2004) contended that civic education is one of the most gracious roles of teaching. Others argued that it is a way of reinvigorating the civic mission of higher education. Yet another group of faculty perceived service-learning as a solution to the limitations of traditional models of teaching in higher education (Howard, 1998).

In conventional classroom practices, the instructor acts as the knowledge expert who decides what is important for students to learn, and thus controls the learning activities. In such models, students are perceived as knowledge deficient, and hence they should follow the instructor's prescriptions. Accordingly, instructors are placed as active

transmitters of knowledge while students become passive recipients of that knowledge (Clark, Croddy, Hays, & Philips, 1997; Howard, 1998; Zivi, 1997). Moreover, in these traditional types of teaching, learning is "individualistic," "privatized," and "self-oriented" (Howard, 1993, 1998). That is, students learn for their own sake and in isolation from others.

To avoid the shortcomings of the traditional pedagogies, many scholars (e.g., Aquino, 2005; Berry, 2005; Gould, 2004; hooks, 1994) called for adopting a holistic vision of education. In this vein, Aquino (2005) pointed out that the holistic approach is a new vision of education that takes into account not only students' minds, but their spirits and bodies as well. Additionally, Aquino emphasized the need to:

> shift the learning paradigm from instruction to construction and discovery; from linear to hypermedia learning; from teacher-centered to learner-centered; from rote memory skills to critical thinking and problem solving; from school learning to life-long learning, from learning as tedious to learning as fun; from one-size-fits-all to customized learning; from teacher as transmitter to teacher as facilitator. (p. 255)

In a parallel manner, Baxter Magolda (1999) highlighted the need for a constructivist-development pedagogy that links "teaching to students' ways of making meaning in order to create the conditions to promote growth to more complex meaning-making" (p. 23). Significantly, the basis of this pedagogy includes endorsing students as knowers, placing learning in students' experiences, and describing learning as mutually constructing meaning.

The hands on nature of service-learning answers the call of educational reformers that students should become agents of their own learning (Waldstein & Reiher, 2001). As Berry (2005) argued, service-learning provides students with opportunities to be active in

their own learning. Meaningful integration of service-learning requires understanding of the learning aims of service-learning, transforming classroom practices, and changing the roles of students as well as instructors. Specifically, students should be responsible for, and play active role in their own learning. Instructors should act as guides or facilitators (Clark, et al., 1997; Zivi, 1997).

Unlike conventional pedagogy, the pedagogy of service-learning is based on connectedness. Berry (2005) illustrated this connection by describing service-learning as "a relationship between knower and doer, a relationship between the knower and the known, a relationship between the student and society, a relationship between student, faculty, and subject. All in a dynamic ecology" (p. 64). Moreover, service-learning encourages social responsibility and commitment to the common good (Howard, 1998). In general, service-learning ensures active, in depth, and co-operative learning (Aquino, 2005) and has great implications for education and the development of identity and values (Berry, 2005).

Faculty can contribute to meaningful service-learning programs by playing various roles. In this respect, McCarthy (2003) pointed out that integrating service-learning into the curriculum requires faculty members to reshape their classes. In other words, they should rethink their teaching methods, curriculum content and structures, and assessment tools. For example, they are encouraged to be flexible and strike a balance between lecturing and allowing students to raise questions and inquire about their experiences at their service-learning sites. They should also choose course contents which match the kind of service students do. Additionally, faculty members ought to initiate assessment tools that can accurately trace students' personal development and measure

the advancement of their analytical and critical thinking skills resulting from participation in service-learning programs.

Within the same context, Zivi (1997) suggested that instructors can encourage students to use the main themes that emerge from their service experiences to frame their analysis of the assigned readings. Additionally, they can facilitate learning by raising questions that urge students to think thoroughly of the course readings and assess their experiences as well. Instructors can also facilitate learning by modeling a way of thinking that links the course concepts to community issues. Furthermore, they can choose evaluation techniques that push students to examine the relation between course content and service experience. Examples of other roles faculty can play include: planning courses or programs that incorporate concepts of citizenship and social responsibility, facilitating reflection in such ways that help students draw meaning from their community experience and enable them to connect their experiences to the subject matter, guiding students through their experiences and strengthening their relationships with community agencies, and involving agency staff in the curriculum by offering them opportunities to be co-educators (Canadian Alliance for Community Service-Learning, 2007). By adopting these practices, faculty members can contribute to the establishment of effective service-learning programs.

