ABSTRACT

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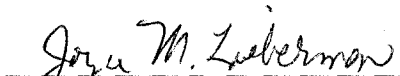
Title: Mandatory Service and Government Observations in a Secondary
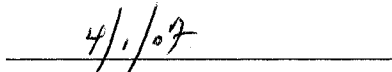   Government Curriculum: A Case Study

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ABSTRACT

Over the past 15 years, service learning has become an increasingly popular pedagogical tool in schools. At the same time, scholars have shown concerns with decreased levels of civic engagement. The current study was designed to investigate how one suburban school of approximately 1,800 students incorporated a mandatory citizenship education program that was couched within the United States Government curriculum to promote the behaviors of adult citizenship. In the program, seniors were required to complete either service or government observations during the semester in which they took United States Government and then reflect on those experiences based on a written prompt.

Using qualitative data consisting of student, teacher, administrator, and community member interviews as well as archival records, program documents, and student reflection papers, this study investigated both the structure of the program and student perceptions of their experiences as they related to their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship. This study was conducted within the framework of Putnam's social capital theory and Barber's theory of mandatory service.

Data related to program structure indicated that the choice to make the program mandatory was a function of having a previous program that was not mandated in which there was uneven participation. Program structure also indicated that the school's collaboration with another mandatory program aided the policy

development process. Teacher-coordinator release time was also found to be a critical component for purposes of student/program accountability. Finally, data related to program curriculum integration indicated that although students and teachers felt that the program received consistent attention through the course curriculum, more could be done to strengthen the student reflection component.

Student data showed that service students tied their experiences to the curriculum through their understanding of civic virtue. Government students tied their experiences to the curriculum through their understanding of both civic virtue and the role of a democracy. Student data also revealed that both projects developed various social capital indicators. In comparing the outcomes of each project type, students engaged in comparable if not equal civic experiences.

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

MANDATORY SERVICE AND GOVERNMENT OBSERVATIONS IN A

SECONDARY GOVERNMENT CURRICULUM: A CASE STUDY

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

FOR THE DEGREE

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

BY

HEATHER M^{c}MURRAY M^{c}CURDY

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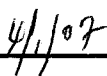
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medieval studies major. They truly were expert listeners. They let me express my concerns without trying to solve them for me.

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And finally, I thank my husband and two daughters. Although the sacrifices have been many, your support has been tireless. Yes, Meghan and Kappy, Mommy's homework is finally done.

DEDICATION

For my family... Joseph, Meghan, and Katherine

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

Over the past 15 years, there has been an explosion of news articles

heralding the adoption of community service and service learning policies in

schools. In Chicago, for example, schools have organized snow-shoveling teams for

the elderly in winter (Manier, 2000). In Philadelphia, over 2,500 partnerships have

been established with community agencies and service experts in order to

accommodate over 200,000 students each year that "invade" their communities to

help others (Hornbeck, 2000). Kielsmeier, Scales, Roehlkepartain, and Neal (2004)

estimate that 66% of public schools involve students in community service

programs while 28% of schools provide opportunities to participate in service

learning. They also note that high schools are the most likely level of school to

offer these programs.

These community service and service learning projects often are required for

graduation or, in the case of Philadelphia, grade promotion. Teachers, curriculum

developers, parents, and community advocacy groups have all supported these

policies. Even politicians such as former presidents George H. W. Bush and Bill

Clinton have shown their support for volunteerism through their efforts to pass legislation such as the National and Community Service Act of 1990 and the National Service Trust Act of 1993 during their presidencies that help fund a variety of different service programs as a means of encouraging school districts to take action.

Community service and service learning policies come in a variety of forms. Community service typically refers to programs where students need to volunteer for a specific number of hours to gain some type of credit. Service learning, however, refers to a practice where students, in either group or individual settings, perform volunteer services that are in some way related to the curriculum in the school while participating in some process of structured reflection (Billig, 2000b; Furco, 1997). It is the use of service learning with its reflection component that guides this study. (Please refer to the Definitions section of this chapter below for an additional articulation of how this researcher differentiates between community service and service learning.)

At the same time that researchers were investigating the merits of incorporating service learning in the curriculum (Billig, 2000b; Furco, 1997), civic educators (Battistoni, 1985; Cogan, 1999) were struggling to combat low levels of civic knowledge while also trying to promote more active practices of citizenship education. In this arena of civic education, the most recent indicator of civic achievement—the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) 1998 Civics Report Card—indicated that 35% of twelfth graders scored below basic

knowledge level in civics (Lutkus, Weiss, Campbell, Mazzeo, & Lazer, 2000).

Certainly, there is reason for concern when more than a third of high school seniors

do not even score at the basic level of knowledge.

Concurrently, studies of American political participation and civic

engagement also show a steady decline (American Civic Forum, 1994; The Center

for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement [CIRCLE], 2003;

Putnam, 2000). These actions fall under what is described as citizenship activity.

Citizenship education refers to those aspects of a student's education that contribute

to his or her understanding of the responsibility of adult citizenship. It was through

civic educators' focus on citizenship education—the preparation for roles as adult

citizens—that many began to propose the use of service learning as a means of

reconnecting youth to their communities (Barber, 1992; Campbell, 2000; Potter,

2002; Putnam, 2000). Experts, such as Barber (1992) and Putnam (2000), felt that

the inclusion of quality service learning programs was a crucial component of the

plan to stem the tide of civic disengagement. In an even stronger statement on

effective civic and citizenship education, the Civic Mission of Schools Report

(CIRCLE, 2003) summarized research that suggests that there are six key promising

approaches to developing "competent and responsible citizens" (p. 8):

- Classroom Instruction in Social Studies
- Discussion of Current Events
- Service Learning
- Extracurricular Activities
- Student Voice in School Governance
- Simulations

These recent developments in the field of civic and citizenship education suggest that there is a relationship between service learning and the United States Government curriculum. For that reason, this case study documented the organization and impact of implementing a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum in a school where seniors complete a service learning requirement or government observations as part of the curriculum. However, despite the evidence illustrating the promise of service learning (Billig, 2000b, c; Cairn & Cairn, 1999; Furco, 1997; Melchior & Bailis, 2002; Metz & Youniss, 2005; Morgan & Streb, 2001), the case for the use of government observations is less clear. Although CIRCLE (2003) would argue that the structured use of government observations could be useful in terms of "making connections to current issues that affect students' lives in their communities" (p. 23), there has been little research on the effects of using government observations within the U.S. Government curriculum. Based on this lack of literature, this study also sought to compare the experiences of students who participated in service with those who completed government observations.

Conceptual Framework

It is the potential for the strengthening of citizenship education through service learning and government observations that frames this study. Putnam's (1993, 2000) social capital theory and Barber's (1992, 1997) theory on the

importance of mandatory service both inform required programs in which service is

used to enhance citizenship education.

Robert D. Putnam and Social Capital

Although social capital theory and its focus on the importance of

interpersonal connections as a viable, though often intangible, asset was first

addressed by Bourdieu (1986), Loury (1978), and Coleman (1988), it was through

Robert D. Putnam (2000) that the theory was popularized and applied to political

science and service learning.

For Putnam (2000), "social capital refers to the connections among

individuals [in communities]—social networks and the norms of reciprocity and

trustworthiness that arise from them" (p. 19). Although this is somewhat related to

the term "civic virtue," which means that one puts her individual interests aside for

the good of the community, Putnam distinguishes it from civic virtue in "that 'social

capital' calls attention to the fact that civic virtue is most powerful when embedded

in the dense network of reciprocal social relations" (p. 19). In other words, an

isolated individual has the ability to demonstrate civic virtue. However, for a

community to be rich in social capital, the community must be full of networked,

virtuous people. Putnam feels that service learning has the potential to combat the

social trends that indicate that Americans are not as connected with their

communities as they once were.

In fact, Putnam (2000) advises that service learning is a vehicle through which the crumbling social capital of America can be revitalized:

> [W]ell designed service learning programs (the emerging evidence suggests) improve civic knowledge, enhance citizen efficacy, increase social responsibility and self-esteem, teach skills of cooperation and leadership, and may even (one study suggests) reduce racism. (p. 405)

The result of this strengthening of social capital could be the improvement of our communities. The following list represents the ways in which Putnam feels that social capital can "translate aspirations into realities" (p. 288):

- Social capital allows citizens to resolve collective problems more easily.
- Social capital greases the wheels that allow communities to advance smoothly.
- Social capital...improves our lot by widening our awareness of the many ways in which our fates are linked.
- Networks...serve as conduits for the flow of helpful information that facilitates achieving our goals. [For example, it helps us get jobs through personal connections.]
- Social capital operates through psychological and biological processes to improve individuals' lives. [People rich in social capital tend to cope better with traumatic experiences.] (pp. 288-289)

For Putnam, society and individuals win when a community is rich in social capital.

To understand how service learning in schools could help stem the tide of civic disengagement, one needs to understand Putnam's notions on how voluntary associations and the social networks of civil society help contribute to democracy. First, these associations and social networks have "external" effects that impact the larger polity. These external benefits "allow individuals to express their interests and demands on government and to protect themselves from abuses of power by their political leaders" (p. 338). When engaged in service learning, students are

learning where to go and with whom to associate to solve certain problems in the community.

Putnam also discusses the internal benefits of strengthening social capital by fostering "habits of cooperation and public-spiritedness, as well as the practical skills necessary to partake in public life" (p. 338). By participating in well-structured service programs, participants are gaining personal skills that can boost their abilities to be productive, active members of associations and other community networks.

Putnam is not the only academic who has called for the use of service learning as a means of re-engaging students with their communities. This study also is guided by Benjamin R. Barber's work that calls for the use of mandatory service activities.

Benjamin R. Barber and Mandatory Service

Benjamin R. Barber (1992) also identifies service as a pedagogy that can reinvigorate the American citizen. For him, the goal of including service learning in the curriculum is to rehabilitate schools as learning communities whose central function is creating citizens and strengthening democracy. He notes that the problem with some of the rhetoric of service is that it is couched in terms such as "voluntarism, charity, and good works" (p. 244). According to Barber, this just seems to emphasize the fact that despite the growth of the franchise in America over

200 years, citizenship is in decline—we cannot even use terms related to citizenship

to describe something that has been an integral role of citizens. For Barber, the

discussion of service is best articulated in the "rhetoric of civility, responsibility,

and good citizenship" (p. 245). When this happens, service programs are teaching

citizenship, not just charity.

The language of charity is the problem that drives Barber (1992) to ensure

that service learning is discussed in terms of the responsibilities of citizenship. For

him, "the language of charity drives a wedge between self interest and altruism,

leading students to believe that service is a matter of sacrificing private interests to

moral virtue" (p. 249). By encouraging the language of citizenship, he feels that

"self-interest will always be embedded in communities of action" (p. 249). Barber

seeks an understanding of the role of a citizen in which doing good for others is

good for the self. According to Barber, service learning programs in the curriculum

can help achieve that goal.

Finally, one critical aspect of Barber's (1992) inclusion of service learning in

the curriculum that is instructive to this study is the notion that service learning

should be mandatory:

> [I]f service is understood as a dimension of citizenship education and civic
> responsibility in which individuals learn the meaning of social
> interdependence and become empowered through acquiring the democratic
> arts, then the requirement of service conforms to curricular requirements in
> other disciplines. (p. 250)

For Barber, service is not about encouraging people to do good things for others.

Rather the goal is to learn to be free—which means that one learns that he or she is

responsible to others. Although Barber's intended audience is the arena of higher education, it is instructive to public education at the secondary level as well. Service learning, according to Barber, is for everyone.

Because this study documents the organization and student experiences of a mandatory citizenship education program in which students completed either a service learning project or government observations, social capital theory and Barber's rationale for mandatory service were appropriate to frame the study. First, Putnam and Barber were chosen because they both emphasize that service learning has the potential to enhance citizenship education—a primary focus of this study. Since one component of the program being studied allowed students to perform service, they were deemed appropriate. Then, Putnam's use of social capital was selected for its use in comparing service learning activities to government observations. His focus on strengthening the networks of civic engagement and norms of reciprocity allowed for a more balanced comparison between the two activities than other theoretical frameworks. And finally, Barber's focus on the use of mandatory service aligned with goals of the mandatory citizenship program that was studied.

Problem Statement

In 1997, nearly 25% of high school students engaged in service learning activities. By 2004, nearly 33% of all high schools offered service learning

programs (Kielsmeier, Scales, Roehlkepartain, & Neal, 2004). In each of these

districts where policies had been adopted, proponents cited educational research as

their rallying point. Research had indicated that service learning—with its critical

reflection component (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Dewey 1938)—could positively

impact social and moral benefits (Kerr, 1997; Lerner, 1999; Noddings, 1992) as

well as civic knowledge (Barber, 1997; Spring, Dietz, & Grimm, 2006; Yates,

1999). Others cited results that service learning had impacted school reform (Cairn

& Cairn, 1999) and had been beneficial in its ability to foster school-community

relations (Billig, 2000b; Steinberg, 2000). Evidence suggested that service learning

could be a valuable pedagogical tool.

Educators and community advocacy groups have been promoting service

learning in school districts since the early 1990s. Much of the early research cited

evidence that young people seemed to be alienated from their communities (Billig,

2000b). Billig also noted that in one survey, young people considered financial

security their top goal—evidence that Barber's (1997) concern that schools have

become the tools of private industry might be true. At the same time, research was

being conducted on the effectiveness of "authentic learning." Brooks and Brooks

(1999) felt that if students engaged in real-world learning, the needs of students

would be better served. Combining the goal of valuable learning and reconnecting

youth to their communities, supporters of service learning began pushing for

policies to be adopted in their schools. In academic circles, some even began to

argue that service should become a mandatory part of the curriculum (Barber, 1992, 1997).

At the same time that researchers were investigating the merits of incorporating service learning in the curriculum (Billig, 2000b; Furco, 1997), civic educators (Battistoni, 1985; Cogan, 1999) were struggling to combat low levels of civic knowledge while also trying to promote more active practices of citizenship education. Evidence from the NAEP 1998 Civics Report Card indicated that 75% of students scored at basic or below basic level of knowledge in civics (Lutkus et al., 2000). For political scientists and civic educators, this indicated that there was a crisis in citizenship education. Some have argued that the crisis in citizenship education existed because the high school curriculum assumes that democracy will just happen without purposeful nurturing (Battistoni, 1985). This argument is illustrated by studies of college freshmen who describe their high school civic education experiences as a detached, dry, and boring environment (MacManus, 2000). In these classes, students learned the facts they needed, passed their Constitution test, and then tolerably endured the rest.

Compounding a weak civic curriculum and low scores on civic knowledge, some political scientists have indicated there is a general social trend that indicates that students seem to be even less civically engaged than previous generations were at their age (Bennett, 2000; Putnam, 2000). This drop in civic engagement has been referred to as a decrease in social capital. For some academics, social capital indicators help describe the "civicness" of a community (Putnam, 2000).

And finally, what makes this scenario even more complicated is that despite showing political apathy, high school graduates have never been more likely to have completed community service (Putnam, 2000). Some have argued that one of the "cures" for the ailing democracy is the use of service learning as part of citizenship education (Barber, 1992; Campbell, 2000; Potter, 2002; Putnam, 2000). This potential for the strengthening of citizenship education through the use of service learning with a government observation alternative focuses this study. Research already suggests that service learning can enhance citizenship education; however, there is also evidence that making service mandatory has been challenged by those who feel that mandating volunteerism is an oxymoron that has no place within the secondary school curriculum. We do not fully understand the role of service learning in civic education. There is also nothing in the literature that addresses the role that government observations can play within civic education. For that reason, there is a need to investigate ways in which requiring service and government observations within the curriculum can be reconciled with these concerns.

Purpose of the Study

Although attempts have been made to investigate the relationship between service learning and citizenship education, much of it was conducted in classrooms where the primary purpose of the service was not citizenship education (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Morgan, 2002). Kahne, Chi, and Middaugh (2005) have argued that

the high school government curriculum has the greatest potential to encourage active citizenship. Not only do a majority of the students take this class—approximately 90% of high school graduates, according to one study (Niemi & Junn, 1998)—but it is the class most focused on preparing students for their roles as adult citizens. The purpose of this case study was to examine perceptions of one suburban high school's use of a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that used service learning and an alternative government observation project as a means of promoting the behaviors of active citizenship while avoiding the oxymoron of "forced volunteerism."

By using document review, archival records, student interviews, and stakeholder interviews, this case study investigated the ways in which one school managed 350-400 students within one school year engaging in either service experiences or government observations as part of the United States Government curriculum. This case study also analyzed student interviews and student reflection papers as a means of explaining student perceptions of the citizenship education program as they relate to the responsibilities of citizenship. These student interviews were also used to compare service and government observation experiences. Toward that end, this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum?

2. What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is

   integrated into the United States Government curriculum?

3. How do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect their

   understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship?

4. In what ways are service learning experiences and government

   observations comparable?

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the literature in a variety of ways. First, the study

contributes to and extends social capital literature. Social capital theory has been

adopted by the field of education to explain the importance that service learning and

experiential learning can play in creating an active citizenry. Morgan (2002) and

Kahne et al. (2005) have conducted quantitative studies that have suggested that

service learning and experiential learning within a citizenship education program

can influence student social capital. This study seeks to add to the literature

pertaining to the impact of service learning on social capital by focusing on

qualitative data. By documenting student, teacher, administrator, and community-

member perspectives on the use of service learning and government observations to

promote citizenship education, this study seeks to investigate how these projects

reflect social capital theory. Although Koliba (2003) conducted a multisite case

study to investigate similar themes, his work was conducted primarily at the

elementary level and in rural settings as opposed to this study's focus on a suburban high school.

This study also contributes to the literature pertaining to mandatory service learning. Despite the acceptance of service learning in the curriculum, many schools have been reluctant to make it a mandatory component of the curriculum. The program investigated in this study allows students to choose an alternative government observation program in order to avoid "forced volunteerism." This study explored the ways in which the use of an alternative government observation project is comparable to service learning.

This study also informs social studies educators, social studies teacher education programs, and school districts on how requiring experiential learning projects in the secondary United States Government curriculum may impact students' understanding of the responsibilities of adult citizenship. Service learning research does illustrate programs where individual teachers have a powerful impact on student perspectives of citizenship, but most of the research describes classroom experiences—one teacher, one class. This study documented the ways in which one school district managed a program that involved 350-400 students a year engaging in either service learning or government observations as a means of fulfilling a citizenship education expectation. The ways in which these required service experiences and local government meetings were conducted within the context of the United States Government curriculum makes it unique in the literature. This

study also informs educators and school districts about student perceptions of

completing mandatory service and government observation programs.

Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used to guide

the discussion.

Citizenship Education: Citizenship education is "a more inclusive term and

encompasses both in-school and out of school or informal education...all of which

help to shape the totality of the citizen" (Cogan, 1999, p. 56). All activities that

contribute to a student's understanding of the responsibilities of adult citizenship

constitute citizenship education. For the purposes of this study, though, the focus

was on service learning and government observation activities within the United

States Government curriculum that focus on the development of a student's

understanding of the responsibilities of adult citizenship.

Civic Education: Civic education refers to "the kinds of formal coursework

taking place within the context of schools...[that] focus more upon what might be

called the structures, processes, and trappings of government" (Cogan, 1999, p. 56).

Because recent research highlights citizenship education's ability to enlighten civic

education, civic education can include citizenship activities when conducted within

the framework of formal coursework—in this case, within the United States

Government curriculum. In this study, the examination of service learning activities

and government observations within the government curriculum refer to the

citizenship activities with the United States Government curriculum that has a

parallel focus on civic education.

Community Service: Community service refers to an individual's

participation in voluntary activities that benefit a non-profit organization within the

community. In this study, students have to complete 12 hours of community service

with an organization as part of the service learning component of the citizenship

education program.

Forced Volunteerism: The concern expressed by some that requiring

someone to serve voluntarily is an oxymoron.

Government Observations: Government observations refer to attendance by

a student at a local government meeting. Examples of local government meetings

include city council meetings, school board meetings, park district board meetings,

and library board meetings.

Networks of Civic Engagement: Networks of civic engagement refer to

those relationships that help nurture collective action within a community (Putnam,

1993). Those relationships can be among individuals or between an association and

individuals.

Norms of Reciprocity: Norms of reciprocity refer to an understanding by an

individual that his or her service activities are mutually beneficial.

Service Learning: Service learning refers to a practice where students, in

either group or individual settings, perform volunteer services that are in some way

related to the curriculum in the school and then participate in a structured reflection on those activities.

Social Capital: Social capital refers to those norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness as well as networks of civic engagement that arise from connections among individuals in the community (Putnam, 2000). Please refer to Chapter II for a more extensive discussion of the historical development of the concept of social capital and how it relates to service learning and citizenship education.

Method

This study utilized the case study method to examine one suburban high school's use of service learning and government observations within its United States Government curriculum. For the purpose of this study, Greenfield High School is the pseudonym used for the research site. Through the use of student interviews, stakeholder interviews, documents, and archival records, student experiences were investigated.

Merriam (1998) notes that case studies are suitable for research projects that are interested in process. In this case study of a mandatory service learning program within the United States Government curriculum, it was important to investigate how the program managed the mandatory nature of the project. Merriam (1998) also describes that case study work is relevant for studies examining innovations and informing policy. Because the program identified in this study was unique in

the way it couched the mandatory service learning program within the United States Government curriculum, case study methodology was appropriate.

And finally, although this project is defined as a case study, it also represents an example of action research. In action research, there is an assumption that the researcher has some background and expertise in the topic. In this study, the researcher has been associated with the school district being studied as a United States Government teacher for 13 years. Although this is a limitation of the study in some respects, the researcher's association with the program also allowed direct access to many of the stakeholders involved in the program.

Organization of the Study

This study is divided into six chapters. Chapter I has provided an introduction and an overview of the study. Chapter II provides a review of literature related to social capital theory, service learning, and citizenship education. The methods are described in Chapter III and include the research design, the data collection techniques, and data analysis strategies. Chapters IV and V present the results, including the document review findings and interviews/reflection papers data, respectively. Finally, Chapter VI summarizes the study, draws conclusions, and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this case study was to examine the use of a mandatory citizenship education program that utilized service learning and government observations within the United States Government curriculum to introduce senior students to the responsibilities of adult citizenship. In conducting such a study, the project pulls from the fields of citizenship and civic education, service learning, and social capital theory. This literature review summarizes the theoretical framework and key research that guides this study.

In order to complete that summary, this chapter is divided into four sections. In the first section, the researcher demonstrates how the fields of citizenship education and civic education have guided this study. Because one of the experiences that students may choose as part of this study is a service learning component, the second section focuses more on general service learning research. Here, Barber's theory on the use of mandatory service learning is discussed within subsections that summarize the benefits and problems related to implementing service learning. A third section summarizes social capital theory. That section

also discusses key literature that has integrated social capital theory and service

learning research. Finally, the fourth section provides a conclusion which links

social capital literature and service learning literature as they relate to citizenship

education.

Citizenship Education and Civic Education

Research indicates that there is a perceived crisis in civic/citizenship

education. Battistoni (1985) and Cogan (1999) have cited low levels of civic

knowledge in students. Evidence from the 1998 Civic Report Card (Lutkus et al.,

2000) corroborates their work as more than one-third of twelfth graders scored

below the basic knowledge level in civics. Researchers have also cited low levels of

civic participation (American Civic Forum, 1994; Bennett, 2000; CIRCLE, 2003;

and Putnam, 2000). MacManus (2000) cites evidence from college freshmen that

the high school government curriculum is perceived as boring and dull. Therefore,

this section summarizes key documents and findings from the fields of civic

education and citizenship education that guide this study. This section describes the

relationship between civic education and citizenship education as it applies to this

case study, summarizes the arguments of Kahne and Westheimer (1996, 2006;

Westheimer and Kahne, 2004), who have analyzed service learning curricula in

their capacity to promote citizenship education, and takes a closer look at the

recommendations of the Civic Missions of Schools Report (CIRCLE, 2003) in terms

of developing a strong civic curriculum that allows students to practice the skills of citizenship.