Faculty members encounter major challenges when implementing service-learning courses. The results of some studies showed that time pressure, logistic requirements, and institutional barriers, such as lack of funding were among the obstacles facing faculty who employ the service-learning pedagogy (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002; Astin, Antonio, & Cress, 1997; Campus Compact, 2003; Hammond, 1994; Ward, 1996).

Structuring the service experience in a way that ensures its practicality, pedagogical integrity, and its value to both students and the community is another major challenge confronting faculty who aspire to teach community-based courses (Strand et al., 2003).

There is a general consensus that faculty needs institutional support for implementing service-learning programs (Chickering & Stamm, 2002). More importantly, the findings of other research revealed that institutional support is a key factor that determines faculty participation in service-learning (Driscoll, Holland, Gelmon, & Kerrigan, 1996; Holland, 1997). Examples of this support include modifying the institution's policies with regard to faculty promotion, tenure, and hiring in a way that encourages faculty members to undertake service-learning (Holland, 1997). Establishing training programs for developing non-traditional syllabi and pedagogy, reallocating resources, and reexamining the faculty reward system are additional examples of an institutional commitment to service-learning (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Ikeda, 1999; O'Meara, 2005).

Ultimately, the critical importance of faculty in institutionalizing service-learning in institutions of higher education is emphasized by many scholars. For example, Amy Driscoll (2000) affirmed that the future continuity and progress of service-learning depends mostly on the faculty and the institutional support and reward for their effort. She justified her view by noting that faculty members play significant roles which influence the future of service-learning. Specifically, Driscoll noted that faculty members design and teach courses, direct the curriculum, develop and maintain relationships with students, and administer and make many program decisions. Even more importantly, other researchers argued that it is quite difficult to establish successful civic programs

without faculty's strong commitment and active support to those programs (Antonio et al., 2000; Caputo, 2005). Similarly, Stanton (1994) emphasized the critical role of faculty in achieving the benefits associated with service-learning as they help students comprehend the relevance of academic knowledge and skills to the social issues and civic life. Furthermore, faculty play a critical role in campus-community partnerships. Based on the findings of their study, Sandy and Holland (2006) reported that community partners consider the role of faculty essential to their ongoing collaboration with institutions of higher education. Accordingly, Sandy and Holland concluded that the absence of the role of faculty from the campus-community collaboration and students' experiences would negatively affect service-learning projects.

Agencies.

Recent literature on service-learning has addressed campus-community partnerships as related to attempts to provide students with service-learning experiences and evaluate the impact of these experiences (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Dorado & Giles, 2004; Jacoby, 2003; Jones, 2003). University-community partnerships bring together people who belong to different worlds (Dougherty, 1992). Bringle et al. (1999) illustrated this difference as "academicians [who] view knowledge as residing in specialized experts, including disciplinary peers who are geographically dispersed and community residents [who] view knowledge as being pluralistic and well distributed among their neighbors" (pp. 9-10).

Research on successful service-learning classes highlighted the importance and respect for the contribution of the community-based agencies staff (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002). Indeed, agency staff can play invaluable roles in establishing effective service-learning courses. For instance, they can provide information pertaining to the needs of their organizations. They can also collaborate with academic institutions on selecting service sites that respond to genuine community needs, and learning objectives for students as well. Because of their knowledge and experience, community agency staff can be responsible for holding orientation or training sessions to prepare students for dynamic participation. Additionally, agency staff can supervise students during their service experience and provide feedback on students' sense of responsibility and observed learning outcomes throughout the service experience. Ideally, community organization members should be prepared to serve as co-educators with faculty members (Canadian Alliance for Community Service-Learning, 2007).

Empirical evidence on community perspectives on long-term collaboration with institutions of higher education confirmed the above noted roles. For example, the findings of a recent study by Sandy and Holland (2006) indicated that community partners view their role as co-teachers and that educating students is a primary motivation for them to participate in service-learning projects. Furthermore, agency staff expressed their desires to be in direct contact with faculty and to participate in designing the curriculum, placing students, and assessing the service-learning experience so as to be able to contribute effectively to service-learning endeavors.