The Relationship Between Civic Education and Citizenship Education

Citizenship education and civic education mean different things to different people. For the purpose of this study, a broad understanding of citizenship education was used. The term refers to "a more inclusive term and encompasses both in-school and out of school or informal education...all of which help to shape the totality of the citizen" (Cogan, 1999, p. 56). Additionally, for this study, all activities that contributed to a student's understanding of the responsibilities of adult citizenship constituted citizenship education. The focus of this study was on service learning and government observation activities within the United States Government curriculum that aided the development of a student's understanding of the behaviors associated with the responsibilities of adult citizenship. Citizenship education was addressed within the explicit and implicit curriculum of the school.

However, this understanding of citizenship education is also related to the term "civic education." For the purposes of this study, civic education refers to "the kinds of formal coursework taking place within the context of schools...[that] focus more upon what might be called the structures, processes, and trappings of government" (Cogan, 1999, p. 56). Because recent research highlights citizenship education's ability to enlighten civic education, civic education can include

citizenship activities when conducted within the framework of formal coursework—

in this case, within the United States Government curriculum. In this study, the

examination of service learning activities and government observations within the

government curriculum refer to the citizenship activities within the United States

Government curriculum that has a parallel focus on civic education. In other words,

the civic education conducted within the United States Government curriculum at

Greenfield High School involved promoting citizenship education through the use

of service learning and government observations. The next section summarizes

Kahne and Westheimer's work on the service learning curriculum and citizenship

education.

<u>Kahne and Westheimer—Service Learning Goals and Student Outcomes</u>

Although service learning has been lauded by many as a potentially valuable

pedagogical tool, some have focused on the value of service learning as a

component of citizenship development. Within this context, service learning

promotes the goal of creating democratic citizens, thus fulfilling one of the original

goals of the public education system. Although Barber (1992), Campbell (2000),

Potter (2002), and Putnam (2000) all discuss the use of service learning in

promoting the development of active citizens, Joseph Kahne and Joel Westheimer's

work focuses on how one must investigate the curricular goals of a program and

how that influences student outcomes. This section describes Kahne and

Westheimer's contributions to citizenship education through their analysis of service learning programs.

Kahne and Westheimer's work demonstrates how service learning curriculum influences citizenship development. First, they conducted a study in which they found that there are different student outcomes for service learning dependent on whether the program focuses on charity or change as its goal (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996). For example, when the goals of the program fall within the moral domain, giving tends to be the outcome of charity-driven service while caring is the outcome of change-driven service. Within the political domain, civic duty is the outcome of charity-driven service while social reconstruction is the outcome of change-driven service. And finally, within the intellectual domain, charity-driven service is viewed as an "additive experience" (p. 596). In other words, it is an authentic exercise that allows the participant to experience learning opportunities, whereas change-driven service uses critical inquiry as well as action to engage students in a "transformative experience" (p. 596).

In another study, Westheimer and Kahne (2004) found that the type of service learning curriculum that was used tended to support the model of three different types of citizenship being encouraged. The personally responsible citizen "acts responsibly in his or her community" (p. 242). Westheimer and Kahne feel that programs that "seek to develop personally responsible citizens hope to build character and personal responsibility by emphasizing honesty, integrity, self-discipline, and hard work" (p. 242). The participatory citizen, however, is promoted

through programs that "focus on teaching students about how government and other institutions (e.g. community-based organizations, churches) work and about the importance of planning and participating in organized efforts to care for those in need" (p. 243). And finally, a justice-oriented citizen "shares with the vision of the participatory citizen in emphasis on collective work related to the life and issues of the community" (p. 243), but does so through "preparing students to improve society by critically analyzing and addressing social issues and injustices" (p. 243).

In a final report relevant to this study, Kahne and Westheimer (2006) warn that goals of promoting political efficacy are inadequate for service learning. When schools only emphasize internal political efficacy—a person's sense of his or her ability to participate effectively in the process—students often miss out on learning that the system has obstacles. In schools that focus on the authenticity of the service experience through letting students experience obstacles, students encounter many barriers and many students' external political efficacy—perceptions of governmental and institutional responsiveness to citizens' needs and demands—is diminished. Although Kahne and Westheimer do not recommend emphasis of one political efficacy over another, they suggest that practitioners and program organizers need to be cognizant of how curricular objectives influence student outcomes.

The Civic Mission of Schools

In an effort to promote the effects that civic education can have on developing citizens, CIRCLE, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and the Corporation for National and Community Service gathered a group of experts in the fields promoting civic education "to determine, based on solid data and evidence, the components of effective and feasible civic education programs" (CIRCLE, 2003, p. 4). The Civic Mission of Schools Report represents that group's efforts to articulate a vision for effective civic education that can contribute to citizenship development. For the purpose of this study, the report was instructive in two ways. First, it identifies a set of goals for civic education. Second, the report identifies research-based "promising approaches to civic education" (pp. 22-29).

The Civic Mission of Schools Report identifies four goals of civic education. First, the authors identify that competent and responsible citizens are informed and thoughtful. Second, citizens participate in their communities. Through this goal, service learning objectives are viewed as valuable. Third, citizens act politically. In other words, they "have the skills, knowledge, and commitment needed to accomplish public purposes" (p. 10). And finally, competent and responsible citizens have moral and civic virtues. In this respect, citizens understand that there is a balance between personal interests and the common good.

Another way in which the Civic Mission of Schools Report has contributed to civic education is through its summary of promising school-based practices that

research suggests can promote the development of citizens in our students. These practices are summarized below:

- Provide instruction in government, history, law, and democracy.
- Incorporate discussions of current local, national, and international issues and events into the classroom, particularly those events that young people view as important to their lives.
- Design and implement programs that provide students with the opportunity to apply what they learn through performing service learning that is linked to formal curriculum and classroom instruction.
- Offer extracurricular activities that provide opportunities for young people to get involved in their schools or communities.
- Encourage student participation in school governance.
- Encourage students' participation in simulations of democratic processes and procedures. (CIRCLE, 2003, p. 6)

Developed by leaders in a variety of fields related to civic education, this report provides a summary of recent research that suggests practical ways in which schools can produce programs that better develop in students the skills and attitudes that are necessary for active participation as adult citizens. Within this section, service learning has only been investigated as it relates to civic education and citizenship education. The next section looks at a wider variety of benefits and challenges of instituting service learning in the curriculum.

Why Service Learning? (Or Why Not?)

This section explores research suggesting that service learning can be a powerful teaching and learning tool within the curriculum. It also addresses literature that challenges the use of service learning in the curriculum.

The education community and community advocacy groups have been promoting service learning policies in school districts nationwide since the early 1990s. Billig (2000b) cites research that indicates that young people seem to be increasingly alienated from their communities. Evidence of this is seen in the fact that very few young people were involved in service activities, and they were the least likely group to vote in society. Billig (2000b) also demonstrates that young people considered financial security their top goal—evidence that Barber's concern that schools have become the tools of private industry might be true (Barber, 1997). At the same time, a great deal of research was being done on the effectiveness of "authentic learning." People like Brooks and Brooks (1999) feel that if students engaged in "real-world" learning and were taught to learn about learning, students' educational needs would be better served. For them, helping students to construct their own knowledge through educational experiences is far more valuable than being forced to take numerous standardized tests. Combining the goals of valuable learning and reconnecting youth to their communities, supporters of service learning began pushing for policies to be adopted in their schools.

In 1997, nearly 25% of high school students engaged in service learning activities. By 1999, nearly one-third of all high schools offered service learning programs (Billig, 2000b) and those numbers have stayed stable through 2004 (Scales & Roehlkepartain, 2004). In each of the districts where policies have been adopted, proponents cite educational research as their rallying point. The following represents a sample of research findings that support the adoption of service

learning policies. After exploring the importance of reflection in service activities, this section highlights the social and moral benefits of service learning, the benefits of service learning on civic knowledge, service learning's impact on school reform, and the school-community relations benefits of service learning. The section then investigates the problems of implementing service learning, including the costs, overwhelming responsibility on teachers and schools, philosophical challenges to curricular inclusion, and research design issues.

Reflection as a Critical Component of Service

Bringle and Hatcher (1999) emphasize the importance of reflection in teaching and learning, especially within the field of service learning. They highlight a variety of activities that constitute effective structured reflection for service learning. Although they do not evaluate the different impact that each reflective exercise has on learning, they suggest several forms of reflective activities that can be utilized in quality service programs. In addition to student journaling, they cite experiential research papers, ethical case studies, directed readings, and class presentations as valuable reflective activities. Philosophically, the use of reflection as a bridge between experience and theory owes its origin to John Dewey. Dewey (1938) noted that experience itself did not guarantee learning. Rather, experience along with reflection gave theory vitality and significance for the learner.

Social and Moral Benefits of Service Learning

Reflection is a critical component of service learning, but one of the

potential benefits of including service learning in the curriculum is that it benefits

the students socially. Although not working specifically within the field of service

learning, some have identified the need to teach students to be caring. Noddings

(1992) certainly advocates service as a means of creating empathy for those in our

community. However, she emphasizes that any service program should be

instituted in a way that allows students to come in contact with "people who can

demonstrate caring" (p. 24). For Noddings, "we do not want our children to learn

the menial (or even sophisticated) skills of caregiving without the characteristic

attitude of caring" (p. 24). In other words, she feels that more important than

logging hours is the experience of working with those who have internalized the

value of caring and provide valuable services to others. Kerr (1997), on the other

hand, refers to the importance of building relations on mutual recognition and

regard. She feels that by placing students in situations where they choose to work

with an organization that benefits the community, they are more likely to engage in

the types of discourse that will lead to empathy and caring than if they had read

about stories of people who have done the work. Lerner (1999) also discusses the

importance of rewarding caring behavior. Whether it is through weighting the

assessment tool heavily in a student's grade or through reinforcing those behaviors,

the reward of the caring behavior sends the message to students that practicing caring behaviors is valuable knowledge.

Another social goal of including service learning in the curriculum is the desire to engage students in what Darling-Hammond (1997) refers to as "the appreciation of other perspectives" (p. 48). Once again, although she is not speaking directly of service learning, she feels that this constructive activity "requires teachers not merely to cover the curriculum, but to enable diverse learners to construct their own knowledge and develop their talent in effective and powerful ways" (Darling-Hammond, 1997, p. 43). Research suggests that students who encounter people of different ethnic and socio-economic groups than their own are motivated "to go beyond personal perspectives to learn about the perspectives of others" (Weah, Simmons, & Hall, 2000, p. 674). Not only do students demonstrate understanding of multiple perspectives, but they are also put in situations where they can reflect and discuss race, culture, and other differences in a structured environment.

Research on service learning activities has supported both of these concepts of service learning and social development. In Billig's (2000c) summary of research on the outcomes of service learning, she reports that Weiler et al. found increases "in measures of communication, competence, and personal and social responsibility" as a result of student involvement in service learning (p. 186). Their findings suggest that involvement in service leads to the social and moral development of students.

Civic Education and Service Learning

Another stated benefit of including service learning is its relationship to civic behaviors. Although the use of service learning as a component of civic education and citizenship development was addressed in a previous section, in this section the researcher summarizes Barber's (1992, 1997) concern that service learning needs to be mandatory as well as others' research that has used the vehicle of service learning to investigate civic outcomes.

For Barber, the goal of including service learning in the curriculum is to rehabilitate schools as learning communities whose central function is creating citizens and strengthening democracy. He notes that the problem with some of the rhetoric of service is that it is couched in terms such as "voluntarism, charity, and good works" (1992, p. 244). For him, the terms emphasize the fact that despite the growth of the franchise in America over 200 years, citizenship is in decline; we cannot even use terms related to citizenship to describe something that has been an integral role of citizens. The discussion of service is best articulated in the "rhetoric of civility, responsibility, and good citizenship" (p. 245). When this happens, service programs are teaching citizenship, not just charity.

The problem of the language of charity drives Barber (1992) to urge that service learning be discussed in terms of the responsibilities of citizenship. For him, "the language of charity drives a wedge between self-interest and altruism, leading students to believe that service is a matter of sacrificing private interests to moral

virtue" (p. 249). By encouraging the language of citizenship, he feels that "self-interest will always be embedded in communities of action" (p. 249). Barber seeks an understanding of the role of a citizen in which doing good for others is good for the self. Service learning programs in the curriculum can help achieve that goal.

And finally, one critical aspect of Barber's (1992) inclusion of service learning in the curriculum that is instructive to this study is the notion that service learning should be mandatory:

> [I]f service is understood as a dimension of citizenship education and civic responsibility in which individuals learn the meaning of social interdependence and become empowered through acquiring the democratic arts, then the requirement of service conforms to curricular requirements in other disciplines. (p. 250)

Accordingly, service is not about encouraging people to do good things for others; rather the goal is to learn to be free, which means that one learns that he or she is responsible to others.

> Serving others is not just a form of do-goodism or feel-goodism, it is a road to social responsibility and citizenship. When linked closely to classroom learning ("education-based" community service), it offers an ideal setting for bridging the gap between the classroom and the street, between the theory of democracy and its much more obstreperous practice....Service is an instrument of civic pedagogy. (Barber, 1997, p. 30)

Although his intended audience is the arena of higher education, it is instructive to public education at the secondary level as well. Service learning, according to Barber, is for everyone.

Barber is not the only one who promotes service learning in its capacity to encourage outcomes related to the skills of citizenship. Eyler and Giles (1999), Yates (1999), and Melchior and Bailis (2002) each looked at service and its impact

on a variety of citizenship characteristics. Their research suggests that civic skills can be enhanced. Metz, McLellan, and Youniss (2003) also found that students who perform service that "[aids] people in need or [addresses] social issues [will] lead to a greater concern for social issues and higher intended levels of civic engagement" (p. 188). In other words, civic engagement is a potential outcome for specific types of service. However, none of these studies specifically looked at service learning within the context of the high-school-level civic education curriculum.

Meanwhile, Metz and Youniss (2005) and Reinders and Youniss (2006) investigated the impact of conducting mandatory service on civic attributes and attitudes; however, once again, the research was not conducted within the context of the United States Government curriculum. In fact, the mandatory service research was not conducted using required service within a course. Rather, those studies investigated mandatory service, one in public schools and one in parochial schools where service was required to be logged as part of a graduation requirement with minimal structured reflection. However, even within these contexts, well-designed service programs seem to benefit the civic development even for non-self-selected individuals who are required to complete service. In fact, both studies found that introducing students who had not traditionally engaged in political activities had a positive effect on their civic development.

Service Learning and School Reform

In addition to its civic benefits, proponents argue that service learning policies are also compatible with some of the school reform occurring in schools today. First, they argue that service learning is compatible with standards. Because service learning requires students to "experience" the learning, projects can actually allow students to gain a deeper understanding of the principles valued in standards (Cairn & Cairn, 1999). Billig (2000a) cites several studies that found that achievement scores are higher in students who regularly perform service learning activities. Proponents also feel that school boards enacting policies that cost time and money are much more likely to support service learning when it is tied to increased student performance. The only caveat with this argument is that it is still unknown what impact the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation will have on service learning programs. However, evidence from Scales and Roehlkepartain (2004) suggests that between 1999 and 2004 (the years in which NCLB was implemented) numbers of schools using service learning stayed constant, around 30%. Potentially, a strict focus on achieving Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) will force schools to abandon or fail to implement programs that are not directly related to reading, math, science, and minority achievement.

School-Community Relations and Service Learning

In addition to its compatibility with standards reform, service learning is touted as a curriculum component that can bring communities and the schools closer together. Billig (2000b) cites data that suggest that communities in which service learning takes place are more likely to view youth as "valued resources and positive contributors" to the community (p. 662). Clearly, proponents feel that sponsoring service learning can make a difference in community perceptions of students.

Educators also feel that service learning is merely a natural outgrowth of things that parents think schools ought to be doing. One school district found that 80-90% of parents surveyed felt they highly valued "a student body that demonstrates concern for the well-being of others," "a student body that demonstrated pride in their community," and "a student body involved with community service" (Berman, 2000, p. 22). All of these qualities are probable by-products of students engaged in service learning.

Finally, proponents feel that service learning has a natural partner in some of the school-to-work initiatives that community partnerships have sponsored. When engaged in service learning, students gain some of those workplace skills that they will need when they enter the workforce. Supporters feel this process can only aid students' transitions into adulthood (Steinberg, 2000).

Although the evidence emerging indicates that there are multiple benefits of utilizing service learning, service has not gone unchallenged. The next section discusses the problems associated with service learning and its implementation.

Problems with Implementing Service Learning

Without a doubt, service learning projects across the nation have blossomed over the past fifteen years (Billig, 2000b). From elementary school projects that involve nature preservation to high school projects that sponsor tutoring programs, schools have adopted service learning as a valuable way of teaching a variety of skills—among them, good citizenship. These programs have had widespread support in many communities; however, these individual projects and policies that require a minimum number of hours for graduation have not gone unchallenged. Concerns from different groups have forced schools to reconsider whether mandatory service learning can still be considered volunteerism. Challengers of mandatory service have been successful enough in articulating their concerns that even though nearly 96% of school districts offered some sort of service in 1997, only 16-18% of school districts require service for graduation (Loupe, 2000). This seems to indicate that although sponsoring service-related activities in a school is popular, there is a reticence to make it a course or graduation requirement. The following represents a sample of the arguments that are utilized to combat mandatory and voluntary service learning in the schools. Among those arguments

are costs of service learning, overwhelming responsibilities for the schools,

philosophical challenges to service learning, and research methodology issues.

Costs of Service Learning

In addition to the question of making service mandatory, service programs

also require financial support from a district. Anytime a program is added to a

school there is an associated cost. In the case of service learning programs, those

costs typically come in terms of supplies, transportation, and recognition programs.

However, high-quality programs typically have additional costs such as teacher in-

service and service coordinator salaries that can strain a district's budget. Many

school business officials have argued that even though research has shown that the

average cost of a districtwide program was only approximately $27 per pupil, the

average cost for all types of service programs is $52 per pupil (Melchior, 2000).

While these costs are moderately low compared to average spending for districts,

school districts that are already financially strapped cannot afford to take on this

additional expense. Administrators at these schools also argue that although there

are grants available to districts to help support costs, almost all require some sort of

matching funds from the school. The grants also typically require that the district

make a statement of how it will become financially independent of these grants

within a few years. School finance people have been one group of people to

challenge the inclusion of mandatory service in schools.

For How Much More Can We Be Responsible?

Groups of people who challenge the inclusion of service learning curriculum are teachers and administrators who feel that schools have already been handed an overwhelming amount of responsibility (Loupe, 2000). They feel that the schools are already expected to cover so much in such a short amount of time that service learning will only end up taking away from other valuable projects. NCLB has created an environment in which districts and states must emphasize reading and math skills and standardized test performance above all else.

People who are concerned with how service learning fits into the standards movement have expanded those arguments. Although some argue that service learning research supports the fact that service can enhance standards education, challengers of service learning point out that the difficulty in measuring the effectiveness of the learning in terms of meeting the standards (Pickeral & Bray, 2000). Challengers also use Cairn and Cairn's (1999) research on Minnesota's efforts to pioneer effective assessments of service learning as a reason to avoid falling into the service-learning trap. Cairn and Cairn (1999) cite that although service learning can be a powerful vehicle for learning a variety of skills and knowledge, effectively documenting and assessing those skills can be difficult when also trying to allow the spontaneity of learning to continue to be part of the service learning experience. Challengers to service learning feel that there has been an inordinate amount of time and money spent researching effective evaluation tools,

and researchers still do not have any consistent answers. Even people who support service learning argue that there needs to be more clear definitions of terms in the service learning movement to distinguish it from other experiential learning opportunities such as internships and cooperative education (Billig, 2000b).

Even if these arguments have not been able to stall service learning initiatives, certain members of the education community and parents hold strong on one key argument: Where is the research that definitively establishes a link between service learning and increased academic achievement (Moore & Sandholtz, 1999)? Chapin's (1998) research concurs. She argues that there is a great amount of research discussing potential benefits of programs, but there is very little that confirms that students who actively participate in service learning achieve more academically. Challengers of service learning argue that the single most important job of a school is to educate its students in the basic skills they will need as adults. For these people, this typically means in the traditional subjects of reading, writing, math, science, and social studies. They would like to see the least amount of distractions possible in that process. They also see that in the NCLB era, if one cannot tie the expected outcome of the service learning activity to something evaluated on a standardized test, then it is best left out of the curriculum.

Philosophical Challenges to Service Learning

Earlier subsections addressed concerns in implementing service learning. The next two sections address challenges to service learning once it has already been included in the curriculum.

Although some researchers have found that well-designed service programs can be beneficial in breaking down racial/ethnic barriers, they also show concern that some programs might actually be reinforcing the gap between different groups. Researchers such as Weah, Simmons, and Hall (2000) argue that programs where White students go out and help different racial groups need adequate reflection and personal contact with those they are helping so that they do not get the idea that those persons are not helping themselves. Through the reflection process and personal contact, the student is more likely to see that the community can work together to overcome challenges. Weah et al. also argue that programs where students just put in their time or do inadequate reflection let the students come to their own conclusions. They feel those conclusions are not always educationally valuable (Weah et al., 2000).

Some parents, in particular, have picked up on the arguments that there is no place for service learning in the public school system. They feel that a service learning policy should only be adopted in schools that have been freely chosen by the families of the students who attend them (Garber & Heet, 2000). Because the nature of service learning is advocacy, these people feel that public schools could

easily get themselves in trouble politically. Traditionally, the role of a public school is to educate students to look at an issue from multiple perspectives. If a school begins advocating certain service projects as the answer to some community problem, their advocacy could be detrimental to that locality. Garber and Heet (2000) cite the example of a Maine school that lobbied to have certain types of fishing methods outlawed in Taunton Bay. Because some parents made a living from the type of fishing that was being lobbied against, many felt that their tax dollars were not being spent appropriately. Many argue that this type of politicization of a community from a service learning project is unnecessary and inappropriate.

Hogan (2002) finds that when students engage in service learning, the service activity has the potential to reinforce the negative images that the students have about adult power and authority if not monitored appropriately. For example, students who had been working on an environmental science service learning project had developed a survey for a local environmental group to send out to the public. The organization then told the students that they had decided to use a survey developed by a professional organization instead. This and other similar experiences led the researcher to believe that the students had been sent a message that they were not valued as learners and contributors. Her interviews with students confirmed that (Hogan, 2002).

Although most media sources have been supportive of service learning in general (Billig, 2000b), some have identified the critical argument against service

learning as one of forced service versus volunteerism. They see the two terms as incompatible, calling required volunteerism an oxymoron (Jacobs, 2000). This argument also rallies some parent groups against service learning policies. They feel that students are being sent a mixed message by mandating "good-heartedness." These same people argue that not-for-profit organizations are in desperate need of self-motivated volunteers, not students making command performances.

Organizations such as hospitals have concurred, as one of their problems is a student who merely does the mandatory 20 hours and then quits. They would like to see long-term, motivated volunteers who are interested in providing that service. One of the reasons that this study focused on comparing service learning to government observation was the argument against forced service. The study gauged whether government observations can provide similar student outcomes in terms of an understanding of the responsibilities of adult citizenship. If those outcomes are similar, schools may offer service learning opportunities with an alternative project of government observations that will not fulfill the oxymoron of forced volunteerism. Both projects are experiential and potentially promote the growth of student social capital, but a program that provides options recognizes that "one size does not fit all" in education.

The Research Question—Problems with Data Collection and Design

Most of the arguments mentioned against the inclusion of service learning up to this point came from the perspectives of administrators, teachers, parents, students, and community members. However, academia has also expressed its concerns over the research that is emerging on service learning. Although researchers agree that there is certainly evidence to suggest that service learning can be a powerful pedagogy, the following illustrates why they feel that there is still a great amount of research that needs to be done in order to firmly establish service learning in the curriculum. The first subsection addresses the problems of conducting service learning research when confusion in terminology between service learning and community service impacts study results. Then, the following subsection discusses reasons why educators have found it difficult to generalize the findings from many service learning studies.

Service learning versus community service: Terminology. When summarizing the research, difficulties in defining "service learning" become apparent. Service learning as a term often has a multitude of meanings. Although service learning definitions almost always include the basic criteria of being both personally meaningful and beneficial to the community, service learning advocates can also require a plethora of other distinguishing characteristics that make it difficult to compare programs that consist of only one or several of the other competing aspects of service learning. When reporting results of studies of a variety

of programs, differences in these service learning definitions lead to questions about the general comparability of programs within the studies (Furco, 2003; Pritchard, 2002).