McCarthy (2003) noted that students usually join community agencies with great eagerness and willingness to provide as much help as they can, but they lack experience. Thus, she encouraged agency staff members to devote some of their time to guide and direct students. Yet, community partners face several challenges while performing these roles. Examples of these challenges include: conflicts with the academic calendar, and the university's logistics as well as understanding students' learning goals (Sandy & Holland, 2006).

All in all, strong campus-community partnership is highly emphasized as an essential characteristic of sound service-learning programs. For example, Jacoby (2003) noted that the way to promote service-learning, achieve its fullest potentialities, and guarantee its future is through establishing and maintaining an array of authentic, democratic, reciprocal partnerships. The same idea is well articulated by Bailis (2000), "You can take service-learning to the next level by taking partnerships to the next level" (p. 3). Even more significantly, Sandy and Holland (2006) contended that without

campus-community partnership, it is hardly possible to establish service-learning experiences.

Overall, literature on campus-community partnership emphasized the significant roles of students, faculty, and community partners in establishing effective service-learning programs. Noteworthy, this view aligns with the conceptual framework employed in this thesis. That is, McCarthy (2003) affirmed the necessity of the presence of the central partners of academic service-learning. She argued that the absence of any of these partners leads to the collapse of the "triangle of partners," and consequently to the failure of service-learning. McCarthy maintained that successful service-learning programs require mutual participation from its central partners. The section that follows will shed light on the relationships that should characterize effective community-campus partnerships.

Relationships

Institutions of higher education often treat communities as "pockets of needs, laboratories for experimentation, or passive recipients of expertise" (Bringle et al., 1999, p. 9). In other words, they usually focus on the negative sides of the community—its needs and problems (Eyler, 2001). Mcknight and Kretzman (1997) challenged this vision and suggested an asset-based community model in which the positive aspects of the community are highlighted. They argued that using this model as a foundation for campus-community partnerships is a means to help students realize that the way an issue is shaped affects what they observe. Cruz and Giles (2000) pointed out that this perspective shifts the view of the community from a "deficit" model that concentrates on the weaknesses of the community to a resourceful one that focuses on its strengths. They recommended using this model because it considers mutual assets and benefits to both the campus and the community.

More specifically, service-learning programs are frequently perceived as "benefits bestowed *on* the community *by* the university" (London, 2001, p. 10). Accordingly, it is common for the community organizations to view the neighboring institutions of higher education as detached from the rest of the community and to suspect academicians' intentions (Enos & Morton, 2003). To gain community trust, institutions of higher learning should be careful in interacting with community members so that they do not feel that they are being studied or humiliated (Long, 2002). Within the same context, London (2001) argued:

> To dispense with the traditional *outreach* paradigm that seeks to provide services to the community, *on behalf of* the community. What is needed instead is an engagement model that looks for opportunities to partner *with* communities to

> meet collective needs. To be effective, the process must be reciprocal: it must serve the community while establishing learning opportunities and a framework for academic research on the part of the institution. (p. 13)

Reciprocity.

Reciprocity between institutions of higher education and community partners is recognized as a core principle in ideal service-learning practices (Honnet & Poulsen, 1989; Sigmon, 1979, 1996). For example, Sandy and Holland, (2006) noted that reciprocity is a hallmark of service-learning projects. Further, Kendall (1990) argued that all partners in service-learning learn from the experience, and hence all of them should determine what is to be learned. Likewise, Torres (2000) asserted, "In true partnerships, all participants will both teach, learn, exchange resources, and reap mutual benefits" (p. 3).

Reciprocal partnerships benefit both the campus and the community. Cone et al. (2006) put it simply, "When these [campus-community] partnerships are truly reciprocal, they are both effective and mutually beneficial" (p. 12). Bringle and Hatcher (2002) illustrated this mutual benefit by noting that effective service-learning classes demonstrate reciprocity between the campus and the community. Specifically, the service activity is planned to meet the learning objectives of the course as well as community needs identified by community agencies. For students, Jacoby (1996) explained that reciprocal relationships with agency staff enable them to develop an increasing sense of belonging and responsibility as members of a bigger community. Reciprocity also allows the community to be responsible for their own needs and empowers them to develop means and relationships to meet these needs. Therefore, Kendall (1990) explained that

reciprocity leads to a sense of mutual responsibility and respect among the participants in service-learning projects.