Difficulties in generalizing findings. Perhaps the most commonly cited caveat of generalizing information from studies of service learning programs is that there is very little research out there that meets the criteria of empirical design. Many research studies endeavor to show service learning as the "cause" of some outcome. Random assignment has been the traditional way

> to prove causality because the outcomes experienced by the students who were randomly assigned to the control group could be assumed to be very close to those that the program participants would have experienced had they not been in the program. (Bailis & Melchior, 2003, p. 141)

Because so little has been done that involved random sampling across a variety of programs, Furco (1997) notes that their "findings overall are tenuous and quite limited in their generalizability to other programs" (p. 43). He cites that the non-equivalency of student groups studied also detracts from the ability to generalize results.

An additional challenge to investigating service learning is that there is a lack of appropriate instruments and protocols that can measure the variety of outcomes of service programs across vastly different student populations and community sites (Shumer, 1994). Much of what is out there is geared to a specific program. This is problematic to researchers and program designers as well.

The issue of self-selection of participants also makes it difficult to generalize findings on service learning. When service is not mandatory and takes place in a class where students choose to be part of the program because they are interested in the service that will be conducted, there is difficulty in determining whether the outcomes of the program were due to design or by personal characteristics of participants. Hecht (2003) notes that students who come with previous volunteer experience "or come from a family that values volunteerism...are likely to have different outcomes than other students" (p. 111). This leads to further problems in interpreting data.

Having addressed both the potential benefits and problems associated with the implementation of service learning programs, the next section summarizes the development of social capital theory, its implications in the field of political science, and ways in which social capital theory has been used to investigate service learning.

Social Capital Theory: From Sociology to Political Science and Service Learning

In the past 15 years, social capital has been a concept that has exploded into the academic arena. Robert Putnam (2002) notes that "[o]ne search of the international literature found 20 articles on social capital prior to 1981, 109 between 1991 and 1995, and 1003 between 1996 and March 1999" (p. 5). What he found particularly interesting in this search of the literature was that the work on social

capital had influenced a wide range of disciplines—from sociology and political science to urban planning, criminology, and architecture. For Putnam (2000), social capital is best defined as "the social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them" (p. 19). His definition, most popularly articulated in his work, *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*, is not without controversy. Although Putnam introduces social capital as a term utilized in the work of political scientists to estimate the "civicness" of a community, its origins lie within the field of sociology.

The purpose of this section is to examine some of the seminal works on social capital and how the term has come to be used within the context of political science. The first section discusses the influence of Bourdieu, Loury, Coleman, and Putnam on the development of the term. The next section discusses the way in which social capital has been utilized in service learning research. And the final section describes the research design and findings from service learning studies that have utilized a social capital framework.

Seminal Works in Social Capital Theory

Writing in 1916 to encourage democracy in rural West Virginia, L. Judson Hanifan—an educator and social reformer—first used the term "social capital":

> In the use of the phrase social capital, I make no reference to the usual acceptation of the term capital, except in a figurative sense. I do not refer to real estate, or to personal property or to cold cash, but rather to that in life which tends to make these tangible substances count for most in the daily

lives of people: namely good will, fellowship, sympathy, and social intercourse among the individuals and families who make up a social unit....The individual's helpless socially if left to himself. (cited in Putnam, 2002, p. 4)

Although written almost 90 years ago, the description still emphasizes the key characteristic of examining social capital—the importance of interpersonal connections as a viable, though often intangible, asset. The term itself would go relatively undeveloped for the next 50 years, but through the works of Bourdieu, Loury, Coleman, and Putnam, social capital has been utilized to describe how personal networking serves as a resource.

Bourdieu

Pierre Bourdieu (1986) was one of the first to institutionalize the concept of social capital in the field of sociology. In his work, "The Forms of Capital," he defined social capital as

the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition...which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectively-owned capital, a "credential" which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word. (1986, p. 248)

In other words, for Bourdieu, membership in a group and the relationships that develop from that member are those critical intangible factors (along with cultural capital) that aid individuals in their efforts to create economic capital.

One aspect of social capital that Bourdieu's work emphasized was that the volume of social capital

> possessed by a given agent thus depends on the size of the network of connections he can effectively mobilize and on the volume of capital (economic, cultural or symbolic) possessed in his own right and by each of those to whom he is connected. (1986, p. 249)

By this, he means that social capital produces a multiplier effect on an individual's economic capital. When an individual is well connected with others, his economic and social capital is enhanced.

Another critical contribution that Bourdieu made to the concept of social capital was the idea that personal networks are a "product of investment strategies—individual or collective—consciously or unconsciously aimed at establishing or reproducing social relationships that are directly usable in the short and long term" (1986, p. 249). For Bourdieu, this idea that social capital is an investment strategy allows him to distinguish it from a simple market exchange. In a market exchange, there is an exchange of economic capital without what Bourdieu referred to as "secondary costs" (1986, p. 252). There is a good exchanged for a good or a good exchanged for money. Within the relationships that constitute social capital, exchanges take place; however, it is the relationship that provides access to things that might not have otherwise been available. Within this networking relationship, there is an intangible "exchange" that allows one to enhance his or her economic capital, but there is an expectation of reciprocity at some time in the future which may not be defined when the exchange takes place.

In what Portes (2000) refers to as "the most theoretically refined" (p. 45)

discussion of social capital, Bourdieu regards social capital as the networks that one

possesses that give someone the credentials to enhance his or her economic capital.

Social capital is a gateway to greater profits, and the solidarity of a group is what

helps its members advance.

Loury

While Bourdieu examined the role that social capital plays in acquiring

credentials, Glen Loury (1978) utilized social capital to describe a different

phenomenon. Loury, in "A Dynamic Theory of Racial Income Differences," is

critical of conventional economists who believe that equal opportunity policy could

lead to the eventual elimination of racial discrimination. For Loury (1978),

"traditional theory did not adequately reflect the impact of an individual's family

and community background on his or her acquisition of labor market skills" (p.

153). He used the term "social capital" to reflect "the consequences of social

position" (1978, p. 176) in getting the skills one needs to enhance his or her human

capital. Loury believed social capital represents that intangible factor that when

lacking often prevented one from achieving what innately he or she had the ability

to accomplish.

Loury used the term to describe this personal characteristic, but he did little

to develop a theory on social capital. However, his work strongly influenced

Coleman's (1990) work that would become a standard social psychological

perspective on an individual's social capital and how social capital helps to create

human capital.

Coleman

James S. Coleman is perhaps the individual most closely associated with the

term "social capital" in its current application within the field of sociology. He

utilized social capital to describe how individuals used their relationships in their

families and other social organizations to help create human capital (Coleman,

1988). In one study, he found that social capital influenced differing dropout rates

among individuals who had various family structures and thus varying levels of

support that helped them to achieve an education. For Coleman, social capital is

best defined in describing its function:

> It is not a single entity but a variety of different entities, with two elements
> in common: they all consist of some aspect of social structures, and they
> facilitate certain actions of actors—whether persons or corporate actors—
> within the structure. Like other forms of capital, social capital is productive,
> making possible the achievement of certain ends that in its absence would
> not be possible....Unlike other forms of capital, social capital inheres in the
> structure of relations between actors and among actors. (1988, p. S98)

As in earlier descriptions of social capital, one can see that it involves the

networking of individuals or corporate entities and how their interactions produce

various responses. Additionally, the relationship and the strength of the relationship

constitute social capital for Coleman—social capital does not reside within an

individual. Coleman's influence on the concept of social capital can be seen in his description of the forms of social capital and in his description of social structures that facilitate social capital.

Forms of social capital. For Coleman, social capital takes a variety of forms. One of these forms consists of the obligations and expectations that are part of certain social structures. In this form of social capital, Coleman (1990) describes how in some relationships "people are 'always doing things for each other'" (p. 306). When this happens, there are constantly "credit slips outstanding" (p. 306). If this were a pure market exchange of favors, these slips would be canceled out each time favors were done. However, in a system where people tend to be reliant on each other, they can feel confident going to others and asking for help because there are some credit slips that can be called in for previous services. Coleman describes how there are "two critical elements to this form of social capital: the level of trustworthiness of the social environment, which means that obligations will be repaid, and the extent [quantity] of obligations held" (p. 306). Therefore, someone who is in a trustworthy relationship and has a number of "chips" that can be "cashed in" would be part of a relationship that is high in social capital.

Another form of social capital relies on relationships in social structures as a means of acquiring information. For Coleman, there is a cost to acquire information. When people use their relationships with others in order to gain access to information, they are utilizing the value in a relationship—social capital. Coleman notes that "the relations in this case are valuable for the information they

provide, not for the credit slips they provide" (p. 310). In other words, this differs from a situation in which one uses obligation as the form of coercion to action.

A final and critical form of social capital discussed by Coleman is illustrated by effective norms within a social structure. Although he describes this form of social capital as "fragile" (p. 310), through collective norms one can both "facilitate certain actions but also constrain others" (p. 311). One example that Coleman uses is a collective's ability to inspire individuals "to forgo self-interests to act in the interests of the collectivity" (p. 311). Only through this type of social capital does Coleman feel that people can be inspired to work for the public good—whether that is for strengthening a family or a nation.

Social structures that facilitate social capital. In addition to discussing the forms of social capital, Coleman developed a theory on the characteristics of social structures that enhanced social capital. For Coleman, there are two characteristics of social structures that could facilitate social capital: one was a closure of social networks; the other was something he refers to as appropriable social networks.

Closure refers to a closeness of relationship that exists in a social network that would help enforce various norms. Coleman (1988) uses this to describe how certain relationships are able to "limit negative external effects or encourage positive ones" (p. S105) more effectively than others. When different individuals or collective entities maintain stronger ties, they are better able to work together to enforce community norms.

Appropriable social networks, for Coleman, are those voluntary

organizations that "are brought into being to aid some purpose of those who initiate

them" (1988, p. S108). They refer to networks that are created for a purpose—such

as members of a homeowners' organization, a trade union, or student club.

Coleman (1988, 1990) notes that these types of networks facilitate social capital

because one's participation in such an organization provides one with access to an

even greater collection of social capital.

Putnam

In 1993, Robert D. Putnam published *Making Democracy Work: Civic*

Traditions in Modern Italy. This work represented more than 20 years of research

describing the development of regional governments within the Italian state. This

book also represented the mass introduction of social capital analysis through the

lens of political science. He expanded his theory with the publication of *Bowling*

Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community in 2000. Portes (2000)

writes that this political-science perspective sharply changed the use of social

capital in research. According to Portes:

> Sociological analyses of social capital [had] been grounded on relationships
> between actors or between an individual actor and a group....An interesting
> conceptual twist was introduced by political scientists who equate[d] social
> capital with the level of "civicness" in communities such as towns, cities, or
> even entire countries. (p. 59)

Despite acknowledging Coleman and his work on the externalities (side benefits) of

social capital, Putnam (1993) revolutionized the term by taking it out of the arena in

which it had been used to describe the ways in which networks helped to normalize

individual behavior and introduced it as "features of social organizations, such as

norms and networks, that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating

coordinated actions" (p. 167). For Putnam, social capital still emphasizes the value

of relationships, but it is used as a means of discussing the density of networks in

towns, cities, and countries and how they foster collective action. Putnam (1993,

2000, 2002) feels that areas in which dense networks exist tend to have more social

capital and thus tend to have more civic behavior among its citizens. He (2000)

uses this notion of social capital to argue that America's social capital is on the

decline and makes suggestions on how it can be improved. The following describes

Putnam's contributions to the term "social capital": the concept of social trust and

its development of social capital, differentiating between bonding and bridging

social capital, and social capital's relationship with civic virtue.

Social trust: Norms of reciprocity and networks of civic engagement. One

contribution Putnam made to the theory of social capital involves his perception of

the role that social trust plays in the development of social capital. For Putnam,

social trust is a form of social capital. He feels that social trust in communities

tends to evolve from what he refers to as two related sources—norms of reciprocity

and networks of civic engagement (Putnam, 1993, 2000). In order to better

understand how social capital can be used to analyze the relationships of individuals

within a community, one must better understand Putnam's thoughts on these two

processes.

Norms of reciprocity. Putnam argues that norms of reciprocity are important

in building communities. Like Coleman, Putnam believes that norms are the result

of the socialization process. However, unlike Coleman, Putnam goes so far as to

say that civic education is a critical role in that process (1993, p. 171). Putnam

notes that norms that support social trust "evolve because they lower transaction

costs and facilitate cooperation" (p. 172). Reciprocity, for Putnam, is one of the

norms that foster social trust, and he distinguishes between two forms of reciprocity.

One form of reciprocity for Putnam is balanced reciprocity. In balanced reciprocity,

there is a "simultaneous exchange of items of equivalent value" (p. 172). In other

words, balanced reciprocity is similar to earlier definitions of market exchange

relations. The other form of reciprocity that Putnam discusses is generalized

reciprocity. In a relationship based on generalized reciprocity there is "a continuing

relationship of exchange that is at any given time unrequited or unbalanced, but that

involves mutual expectations that a benefit granted now should be repaid in the

future" (p. 172).

Networks of civic engagement. According to Putnam, networks of civic

engagement play an important role in achieving norms of reciprocity. Networks of

civic engagement consist of those various associations that help nurture collective

action within a community. Whether the associations are through a sports club or a

homeowners' association, members of a community have a support system through which they can achieve a variety of goals. According to Putnam (1993), "Networks of civic engagement are an essential form of social capital: The denser such networks in a community, the more likely that its citizens will be able to cooperate for mutual benefits" (p. 173). When there is a norm of reciprocity within a community, people are more likely to belong to associations. These associations provide the networks through which they can solve community problems. For Putnam, these two terms work together to strengthen social capital within a community.

Social capital: Bonding and bridging. Another contribution that Putnam made to the development of the term "social capital" is the differentiation between bonding social capital and bridging social capital. According to Putnam (2000), bonding social capital is "good…for mobilizing solidarity" (p. 22). In this he means that organizations such as ethnic labor groups, women's groups at churches, and country clubs help to network people in ways that could mobilize people toward a common good. They certainly have the potential to enhance social capital at least within the group. Bridging social capital, conversely, is "better for linkages to external assets and for information diffusion" (p. 22). These groups were more "outward looking" and had the ability to bring diverse people together for collective action. Although it would be inappropriate, according to Putnam, to place a higher value on bonding or bridging social capital—as each can contribute to the strength of ties within a community—bridging has the ability to "generate broader identities

and reciprocity" (p. 23). In terms of creating dense networks, bridging would be more likely to bring together a wider body of individuals or groups.

Social capital and its relationship with civic virtue. Another contribution Putnam made to the concept of social capital is in defining its relationship with civic virtue. Although Coleman (1990) briefly discusses social capital's capacity to promote collective work for the public good, Putnam (2000) makes it a central component of his thesis:

> [S]ocial capital refers to connections among individuals—social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them. In that sense social capital is closely related to what some have called "civic virtue." The difference is that "social capital" calls attention to the fact that civic virtue is most powerful when embedded in a dense network of reciprocal social relations. A society of many virtuous but isolated individuals is not necessarily rich in social capital. (p. 19)

In other words, for Putnam, a community in which many virtuous people work together for the common good is one in which social capital is strong and is preferred over a community in which there are many who demonstrate civic virtue but who do not work together.

Summary of Seminal Works in Social Capital

Social capital has been utilized as a framework through which many disciplines can be examined. Bourdieu, Loury, Coleman, and Putnam all played integral roles in putting social capital on contemporary research agendas. Obviously, the sociological origins have had a powerful impact on analyzing the

role that personal networks play in adding value to relationships. However, through the political-science lens, social capital has become a new way in which we look at service learning and citizenship education. The ways in which networking among community members (through formal and informal processes) creates norms of reciprocity that can achieve collective goals directly informs the way in which we look at citizenship education—in particular, the way in which we prepare students for the responsibilities of citizenship. The next section investigates the ways in which service learning studies have utilized social capital theory.

<u>Service Learning Studies Utilizing Social Capital Framework</u>

Social capital has become a theoretical framework through which a variety of disciplines have looked at how relationships can be valuable—an asset—to individuals, groups, and communities. In the last five years, several researchers have used it as the theory guiding their work on service learning. The following subsections describe the research of Morgan (2002), Kahne et al. (2005), and Koliba (2003). After introducing each study and its findings, the study's use of social capital theory is discussed.

Morgan: Quasi-Experimental Design

In 2002, William D. Morgan, from Indiana University, produced a quasi-experimental study using three different theoretical frameworks to mine data collected from middle school and high school students who had participated in service learning projects. Although Morgan uses the data (in separate chapters) to discuss political efficacy, social capital, and communitarian theory, the analysis of his study in this essay is limited to his chapters on methodology and on service learning's impact on social capital.

The data that Morgan used to conduct his study came from studies that had been done by the Indiana Department of Education to evaluate the service learning programs funded by a federal grant. The data were collected in the form of pretest/posttest surveys that had been completed by participants in the service programs. One should note that not every grantee filled out the surveys. Only programs involving high school and middle school students were surveyed. Morgan noted problems with conducting research with elementary-aged children in his reasoning for excluding them. He also excluded programs involving special education students. One strength of his study is that it included control groups; however, the control group design was only used in the second and third years of the data collection process. Control group data consisted of responses received from students who did not engage in service but did have one of the teachers who was

leading a service learning class. The composite data consisted of 1/3 control group responses and 2/3 participant responses.

Because he was collecting data that were used to analyze results that were pertinent to three different frameworks, there were a variety of questions that appeared on the pretests and posttests. Primarily, the questions consisted of Likert-scale questions with a 5-point response design. The five responses ranged from strongly agree to neutral to strongly disagree. These Likert-scale questions were the questions that were used to analyze the impact of service learning on the three frameworks studied. In addition to the Likert-scale questions, the survey asked students to answer standard demographic questions, such as age, race, gender, GPA, and whether or not the student liked school. Finally, there was a set of questions designed to gauge the context in which the service learning occurred. Under this category, there were questions related to the type of class in which the service occurred, the general category of the type of service, the number of hours served, whether or not reflection occurred, whether or not the student worked with others, whether or not the student was involved in a leadership role, and whether or not the service provided direct service to individuals.

In the questions related to social capital, there was a series of questions that tested students' trust of other people, their interest and behavior about obeying rules, their attitudes about cooperation, and their involvement in informal social activities. There were also questions that gauged student participation in formal clubs and activities and information about their social network.

Once the information was gathered through the survey process, Morgan ran *t*

tests to see if there was a change in average levels of trust, interest and behavior in

obeying rules, etc., as a result of participating in service learning activities as

compared with control-group results. After he determined whether there were

statistically significant changes in those levels, he used some of the contextual

information that had been given about the type of service that the students had done

to determine which program design factors (amount of leadership running the

project, direct vs. indirect service to individuals, use of reflection, etc.) "[affected]

the size of the positive change that the students experience[d]" (Morgan, 2002,

p.153).

Morgan's conclusions. The data collected by Morgan supports the following

changes in social capital indicators as a result of participating in service learning:

- Students involved in service moved to a statistically significant slightly trusting score from a slightly untrusting pretest score.

- In terms of individuals' willingness to obey laws, there was a modest, though statistically significant increase in service participant scores. This was very significant considering the control group actually became slightly less interested in obeying the law during the same time period.

- In an attempt to use actual data to support the "obeying the law" data, student responses about how many times they were sent to the principal's office and the number of times they got in a fight in the previous four weeks also decreased after participating in service, indicating that their willingness to obey rules and laws was supported by discipline data. Once again, control group data on discipline troubles actually indicated that students were less willing to follow the rules; they had an increase in the number of fights and principal referrals.

- There was a statistically significant positive change in the way that service learning participants viewed cooperative behavior even when various controls were used.

- The data were inconclusive on whether or not participation in nonacademic organizations (sports and hobbies) increased in the group of students who participated in service learning.

- There was a statistically significant increase in the number of academic extracurricular activities among students who participated in service learning projects.

- Student perceptions of the social network they could rely on (adults they could turn to, adults who could give them job advice) jumped in a statistically significant manner over the period of the service activity while control group responses actually decreased.

Generally speaking, participation in service learning created an environment where students were more trustful and were more compelled to follow rules. Their experiences also created an environment where cooperation was more a social norm. Evidence linked service learning to increased participation in various organizations and an increased network of individuals who could help students.

Morgan's research also indicates the following program design factors prove to maximize the positive change in student experiences:

- Student voice or leadership roles by students proved to be the only consistently significant factor in producing positive change in student experiences.

- Although other factors were sometimes powerful, they were inconsistently so.

His results mirror previous findings that indicate that determining the features that have the greatest impact has been difficult to study. In the quasi-experimental design model, it is difficult to establish a causal relationship when teacher

performance or some other extraneous factor that cannot be controlled in a study might influence the results. This problem inherent in quasi-experimental design has been expressed by researchers at the national level, particularly in the field of service learning (Billig, 2000b; Furco, 2003). They argue that when comparing programs that are so different in design (yet still service learning), results tend to be suggestive but not definitive.

Morgan's use of social capital. Morgan uses Putnam's (2000) suggestion that service learning has been a pedagogy that has shown promise in re-engaging students as the premise for conducting his study. Because Putnam defines social capital as "features of social life—networks, norms, and trust—that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives" (Morgan, 2002, p.140), Morgan designed questions for the survey that would elicit participant responses as to whether or not social capital had been strengthened through the service learning experience. These indicators of social capital were measured and compared in a pretest/posttest fashion. Overall his results suggest that students who participate in service learning have the opportunity to engage in activities that strengthen social capital.

Kahne, Chi, and Middaugh: Mixed-Methods Approach

Joseph Kahne, Bernadette Chi, and Ellen Middaugh (2005) discuss the use of the CityWorks curriculum in government classes and how its use can foster the

growth of social capital in participants. Although their study does not focus

specifically on service learning and its effects, service learning is a component of

the curriculum that uses a variety of experiential learning tools to engage students in

ways that foster civic participation, social trust, and knowledge of social networks.

(Although this study has not been published, the *Canadian Journal of Education* has

accepted it.)

The purpose of Kahne et al.'s study was to determine the potential of

CityWorks to be utilized as a civic education program that also promotes the growth

of active citizenship and social capital. Kahne et al.'s research model utilized mixed

methods—quasi-experimental design followed up with qualitative data. Data were

collected from 231 high school seniors who were in U.S. Government classes in

high schools in the metropolitan area of Los Angeles. Four classrooms worked with

the CityWorks curriculum while two classes used the traditional curriculum and

served as the control group.

The primary information used to examine the influence the curriculum had

on students was a set of pretest and posttest surveys that assessed students' sense of

commitment to citizenship, feelings of trust in a variety of social institutions, and

knowledge of social networks. Information from this data was used to measure

CityWorks participants' changes in attitudes over time and to compare those

changes with those in the control group.

Additional pretest and posttest survey items were administered to the

CityWorks participants and the control group. These items were used to gauge

whether students were exposed to the following types of classroom activities:

opportunities that focus on the importance of civic and political engagement

(service learning, simulations, and exposure to role models) and curriculum that

focuses on civic content (information about how local government works, causes of

community problems, and issues that matter to students).

Finally, qualitative data were collected from interviews with teachers and

focus groups of students. These were used "to help us understand survey responses

and to identify issues and reasoning that were not captured in surveys [e.g., why

they found simulations or exposure to role models valuable]" (Kahne et al., 2005, p.

10).

Kahne and colleagues' conclusions. The data collected by Kahne et al.

support the following information as it relates to the use of the U.S. Government

course as a means of fostering active citizenship and gains in social capital as

measured by commitments to engagement, social trust, and knowledge of social

networks:

- Participants in the CityWorks curriculum showed greater gains on civic outcome measures than those in control classrooms. This was reinforced by qualitative data.

- Participants showed positive gains in their self-reported commitment to civic and public norms of engagement. This was reinforced by qualitative data.

- CityWorks participants showed marginally significant gains in knowledge of social networks.

- Differences in measures of trust were not statistically significant.

- Certain teaching strategies demonstrated significant gains in student attitudes toward the curriculum but were dependent on teacher implementation. (When poorly implemented, some groups using the curriculum actually showed declines in attitude.)

- The potential of the high school government curriculum to support development of specific indicators of social capital—commitments to engagement, social trust, and knowledge of social networks—was apparent.

- Although the research suggests that certain types of classroom strategies (simulations, service learning, and use of role models) promote these gains, the research does not explain why.

Generally speaking, Kahne and colleagues' use of mixed methods to investigate the impact of the CityWorks curriculum on indicators of social capital provided useful, if sometimes inconclusive, information.

Kahne and colleagues' use of social capital. The use of social capital in this study is grounded in the work of Coleman and his typology of forms of social capital: social capital in the form of community norms, social capital in the form of trust, and social capital in the form of access to networks. Kahne et al. designed a survey that measured in a pretest/posttest fashion how students who had engaged in the CityWorks curriculum had gained on these measures as compared to control group members. Admittedly, in reading Kahne and colleagues' work, social capital is a framework that has been forced on the evaluation of the curriculum. Their analysis is more focused on the types of activities that make gains in civic measure than on how any changes represent growth in networks, trust, and norms. However, his discussion of how the U.S. Government curriculum has failed to engage students

in meaningful experiences was convincing and was relevant to a discussion of social capital.

Koliba: Qualitative Multisite Case Study

Christopher J. Koliba, from the University of Vermont, published a multisite case study of how seven rural school districts across one New England state "understood the relationship between school culture, school-community relations, and service learning" (Koliba, 2003, p. 339). His goal was to use the multisite case study approach to obtain a composite view of service learning in each school and how these programs fostered the growth of social capital through the establishment of dense networks within the community. Within the case study model, he used data collected from teachers, students, school administrators, and community members to learn how factors such as leadership and policy affect the sustainability of service learning practices.

Data were collected during the 1999-2000 academic school year. During this time, a trained researcher was assigned to each of the schools. He or she spent at least 14 days during the school year conducting semistructured interviews with most or all of the teachers and support staff and administrators. Then, a select group of parents, students, board members, and community members was also interviewed. More than 280 interviews took place through this process.

In addition to interviews, researchers went to classrooms to observe the settings, observed service learning projects, attended community events, and observed celebrations. All this was done in seven schools recommended by the state service learning coordinator. Even though all had been recipients of federal money supporting service learning practices, their experience levels in service learning varied. Five of the schools had been participating in service learning since the beginning of the 1990s and had been among the first in their state to adopt service learning practices, whereas two others had only recently adopted service learning practices. One should note that of the seven schools, three were elementary institutions, two were K-8 schools, one was a pre-K-12 school, and one was a 7-12 school. These demographics reiterate the rural nature of this study.

Koliba's conclusions. The following summarizes the results of Koliba's findings:

- All of the service learning efforts required students to enter into relationships with people outside of their immediate peer group.

- Many of the projects involved students meeting real community needs such as documenting community history, informing community members about news and events, providing "stewardship to local environs" (p. 340), or solving some other community problem.

- As a result of the case studies, a typology of service learning opportunities was constructed.

- Examples of project relationships that allowed for the development of social capital (as recognized by both the participants in the service as well as the adults in the community) included:

    - Opportunities to seek guidance from adults.

- Developing new relationships with teachers (as a result of the different types of interaction that occurs in a service learning opportunity).

- Increased trust in relationships between adults and students as a result of witnessing students acting responsibly in their service work.

- A variety of new relationships forged between adults and students (dense network) in the community.

- Evidence in schools that had been using service for longer periods of time suggests that relationships built through one project often provided the connection through which a separate service learning opportunity developed.

Koliba's study highlights how service learning might be a valuable pedagogy in fostering social capital in a community—particularly in building relationships between students and the community and in relationships between the school and the community. However, he explicitly notes that a variety of data, including empirical data, are needed to try to establish a causal relationship between service learning and the strengthening of social capital.

Koliba's use of social capital. Koliba's use of social capital is grounded in Coleman's later work on social capital. Koliba quotes Coleman as stating that when he [Coleman] refers to social capital in the raising of children, he is referring to

> the norms, the social networks, and the relationships between adults and children that are of value for the child's growing up. Social capital exists within the family [his earlier theory], but also outside the family, in the community...in the interest, even in the intrusiveness, of one adult in the activities of someone else's child. (Koliba, 2003, p. 337)

He also quotes Coleman as later advocating a definition of social capital that refers to the "community social organization" (Koliba, 2003, p. 337) that is useful in the

development of a child. Koliba uses these definitions to support the fact that service

learning provides opportunity for interactions between community members,

teachers, and students that can help students grow in their understanding of the role

that relationships play in sustaining a community of giving as well as in expanding

the networks of interaction in communities that leads to what Putnam considers the

social capital of the community. The data he gathers through the case study process

and interviews determine whether networks have been developed through the

service learning process.

Social capital theory originated in the field of sociology but has been

adopted by political scientists to describe the density of networks of engagement in

communities. For the purpose of this study, Putnam's focus on how service

learning might be a vehicle through which Americans can be introduced to the

importance of civic engagement is critical to examining Greenfield High School's

service and government observation program. However, studies by Morgan (2002),

Koliba (2003), and Kahne et al. (2005) have also influenced the design of this study.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, three major strains of research were discussed.

First, the crisis in civic education and citizenship education was addressed. Through

this investigation, the Civic Mission of Schools Report framework for effective

civic education was discussed as well as Kahne and Westheimer's concerns over the

design of service learning curriculum relative to civic education and citizenship education.

Next, general service learning research was summarized. Within this section, structured reflection is identified as an important part of the service learning curriculum. Within this section, Barber's call for mandatory service was articulated. A final part of this section discussed concerns some have expressed over service learning.

Finally, the framework of social capital theory was discussed. Within this section, seminal works in social capital were summarized as well as social capital's connection to civic education and citizenship education. Key research studies incorporating social capital in service learning studies were also addressed.

This study examined the use of a mandatory citizenship education program that utilized service learning and government observations within the United States Government curriculum to introduce students to the responsibilities of adult citizenship. Chapter III describes the study methodology. Chapters IV and V present the results, including the document review findings and interviews/reflection papers data, respectively. Finally, Chapter VI discusses study findings as well as their implications for future study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine one suburban high school's use of a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that used service learning and an alternative government observation project as a means of promoting the behaviors of active citizenship. This case study used document review, archival records, and interviews in an effort to interpret participant and stakeholder experiences. Toward that end, this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum?

2. What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is integrated into the United States Government curriculum?

3. How do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship?

4. In what ways are service-learning experiences and government

observations comparable?

This chapter discusses the methodology used for the study. In the first

section, the selection of the research design is articulated. Then, after describing the

data collection techniques, data collection procedures, and participant recruitment,

data analysis and data presentation are discussed.

Research Design

Within the fields of service learning and citizenship education, a variety of

methods have been utilized. Morgan (2002) used a strictly quantitative approach to

measure the impact of service learning on student political efficacy and social

capital. Koliba (2003) utilized qualitative evidence to conduct a multisite case study

of service schools where the goals of the programs were tied to social capital

indicators. Finally, Kahne et al. (2005) adopted a mixed-methods approach to study

the impact of a specific citizenship education curriculum on student outcomes as

they related to social capital. In each of these studies, research questions guided the

design of the study. Because this study describes one high school's implementation

of a mandatory citizenship education program and the way in which students

perceived those experiences, qualitative methods were used to investigate the

phenomenon. The following section further explains why a qualitative case study

method was employed for this study.

Qualitative Research

Merriam (2002) and Bogdan and Biklen (2003) identify several key

characteristics that constitute interpretive qualitative research design. First, they

note that qualitative research is descriptive. For them, words and pictures are

utilized rather than numbers. They also note that the research process is inductive—

abstractions are built from coded data. Finally, another key characteristic of

qualitative research is that there is a focus on participant perspective. In other

words, the purpose of qualitative research is to understand the meaning that people

assign to their world.

Regardless of how one defines qualitative research, certain factors become

clear. Qualitative researchers are "intrigued with the complexity of social

interactions as expressed in the daily life and with the meanings the participants

themselves attribute to those interactions" (Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p. 2). This

case study describes the experiences of stakeholders, both implementers and

participants, in one high school's mandatory citizenship education program.

Because qualitative methods are useful for investigating participant perspectives of

their experiences, qualitative methods were chosen to conduct the study. However,

qualitative research is often used as an umbrella term to describe a variety of

research methods: phenomenology, ethnography, portraiture, grounded theory, life

history, and case study. Because the purpose of this study was to examine one high

school's implementation of a citizenship education program as well as to investigate

student perspectives of those experiences, case study methodology was used in determining research design. The following section describes case study methodology and why it was appropriate for the design of this study.

Case Study Methodology

Although there are a variety of qualitative approaches that can be used, case study methodology was the most compatible with this study based on the research questions and study participants. Unfortunately, case study has been difficult to define because it takes such a variety of forms in literature ranging from psychology and sociology to business and community planning. Another reason that case study is difficult to define is that there are competing definitions among academics. Yin (2003), in his two-part definition, notes that case study should not be categorized as a data collection strategy or a design factor; rather, it should be referred to as a comprehensive research strategy.

Stake (2000), however, defines case study as "both a process of inquiry about the case and the product of that inquiry" (p. 436). He uses the standard that if the object of study is "a specific, unique, bounded system" (p. 436), then it likely can be researched as a case study. In this study, the program that was examined was clearly a bounded program that used service projects and government observations within the government curriculum to promote citizenship education. Case study methodology was the most appropriate approach under these conditions.

In addition, regardless of one's definition of case study, Merriam (1998) notes that case studies are suitable for research projects that are interested in process. For example, two of the research questions guiding this study sought to document how a school can manage service projects and government observations within the government curriculum: How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum? What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is integrated into the United States Government curriculum? Merriam (1998) would argue that these questions identify process-related issues that would justify the case study method.

Merriam (1998) also notes that case study work is relevant for studies examining innovations and informing policy. Using this rationale, case study methodology was adopted for this study as it attempted to document a unique way in which one school had incorporated service and government observations to promote citizenship education.

The two final research questions focused on student perspectives of their experiences. Yin (2003) argues that "how" and "why" questions are appropriate for case study research. In this study, examining "how" students experienced service opportunities and government observations was important for several reasons. First, understanding their experiences allowed curriculum planners and teachers to determine whether the goals of the program matched the product of the program. Examining how students perceived their experiences also allowed those interested in

mandatory service to determine whether a project that utilizes an alternative project to service (government observations) is comparable. If the experiences are comparable, then a program that mandates service has a viable option to avoid the oxymoron of "forced volunteerism."

Studying student perspectives of their experiences also allowed the researcher to determine whether service and government observations inspired students to view the responsibilities of citizenship differently. Because the participants were all taking a common government curriculum at the same time they were taking the service or meetings requirement, qualitative case study methods using document review and interviewing better allowed the researcher to look at the context under which these experiences took place. Having articulated why case study methodology was appropriate for the design of this study, the next section discusses the researcher's rationale for including various data in the study as well as the procedures used to collect them.

Data Collection and Data Collection Procedures

The most critical aspect of designing the data collection process for a study is ensuring that the data collected is able to reveal information that is relevant to the research questions that guide the study (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). In conducting case studies, Yin (2003) and Merriam (1998) identify six types of data sources that may be useful for the researcher: documents, archival records, interviews, direct

observation, participant observation, and physical artifacts. In order to conduct a

case study of one high school's use of service experiences and government

observation experiences as part of its mandatory citizenship education program,

documents, archival records, and interviews were used. The forms of data that were

collected are defined and described in the following sections.

Documents

For Yin (2003), documents may take a variety of forms: letters, memoranda,

agendas, written reports of events, administrative documents, and newspaper

clippings or articles. In conducting a case study, documents are a vital part of data

collection because they help "corroborate and augment evidence from other

sources" (p. 87). Because they are such stable forms of data, they can be viewed

and reviewed by the researcher throughout different stages of the case study.

Mertens (2005) identifies the following strengths in using documents in research: it

allows the researcher to get comprehensive information about the program, it does

not interrupt the program, and it is information that is already in existence; it does

not need to be generated as part of the research process. However, the use of

documentation does require the researcher to address certain concerns. First and

foremost, documents can show bias. That bias may be reflective of the author of the

document, but researchers must also be careful not to be biased in the document

selection process (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). Yin (2003) identifies retrievability of

documents (which can be low) and obtaining access to program documents as being additional potential weaknesses in collecting documents as data.

For the purposes of this study, student reflection papers were identified for data collection. Student reflection papers consisted of those documents that were created by students as they completed their service experiences or government observation experiences. They were 3- to 5- page, typed papers that were written in response to a writing prompt which asked students to summarize and reflect on their experiences and were considered a mandatory component of the citizenship education project. By collecting these documents, the researcher had access to the stories of many more students than would be possible through the interview process alone.

Because the researcher has worked with the school for 13 years, issues related to the problem of accessibility were not an issue. However, as Yin (2003) notes, one must remember "that every document is written for some specific purpose and some specific audience other than those of the case study being done" (p. 87). Obviously students who were seeking grades on their projects wrote these papers. Some would be concerned that students would edit their information in a way that would "please" the teacher to ensure a higher grade. In fact, Bogdan and Biklen (2003) emphasize that understanding the intent of document authors can end up limiting the credibility of a study's research design—in this case, the fact that it was written as part of a mandatory project in a class. However, the prompt was written in a way that encouraged students to summarize and reflect on both the

positive and negative aspects of their experiences. Additionally, the assessment tool was designed to value the inclusion of various prompt components and the quality of the essay structure rather than the opinions of the students. To factor in this concern over reflection-paper content, the documents were utilized in their capacity to further "paint a picture" of the types of experiences students had in the program, but information was corroborated through interviews and archival records. The procedures that were used to collect student reflection papers is described in the section describing participants and participant recruitment.

Archival Records

Mertens (2005) distinguishes between archival records and documents by emphasizing the "officialness" of archival records. Among items that Yin (2003) considers archival records are service records, organization records, maps and charts, lists, survey data, and personal records. Although archival records have many of the same strengths and weaknesses as documents, there are some separate issues in using archival records. As a strength, Bogdan and Biklen (2003) and Merriam (1998) note that archival records can be used effectively in retrieving quantitative data about a program. Mertens (2005) expands on this by citing that archival records are good for "gathering the necessary background of the situation and insights into the dynamics of everyday functioning" (p. 389). However, as in the use of documents, archival records have the potential for bias. Yin (2003)

argues that in using archival records, one "must be careful to ascertain the conditions under which it was produced as well as its accuracy" (p. 89).

For the purposes of this study, archival records were used to generate a comprehensive image of the citizenship education program. In this study, several types of archival records were significant. Program descriptor documents are the first set of archival records described. Program descriptor documents refer to any school/program-generated documents that helped inform others about how the program works. In this category, there were three records. First, there was a program manual that explained the program content and procedures. The manual also defined the types of meetings and service accepted and the steps through which students should proceed to complete the project. There was also a flier that was developed to be a brief explanation and introduction to the program. These two documents were used to gather procedural information about the program—the way in which things should work. Another document in this program descriptor category was the United States Government curriculum map. This document provided information about the way in which the project was intended to be incorporated into the curriculum. This information was cross-referenced with teacher and student interviews to determine if the intended incorporation into the curriculum met the actual incorporation into the curriculum.

A second category of archival records collected consisted of student verification forms. Each time a student attended a service event or government meeting, he or she was required to get a form signed by a service supervisor or a

board member to confirm student attendance. These forms contain important

contact information about the service site or meeting place that allowed the school

service coordinator to verify attendance and log participation. For the purposes of

this study, these forms allowed the researcher to compile a typology of service

completed as well as a distribution of meetings attended. These forms also allowed

for a numeric analysis of student participation.

Student verification forms were collected in an effort to describe the types of

service and meetings students attended in order to complete the required project.

Although the researcher originally thought that she would collect the forms only

from second-semester experiences, a discussion with the other service coordinator

determined that there tended to be different types of service completed each

semester. In order to produce a more complete typology of service, forms from both

semesters were used. These forms were collected from each teacher who taught

United States Government at the end of the spring semester in June of 2006.

Archival records were determined to play an important role in describing the

day-to-day functioning of the citizenship education project. The program manual,

program flier, and the curriculum map were readily available to the researcher due

to her role as service coordinator within the program. These items were acquired to

help describe how the program operates.

Although informed consent forms and parental assent forms were collected

from students who submitted reflection papers (see Appendix A), the researcher

determined that the release forms were not necessary with the collection of the

verification forms. Because no data gathered from the forms were tied to a specific student, no harm would result from merely collecting descriptive statistics on where and when students attended events. The researcher also determined that these were forms that were regularly compiled for the program in order to complete grant information. Because the school regularly kept this information and none of the information garnered would be tied to a specific student, release forms were deemed unnecessary.

Interviews

Yin (2003) notes that interviews are one of the most important sources of information in a case study. Advantages of using interviews include the fact that they can be used to target specific case study questions as well as the fact that interviews yield "insightful" (p. 86) information. Interviews, according to Merriam (1998) and Yin (2003), are insightful because they provide the researcher with in-depth information about how the interviewee perceives his or her experiences. Although Mertens (2005) agrees that interviews can be used to "fully understand someone's impressions or experiences" (p. 345), she notes that they can also be time consuming, hard to analyze and compare, and costly. She also warns that interviewers can bias responses. To combat these weaknesses, Yin (2003) identifies two goals of the interviewer. First, the interviewer must follow his or her own line of inquiry as articulated in the case study protocol. This allows the interviewer to

stay focused. However, Yin (2003) also encourages the interviewer to ask questions in an unbiased manner. Along these lines, he suggests avoiding pointed "why" questions if they would make the respondent defensive. Turning "why" questions into "how" questions can aid that process.

Although Yin (2003) identifies three types of interview questioning—open-ended, focused, and survey—this study relied on only two of those techniques. First, it utilized open-ended questioning to gauge student perceptions of their experiences. This type of questioning, which Mertens (2005) refers to as semi-structured interviews, allowed the researcher to determine how students related their experiences to the responsibilities of citizenship. These questions also helped the researcher compare experiences of those who completed service and those who attended government meetings. In essence, these interviews, which lasted 30-45 minutes, were similar to Kvale's (1996) definition of semistructured life-world interviewing. For Kvale (1996), a qualitative research interview is "an interview whose purpose is to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomenon" (pp. 5-6). In this study, however, the phenomena explored were limited to student service experiences and government observation experiences.

Each student interview was based on an interview protocol designed to gauge perceptions of their service and government observation experiences and lasted between 30 and 45 minutes (see Appendix B). This protocol was test piloted with two former students of the researcher—one service participant and one

government observation participant—as part of a qualitative research project during July of 2002. Once the interviews were audiotaped and completed, transcriptions of the interviews were typed. These finished products were mailed to participants to confirm that the words in the document represented how they felt about their experiences. Kvale (1996) notes that in using audiotaped interviews, reliability checks, often referred to as member checks, should be utilized. For this reason, students were then invited to either e-mail or phone the researcher with any corrections they wished to make to the content of their interviews. No students responded to that request.

The second type of interview that was selected for this case study is what Yin (2003) referred to as the focused interview. For Yin (2003), a focused interview is one in which the respondent is interviewed for a shorter amount of time for a specific purpose. These can often be used as part of an effort to corroborate information from another source. However, in this study, focused interviews were utilized to gather information from administrators, teachers, and members of local government boards that helped describe the overall picture of the program as well as explain the context under which this program originated. The question protocols for those interviews can be found in Appendix B.

Adults were interviewed during the months of June, July, and August of 2006. Five of the seven adult interviews were audiotaped and transcribed. These transcriptions were then sent to participants to conduct a member check. Two board members preferred to be interviewed by phone without audiotape. For these two

interviews, the researcher took notes, typed up a report of those notes, and mailed the notes to the participants as part of the member check. Although only five of the adult participants responded to the researcher that they had received the copies of their notes or transcript, each mentioned that they felt comfortable with the ways in which their answers had been transcribed or translated into notes.

As stated earlier, two forms of interviews were utilized to conduct this study. Open-ended interviews were used to gather information from students about their experiences, whereas focused interviews were conducted with a variety of adults who could elaborate on various aspects of the program. A chart correlating each interview guide's questions with the research questions can be found in Table 1.

Summary of Data Collection

The goal of data collection in conducting a case study is to assemble multiple forms of data that allow the researcher to develop what Yin (2003) refers to as "converging lines of inquiry" (p. 98). These converging lines of inquiry are often referred to as data triangulation (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Merriam, 1998; Mertens, 2005; Yin, 2003). This case study used documents, archival records, and interviews in order to provide the researcher with the opportunity to corroborate information in analyzing how a citizenship education program using service and government observations operated and how students perceived their experiences. Table 2

depicts the research questions that guide this study aligned with the evidence that

were collected and analyzed to answer those questions.

Table 1

Alignment of Interview Protocol Questions with Research Questions

Research Question	Student Interview Guide Question Number	Teacher Interview Guide Question Number	Administrator Interview Guide Question Number	Community Member Interview Guide Question Number
How has one, suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship education program within the government curriculum?	1, 2, 6, 7	1, 2, 4, 5	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	1, 2, 3, 4
How is the program integrated into the United States Government curriculum?	3, 4, 8	2, 3		
How do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship?	3, 4, 6, 8			
In what ways are service-learning experiences and government observations comparable?	2, 3, 4, 5, 8			

Table 2

Research Questions Aligned with Type of Data Collected and Analyzed

Research Question	Student Interviews	Teacher Interviews	Administrator Interviews	Community Member Interviews	Program Documents	Student Reflection Papers
How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum?	x	x	x	x	x	x
What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is integrated into the United States Government curriculum?	x	x			x	x
How do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship?	x				x	x
In what ways are service-learning experiences and government observations comparable?	x	x			x	x

Although Yin (2003) notes that observation and physical artifacts can also be used in conducting case studies, these forms of evidence were inappropriate for this study. Due to the researcher's close relationship to the program, she did not fit the profile of someone who conducts direct observation—an outsider observing the event and program in as neutral a format as possible. Time and cost constraints also prohibited the training of an outside person to conduct those observations.

Although participant observation was considered in the design process, it was not utilized due to the wide variety of meetings and service events that students attend. Any structured method of identifying service sites and government meetings to attend would not yield information that was representative of all sites. Physical artifacts were not considered either, as the program did not produce anything that fit the description of physical artifacts.

Although surveys were considered in the design process, the researcher determined that student interviews would be a more appropriate way to investigate student perspectives of their experiences. In-depth interviews with student participants provided a way for student voices to speak about the program. Because other forms of evidence were available to corroborate information from student interviews (documents, archival records, and other stakeholder interviews), the researcher determined that interview bias could be minimized through data triangulation. Having discussed why various sources were determined to be part of the study, the next section discusses participant recruitment.

Participants and Participant Recruitment

The school from which these data were collected is a public school of approximately 1,700 students located in a southwest suburb of Chicago in Cook County, Illinois. The high school, which is referred to in this study as Greenfield High School, has an ethnically diverse population of White, Hispanic, Polish, Arabic, Asian, and Black students. Although the school report card states that the student population is 77.3% White, 20.3% Hispanic, 2.1% Asian/Pacific Islander, .2% Native American, and .1 % Black, statistics for the ethnic Polish and Arabic students were unavailable as they are not differentiated in the White population statistics. Additionally, although the school report card indicates that only 4.3% of the student body is considered Limited English Proficient (LEP), it is common for many of the students to speak a language other than English in the home. Out of 123 students enrolled in classes taught by the researcher during the spring semester of 2006, 69 students spoke languages other than English at home. Therefore, in many ways this study investigated a population in which many student parents either are not citizens or have only recently become citizens.

One should also note that at Greenfield High School, there are two levels of United States Government courses. Traditionally, there have been two sections of honors students each year—one each semester—and then the rest of the students are enrolled in the standard-level curriculum. Unless a student qualifies for the LEP (in Polish) or honors-level class, college preparatory students, English language

transitional students, and special education students are all enrolled in the same standard-level curriculum. A total of 13 sections of United States Government were taught in the 2005-2006 school year.

Because this case study relied on data that comes from a variety of sources, this section is divided into two parts. First, the student participant sample is described. In this section, participants are divided into two categories: those students who assented to allow the researcher to use their student reflection papers and those students who assented to be part of the student interview process. The second section describes the purposively selected adult participants who were interviewed as part of the case study.