Indeed, reciprocity distinguishes service-learning from other conventional approaches to service. In this regard, Jacoby (2003) noted that in many traditional paradigms, an individual or a group owns resources and they share them with another individual or a group whom they presume lacks resources. Jacoby maintained that reciprocity distinguishes service-learning from the traditional idea of volunteerism which is based on the assumption that a more efficient person comes to help a less efficient one. That is, volunteers frequently help other people to solve their problems without wholly grasping the situation or its causes. Service-learning, by contrast, urges students to work "*with*" others rather than "*for*" them (p. 4). In this way, service-learning is a philosophy that entails intensive efforts to move from charity to justice. Karasik (1993) emphasized the importance of reciprocal relationships among all the partners in service-learning projects by noting that in such kinds of relationships, all partners gain more knowledge about themselves and others. Additionally, there is likelihood that the partners will be transformed in the service-learning experience.

Collaboration.

Collaboration is another key principle in campus-community partnerships. Mattessich and Monsey (1992) defined collaboration between institutions of higher education and community as:

> a mutually beneficial and well defined relationship [which] includes a commitment to: a definition of mutual goals; a jointly developed structure and shared responsibility; mutual authority and accountability for success; and sharing not only of responsibilities but also of the rewards. (p. 7)

Torres (2000) emphasized the importance of collaborative relationships between the campus and the community: "Collaboration among a diverse group of stakeholders is a clear example of the 'whole being greater than the sum of its parts. It requires a special tripartite partnership among students, faculty, and the community—solidified by strong, trusting relationships" (p. 13). Indeed, collaboration among service-learning stakeholders can be a tool for achieving equity among them. Jacoby (2003) noted that the notion of equity is profound and goes beyond mere equality among service-learning partners. In this respect, Torres (2000) pointed out that service-learning partners have different kinds of access to social systems and that collaboration among them may change the systems that perpetuate inequity. Equity theory posits that as long as the outcomes are viewed as balanced with the inputs, a relationship becomes acceptable even if the outcomes are unequal (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). Based on this theory, Bringle and Hatcher (2002) argued that campus-community partnership is not required to be entirely equal to be agreeable. Rather, their partnership should be equitable and fair.

Caring & democracy.

In addition to reciprocity, collaboration, and mutual interdependence, caring, reflection, and democracy characterize transformative campus-community partnerships. Skilton-Sylvester and Ewin (2000) contended that individuals can cross the borders that separate campus and community by developing caring relationships and reflecting on those relations. Building democratic relationships is also essential to effective campus-community partnerships because it alters the way institutions of higher learning perceive engagement as "something carried out *on behalf of* the community instead of *in partnership with* the community" (London, 2000, p. 4).

In essence, building relationships is one of the most challenging dimensions of any partnership (Torres, 2000). In other words, initiating and developing relationships entails thoroughly evaluating and communicating information about expected outcomes and costs (Rusbult, 1983). It is also important to document and reveal the outcomes publicly to all partners so that they can understand, evaluate, and appreciate their commitment to such relationships (Baucom, 1987). Additionally, it is critical to have a clear self-awareness and self-disclosure (Duck, 1994). In order to build strong relationships, both the university and the community should have a clear sense of identity and purpose (e.g., mission statements, learning objectives), procedures (e.g., policies, evaluation of student performance), and resources (e.g., facilities, time), and effectively communicate them to each other (Walshok, 1999). Based on the findings of their empirical study, Sandy and Holland (2006) concluded that the sustainability of community partnership with institutions of higher education necessitates an awareness of

their motivation and an understanding of the benefits of the community partners from their own views.