Student Participants

During the fall and spring semesters of the 2005-2006 school year, 291 students were enrolled in United States Government at Greenfield High School. Student participants were recruited through informational presentations delivered to six sections of United States Government classes and four sections of Economics classes (students who had completed the project during their first-semester United States Government class). Although there were two other sections of Economics classes, time constraints did not allow the researcher to present in those sections. At the conclusion of the informational presentations, students were asked to assent to being part of the interview pool and/or assent to allow the researcher to use the

student's reflection paper as part of the study. During the two-day period in which presentations were made (May 22-23, 2006), 160 of the possible 291 students completed assent forms for their reflection papers to be utilized and 58 students assented to be part of the interview pool. However, out of the 160 students who agreed to let the researcher use their reflection papers, only 100 of the students returned the parent consent form. The next two subsections profile and describe the 100 students who submitted reflection papers and 58 students who were part of the interview pool. (Assent and consent forms are found in Appendix A.)

Student Reflection Paper Participants

Of the 100 students who submitted reflection papers with the required consent and assent forms, 38% were male and 62% were female. Students who completed the meetings portion of the project submitted 54% of the papers while students who completed service submitted 46% of the papers. The 100 papers submitted also represent the work of students in 11 out of the 13 sections of United States Government that were offered at Greenfield High School during the fall and spring semesters of the 2005-2006 school year. The distribution of those papers by semester, teacher, and section are illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3

Student Reflection Paper Participant Sample

Semester	Teacher	Period	Students Enrolled in Section	Student Participants
Fall	Teacher A	1 Honors	20	7
	Teacher A	6	23	5
	Teacher A	7	25	0
	Teacher B	6	22	0
	Researcher	2	24	8
	Researcher	3	23	2
	Researcher	4	26	13
Spring	Teacher A	5 Honors	20	12
	Teacher A	7	26	8
	Teacher C	5	18	7
	Researcher	2	23	16
	Researcher	3	28	16
	Researcher	4	13	6
Totals			291	100

Based on the data from Table 3, fall service and government observation

participants represent 35% of the reflection paper sample while the remaining 64%

of the papers came from students who completed the project during the spring

semester of their senior year. Part of the disparity is in the two sections of

Economics students who did not see the recruitment presentation. However,

another factor that influenced fall-semester participation rates was the fact that

reflection papers had been returned to students at the completion of the fall semester

in several of the sections, and students no longer had access to the files to share with

the researcher.

Table 3 also shows that participation rates in the researcher's sections were

higher than those sections that were taught by other instructors. The researcher

taught 47% of the students enrolled in United States Government during the fall and spring semesters of the 2005-2006 school year, but 61% of the reflection paper sample came from sections that she taught. Although the sample seems biased toward students who worked with the researcher, the researcher determined that those students would not be eliminated from the sample because the goal of the study was to create a composite look at the program, enabling all students who took United States Government at Greenfield High School to participate.

Due to the large number of reflection papers in the sample, references are not pseudonyms. Rather, codes are used to indicate different sources. The labels S01 through S46 are used to denote reflection papers by students who completed service. M01 through M54 are used to cite reflection papers completed by students who attended meetings.

Student Interview Participants

Out of the 291 students who were enrolled in United States Government at Greenfield during the fall and spring semesters of the 2005-2006 school year, 58 students had indicated a willingness to be part of the interview pool by signing assent forms at the recruitment presentations. Of these 58 students, 18 (31%) were male and 40 (69%) were female. Government observation students comprised 53% of the sample (31 students) while service students made up the other 47% (27 students).

Seidman (1998) notes that in the field of interviewing, random sampling is generally prohibitive because there is no sample size large-enough to ensure generalizability. Additionally, even if there were a large enough sample, the element of "self-selection" (p. 44) would always have to be considered. After generating the sample of 58 students for the interviews, students were entered into a spreadsheet and identified by completing either the service or government observation portion of the project. The researcher determined the importance of identifying the project they completed in order to get a balanced sample; therefore, a hat pull was conducted for each subset. After conducting the hat pull, students were called in order to arrange an interview.

The researcher set an original goal of completing 10 interviews, five for each project type. After making 23 phone calls, a set of five interviews from the service student sample and five interviews from the government observation student sample were arranged. Of these 10 students, one was male and nine were female. This disparity reflects the fact that there were fewer males in the interview pool (31%) as well as the fact that the hat pull determined the phone call order. A distribution of the interview sample by semester, teacher, and section are illustrated in Table 4. Saturation of data was satisfied with the interviews of five service and five government observation students.

Table 4

Student Interview Participant Sample

Semester	Teacher	Period	Students Enrolled in Section	Student Participants by Government Observations (GO) or Service (S)
Fall	Teacher A	1 Honors	20	2 GO
	Teacher A	6	23	
	Teacher A	7	25	
	Teacher B	6	22	
	Researcher	2	24	
	Researcher	3	23	
	Researcher	4	26	1 S
Spring	Teacher A	5 Honors	20	
	Teacher A	7	26	1 GO
	Teacher C	5	18	1 GO
	Researcher	2	23	2 S
	Researcher	3	28	2 S
	Researcher	4	13	1 GO
Totals			291	5 GO, 5 S

Although the 58-student interview sample had mirrored the sample of

reflection-paper students in terms of the percentage of students who had been in a

section taught by the researcher, 59% and 61% respectively, Table 4 demonstrates

that the actual percentage of interviewees who had been in a section taught by the

researcher was 70%. This disparity is the result of the calling order established

through the hat pull and the availability of students in setting an interview

appointment. Although there is no guarantee that the sample selected represented

the diverse Hispanic, Polish, and Arabic ethnic groups within the school, the use of

reflection papers mediated any concerns that the student information did not

represent the program as a whole.

The following pseudonyms were used for students who participated in interviews: Anna, Dylan, Katie, Liz, Maggie, Mallory, Maria, Meredith, Nicole, and Shannon.

Adult Participants

Adult participants were purposively selected for their ability to inform various aspects of the service and government observation program. Table 5 describes the seven adults who were interviewed as part of this case study. In addition to describing the title of the person interviewed, the person's relevance to the study is described. All names given to school personnel who were interviewed are pseudonyms.

Although the researcher intended to interview at least one more United States Government teacher from Greenfield High School, no other teacher in the department (other than the researcher and Service Coordinator Kelly) met the requirement that he or she needed to have supervised service and government observation students and implemented the curriculum for at least three years since the program was made a mandatory component of the program. Having discussed the participant recruitment process, the focus of this chapter turns to data analysis.

Table 5

Description of Adult Interview Participants

Interviewee and Date	Individual Interviewed	Relevance to Case Study
Dr. Mark Burns June 14, 2006	Retired Greenfield Superintendent	This former administrator served as Division Chair when program was integrated into the U. S. Government curriculum. He also served as Superintendent when program was adopted as a mandatory project of the U.S. Government curriculum. As Superintendent, he hosted students at board meetings.
Ms. Debra Hughes July 14, 2006	Retired Greenfield Curriculum Director	This former administrator served as the District Curriculum Director when program was adopted as a mandatory project of the U.S. Government curriculum. She also hosted students at board meetings as part of the administrative team that attended school board meetings.
Ms. Carol Kelly June 19, 2006	Female Teacher with 12 Years Experience with Program	This teacher has served as service coordinator for 12 years and discussed how service/government observation experience is integrated into curriculum.
Local Board Member A July 24, 2006	Greenfield City Board Member	This board member serves on a board located within the Greenfield High School District borders. It was the most attended site that was located within school district borders.
Local Board Member B August 7, 2006	Greenfield Elementary District Board Member	This board member serves on a board located within the Greenfield High School District borders. It was the second most attended site that was located within school district borders.
Neighboring Board Member C July 17, 2006	Oak Ridge Village Board Member	This board member serves on a board located outside the Greenfield High School District borders. It was the most attended site that was located outside school district borders.
Neighboring Board Member D July 18, 2006	Hickory Glen Village Board Member	This board member serves on a board located outside the Greenfield High School District borders. It was the second most attended site that was located outside school district borders.

Data Analysis and Presentation

For Wolcott (1994), the transformation of qualitative data comes through description, analysis, and interpretation. Description is the process through which one identifies meaningful information. Wolcott (1994) notes that it is through description that the "researcher singles out some things as worthy of note and relegates others to the background" (p. 13). Then, through analysis, a process that is "less speculative" (p. 26), the researcher organizes the meaningful information in ways that highlights themes. Displaying findings, identifying patterned regularities, and critiquing the research process can all be part of analysis. And then, having fleshed out the critical information and themes, the researcher undertakes the process of interpreting those themes. For Wolcott (1994), interpretation is the point in the analytic process "at which the researcher transcends factual data and cautious analysis and begins to probe into what is to be made of them" (p. 36).

For this study, analysis occurred in two stages. The first stage was descriptive analysis. During this stage, descriptive information about the program was analyzed to develop a conceptual picture of student experiences. It was during this phase that student verification forms were mined to create service typologies and a distribution of meetings attended. During this process, student participation was also analyzed in terms of student completion rates. Student verification forms were the only data utilized during this phase.

However, after using archival records to document program participation, student interview transcripts, stakeholder interview transcripts, student reflection papers, and program documents were analyzed. The documents were all coded to identify meaningful information as related to the research questions. Color-coded markers were used to indicate to which research questions the data were related. Then, having been coded, identified sections were recoded according to themes and patterns. Through this process data were reassembled into a coding sheet/chart that identified the participant/document code, page number, line number(s), theme, and summary of the quote. Miles and Huberman (1994) encourage the use of these charts as a way of helping the researcher organize the volume of data that are produced in a qualitative study. A similar chart was also created as part of the test-piloted interviews in July of 2002.

Once this chart was created, data were sorted by themes. At this point, peer review was conducted to enhance the credibility of the analysis. A doctoral candidate who served as a curriculum director for a K-12 district conducted one review. She confirmed the themes presented in the chart and suggested the consolidation of several themes. The other peer reviewer held a doctorate degree in education. She was selected for her expertise in qualitative research. She also confirmed the theme development and made suggestions on how to best manage the volume of data in the write-up stage. After this peer review, analysis consisted of constant comparison between the descriptive data, interview transcripts, reflection papers, and literature. Inductive reasoning was used in drawing the conclusions of

the research and identifying the significance of the case study. A master key to the codes and names was kept locked in a file only to be used in case the researcher had to guarantee the authenticity of the information.

Study Accountability

Mertens (2005) identifies a variety of ways in which the qualitative researcher can enhance credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The fact that the researcher had long-term exposure to the program as a result of coordinating service activities, the use of member checks in the interview process, the use of peer reviewers in the theme-developing process of the analysis phase, and the use of multiple forms of data triangulated with each research question were specifically implemented to boost the case study credibility. Although each interviewee was sent a copy of the interview transcripts to ensure that the content expressed the intended meaning, only three adults responded back to the researcher and no students responded with concerns. Of the three adults who responded, two confirmed the content of the transcripts, and one identified two places where another word better demonstrated her intended meaning.

Transferability issues were addressed through the inclusion of rich description of both sites and program. In order to establish dependability, the researcher maintained a journal documenting the steps she took during the data collection and data analysis portions of the case study. And finally, the use of

outside readers and maintaining a good paperwork trail were implemented in order to augment the confirmability of the case study.

Conclusion

As a result of implementing accountability measures, a case study using documents, archival records, and interview transcripts was conducted to answer the research questions. The first two questions of this study focused on how one high school structured and implemented a mandatory citizenship education program using service and government observations within the United States Government curriculum. The second two research questions focused more on student perceptions of those experiences. Student perceptions of the ways in which service learning and government observations develop a sense of the responsibilities of citizenship as well as the comparability of the two projects were investigated. Chapters IV and V present the results of that research. Chapter IV presents the document review while Chapter V documents data from the reflection papers and interview transcripts. Then, implications for the use of a similar program and recommendations for further study are discussed in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS: ARCHIVAL RECORDS AND PROGRAM DOCUMENTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine one suburban high school's implementation of a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that used service learning and an alternative government observation project. Chapter IV presents findings that were revealed through archival records and program document review. Data from student and adult interviews as well as student reflection papers are presented separately in Chapter V.

In order to present the findings from these documents, the chapter is split into three sections. The first section is a description of the documents that were used in the study. The second section summarizes data garnered through a document review of student verification forms. Within this section, one can view a summary of the service performed and meetings attended by program students. Finally, the third section summarizes information that was coded through a review of the program manual, curriculum map, and program flier. The information and

themes presented in both Chapters IV and V provide the foundation for further discussion presented in Chapter VI.

<div align="center">Description of Documents Reviewed</div>

In order to complete the document review portion of this case study, several documents were collected. This section describes the documents that were collected as well as the means through which the researcher collected them. Presentation of the findings from those documents is detailed in subsequent sections.

Perhaps the most important form collected in terms of its ability to describe the range of experiences students had as a result of participating in this project was the student verification form. The verification form is a document that is collected by the teacher each time a student attends a service event or observes a government meeting. The verification form contains important contact information about the service site or meeting place that allows the coordinator to verify student attendance and log participation. Verification forms were collected from the four teachers who taught United States Government at Greenfield High School during the fall and spring semesters of the 2005-2006 school year. In conducting this study, 396 forms verifying service and 701 meeting forms were collected and mined for data.

Another document collected in the process of conducting this study was the Greenfield High School Community Service and Government Observation Program Manual. The program manual is a document that is used with students in the

classroom to present the guidelines for completing service or government observations. In addition to defining what service and government observations are, the manual articulates the stated purpose of the program along with the perceived benefits of participating in the project. Other sections in the manual include a description of approved service and meetings, steps for completing projects, ideas to guide student reflection when completing the reflection paper, supervision and safety guidelines, transportation policy, transfer student regulations, and a section describing the importance of student integrity while participating in this project. The purpose of including this document within the case study was to investigate data related to the procedural aspects of the program—how the program is supposed to run. This data can be compared to anecdotal evidence from student interviews and reflection papers to determine whether the stated outcomes match the student perceived outcomes. The program manual was obtained through materials kept within the researcher's classroom. The program manual is one of the manuals regularly used in presenting information to students at the beginning of the United States Government course.

The curriculum map for the United States Government course at Greenfield High School was also collected as part of the study. Similar to the purpose of collecting the program manual, the curriculum map can describe the ways in which service and government observations are supposed to be incorporated into the course curriculum. This data from the curriculum map can be compared to the data from interviews, both teacher and student, to determine whether the stated

curriculum matches the curriculum as perceived by teachers and students. The curriculum map that was used for this study was copied from the records kept in the division department office. According to information on the curriculum map, information was last updated during the 2001-2002 school year.

A program flier was also collected as part of the case study. The program flier is a document that was created to be an introduction to the project. The flier is regularly used during the May orientation meeting in which juniors are introduced to the program. Course teachers also utilize the flier during parent-teacher conferences as a means of explaining key components of the program. The program flier additionally serves as a document that can be shared with organizations with which Greenfield High School cooperates in conducting the program. The program flier used in this study was obtained from a computer file kept by the researcher. Updating the flier (school year and teacher contacts) has historically been the responsibility of the researcher; therefore, access to the file was through the school computer network.

Having described the type of documents that were reviewed as part of the case study, the next section focuses on data mined from the verification forms and program documents.

Presentation of Data Gathered from Verification Forms

In many ways, this section consists of a "show-and-tell" of what Greenfield students completed as part of their service and government observation experiences that took place during the fall and spring semesters of the 2005-2006 academic year. Data in this section were collected solely from the student verification forms that students submitted to their teacher each time they attended a meeting or served at an organization. Information that is presented in this section includes total number of hours served and meetings attended, explanation of partial projects completed by students, distribution of project type by semester and number of students, gender of participants by type of project completed, distribution of service and meeting attendance by month, typologies of meetings attended with a comparison of local meetings versus out-of-town meetings attended by government observation students, and typologies of service performed with a comparison of time served with school-coordinated events versus student-initiated events.

The purpose of placing this data before interview responses or other coded data from document review is to provide the reader with a contextual look at what students completed before reading the responses and comments that participants provided. Data presented in this section are further discussed in Chapter VI.

<u>Total Participation as Confirmed Through Verification Forms</u>

After collecting verification forms from the four different teachers who taught United States Government during the 2005-2006 school year, the researcher determined that 273 students turned in some type of verification form for meetings attended or service completed. Table 6 describes the total number of meetings attended and service hours provided. Based on the 1,097 submitted verification forms, the researcher determined that Greenfield students completed over 1,600 hours of service and attended 701 local government meetings.

Table 6

<u>Total Participation in Service and Meetings</u>

Type of Project	Total Number of Participants	Service/Meetings Completed
Service (396 forms)	131	1619.50 hours
Meetings (701 forms)	142	701 meetings

This work by 273 students represents less than the 291 students enrolled in the course throughout the year. Based on the researcher's experience in the program and the records that were available to her, she could only assume that 18 students dropped out, moved, or had to retake the class due to failure. Data provided to the researcher do not indicate how many of the 291 names might be duplicates due to failure during first semester. Another factor that might contribute to the lower

number of participants as revealed through the verification forms is that within the program it is common practice for forms of students who do not complete the project or fail the course to be thrown away so the student cannot use them the next semester when they re-enroll in the class. If a student fails the class, he or she has to start the process over and previous service or meetings do not count. There is also the possibility of lost forms due to student or teacher neglect in record keeping.

Verification of Data from Completed Projects

Although the verification forms revealed over 1,600 hours served and over 700 meetings attended, the forms verified only 261 completed projects. For a project to have been considered completed for the purpose of this study, a student needed to have completed all requirements—12 hours or all five meetings.

Verification forms, along with researcher familiarity with the students, were able to reveal why there were forms for 12 students who had not completed projects. Of the eight partial service projects, three of the students had completed the meetings project but had done service in an effort to earn extra credit, four students had completed the service requirement but had missing forms, and one student had not completed the project, but his forms had not yet been purged from the files. Of the four partial government observation projects, verification forms revealed that one student had completed the service project but had attended a meeting for extra credit, two students had initially tried meetings but decided to do service instead,

and one student had not completed his project, but his forms had not yet been purged from the files.

Table 7 describes participant information for those who completed their projects. Of the 261 completed projects, 47% of those students completed service while 53% chose to complete the government observation project.

Table 7

Participant Information for Those with Completed Projects

	Total Number of Completed Projects	Percentage of Total Completed Projects
Service	123	47%
Meetings	138	53%
Totals	261	100%

These data were then mined to create a distribution of project types by semester and a distribution of type of project by gender. These data are found in Table 8 and Table 9. Student responses indicating what motivated them to choose either service or government observations are presented in Chapter V through the coding of student interviews and student reflection papers.

In investigating the distribution of project type by semester and number of students, a shift occurred in project type distribution between the fall and spring semesters. During the fall, more students completed service than meetings (53%

and 47% respectively). By spring semester, this distribution had shifted to 40%

service and 60% meetings. Table 8 reports the distribution of project by semester.

Table 8

Distribution of Project Type by Semester and by Number of Students

	Service	Meetings	Total Completed Projects Per Semester
Fall	75 (53%)	67 (47%)	142
Spring	48 (40%)	71 (60%)	119

This substantive switch to government observations might reflect several

factors. First, very few students had ever been to a local board meeting before

enrolling in United States Government. During the fall, students might have been

interested in completing something with which they were more familiar--service.

By spring semester, the culture of the school would have made spring-semester

students more cognizant of what attending meetings was like. Therefore, attending

meetings was less of an "unknown" and in some ways was perceived as being an

easier project.

Another factor that might contribute to the general high numbers of students

choosing government observations is the convenience of the project. Shannon

stated, "There were three meetings a night, maybe four or five nights a week. They

started at seven, eight o'clock. There was no way you wouldn't be able to finish

meetings." If a student is involved in several extra-curricular activities or works 20-30 hours a week after school, the meetings option provides more opportunities for successful completion than self-initiated service projects or school-coordinated service projects that are only available 6-10 days a month. Convenience of government observations might be a critical factor.

Student project type selection also heavily influences the role of the teacher in the project. Because 53% of the students overall chose government observations, the workload for teachers in coordinating and verifying service is manageable. If these numbers were to change significantly in favor of completing service, more release time or additional support staff would be necessary to maintain high accountability of student work. These data have great significance for Greenfield High School in planning for the continuation of this project as well as to other schools that might want to incorporate mandatory service or meetings as part of the curriculum.

Although the choices that students made did not all reflect civic-minded goals in completing the project, they did reflect the reality of teenage life in a working-class suburban community. In choosing to complete government observations, nearly half of the respondents indicated that convenience of scheduling influenced their decisions. In conducting an informal assessment of senior students during the fall of 2006, 42 out of the 58 students indicated that they worked at a job at least 15 hours a week. These 15+ hours of work a week (many indicated that they worked more that 25 hours a week) were in addition to seven

hours a day that they spent at Greenfield High School.   The convenience of

meetings allowed many to be successful at the project while also allowing them to

maintain their jobs. More research might be needed to see if similar trends occurred

in schools with a different population set.

The researcher also wanted to investigate if there were any gender trends in

the types of projects completed by students. Overall, data from Table 9 indicated

that the ratio of males to females completing each type of project was similar. The

service-to-meeting ratio for females was 48% to 52% while male student ratios were

46% to 54%.

Table 9

Gender of Participants by Type of Project and by Number of Students

	Service	Meetings	Totals
Female	71 (48%)	77 (52%)	148 (100%)
Male	52 (46%)	61 (54%)	113 (100%)

Service and Meeting Attendance by Month

Because verification forms provide information about when service and

government observations were completed, forms were mined to determine the

distribution of service performed and meetings attended by month. The researcher

felt that this information would be useful in describing the context through which

the program was managed (Research Question 1). Program requirements allow

students to begin serving or attending meetings after they have attended the

informational meeting in May of their junior year as long as any service project has

coordinator approval. Therefore, one cannot assume that all service completed in

August through December was completed solely by fall-semester students. Table

10 illustrates the distribution of service performed and meetings attended by month

in which they were completed. Analysis of the information in this chart and its

implications for supervision and management is discussed in Chapter VI.

Table 10

Service and Meeting Attendance by Month

	Service Hours Completed	% of Total Service Hours	Meetings Attended	% of Total Meetings
June 2005	65.00	4.0	36	5.1
July 2005	60.00	3.7	22	3.1
August 2005	12.00	.7	7	1.0
September 2005	78.00	4.8	33	4.7
October 2005	237.25	14.6	95	13.6
November 2005	206.00	12.7	46	6.6
December 2005	378.50	23.4	133	19.0
January 2006	92.50	5.7	9	1.3
February 2006	203.25	12.6	67	9.6
March 2006	100.00	6.2	119	17.0
April 2006	112.50	6.9	68	9.7
May 2006	74.50	4.6	66	9.4
Totals	1619.50 hours		701 meetings	

Typologies of Government Observation Attendance and Service Performance

In describing the work that students did as a result of service and government observations, typologies were created from the student verification forms. The following two subsections "paint a picture" of the types of experiences students completed during the 2005-2006 academic school year. The researcher included these typologies as a means of providing the reader with a description of what the students did in order for the student and adult interview comments to be read contextually in later sections.

Government Observation Attendance

Each semester, one of the program coordinators creates a list of all eligible meetings that students can attend as part of the project. That list, which is displayed as a calendar, is given to all students who choose government observations. A student chooses events that are convenient to his or her schedule as meetings generally take place four evenings a week with start times between 6:30 p.m. and 8:00 p.m. After reviewing the student verification forms, the researcher determined that students attended 701 meetings at 22 different meeting sites. Table 11 describes the distribution of meeting attendance by site. In order to protect the names of the sites visited, different letters of the alphabet mark different villages and sites. The letter "A" labels any meeting site that represents a board that meets

within the school district boundaries of Greenfield High School. In later

discussions, these sites are considered local meetings while other sites are referred

to as out-of-district meetings. Out-of-district meeting sites, despite the fact that they

are not located within the Greenfield High School district lines, were all located

within 2-10 miles of the school.

Table 11

Meeting Attendance by Site

Meeting Site	Number of Meetings Attended	% of Total Meetings
Village A	126	18.0
High School District A	77	11.0
Village B	76	10.8
Village C	57	8.1
Village D	56	8.0
Elementary School District 1A	43	6.1
Park District 1A	36	5.1
Village E	36	5.1
Village F	36	5.1
Library District A	30	4.3
Village G	28	4.0
Village H	21	3.0
School District I	19	2.7
Park District 2A	15	2.1
Elementary School District 2A	10	1.4
Village J	9	1.3
Village K	9	1.3
School District L	8	1.1
School District M	4	<1.0
Emergency Service/Disaster Agency A	2	<1.0
School District N	2	<1.0
Library District O	1	<1.0
Total	701	100.0

One important factor that influences the management of the program is the

fact that students attend both local and out-of-district meetings (Research Question

1). Table 12 shows the distribution of local meetings compared with out-of-district

meetings.

Table 12

Comparison of Local Meetings Attended Versus Out-of-District Meetings Attended

	Number of Meetings Attended	% of Total Meetings Attended
Local Meetings—8 of 22 Organizations (Defined as local governing bodies located within school district boundaries.)	339	48%
Out-of-District Meetings—14 of 22 Organizations (Defined as governing bodies located outside of school district boundaries.)	362	52%
Total	701	100%

Although it appears that students attended more than half of their meetings at

out-of-district sites, policy and student factors influence those numbers. First of all,

only 8 of the possible 22 sites are within district boundaries. The fact that the great

majority of sites available to students are outside the boundaries has a natural

influence on the number of meetings that are attended in out-of-district sites. The

program also has a policy in which students may only attend the same site twice;

that policy also influences this number. In order to get students to observe a variety of meetings, teacher/coordinator Kelly stated that this policy was put into place. The result of this policy is that depending on a student's personal schedule and availability of transportation, local meetings might not be able to be attended.

Service Performance

Each semester, one of the program coordinators creates a calendar of service events in which students can serve. From personal experience, this calendar contains events that serve organizations with which the school has maintained a relationship for several years as well as events that represent a contact that was made from a "needs" call during the semester in which the service event took place. Needs calls consist of those calls that a school might ordinarily get from community members requesting student volunteers for one-time events. In Greenfield, it is common for local service organizations and veterans' organizations to call and request extra help for the events they are conducting throughout the year. Events on the service calendar might occur on any day of the week depending on the needs of the organization. After reviewing student verification forms, the researcher determined that students performed over 1,600 hours of service with 51 organizations.

Table 13 shows a distribution and description of all organizations that hosted 20 or more hours of service by Greenfield students. This service represents 81.2%

of the service that was completed, and that service was completed with 21 of the 51

organizations (41% of the organizations). Students performed fewer than 20 hours

at each of the remaining 30 organizations and that service represented 18.8% of the

hours served. Specific data from these sites were not included because the service

at each of the remaining 30 sites consisted of less than 1% of total hours served per

site. Generally speaking, these organizations tended to be student-initiated sites in

which one student performed his or her service there.

Table 13

Organizations with Which Students Performed Service (in hours served for
organizations where 20 or more hours were served)

Service Organization	Hours Served	% of Total Service
Greenfield Park District	311.5	19.2
Food Warehouse Serving Area Shelters	213.5	13.2
Youth Group Organization A	97.0	6.0
Disease Research Organization A	94.5	5.8
Organization for Teen Parents	78.0	4.8
Youth Sport Program A	59.5	3.7
Greenfield Environmental Club	55.5	3.4
Disease Research Organization B	49.5	3.1
Township Park District B	42.0	2.6
Neighboring Children's Museum	39.0	2.4
Animal Protection Facility	33.75	2.1
Horse Back Trail Preservation Organization	30.0	1.9
Youth Mission Group House Rehabilitation	28.0	1.7
Greenfield Police Benefit for Special Needs Children	26.0	1.6
Local Forest Preserve Restoration Help	26.0	1.6
Nursing Home A	25.5	1.6
Youth Sports Organization B	25.0	1.5
Greenfield Elementary School Youth Activities	21.5	1.3
Youth Sports Organization C	21.0	1.3
Organization Working with English Language Learners	20.0	1.2
Youth Sports Organization D	20.0	1.2

Although Table 13 demonstrates the distribution of service hours at the most

frequently attended service sites, the researcher also created a typology of the

service performed. In order to do this, the information about where students served

was categorized by type of organization that was served. These data can be found in

Table 14. For example, when students helped a youth football program, the hours

served were categorized as youth-activity-related hours. Any other sites where

students worked with younger students in an activity would also be placed in that

category. Categories used were developed by the researcher based on knowledge of

the type of work that was performed as well as the type of organization that was

served.

Table 14

Service Performed by Category of Organization Served

Type of Organization Served	Number of Organizations In Category	Number of Hours Served	% of Total Service
Park District Programs	4	379.5	23.4
Poverty-Related Needs	6	341.0	21.0
Youth Activities Organization	13	330.0	20.4
National Research Fundraising Organization	2	144.0	8.9
Environmental Preservation Work	3	111.5	6.8
Other (Healthcare, Police, Fire Protection, Veterans Groups, Armed Forces, Library, and Domestic Violence Prevention)	8	111.5	6.8
Nursing Home and Other Elderly Work	5	70.25	4.3
Religious Organization	4	45.0	2.8
Animal Well-Being	2	39.25	2.4
Immigration-Related Service	2	32.0	1.9
Education Related (Tutoring and Work with Special Education Students)	2	15.5	<1.0
Total	51	1619.5	

The description of service depicted thus far has looked at the total number of

service hours performed by organization and categories of organizations. In order

to help investigate some of the management aspects of the service and government

observation program, the researcher also delineated the amount of service

coordinated by the school versus the amount of service donated to organizations

initiated by students themselves. Table 15 compares the school-coordinated hours

versus the student-initiated project time. Data reveal that the school coordinated

64.5% of the hours while students initiated and organized the remaining hours.

Table 15

Comparison of School-Coordinated and Student-Initiated Events by Hours Served

	Hours Committed	% of Total Hours
School Coordinated Service Events	1045.0	64.5%
Student Initiated Service Events	574.5	35.5%
Total	1619.5	100%

The researcher also wanted to be able to compare the percentage of students

who had utilized school-coordinated hours versus the number of students who had

designed their own programs. Through verification forms, the researcher

determined that 52% of the students completed service using only hours coordinated

through the school program. In other words, more than half of the students

choosing to complete service utilized school relationships with organizations to

complete their hours. Another 24% of the students completed projects using hours

that were initiated in their entirety by the student. The remaining 24% of the

students completed hours with both school-coordinated and student-initiated hours.

This distribution of projects based on school-coordinated or student-initiated hours

is reported in Table 16.

Table 16

Distribution of Completed Service Projects Based on Type of Service: School-
Coordinated, Student-Initiated, or Mixed Hours

Type of Hours Completed	Number of Students	% of Total Students
Projects Completed with All School Coordinated Events	65	52%
Projects Completed with All Student Initiated Events	29	24%
Projects Completed Using Both School-Coordinated and Student-Initiated Events	29	24%

Although Table 16 illustrates the number of students who used school-

coordinated and student-initiated hours, it does not demonstrate the number of

organizations with which a student worked to complete the requirement. Therefore,

Table 17 reformats information generated from Table 16 to show with how many

organizations the student worked to complete his or her project. Based on Table 17,

94 of the 123 completed projects utilized school-coordinated events as part or all of

the hours served. This information is relevant to Research Question 1, which

investigates the structure and management of the program and is further examined

in Chapter VI.

Table 17

Distribution of Completed Service Projects Based on Type of Service and Number
of Organizations with Which a Student Worked

Number of Organizations	1	2	3	4	Total
Projects Completed with All School-Coordinated Events	12	26	21	6	65 (52%)
Projects Completed with All Student-Initiated Events	28	1	0	0	29 (24%)
Projects Completed Using Both School-Coordinated and Student-Initiated Events	0	12	17	0	29 (24%)
Total (% of Total Students Completing Projects)	40 (33%)	39 (32%)	38 (31%)	6 (4%)	123 (100%)

Summary of Data Collected Through Verification Forms

Students at Greenfield High School performed over 1,600 hours of service

and attended more than 700 local government meetings during the fall and spring

semesters of the 2005-2006 school year. The information gathered through the

student verification forms is very important to two aspects of the research analysis.

First, the information provides a context through which school and teacher

management of the program can be viewed (Research Question 1). However, it also

allows the reader to look at data that describe the types of experiences students had

as government observers and service participants. By investigating the types of

experiences students had, the information revealed through student interviews and

reflection papers is understood contextually (Research Questions 3 and 4).

Other Document Review

Although verification forms provide a means through which one can view

student experiences, other program documents are useful in examining the way in

which the program is structured and the ways in which the program is supposed to

be integrated into the curriculum. Information from the program manual,

curriculum guide, and program flier are presented by research question and

separated by document from which the data were gathered. Data presented in this

section are used to triangulate information gathered through verification forms and

anecdotal evidence revealed through interviews and reflection papers in Chapters V

and VI.

Research Question 1

*How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship
education program within the United States Government curriculum?*

Research Question 1 focuses on creating a description of how one school

managed and integrated a service and government observation program within the

United States Government course. In order to do this, the program manual, curriculum map, and program flier were coded for data related to structure and management issues. In other words, policies that would indicate procedures that needed to be followed by students or factors that would influence the job that teachers play in structuring the program were mined within the documents.

Program Manual

The program manual is the primary document through which the structure of the program is articulated. In coding the document for data related to the structure and management of the program, the following sections contained pertinent information: Definitions, p. 1; Approved Community Service Projects, pp. 3-4; Steps for Completing Community Service Project, pp. 5-6; Reflection Paper, pp. 7-8; Supervision and Safety, pp. 9-10; and Transportation, Transfer Students, and Student Integrity, p. 11.

One of the first subjects that the program manual addresses is the definition of each project. In the program manual, community service is defined as

> unpaid, after-school work for a non-profit organization. The service must benefit individuals outside of the school community. Neither court-ordered service nor National Honor Society hours can be counted for credit. All service needs to be pre-approved by a Greenfield High School Community Service Coordinator. (p. 1)

This definition of service is followed by an equally succinct description of meetings: "Government meetings are defined as attendance at regularly scheduled, open

meetings of public officials, either elected or appointed. Students may only attend

the same meeting site twice" (p. 1). The definitions of service and government

observations impact the ways in which students decide to complete the project.

They help students and coordinators determine what project sites and meetings

count for completion.

The next section through which the program manual articulates the structure

of the program is entitled "Approved Community Service Projects." Within this

section, criteria for service projects are described in 10 enumerated statements. In

coding the document, the researcher determined that the criteria fit into two

categories. The first category describes conditions under which service can be

performed. The following list summarizes these criteria:

- Service must take place outside of the school day.
- Students cannot get co-curricular credit for their service.
- The service must be a task that meets a community need.
- The service may not be for a political party, lobbying or special interest group, or family member.
- Service performed through one's place of worship cannot involve the act of worshipping or involve religious education.
- All hours must be pre-approved by the service coordinator.

The other category of service criteria was related to ensuring student safety at the

service site. The following summarizes these criteria:

- Service must not involve the direct solicitation of funds for a non-profit organization nor generate profits for any private company.
- The service must not cause a reduction of the number of employees at a site.
- The service must not place students in any situation that would pose a risk to their health or safety.
- The service must not place students in a situation that would be inappropriate for their age, background, or level of maturity.

Each of these policies affects coordinator decision making in the project approval process. For that reason, the policies are valuable in analyzing Research Question 1 in Chapter VI.

The program manual also has a shorter section that lists examples of the types of government meetings that are appropriate for students to attend. "Approved Government Meetings" restates the fact that students may only attend a site two times. This policy definitely influenced the distribution of meetings attended and is further discussed in Chapter VI. The following list of acceptable meetings is enumerated on page 4 of the program document:

- Library Board
- Park District
- City Council
- School Board
- Regularly scheduled, open/public meeting

Although short in description, this section allows students who are new to the program to see examples of the types of meetings that they might attend to meet the program requirements.

Another section that addresses program policies is entitled "Reflection Paper." Although this section is more focused on the intended content of the reflection paper—something that is more pertinent for Research Question 2—the policy that articulates the fact that the paper is a required component for credit is clearly stated in the first sentence of the section.

Following the section on reflection papers is a two-page description of the policies enacted to protect students from harm that could be encountered through

service projects. Three out of the nine enumerated statements focus on the relationship that should exist between the site supervisor and the student. For example, one statement identifies that there should be appropriate adult supervision and guidance for students at all times while serving at a facility. Another policy states that students should be clear as to their responsibilities while serving and should know to whom they report at a site. A third policy identifies the fact that students cannot participate in service at a site without the expressed written consent of both the parent/guardian and the school coordinator. The researcher should note that despite that policy, the program does not in fact have any permission slips that are used unless the service event is conducted as an official school field trip. For example, when students join the Environmental Club for prairie restoration, official Greenfield field trip forms must be completed and returned to the Environmental Club sponsor in order to participate. In the researcher's experience, there have been fewer than 10 times in seven years in which field trip forms were utilized. All of those incidences involved a field trip with the Environmental Club or a service site in which the service coordinator drove a school vehicle to a site in order to provide transportation for students.

The other six policies listed in the "Supervision and Safety" section directly relate to the types of activities that would be considered unsafe for student participation. The following summarize those policies:

- Students may not participate in service where dangerous equipment or tools will be used or at a site in which they will be exposed to dangerous situations.

- Activities should be appropriate to the student's age, experience, and maturity.
- Students cannot operate a motor vehicle as part of the service activity.
- Students may not transport people as part of the service activity.
- Hours for the service activity should not be at "unreasonably early or late" times.
- Students who work in a medical setting should not be exposed to "fluids, excretions, or contaminants known to be harmful, contagious, or injurious" as part of their service experience.

These policies are important in terms of guiding students and teachers through the process of what might be considered an acceptable service project. Interestingly, despite the lengthy description of safety issues related to service, there is no mention of safe or unsafe conditions that might be related to attendance at local government meetings.

The final three sections in the program manual, "Transportation," "Transfer Students," and "Student Integrity," all briefly state one policy within each section. The following summarize those policies:

- Transportation is described as a responsibility of the student, parent, or guardian.
- Students who transfer to Greenfield will be responsible for completing the same requirements.
- Students are considered representatives of Greenfield while participating in service or attending a government observation. The Rights and Responsibilities Handbook will apply to students as they conduct their project.

Although brief, each section states a policy that allows students to better understand their responsibilities as they complete the project. The policies also help define the scope of the project coordinators' jobs.

Overall, the program manual is the primary document through which program policy is articulated. This document aids both students and teachers in determining acceptable means for students to complete their projects.

Curriculum Map

As opposed to the program manual, the curriculum map provides very little detail about how the program is to be managed. Rather, it focuses on the acceptable means through which the content can be covered in the classroom. The curriculum map for the United States Government course lists "Community Service" as one of the five mandated units in the curriculum. In terms of curriculum planning, the map describes the project as a 10-day unit. In a section labeled "What evidence will show that students understand the importance of taking an active role in one's community," informal observation through class discussions, class activities, and small-group work are all listed as acceptable means of covering material in addition to the 12 hours of service or five meetings and a reflection paper. The curriculum map informs the structure of the mandatory citizenship education program by identifying the types of activities that can be used throughout the semester to enhance students' understanding of their service and government observation experiences.

Program Flier

As in previous documents, the flier reveals information about the way in which the program is supposed to be managed and structured. For example, within the flier, brief descriptions of the two choices are given that state the requirements of each project that are helpful for students who want to know what they have to complete:

> In order to meet the standard for the Volunteer Service Project, a senior must complete 12 hours of service during the semester in which they take U.S. Government. Service is defined as unpaid, after-school work for a non-profit organization. Neither court-ordered service nor National Honor Society hours can be counted for credit. After completing the required hours, a student will also complete a three to five page reflection paper on the time he or she spent with various organizations.

> Students may also meet their service learning requirement by attending governmental meetings. Government meetings are defined as attendance at any regularly scheduled, open meeting of public officials, either elected or appointed.

The flier also presents various guidelines that impact the management of the program. The following are the "General Guidelines" for program management:

- Seniors will have to successfully complete either the Volunteer Service **or** Government Observation requirements to pass U.S. Government.
- Keep in mind that helping a neighbor or relative, while encouraged, is not acceptable as volunteer service.
- Students will perform their project outside the school day. They should not earn academic credit or co-curricular remuneration or credit in any other organization.
- All hours should be pre-approved by the teacher to ensure credit.
- Projects chosen should meet a perceived need in the community.

And finally, as a means of facilitating parent and community questions related to the management of the program, contact numbers for the division

supervisor for the Social Studies Department as well as the two service coordinators are displayed prominently in the flier. The flier is used with students, parents, and organizations. For this reason, the contact information was deemed to be a critical component of this document.

The data from the flier parallel information from the manual in terms of what type of service is acceptable as well as a definition of what government meetings fit the requirements of the program. However, in coding the flier, the researcher determined that despite the fact that the 12-hour requirement for service is specifically mentioned, no direct mention of the number of required meetings is presented. One other factor that stood out during the coding process was the fact that the flier was referred to as "Service Learning at Greenfield High School." The fact that government observation was an acceptable project was not apparent until one opened the flier.

Research Question 2

What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is integrated into the United States Government curriculum?

Research Question 2 focuses more on how the program has been integrated into the curriculum. Therefore, each document was coded for information that revealed the purpose behind the program, the goals of the program, or the intended outcomes of the project. The purpose of coding the documents for this information

was to present the "stated" purpose of the program so the data could be triangulated with student and teacher testimonials as revealed through interviews and reflection papers in the discussion section of Chapter VI.

Program Manual

Although the primary focus of the program manual is to establish the ways in which the program is implemented, there are two sections that address program purpose, goals of the program, and intended educational outcomes. The first section is referred to as "Value of Community Service and Government Observations in the Curriculum" and can be found on page 2 of the manual. The second section is found on pages 7 and 8. In this section, titled "Reflection Paper," the writing prompt for the reflection paper is elucidated.

Within the section titled "Value of Community Service and Government Observations in the Curriculum," the purpose of the program is suggested through two sections of bullet points. Within the first set of bullet points, the possible educational outcomes are identified:

The project helps students:
- Acquire life skills.
- Understand their responsibilities as citizens in the community.
- Improve their self-esteem.
- Take and accept new challenges.
- Apply classroom learning to "real-life" learning experiences.
- Observe democracy in action.

Although each of these points does not apply to both service and government observations, potential outcomes are identified. The second set of bullet points summarizes the type of learning experiences service and government observations may be. Within this section, the document identifies that these experiences provide students with the following:

- Opportunities to develop higher level thinking skills.
- Opportunities to assume responsibilities.
- The positive experience of helping others.
- A chance to explore new roles.
- An experience to enrich learning.
- Opportunities for career exploration.
- Exposure to the decision-makers in the community.

Within both of these sections, the manual articulates the overall goals of the program. However, it is important to note that these goals are not differentiated by each individual project. Rather, they are stated generally. The reader must determine whether that goal applies to service, government observation, or both.

The second section in the manual that alludes to the curricular goals of the program is found in the section titled "Reflection Paper." In this section, the writing prompt is laid out for the students. By coding the writing prompt questions that were listed on pages 8 and 9, the researcher determined that the focus of the reflection paper is two-fold. First, a series of questions allows the student to summarize what he or she did as part of the service or government observations. Then, there are other questions that ask the student to reflect on those events in a way that allows the student to demonstrate understanding. Table 18 analyzes the reflection paper questions (writing prompts) by project and type of question. The

Summary Questions category was assigned to any questions that require simple

recall of activities. Questions that require students to form an opinion or take

information and expand upon it based on their experiences were assigned to the

category of Reflective Questions.

Table 18

Reflection Paper Writing Prompt Categorized by Project and Type of Question

Project	Summary Questions	Reflective Questions
Service	▪ What organization did you help? ▪ What services did you provide? ▪ Who did you meet during your service? ▪ Are there any interesting stories to relate?	▪ Who benefits from this service? ▪ Would you encourage others to work there? Why? Why not? ▪ Are there suggestions you would make to improve the organization? ▪ Do you think that community service can be a valuable experience for high school students? ▪ Can you relate your experience to the class curriculum?
Government Observation	▪ Where did you go for your five meetings? ▪ What services do the organizations provide? ▪ How would you describe what happens at the meetings? ▪ What types of issues were addressed at each meeting? ▪ Were the meetings well attended? ▪ Do you have any interesting stories to tell about your experiences?	▪ What similarities and differences were there between meetings? ▪ What did you observe about democracy at the local level? ▪ Is attending these meetings a valuable experience for high school seniors? Why? Why not? ▪ Can you relate your experience to the class curriculum?

One should note that the manual indicates that students are to use these

questions as guides in their writing. Because students complete a variety of

activities, there is always the possibility that a student might not be able to respond

to each question, but the prompt would certainly guide them in what the expectations are for the paper. Regardless, because the manual is utilized as part of the orientation process, this section, which describes the content of the reflection paper, demonstrates that students are expected to be able to recall their experiences and elaborate on those experiences within the context of course content.

Curriculum Map

The curriculum map is the document through which the Social Studies Department has articulated the way the project is implemented into classroom activities. Although the curriculum map allows teachers to individualize how these activities play out in the semester, there are some clues as to the purpose of the program. For example, at the beginning of each unit, four overarching understandings are identified as the goals of the course. "The rights and responsibilities that we have as Americans" is listed as one of those four overarching themes. This theme directly relates to the inclusion of service and government observations in the curriculum. The next paragraph describes ways in which the curriculum map incorporates the project.

Although content related to the Founders' views of citizenship is included in the curriculum map for "Unit 1: Historical Foundations of the Constitution," the only mention of the service and government observation project is reserved for the section entitled "Unit 4: Community Service." In the Unit 4 curriculum map, the

choice of completing either 12 hours of service or observing five meetings is mentioned. Then, the reflection paper and discussions, class activities (details not described), and small-group work (details not described) are identified as performance tasks through which students demonstrate what they have learned.

Program Flier

Although the program flier document itself is brief—a three-fold pamphlet—one of its foci is presenting the reasons that the school thinks this project is important. Within the flier, citizenship education is identified as a goal in two different ways. The first mention of citizenship education is very specific. When introducing the benefits of the program, the document states:

> One important aspect of citizenship education is teaching the relationship between the rights that one has in the community and the responsibility one has as a member of that same community.

> We believe that service learning plays a vital role in helping students learn about those responsibilities.

This point is re-emphasized within the discussion of the alternative government observation project. Within the government observation project description, the flier identifies that the purpose of attending meetings is "to afford students the opportunity to practice 'government-in-action.'"

In addition to these more overt discussions of the purpose of this program within the United States Government curriculum, there is also another more subtle mention of the purpose of the program. A quote by Theodore M. Hesburgh, C.S.C.,

used on the back cover of the flier also alludes to a purpose that focuses on training

students for the future responsibilities of citizenship:

> Let your educated mind and heart be a light in the darkness of the world. Be bridge builders over the chasms that separate people, the young and the old, the rich and the poor, the black and the white, the ignorant and the learned. Go out from here as one who knows and lives, one who has cherished wisdom and built character, and above all, one who has learned to give of self.

The use of this quote implies that the incorporation of this project—and its

curricular objective—is related to character development.

Research Questions 3 and 4

In what way do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship?

In what ways are service learning experiences and government observations comparable?

Because Research Questions 3 and 4 focus on the student experiences

themselves, the program manual, curriculum map, and program flier were not coded

for data related to these questions. Student reflection papers and student

interviews are the source from which these questions are answered. However, that

does not mean that documents are not used to corroborate student testimony in the

Chapter VI discussion. Therefore, document data listed in previous sections

describing the policy manual, curriculum map, program flier, and verification forms

might be useful, but only in the context of student perceptions of their experiences.

Therefore, any verification form or program policy that is used to triangulate student

and teacher testimony comes from data coded under Research Questions 1 and 2 or

from the section that presents verification form data.

Conclusions on the Document Review

Chapter IV presented a variety of data that were mined from student

verification forms as well as program documents—the program manual, curriculum

map, and program flier. The goal of coding and compiling information from these

sources was to investigate the context under which service was performed and

meetings attended as well as to determine the stated goals and procedures related to

the implementation of the program at Greenfield High School. Although this

chapter focused more on archival records and document review, Chapter V focuses

on interview and reflection paper findings. Chapter VI discusses the implications of

these data as they relate to the research questions and other research.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS: INTERVIEWS AND REFLECTION PAPERS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine one suburban high school's implementation of a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that used service learning and an alternative government observation project. Chapter V presents the student and adult perceptions of this program as revealed through interviews and student reflection papers.