Campus-community partnerships are complex and often challenged by conflicting interests on campus, in the community, or in both of them (Ramaley, 2000a). In other words, institutions of higher education focus on research, publication, and many disciplinary requirements (Torres, 2000) whereas the priority of community-partners is to serve their clients and support their causes (Enos & Morton, 2003). Enos and Morton (2003) asserted that campus-community partnerships have the capacity not only to accomplish particular goals, but also to transform all the involved partners. They noted that these partnerships can be "dynamic, joint creations in which all the people involved create knowledge, transact power, mix personal and institutional interests, and make meaning" (p. 25). In order for campus-community partnerships to be transformative, both the campus and community organizations must realize that they share the same community with common interests, resources, problems, and a common capability to shape one another in deep ways. Enos and Morton maintained that as the partners become aware that they are part of the same community and that they add knowledge and experience, interdependence becomes the basis of their relationship. They concluded that the real test of their common knowledge is their ability for action on the basis of this learning. In other words, whether or not the new constructed knowledge will work for both the campus and the community is what determines the validity of that knowledge.

Significantly, literature on the ideal relationships of campus-community partnership is consistent with the conceptual framework of this thesis research. In other words, McCarthy (2003) emphasized the need for mutual reciprocal and interactive

relationships among the partners of service-learning so that it can fully achieve its educational value. Additionally, diagramming the framework in overlapping triangles illustrates the interdependent relationships which are needed if service-learning is to be effective. In summary, establishing and sustaining solid relationships between institutions of higher education and community members is crucial to increasing the capability of service-learning in promoting students' civic engagement (Long, 2002). Likewise, Zimmerman and Rappaport (1988) suggested that campus-community partnerships will be permanent and significant when each partner contributes meaningfully and effectively to activities that positively affect significant educational and civic campus goals.

Summary

This chapter began with an overview of the key conceptual underpinnings of academic service-learning: knowledge, experience, and reflection. The first section indicated that the three concepts are mutually dependent and interconnected. The second section specified the central partners in academic service-learning and described their major roles and challenges in establishing meaningful programs. The literature suggested that the three partners—students, faculty members, and community agency staff—are equally important and that their presence is critical to establishing successful service-learning programs. The last section explored the nature of the relationships that should characterize campus-community partnerships. Apparently, reciprocal, collaborative, democratic, interdependent, caring, trusting, and respectful relationships are essential for effective campus-community partnerships.

Conclusion

This thesis study intended to respond to the results of many recent research studies which revealed that there is increasing individualism and declining interest in politics and civic engagement among college students (Cone, Cooper, & Hollander, 2001; Hahn, 2001; Levine, 1994; Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1999). In an attempt to provide students with opportunities to be involved in their communities, this thesis explored service-learning as an engaged and critical pedagogy in higher education. Significantly, the literature provided ample evidence on the positive impacts of service-learning on students' learning outcomes in general and on promoting their civic engagement in particular (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Yates &Youniss, 1998). In particular, this thesis examined how service-learning can be best integrated into undergraduate students' curricula to promote their civic engagement. Using McCarthy's (2003) framework, the "Concept of Triangles," this study focused on the concepts, partners, and relationships of academic service-learning. The findings of the study indicated that the three fundamental concepts of service-learning: knowledge, experience, and reflection are interconnected and mutually dependent. Further, the results of the study emphasized the critical presence and participation of the central partners of service-learning: students, faculty members, and community agency staff. Finally, the study suggested that effective campus/community partnerships require reciprocal, collaborative, democratic, caring, trusting, and respectful relationships among all partners of service-learning. My hope is that this thesis effort would further our understanding of the pedagogy of service-learning, and would encourage other researchers to explore the underrepresented areas in the literature of service-learning.

Chapter Three

Implications For Practice And Research

Recommendation for Best Practices

The review of literature suggests that there is no one single right way of integrating service-learning into undergraduate students' curricula. Significantly, these findings are consistent with the principles of the conceptual framework adopted in this thesis research. In other words, McCarthy's (2003) framework recognizes the unique nature of each institution of higher education, and thereby does not advocate one particular model of implementing service-learning. In general, the findings of this thesis study suggest that sound service-learning programs employ the following strategies:

1. Emphasize both aspects of service-learning, service and learning, equally so that each receives the same amount of attention and neither of them is emphasized over the other.
2. Establish clear and strong connections between course content and the kind of service students do.
3. Make meaningful and adaptive placements of students to service sites.
4. Promote critical and structured reflection.
5. Establish safe venues for reflection where all viewpoints are valued and confidentiality is maintained.
6. Provide prompt feedback.
7. Recognize diverse ways of learning.