Reflection paper data are presented along with interview data. Not only do student reflection papers provide a source with which student interview data can be triangulated, but they also provide access to a wider number of responses than the interview process alone would have allowed.

The data presented in this section come from 100 student reflection papers, 10 student interviews, and 7 adult interviews that were conducted between June and August 2006. In order to manage the volume of data that were collected from the papers and interviews, information coded from these sources is organized into four

sections. The four sections are organized by the themes that evolved from the

coding process around the four research questions that guide this study:

1. How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship

    education program within the United States Government curriculum?

2. What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is

    integrated into the United States Government curriculum?

3. How do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect their understanding

    of the responsibilities of citizenship?

4. In what ways are service learning experiences and government observations

    comparable?

Research Question 1

*How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship
education program within the United States Government curriculum?*

Research Question 1 focuses on the actual structure of the service and

government observation program that was implemented into Greenfield's United

States Government curriculum. Adult interviews, student interviews, and student

reflection papers were all utilized in the coding process. Program document data

were presented in Chapter IV. As a result of an open coding process, four themes

emerged from the data: history of the program, students' motives in selecting

project choice, project procedures, and community relations aspects of the program. This section presents data by theme and source.

History of the Program

One theme that evolved from the coding of interviews and reflection papers related to the history of the program. This theme was identified as a critical component of understanding the structure of the program. Not only did the data reveal how the program originally was incorporated into the curriculum but also why it was later changed through board policy to be a mandatory project. Data related to the history of the program are presented through the following subsections: history of the original program, factors contributing to a change in the program, the process adopted to undertake program change, the mandatory nature of the project, and the culture of the current program. The development of this section represents the coding of 53 passages from student and adult interviews and student reflection papers.

History of the Original Program

In coding data about the original program, 11 passages revealed information about the original service and government observation program that was implemented at Greenfield High School in the 1994-1995 school year. Only one of

the interviewees, Mark Burns, was able to share information about that program. He was the Social Studies Department chair at that time who developed the program; therefore, he was part of the decision-making team. All other adult interviewees either were not associated with the original program or became associated with the program after its inception. Burns identified three key phases to implementing the original non-mandatory program: the origin of the idea, determination of whether to make the project a graduation requirement or a course component, and curricular location and supervision of the project as a course component.

Burns cited several factors that contributed to the creation of the service learning and government observation program in its non-mandatory form. First, he identified that in his role as department chair he had been introduced to the concept of service learning at several national conferences. Service learning had become a topic of interest to both researchers and practitioners in the 1990s. Burns also noted that his personal experience with the parochial school system had influenced his views on the use of service learning. Another factor that influenced Burns and the administrative staff during this developmental phase was a belief that schools were responsible for the development of a student's character.

> There was in our history of public education a belief that schools help form good citizens. And I think that belief helped generate this idea that we look at what a really good citizen is. A good citizen participates in democracy, not just simply by voting, but also through some participation in the life of a community...so that is why I think the movement started.

Burns indicated that the project at Greenfield High School paralleled conversations

that were going on at the national level in terms of service and character education.

However, once the decision was made to create a program, Burns indicated

that there were still several decisions to be made. One of those decisions was

whether or not to make the project a graduation requirement. He noted that a school

district near Greenfield had a program that required students to complete 24 hours

of service over four years. In order to manage the program, the neighboring district

had hired full-time service coordinators. In his estimation, that type of program

would have been cost prohibitive at Greenfield:

> When we were starting [this program], [Greenfield] was in, I don't want to
> say dire [financial shape], but the financial situation was an issue. As we
> projected forward, and even then there were discussions of other methods of
> financing education than the property tax...tax caps came into play. The tax
> caps...led to a significant reduction in revenue [for the school].

Burns related that because the district did not feel comfortable hiring full-time

coordinators, it was determined that the project would not be a graduation

requirement. He stated:

> The board was not opposed to [making the project a graduation
> requirement], but I didn't feel we could do it. What I told the board was that
> I did not think we could make it a straight graduation requirement without
> allocating the resources or assigning personnel....I could not support making
> this a graduation requirement unless we knew we could check 100% of the
> students.

As an alternative to the neighboring district's program, Burns stated that

Greenfield decided to place the project within the context of the Social Studies

Department. It was decided that if the project "was a significant part of the grade

within the [United States Government] course, that we would get what we wanted

out of it. Maybe not 100% [participation], but that the majority of kids would do [the project]."

There were other reasons that Burns felt that the United States Government curriculum was the appropriate venue through which the project would be addressed. First, he related that the classroom provided an opportunity for reflection as opposed to a graduation requirement where students just had to provide a verification form of hours served. A second factor that influenced decision making was the fact that only seniors were enrolled in United States Government. Burns felt that by putting the project in a course for upperclassmen, it would be easier for students to get transportation since the school would not be able to provide rides to service sites or local government boards.

Burns's interview identified several of the key decisions that were made in adopting the original service learning and government observation program. One factor that was unclear in his interview was who the key decision makers were during that process. Follow-up answers indicated that the superintendent, curriculum director, and department chair were responsible for most of the development, but presentations to the Social Studies Department resulted in various refinements to the project. The next section describes the factors that led to changing the program.

Factors Contributing to a Change in the Program

In coding data about the history of the program, nine passages revealed information about factors that contributed to changing the program to a mandatory project. The nine passages came from interviews with the former superintendent, Mark Burns; Debra Hughes, the curriculum director at the time of the change; and Carol Kelly, the teacher who functioned as a service coordinator. According to interviews with these three individuals, there were two key factors that influenced the implementation of the program as a mandatory project: the structure of the original program which allowed students to ignore the program and a climate in which that change would be accepted.

In identifying problems that led to the policy change, Kelly, Burns, and Hughes all noted problems with the original structure. Kelly, as the service coordinator, described the state of the program after four years of existence. For her, there were apparent workload issues:

> [The program was] mediocre at best. There wasn't a pride...I never had
> confidence or felt that there was dignity or conviction to the way the
> program was structured. I never felt conviction because it was always a half
> effort. It was always the best I could do with the time that I had. And quite
> honestly, it was never good enough.

Curriculum Director Hughes also identified the fact that there had been concerns about the teacher workload leading up to the time in which the program was made mandatory:

> After a few years, it became obvious that we couldn't allow our teachers to
> operate without a structure to support them in supervising this project. You

couldn't make demands on your faculty in terms of the workload...without blessing it [through release time].

Teacher workload was not the only concern with the original structure. There was also a concern that too many students were not completing the project. Burns felt that at the time approximately "two-thirds of the students were doing the project conscientiously"; Kelly thought that "10-15%" of the kids were not completing the project. Although there were no records to confirm the exact number of students who did not complete the project prior to its adoption as a mandatory project, the concern that too many students were not doing it troubled key stakeholders. According to Kelly, she was concerned that she saw students actively ignoring the project. For her, "there was an attitude of 'my grade can handle it. I'm just not going to do it.' Even 'good kids' were saying, 'It's almost May, I'm a senior.'" Burns shared a concern with that type of attitude in the students:

> We could see the benefits of the program, yet there was something that bothered us about it—the kids not doing it.....So, after we had seen that it worked, I told [the Board of Education], "Here are the problems." That is when we got an opportunity to commit some time to the program.

Even though some of the stakeholders had identified problems in the way the program was functioning, a positive political climate concerning the program also influenced the adoption of the mandatory policy. Burns and Hughes both addressed these issues. For Burns, the fact that there was now a Board member who had nieces and nephews at a school where service was mandatory enhanced the climate under which change could take place. He also felt good that the change would allow

them to correct what he considered a flaw in the original program—leniency in what was considered service.

Hughes, however, noted that even with some students not doing the project, the students who were completing it had positive things to say. For Hughes, students could recognize that this project could be worthwhile. She also noted that an administrator's connection with a service coordinator at another school provided a means through which those who already had a mandatory program could support the teachers during this period of change. The original program had no written policies, just a project descriptor. Through Hughes's connections with the coordinator at another school, the teachers would not have to "reinvent the wheel" when it came to developing the policy.

Although structural issues and climate contributed to the ability to change the program, Greenfield still had several obstacles to overcome before the change was official. The next section describes the process that was undertaken to prepare for the change in policy.

The Process Adopted to Undertake Program Change

In coding data about the history of the program, nine passages were identified that described the process through which the change took place. Those passages were identified from the interview transcripts of Superintendent Mark Burns, Curriculum Director Debra Hughes, and Service Coordinator Carol Kelly.

According to these three individuals, the process centered on three actions: networking with a school that already had a mandatory service program, reflecting on the existing structure and adjusting practice accordingly, and presenting the proposal to the Greenfield Board of Education.

One critical component of the transition to the mandatory program was networking with another school that already had service as a requirement. Hughes identified two reasons for networking with other schools. First, it allowed teachers and administrators to see how another school had structured teacher release time in terms of holding students accountable for their service. Burns had also felt that having structured release time would add to the program because that time could be used to develop relationships with organizations that would ease some of the accountability issues that would arise. For Kelly, release time meant that she could finally ensure that she would be better able to hold students accountable.

The second reason for networking with another school, according to Hughes, was that it allowed Greenfield staff members to investigate the written policies of the other school and determine what could be adopted without having to "reinvent the wheel." One should note that the school with which staff members networked structured their program as a 24-hour service graduation requirement. Their school only required verification of the hours to graduate. Although Greenfield still planned to house the project (with its government observation alternative project) within the United States Government course curriculum, administrators felt that relevant written policies could still be borrowed.

Another critical component of the transition to the mandatory program required teachers to reflect on the original program and create policies that addressed earlier concerns. During this time period, Hughes instructed the teachers to create the program documents that would be necessary to explain the program as well as provide for a means of holding students accountable. As a result of this work, teachers created the program manual, program flier, and verification forms. The creation of these documents addressed an earlier need that there had been very little formal explanation of the program and its policies considering what was acceptable in terms of completing service and attending meetings.

Burns identified that it was during this transition period in which two major changes were made to prior policy. First, policy was initiated that would not allow Greenfield High School or its programs to be the primary recipient of the service. In other words, baseball team members could not pick up the baseball field and consider that service. However, baseball players would be allowed to work for a youth camp sponsored by the school. The primary difference was that in the second scenario, the young children in the community were the primary benefactors not the baseball team itself. Although Burns felt "that we got some criticism for that," the change allowed the program to be consistent in its desire to engage students in the community as a whole.

Another critical policy change took place during this period. According to Burns, there had originally been a required policy paper within the United States Government curriculum. When the project was made a required part of the class,

the policy paper was eliminated as a required component of the course. He felt that would compensate teachers for the additional course time that the service and government observation project would take. The elimination of the policy paper would also alleviate some of the demands of grading.

The final component of the transition period was to present the policy change to the Board of Education. Only Hughes addressed this component in her interview. She argued that the reason the presentation took place after all the networking and policy changes had been prepared was that the administrative staff believed that it was never wise to go to a board "without knowing exactly what you are going to do":

> We knew before the presentation that one criticism of the program might be the expense. When you talk about classroom teacher time being used for something outside of the classroom [service coordination release time], you are talking about money. Therefore, it was imperative to demonstrate that the money would "pay off" for them.

She then went on to explain that at that point the Greenfield Board was very receptive to the idea of things that were "important for students that were both current and could take place outside the classroom." The Board passed the policy with overwhelming support. The next section addresses what stakeholders felt about the mandatory nature of the program once that policy was implemented.

The Mandatory Nature of the Project

The fact that the service and government observation project is mandatory is one of the aspects that make it controversial. Therefore, in coding data about the history and structure of the program, the researcher was interested in what stakeholders felt about the mandatory nature of the project. Thirteen passages were identified through the open coding process that revealed information about what various stakeholders thought about the mandatory nature of the program. Those passages were identified in the interview transcripts of Superintendent Burns, Service Coordinator Kelly, and three student interviewees. There were also passages from two reflection papers—one service paper and one meeting paper. The coded passages identify the philosophy behind making it mandatory and the practical effects of making the project mandatory.

Burns discussed the philosophy behind making the project mandatory. For him, making it mandatory paralleled a movement that was going on nationwide. He noted that there had even been a state that had made community service a graduation requirement. Therefore, the policy was consistent with contemporary thought on character education. However, he noted that at Greenfield he and other administrators determined "that there should be an alternative to a mandatory number of hours in service because there was just something I believed about the problem of forcing a child to participate in something." Burns also believed that the mandatory nature of the project also influenced the school's belief that the project

should still be conducted within the framework of the United States Government

curriculum:

> What happens if a student fails the requirement? How will we help him or her make that up? Who is responsible for that? What if he or she just wants to do it in the summer after graduation? There was a certain tidiness about having it be a part of the class. If a teacher wanted to grant an extension in January for the first semester, that was a teacher's prerogative. The teacher can give an incomplete and deal with it. But when you have it as a graduation requirement separate from course work, you have got a whole different set of issues.

Burns discussed the philosophy behind the mandatory project while Kelly

and students discussed the practical effects of making it mandatory. For Kelly,

making the project mandatory led people to be concerned with how this project

might affect graduation rates. In Kelly's perspective, it was "the exception to the

rule" when this project kept someone from graduating. Although Kelly could not

cite specific numbers, in the researcher's experience, she had not had someone fail

merely for not completing the project until the fall semester of the 2005-2006 school

year. Before that, if students failed the class, they had failed based on a variety of

factors—failing grades, attendance, failure to master Constitution tests, etc. In the

fall of 2005, four students had earned enough points to pass the class but failed to

complete the service or government observation project. That was her only

experience with that since the mandatory policy had been implemented.

Students who addressed the mandatory nature of the program discussed it in

a variety of ways. In some instances they were descriptive. Dylan stated that the

mandatory nature of the project made the end of the semester very stressful because

he was trying to get everything done at the end. He also found that when he

discussed the project with students from other schools, they tended to be "in awe" of the program. While he chose to do the government meetings project, students from other schools did not have to complete something like that. The government observations project is unique in the Greenfield area.

Some students, however, identified that the mandatory nature of the project did make a difference in getting students out of the classroom and into the community. Dylan and Shannon both indicated that they would not have chosen to do service or government observations unless it had been a required part of the class they were taking. Both of them cited time constraints during the senior year as pressures that would have kept them from doing the project. Maria, however, said that she would have done the project regardless of whether it was a required component or just a project that you could complete while taking United States Government. Because she takes her grades so seriously, she would have completed the project to make sure that she earned the points for the project.

Although there was no reflection paper prompt that asked about the mandatory nature of the project, two students did weigh in on the topic. One student noted that attending meetings needed to be mandatory because "the majority of the high school students and even adults have never been to a meeting before" (M03). A student who completed the service project, however, felt that the project should not be a requirement. Although she felt that "there was a valuable lesson," she did not think it should be required "because [students] already have so much work as it is" (S41). One should note that S41 was a National Honor Society

student who had already completed the equivalent of 75 hours and 65 hours of service in her junior and senior years, respectively. Although some students did not necessarily like the mandatory aspect of the project, most recognized that the policy made a difference in motivating students to go beyond the classroom walls for learning. The next section discusses cultural developments of the service and government observation project.

The Culture of the Current Program

In coding data about the history of the program, 11 passages from six sources indicated that the adoption of the program had created a project culture. Passages that were coded for identifying the current culture of the program either described how certain attitudes and behavior had become normal through the project or described evidence that students used information from other students to either learn about the program or decide how they would complete the program.

In her interview, Service Coordinator Kelly indicated that the project has taken on its own character since inception. For example, when Kelly was asked if students complain about the project, her response was:

> Not as loudly or as frequently as when we started the program. It's just a rite of passage now. They don't seem to bother with [complaining]. I don't hear as many "Why do we have to do this" questions. And there may be many forces at work there. It could be some sort of post-September 11th patriotism. It could just be that this project is considered part and parcel of getting a Greenfield diploma, and they have learned that from their brothers and sisters. But, I see less and less complaining and more and more willingness to go through it.

According to Kelly, the implementation of the project seems to have created a culture where the service and government observation program has become a natural part of life as a Greenfield student. She also noted that the program has become such a regular part of the culture of the school that juniors she does not know approach her to find out when the orientation meeting is for the service program.

Student data also suggested that the program has created its own culture within the school. For Katie, the project meant more than just attending government meetings. She discussed the fact that for her friends attending meetings had been a homework assignment that led to a social event. They would attend a meeting and then go out for ice cream or some other sort of event. She explained that they would sit around and talk about things that happened at the meeting. For other students, the culture of the program influenced student decision making within the program. Katie mentioned that she had been told that board members at a certain meeting were "jerks." She thought that sounded interesting so she attended a meeting at that board, but she had found the board members nice enough. Liz also mentioned that she would use cues from other students to decide which meetings she would attend. She said, "I had heard so much about this project from other students' descriptions. You know, they would tell me, 'These meetings are boring' or 'Be prepared for a two-hour meeting at Village Y'...." Because students have the opportunity to discuss where they have been and what they have done, evidence suggests that the project has taken on its own cultural dimension.

<u>Students' Motives in Selecting Project Choice</u>

Another theme that evolved related to the structure of the program was students' motives in choosing either service or government observations. This theme was identified as a critical component of understanding the structure of the program because the distribution of student projects—service vs. meetings—affects the amount of time it takes to supervise the program. Attending meetings does not impact teacher supervisor time as much as calling to set up and confirm each student service project—whether school coordinated or student initiated. During the 2005-2006 school year, Chapter IV data indicated that the project distribution was 47% service and 53% government observation. The following subsections note student-cited reasons for choosing either service or government observations presented by type of project completed. The development of these subsections represents the coding of 54 passages from interview transcripts and reflection papers. Some students cited multiple motives for choosing a certain type of project.

<u>Service Project Participants</u>

In coding data related to student motivation in selecting service or government observations, 32 passages were coded from service students. Information came from four interview transcripts and 15 reflection papers.

Interviewees were specifically asked why they chose service; students who completed reflection papers included the information in their reflection paper in the course of discussing their projects. For reflection-paper students, describing their motivation was not a specific prompt. Respondents identified seven motives for choosing service over government observations: interest in the specific cause that was being served, desire to work with people, convenience of school-coordinated events, desire to work with an organization with which the student already had a volunteer relationship, opportunity to enhance personal skills for college applications, the hands-on nature of completing service, and the fact that the student had missed the deadline for government meetings.

Twelve students indicated that they had been motivated to complete service because they had been interested in the specific cause that had been served. For some, like Maria, the "cause" was that they wanted to give back to an organization from which they had benefited when growing up in the community. Others indicated various personal interests in the causes: S11, S26, and S33 all worked for a national research organization because they personally knew someone who suffered from the disease. A variety of personal interests in causes were stated.

Nine students indicated that they made their decision based on the fact that service would allow them to work with people. When asked why she had selected service, Meredith responded, "[I chose service] because it would be fun being with people, seeing people you didn't know, and working with some friends I had not seen in a while. It's almost like we had a chance to get reacquainted."

Five students cited their motivation to choose service because they felt that the school-coordinated events were convenient. For example, S46 expressed that one of the sites was conveniently located close to home. Three students selected service because they were students who had already established a volunteer relationship with an organization. This included one student (S12) who had served at an animal clinic many hours while in junior high and used this project as an opportunity to re-establish that relationship.

The final three reasons that students had been motivated to choose service were only cited by one student each. S11 indicated that she had viewed completing service as a means of enhancing her college applications, S12 was motivated by "hands-on" nature of the service project, and S42 noted that he had not had a choice because he had missed the deadline by which he had to have completed his first meeting. His participation in service had been by default.

Government Observation Participants

In coding data related to student motivation in selecting service or government observations, 22 passages were coded from government observation students. Information came from five interview transcripts and 16 reflection papers. Interviewees were specifically asked why they chose government observations; students who completed reflection papers included the information in their reflection paper in the course of discussing their projects. For them, motivation was

not a specific prompt. Respondents identified three motives for choosing

government observations over service: the opportunity to complete a project that the

student felt was closely tied to the class content and personal interests, convenience

of meetings in terms of schedules and location, and previous experience with

completing service.

Ten students indicated that they had been motivated to complete government

observation because it was the project that seemed most closely aligned with their

interests in the content of the course. For M04, the government observations had

been selected because she felt it would allow her "to fulfill her duty as a citizen of

the United States." Other students indicated that their motivation was related to an

interest in political issues and the workings of local government. M11 noted that

she thought that meetings would give her "a basic understanding of public concerns

and political issues," while M23 cited her interests in learning about the issues in the

neighborhood because she knew that "not everyone has the same opinion."

Nine students indicated that they selected government observations due to

the convenience in terms of personal schedules, time commitment, and meetings

locations. For some, like Anna, the time commitment for meetings was less and that

allowed her to fit it into her schedule, "since I was always busy with sports." Others

cited that meetings had been selected due to work and personal schedule issues that

did not necessarily involve extracurricular activities (Mallory, M03, M12, M16, and

M17). Still others, like Dylan, cited that the convenience was related to the fact that

it allowed him to have access to more people with whom he could carpool. This factor would be important to someone who does not have access to transportation.

A final group of students indicated that they had selected meetings because they had already had significant experience with service and wanted to try something new. This belief is illustrated through a passage from Katie: "I had been in National Honor Society during my junior year, and I had done so much community service that I thought I would do meetings." There were a variety of reasons that students selected one project over the other. The next section discusses the general procedures that constitute the structure of the program.

<div align="center">Procedures</div>

Another theme that evolved related to the program procedures. This theme was identified as important to understanding the structure of the program. By triangulating data from both students and teacher, the researcher could identify whether the program description from documents was consistent with what students and teacher described as common practice within the program. The researcher was also able to categorize the roles that both students and teachers play in completing the project. Data related to project procedures are presented through subsections on student roles in completing the project and teacher roles in facilitating the project. The development of this section represents the coding of 69 passages related to student procedures and 20 passages related to student and teacher descriptions of the

role of the teachers. Those passages came from interviews with Dr. Mark Burns, Curriculum Director Debra Hughes, Service Coordinator Carol Kelly, and 10 student interviewees.

Student Role in Completing the Project

During the interview process, the 10 student interviewees described procedures they considered important to completing the required service or government observations project at Greenfield High School. One of the most remarkable aspects of those interviews was the confidence with which students described the critical components of what the student needed to do and how the teacher helped them do that. Most students were able to describe with detail the requirements of the program—even citing such specific procedures as the inability to attend the same meeting site more than twice and only being able to attend one meeting in an evening. All of these details were policies from the manual, but students demonstrated clear abilities to cite them even in the summer after the project was completed. The following represents a summary of what students identified as student procedures in completing the project. The list is the product of assembling student tasks described in responses from the 10 student interviewees and the one teacher.

- Student is oriented to the project in the spring of his or her junior year.
- Student is re-oriented as part of the United States Government curriculum.
- Student chooses to complete either 12 service hours or five government observations.

- If a student chooses meetings, he or she attends five meetings and gets a verification form signed at each event.
- If a student chooses service, he or she chooses either a student-initiated project or signs up for school-coordinated projects. Students may also do a combination of student-initiated or school-coordinated projects.
- Once a student has a verification form signed by a local board member or service site personnel, he or she has a parent or guardian sign the form.
- Verification forms get turned in to the students' United States Government teachers.
- Once completed with all service hours or meetings, the student composes a three- to five- page reflection paper based on a writing prompt.
- The student receives a grade for the reflection paper based on completion of project and quality of essay in terms of reflection and structure.

In describing the key events to successfully completing the project, several students indicated that they thought that much of the program success was related to organization of the program and the support that was given by faculty. For example, Dylan noted, "It's really well organized. Everything is pretty much set for you. Therefore, it is just a matter of doing [the meetings or the service]." Shannon concurred:

> There was more than enough support to be able to finish. There were three meetings a night—maybe three or four nights a week....There was no way you couldn't be able to finish meetings. And then, with service they basically set it up for you so that all you had to do was show up [for your service commitment].

Curriculum Director Hughes indicated that the organization of the project was a function of the teacher's release time. Although two teachers were given one period each of release time for the first four years of the mandatory program, that release time was diminished to a homeroom (29 minutes) release period as part of budget cuts during the 2005-2006 school year.