8. Encourage active participation from all partners.
9. Provide sufficient amount of preparation, support, and evaluation.
10. Use untraditional assessment techniques that evaluate application of knowledge to course materials and social issues.
11. Set clear goals, and communicate high expectations for all partners.
12. Meet real community needs.
13. Generate recognition and celebration.
14. Develop and maintain reciprocal, collaborative, democratic, caring, trusting, and respectful relationships among all partners.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This thesis research is a preliminary step in systematically investigating the characteristics of high-quality service-learning courses. Empirical research is, therefore, needed to better support the recommendations presented in this study. Future research may examine the extent to which the quality of academic service-learning affects undergraduate students' decisions to participate in future service-learning courses and whether or not participating in service-learning affects students' overall satisfaction with the collegiate experience. Future research can also investigate the extent to which the relationships among students, faculty members, and agency staff influence their decisions to extend their work with each other.

Furthermore, research on academic service-learning suggested that faculty members both affect and are affected by service-learning. Accordingly, additional research is needed to expand our understanding of the role of faculty in service-learning and its impact on them. In particular, future research may address questions, such as what attracts faculty to participate in service-learning? What is the role of colleagues in motivating faculty to participate in service-learning? Does using the pedagogy of service-learning change how faculty teach and learn? Does participation in service-learning provide faculty with opportunities for collaborative and interdisciplinary work? Does faculty conceive of service-learning as a scholarly work? Does involvement in service-learning influence faculty research agendas and publications? Do they attempt to present about service-learning in professional conferences? Do faculty who are engaged in service-learning maintain other types of scholarly work?

Other questions for future research may investigate the impact of institutional support on encouraging faculty to undertake service-learning. Examples of these questions may include: what kind of support do faculty need to participate in service-learning? And what is the impact of the institutional reward structures on motivating faculty to be engaged in service-learning?

Campus-community partnerships are another area of service-learning that require greater exploration. Future research may enhance our understanding of whether or not quality partnerships between institutions of higher learning and community organizations contribute to the success of service-learning programs. Additionally, future research can address questions, such as how do faculty members perceive community members? Will students welcome agency staff as co-educators with their faculty members? And are community agency staff willing to invest some of their time in service-learning courses?

Hopefully, answers to the above stated questions will inform the university's decisions of resource allocations and faculty reward structures. These answers will also provide information on how to better support faculty who are engaged in academic service-learning and how to attract and motivate others to participate in this pedagogy. This, in turn, will lead to enhancing and sustaining service-learning in institutions of higher education. All in all, answers to these questions will further our understanding of the theory, practice, pedagogy, and research on academic service-learning in higher education.

Contribution

Indeed, this thesis research has several advantages. First, it identified some gaps in the literature of academic service-learning. Specifically, it revealed three major gaps. It denoted that in spite of the critical importance of university-community partnership for the success of service-learning, the community dimension continues to be an underrepresented area in service-learning literature (Birdsall, 2005; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Bushouse, 2005; Cruz & Giles, 2000; Edwards & Marullo, 2000; Ferrari & Worrall, 2000; Jones, 2003; Sandy & Holland, 2006; Vernon & Ward, 1999; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000). The findings of the study also indicated that although developing high-quality partnerships between institutions of higher education and the community is central to reviving community engagement (Kellogg Commission, 1999), the focus on the community-university partnership as the main unit of analysis is scant (Dorado & Giles, 2004). Furthermore, the literature acknowledges the role of faculty as critical to the establishment of successful service-learning courses (e.g., Antonio et al., 2000; Caputo, 2005). Yet, there is a paucity of research focusing on the relationship of faculty and service-learning (Driscoll, 2000; Pribbenow, 2005).

Second, this thesis research provided some directions for future research to help fill these gaps. More specifically, the study raised questions pertaining to the overall impact of service-learning on students, the relationship between faculty and service-learning, and the nature of campus-community partnership in service-learning programs. Third, by providing a comprehensive review of literature, this study can further our understanding of academic service-learning in general and the characteristics of effective programs in particular. Fourth, the study suggested best practices to incorporate service-

learning into the curricula of undergraduate students. These recommendations can assist faculty in developing effective service-learning courses. These suggestions can also guide students on how to play active roles in service-learning projects. Additionally, these recommendations can offer administrators of higher education some guidance on how to make their campuses more engaged in their surrounding communities. Furthermore, this study can benefit community agency staff by providing them with ideas on how to participate actively in academic service-learning. Finally, this thesis research effort can promote campus-community partnerships by presenting useful knowledge on what constitutes positive, meaningful, and sustainable relationships.

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Appendix A

Figure 1. McCarthy's "Concept of Triangles" for Service-Learning

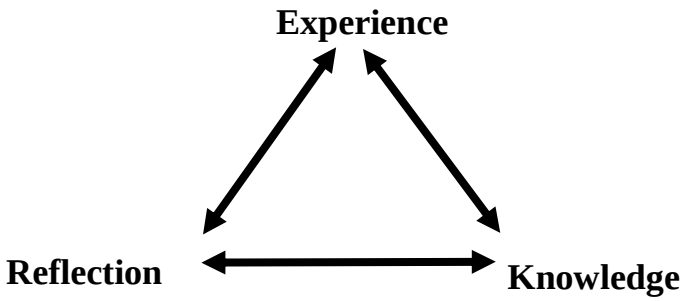

Figure 1. is a visual representation of how McCarthy's (2003) conceptual framework will be used as an analytical guide for the review of literature. The researcher addresses each research question through organizing the literature by how it relates to the concepts, partners, and relationship of academic service-learning.

Appendix B

Figure 1.1. The Triangle of Concepts.

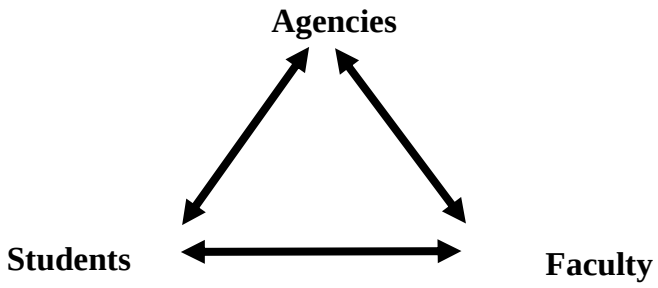

Figure 1.1 is a visual representation of how the first triangle of McCarthy's (2003) conceptual framework will be used as an analytical guide for the review of literature of the first research question, what are the key conceptual underpinnings of academic service-learning?

Appendix C

Figure 1.2. The Triangle of Partners.

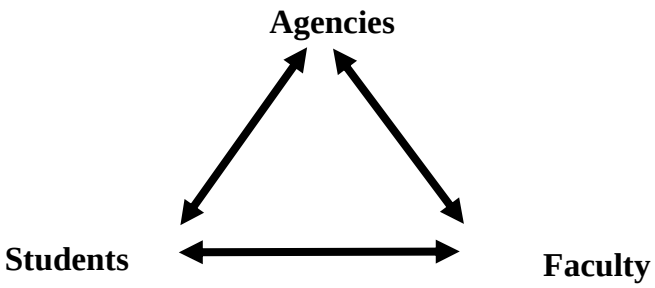

Figure 1.2 is a visual representation of how the second triangle of McCarthy's (2003) conceptual framework will be used as an analytical guide for the review of literature of the second research question, who are the central partners in academic service-learning and how can they establish meaningful programs?

Appendix D

Figure 1.3. The Triangle of Relationship.

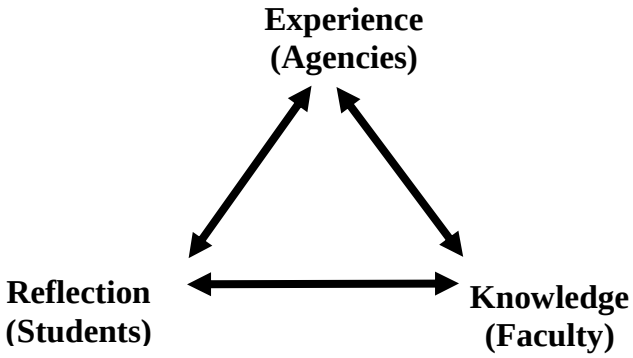

Figure 1.3 is a visual representation of how the third triangle of McCarthy's (2003) conceptual framework will be used as an analytical guide for the review of literature of the third research question, what kind of relationships should characterize campus/community partnership in academic service-learning?