Teacher Role in Facilitating the Project

Data indicated that teachers played an active role in facilitating the service and government observation program. An interview with Service Coordinator Kelly revealed the following description of the role she thought she played in the program:

> [I am] facilitator and coach. It really is more of a coaching position. We coach them along and keep on them. It is also very much like a parent's role in that it's often a never-ending responsibility. We are constantly mentioning something about the program....So coach, teacher, facilitator—those are the three roles that immediately come to mind, but I would also say partner because it is my job as teacher to instruct on that type of participation. Therefore, I think it is only fair that I mention things that I have done or I am currently doing or voting or just keeping up on news events....It is also important for me to talk about [the program] with them so that they are part of the conversation. Even if they haven't seen or participated in one of the projects, they can still feel like they are part of it.

For Kelly, the role of teacher is one of responsibility in motivating and monitoring progress while also serving to a certain extent as a role model. Student interviewees' responses mirrored that of Kelly. They used terms such as "enforcer," "record keeper," "helpful," "organizer," "motivator," "support person," "manager," "informer," and "accountability clerk" to describe the many roles that the teachers played in facilitating the program. In their descriptions, the students also alluded to following procedures that teacher coordinators performed. This list was compiled from the 10 student interviews and the interview with Kelly.

- Provide orientation program to junior students though a homeroom assembly.
- Re-orient students to the program at the beginning of the United States Government course. Ensure that procedures for completion are emphasized.

- Create a monthly service and meeting calendar. These calendars are published in both the classrooms and the school website.
- Continue to update information throughout the semester.
- Include the project as daily discussion points throughout the semester.
- Use opportunities to tie project to the curriculum at appropriate points.
- Provide service reminders to students 24 hours prior to each event.
- Supervise and manage verification forms as turned in by students.
- Hold students accountable by calling to verify service forms, recording all verification forms in a student file, making parent phone calls each grading period to students who are not making adequate progress, and putting project status comments on 6-week progress reports.
- Assess reflection papers for reflection content and essay structure.

These procedures constitute the variety of jobs that teachers perform in facilitating student progress.

Community Relations Aspects of the Program

Another theme that evolved from the coding of reflection papers and interview transcripts was related to program community relations. Community relations refer to any school-community interaction that occurred as part of program participation. For this project, community relations occurs through the following contacts: student and local board interaction, student and service organization interaction, and teacher and service organization interaction. One should note that teachers did not regularly contact local boards after each meeting. Contact was merely made at the beginning of the semester when calendars were set up, unless some sort of issue developed at a meeting that required school attention. Adult interviews, student interviews, and student reflection papers were all utilized in the coding process. As a result of the open coding process, two themes emerged from

the data: benefits of interaction between the school and community and problems and potential concerns related to the project. This section is presented by theme and source.

Benefits of Interaction Between School and Community

In coding data related to community relations, 10 passages were identified as discussing the benefits of having students interact with local boards and service organizations. Those passages were identified through administrator interviews, local and neighboring board member interviews, and student reflection papers.

For Burns, the positive school-community relations aspects of the program had been an unanticipated benefit of implementing the program:

> We never thought about the program in terms of [community relations] when we started it. But that was an unexpected benefit and a tremendous benefit for many reasons. I can't emphasize enough how important [the program] was in creating a positive image of teenagers and of Greenfield High School. [As superintendent], I would get feedback from all over on how wonderful and helpful the kids were.

In his estimation, service students had been appreciated and board members had enjoyed signing the verification forms of government observation students.

Although service site personnel were not interviewed as part of the study, local board members and members of neighboring boards cited the positive aspects of the program. All four interviewed board members indicated that they welcomed the students and had minimal, if any, concerns about what happened when students attended meetings. Neighboring Board Member B said, "[The students] have

always conducted themselves in an appropriate manner with dignity and quiet. Sometimes the mayor will even tease them a little bit from the podium. [The students] seem to enjoy that." This type of positive perception of students by the board members was echoed in the interview with Local Board Member B. She stated that students were "polite, nice, and listened during their attendance."

Some students who completed meetings indicated that their perceptions of board members were enhanced through meeting attendance. For example, M34 was appreciative of a board member who was willing to explain some of the agenda items that had occurred while the board member was signing the verification form for the student. Meanwhile, M35 complimented board members who went out of their way to maintain a rapport with students at the meetings.

Service students, too, seemed to indicate that they understood that there could be community relations benefits from volunteering. One student in particular, S34, stated that completing service shows the public "that you are not selfish and that you are able to make certain sacrifices in order to help those who need your help."

Data indicated that there were a variety of benefits that resulted from requiring students to complete service or attend government observations. However, data also indicated that there were certain concerns that develop anytime a school sends students into the community. The next section presents information that represents problems and concerns of potential problems that affect school-community relations.

Problems and Potential Concerns Related to the Project

Despite the fact that there are several community relations benefits to sending students out into the community, data collected through this study indicates that there are still problems and potential concerns that need to be taken into consideration when implementing a similar program. Through the open coding process, 85 passages were identified that suggested concerns about events that occurred while students were observing meetings and serving the community. Those passages were identified in administrator and board member interviews, student interviews, and student reflection papers. The data are presented by the following issues: image, project logistics, communication, appropriateness of project and environment, student interest, meaningfulness of project, safety, concerns about public participation in civic activities, and issues related to meeting procedures.

Image issues. Of the passages coded, 22 of them indicated that the project put students in situations where the student was potentially being sent a message that was incongruent with the purpose of the program or the public was being sent an improper image of teenagers. For example, students who attended meetings cited the following concerns with meeting incidents: lack of professional behavior by board members who showed up late, were poorly prepared, or smoked throughout the meeting; inappropriate comments by board members to students in the crowd; lack of diversity (gender and ethnicity) of board members; undemocratic behavior

by board members (throwing out someone who questioned board action); and disruptive behavior by citizens participating at the meeting. Although these problems were not frequent, the incidents were important enough to the students who witnessed them that they reflected on them. Conversely, the students sometimes sent their own inappropriate messages to board members. Although none of the board members interviewed relayed incidents, at least three students cited disappointment with their classmates who sent text messages during the meeting or behaved like "jerks" (Dylan). There were also incidents of students failing to show up for their service that affected the organization's image of teenage volunteers (Kelly). The risk in implementing a program like this is that the teachers and school cannot control every student and adult behavior that influences the image that one group has of the other; however, according to data from this study, the frequency of these problems was minimal.

Project logistics. Some of the problems cited by students dealt with the logistics of the program. Students indicated through interviews and reflection papers that they dealt with the following logistical issues: finding the meeting or service location, inaccurate meeting times, weather issues, transportation issues, and difficulty in managing personal time when involved with work and extracurricular activities. Once again, although students cited these concerns, the frequency of these complaints was low—14 coded passages.

Communication issues. Communication issues affected both service and government observation students. Twelve passages were coded for concerns of communication. For service projects, some people in the school and community had been upset that the mandatory program did not let Greenfield High School benefit from the student service. Burns indicated that these concerns diminished as the program became more accepted. However, there also seemed to be concerns with how the projects were communicated to service students. At least three students reflected on service in which they were unable to articulate the purpose of the organization or who benefited from the work that was being accomplished. Perhaps better communication by school and organization adults could have aided student learning. Government observation students also encountered communication issues. Several students expressed disgust about closed sessions that occurred. Five students thought closed sessions sounded illegal. Better communication and instruction on how meetings are conducted and the conditions under which closed sessions occur might have alleviated student concerns and led to a better understanding of the process.

Appropriateness of project and environment. A variety of concerns evolved related to the appropriateness of the project and the environment in which students attended meetings and served. In the seven passages coded, students cited the following incidents:

- A concern with a student working with younger students who was told information that made her uncomfortable in terms of what to do with the information.

- A concern with the ability of students with limited English-speaking skills to get the most out of service and meetings.
- A concern with a lack of maturity in some students that was made evident when students were critical of board members because of how the board members looked.
- A lack of maturity by one student who praised one board because the conduct of people at the meeting was similar to a "Jerry Springer Show."
- Inappropriate comments by adult volunteers to a high school volunteer about the sexual behavior of 7th and 8th graders.

Once again, although it may be impossible for a school to control all aspects of the projects, the school needs to be prepared to deal with concerns that arise.

Student interest issues. There were three students who indicated that they or their friends just found it impossible to become interested in the work that they did with service or the content of the meetings. Two of the students referred to distancing themselves from the project. One should note that Kelly did cite that the coordinators often tried to match students up with interests. However, that only occurred with students who would take the time to make appointments to see the teachers.

Meaningfulness of project. One critical issue that evolved out of service student reflections was concerns over the meaningfulness of the project. Passages from nine student reflection papers indicated the following: the students' inability to connect the job they performed at the service site with a need in the community, the lack of organization at some service sites that led to students standing around during their hours, and the performance of clerical work in which the student was unable to tie their work to some meaningful issue that needed to be addressed. However,

there was also a student who found the project so meaningful that he suggested that each student perform at least 20 hours of service (S18).

Safety issues. Another critical issue that evolved out of service student reflections related to student safety. In the eight coded passages, the following incidents were cited by students:

- Young ladies who worked alone with adult men.
- Fights that occurred at local teen mixers where students were serving. Students were responsible for supervising the dances where these fights took place.
- Service sites in which students worked around expensive items or where students were asked to handle money, which is against program policy.
- Service sites where students were doing environmental preservation. In these locations, students were sometimes responsible for cutting down trees and supervising "controlled burns."

In structuring a program in which students leave the physical facility of the school, student safety concerns need to be addressed.

Concerns about public participation in civic activities. Another concern about the project evolved from reflections of students who attended meetings. Because several students indicated that they were concerned about the lack of knowledge and participation in local government meetings, one needs to be concerned. The purpose of sending students to meetings was that students would learn about how community problems get solved and how responsible citizens help solve them. If students continually see that "no one cares" (Dylan), the lesson that they learn might be that meetings are not that important. One student reflection, however, mediated that concern. M13 noted that he was concerned that only

students were forced to go to meetings. By observing the lack of participation, M13 was motivated to think that others in the community should be required to become better informed about what is going on in the community.

Issues related to meeting procedures. A final concern evolved out of three passages coded from the reflection papers of students who attended government meetings. In these three reflection papers, data suggested that special circumstances sometimes arise related to meeting procedures. The following represent procedural abnormalities noted by students: one meeting went over two and a half hours, which placed students in the difficult situation of being out after curfew without their parents; one board created its own special procedures about how to sign students' forms, which confused students; and some meetings involved technical language related to zoning variances. Once again, sending students out into the community has some level of risk. Although they are in some ways learning experiences for both organizers and students, they require the attention of school personnel.

Summary of Data from Research Question 1

In summarizing data from Research Question 1, the history of the program was important to understanding the evolution of the program structure within the United States Government curriculum. The original program was not mandatory. However, after several years of relatively uneven participation among students, officials and staff members made the project a mandatory component of the United

States Government course while also providing a limited amount of release time to teacher coordinators.

Data also revealed that there are a variety of reasons students choose one project (service or government observations) over the other. Regardless of what type of project an individual student chose, the distribution of project types among all students influenced teacher workload.

Evidence from the study also suggested that students were able to confidently and consistently articulate the roles that both students and teachers play in completing and facilitating the project. These roles were presented in a list of procedures. Students also emphasized that program organization allowed them to focus on just being a good listener, in part because students did not have to coordinate everything on their own.

And finally, data related to the structure of the program indicated that there were both positive and negative influences on school-community relations as a result of implementing this project. Although overall the benefits outweighed the risks, schools interested in introducing a similar project would need to be prepared to deal with some of the issues that took place when students went out into the community to both serve and observe.

Research Question 2

What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is integrated into the United States Government curriculum?

Research Question 2 focuses on the ways in which students and teachers felt that the program was integrated into the United States Government curriculum. Passages related to program purpose were also considered in the presentation of Research Question 2 data. Program purpose was included in this section because it could be utilized to triangulate the effectiveness of curriculum integration by investigating the perceived purpose of including the program. For program purpose data, the teacher, students, administrators, and local board members were all interviewed. In coding interviews and reflection papers, 61 passages were identified as addressing the ways in which the program was related to the curriculum; 51 passages were identified as addressing program purpose.

Three themes emerged from interviews and reflection papers. Some participants addressed integration in terms of how the program had been addressed through in-class activities and procedures. Others articulated their views in terms of how attending meetings and completing service tied to the text and curricular units throughout the semester. Another group of people identified the perceived purpose of the program. In presenting curriculum integration, data is presented by source— student interviews, student reflection papers, and adult interviews.

Integrating Service and Government Observations into Class Activities

The following subsections describe the ways in which different sources noted the integration of the service and government observations project into class activities and procedures.

Student Interviews

Student interviews revealed that students felt the service and government observations project was addressed consistently within class discussions. In-class activities were referenced six times by four different interviewees. In many ways, its consistent presence was related to procedures. Katie explained, "Before the project even was given to us, we had a whole-day discussion. She handed out [the manuals] and she went over everything. And then, if we had questions, people would ask throughout the semester."

For many students, it seemed that whenever students would come in with verification forms, the teacher would discuss what had happened at the meeting or service site:

> At the beginning of class, if there were quite a few kids who went to a meeting that night, [the teacher] would ask us, "Oh, how was the meeting? What did you learn?" (Dylan)

> Just about every day someone turned in a [verification form]. She'd ask, "Oh, how was the meeting?" (Katie)

We usually did it, like, the first thing as soon as we got in class. My teacher would ask if anybody had community service or government meeting sheets to hand in, and then he would collect them and keep track of them. (Shannon)

Although the focus of the previous quotes was on meeting attendance, service students also felt that their project was addressed. Maria felt service had been addressed in class discussions as an opportunity to practice citizenship. In her interview, she explained that she felt that discussion was brought to life through her service: "Like, in the classroom, we talked about...making decisions and helping out, and when you go to the service hours, that's what you do. You're becoming a better citizen and helping people out." For Maria, her service linked back to class discussions.

Despite the confidence with which students explained that the project was addressed consistently through class procedures and discussions, one should note that Dylan felt that the coverage was not necessarily in depth. In his interview, he cautioned that despite the fact that the teacher always addressed students with forms, the discussion "would only be like the first five minutes."

Adult Interviews

In terms of how the curriculum was integrated into the class, only the interview with Service Coordinator Kelly contained data that was relevant. Her answers are summarized in this section.

Kelly revealed that she, too, felt that the project was something that was addressed frequently through class procedures and discussions. In responding to a prompt about how the project was incorporated into the class, she stated:

> [It's] pretty much a daily reminder in class. "There's a meeting tonight. This time…this place…check it out…." Or I'll say, "How did the meeting go last night?" And we'll take a few minutes to talk about that. And if there were some big "to-do" [at the meeting], everybody will get involved [in the discussion].

She then went on to describe an example of how one of these discussions would end up leading to a larger discussion within the class:

> [For] example, there was a meeting [where] an athletic stadium was being put up [in a nearby village]. The complexities of that, and how a bunch of people getting together and ironing things out—finding a common ground on differences when it comes to the stadium. There are going to be thousands of people going to that community: How are you going to deal with parking? How are you going to deal with crime? Where is the [tax revenue] going? Do we want this in our community? So that was one issue that was in the news at the meeting and kids were picking up on that.

In this example, the teacher explained that something as simple as collecting a verification form could create a meaningful in-class discussion about issues.

Tying Service and Government Observations to Instructional Units and the Text

The following subsections describe the ways in which different sources noted the integration of the service and government observations project into the course instructional units and the text. One set of data that is not included in this section is how students responded to prompts about how the project ties to the responsibility of citizenship. Even though learning about the responsibility of

citizenship is a curricular theme, these data were disaggregated from the curriculum integration section to be presented and discussed under Research Question 3 that specifically addresses that issue.

Student Reflection Papers

Because service students and government observation students encountered different experiences, this section is divided into subsections based on type of project completed. Students' reflection papers were coded for information that demonstrated the student could tie the project to some aspect of the instructional unit or course curriculum.

Service students. Service student reflection papers yielded 21 references to the ways in which the project was tied to curricular units. Data revealed three general methods through which students tried to tie the project to the course curriculum: by tying service to the concepts of civic virtue and the common good, by tying service to other concepts/vocabulary that had been emphasized in the course, and by identifying service as an activity in which the student's understanding of responsibility was developed.

The most frequent method for tying service to the course curriculum involved linking service to the concepts of civic virtue and common good. There were 13 entries in which this connection was made. Although this was only a passing reference in some papers, the following quotes represent the ways in which

students articulated a link between completing service, exhibiting civic virtue, and promoting the common good.

> The whole concept [of service] revolves around the idea of civic virtue: a dedication of the citizens to the common good, even at the cost of their individual interest. My involvement in volunteer work was a necessity to not only the ones I was helping, but for myself. Although our interests, at times, may lie in personal activities, we must feel the need to perform some sort of civic virtue. (S07)

> When I was doing my service at the Food Pantry I was thinking of how [the organization] helps the whole community, not just the poor and the homeless people. They help people in the community have jobs and help clean up the community. (S13)

> People do [service] for the good of the community....A person with civic virtue is one who sets aside personal interests to promote the common good—also known as "public spiritedness"....(S14)

> When I was helping out the various organizations, I was performing civic virtue. The way I was performing this was by giving of myself to help others. This selfless act becomes the basis for what those words mean. Also, civic virtue not only covers the volunteer aspect of things but the improvement of people's lives by way of assistance. When the Founding Fathers were contemplating what should be put into effect for this country, they discussed civic virtue. They debated whether the civic virtue of the people could be relied upon in the years to come. Well, I proved "yes" to their concern. Because now, in the 21st century, kids like me are still demonstrating civic virtue in all the volunteering that they are undertaking. (S23)

Despite the self-absorbed nature of some of the passages in terms of students congratulating themselves, the quotes still represent the students' ability to link service with organizations with the curricular concepts of civic virtue and common good.

Although most of the students focused on service's relationship to civic virtue and the common good, four students articulated a link between service and

other concepts addressed in the Untied States Government curriculum. For example, one student, S27, tried to tie his service with an organization serving persons with disabilities to the rights of people with disabilities that had been part of the curriculum. Another student cited a service incident in which village youth had been "boycotting" the event because of a date change (S36). Although these references establish an attempt to think of a relationship between service and the curriculum, the explanations and analogies were not well developed.

The final way in which four students tried to link service to the curriculum was by identifying service as a means to developing a sense of responsibility. For example, S03 noted that service should not be considered a burden. Rather, "[service] is a way to get ready for the future, and all the responsibility that goes with it." Although not specifically stating the term "responsibility," S10 felt that service helps students learn the benefits of being an American. She notes, "Living in the United States, we have privileges that other countries do not offer. Helping out people for free is a good way to show that we shouldn't take advantage of what our government has to offer." Once again, although she doesn't use the term "responsibility," service helped her see there were responsibilities that citizens needed to exhibit. Another student focused on skill development. S07 felt that serving a youth sports team helped him learn "fundamental skills such as hard work, dedication, commitment, respect for one another, and responsibility." The link to the curriculum is tangential—skill development and a sense of responsibility—but it is through the act of service that these concepts were reinforced for the students.

<u>Government observation students</u>. Reflection papers from students who completed government observations yielded 14 references to the ways in which meeting attendance tied to curricular units. In order to demonstrate the link between the project and the curriculum, data from the student reflection papers revealed three different ways through which students made that curricular link: by making general comments about the way in which the project was related to class, by labeling the project as an opportunity for students to see how the structure of government works, and by trying to tie the project experiences to key terms that had been emphasized during the semester course work.

The first way through which three students tried to tie government observations to the curriculum was by making general comments about the link. M02 noted that attending meetings allowed him "to apply more knowledge from the class," while M04 felt "meetings helped her understand the importance of government and the responsibility one has to country."

Others focused on how the project allowed them to see firsthand how government works—something that had been a focus of the course content throughout the semester. Three students utilized this approach. In M05's reflection paper, he identified that

> [the project] was informational and related to class discussions on how things were run and the role that authority played....The meetings relate to government class because [government officials] are making important decisions that affect the town or city and the people that live in it. In government we learned about how the government was run.

M13 also felt that the project allowed him to see a real example of the ways in which the government operated. For him the focus was on decision making:

> In my government class I learned about the different process of decision making. We read about how each person can have an impact on their government by just one vote. Going to the government meetings, I realized that everything I have learned is going on at these meetings. Government [the course] taught me how government affects us all. Going to the meetings showed me how the system works and how every person can make a difference.

The most frequent way in which students demonstrated a tie between the course and the project was to use terminology that was addressed in curricular units and apply it to situations that occurred at meetings. Passages in seven students' papers were coded for using terms from the units and applying them to situations that occurred at the meetings. For example, M11 identified that attending meetings allowed her to observe people practicing civic virtue. M14 referred to the fact that attending meetings provided him with the opportunity to witness local democracy where freedom of speech was something that was valued. Another student related one of his experiences to Fourth Amendment issues. Although his reflection paper did not identify the Fourth Amendment, he discussed the privacy issue of installing cameras for safety and legal purposes at a public library: "Their answer was to place them because once you enter the library the common good outweighs the individual rights" (M49). The following examples show similar attempts by students to relate meeting experiences to vocabulary that had been emphasized during the semester:

> Through meetings, common good gets determined. Government meetings are solely dependent on the protection of the common good. (M24)

We started off by learning about the federal government...then we connected that to lessons on the state's system of government....By attending meetings, I got hands-on experience with how the government works outside the classroom. (M32)

Democracy, in my opinion, can work for you or against you—If you choose to use the power you have to influence your government by electing proper officials to do their job effectively...all this is related to our course curriculum because we are learning what democracy is and going to meetings and relating what we learned and seeing it in "living color" gives us a firsthand experience to use in class. I feel it was a worthwhile project. (M35)

At these meetings there was a standard protocol. By...looking over an agenda, one can notice it involves many issues. The opinions of the board members are asked for in order to come to a compromise. Compromises have long been part of our [tradition] going back to the Connecticut Compromise. (M38)

Common good, federalism, democracy, and the Connecticut Compromise are all concepts addressed within the text, and these students tried to link their meeting experiences to those terms.

One should note that there was one entry where a student claimed that there was no way in which she could identify a link between the class content and what she saw at meetings. However, she then went on to explain many details about what she learned in terms of meeting procedures (M09).

Adult Interviews

In terms of integrating the project into the instructional units, Service Coordinator Kelly indicated that the reflection paper was the primary tool for textual integration. She notes:

> [The paper] serves as a nice link. That reflective piece gets the kids to take the concepts we've looked at throughout the semester and the textbook, in the news, in our discussions, and the everyday happenings in class, and connects it to the things they are required to do....I see that [process] as the transfer of information.

For the teacher, the reflection paper is the activity that allows students to personalize and tie the service or meetings to both in-class activities and instructional units.

Kelly also provided an example through which meeting attendance led to a discussion of a term that was being addressed through one of the units. While covering the issue of eminent domain, the class began to discuss something that had happened at a meeting. After discussing the use of eminent domain to take over some land in a downtown area, Kelly identified some of the issues that had come up in the discussion:

> [We had to think about] how the town will get used and [whether or not to] knock down a hundred-year-old diner. The guy has been there forever. Everybody goes there, and now he is out of business because they are putting in a parking lot. So there's controversy and the kids kind of saw that up close, and we talked about eminent domain, and we read about it.

Although Kelly discussed the successful aspects of integrating the projects into the curriculum, she also addressed concerns she had. First, she identified a concern related to the reflection paper:

> The reflection paper might need to get more attention in class. I really sort of launch the students in their own direction on that. I give them a writing prompt of suggested topics to discuss in the paper. They're not required to discuss each and every one of those [issues], but it gives them an idea....

In other words, although students are required to go through the reflective process as part of the project, there is variation in how each student attacks that and to what extent and degree of detail the student addresses the prompt.

Kelly also identified the difficulty of integrating the service project into

instructional units:

> Service is tougher to tie—[The students] don't view [service] as political.
> The social isn't political, or the personal isn't political in their minds. Yet, it
> really is. I think the Little League and the Cub Scouts and all those things
> are political because they are creating citizens....It takes a village, you
> know....If we didn't do [service], who would? I think [understanding
> service's relationship to citizenship] is a much more complex concept to
> grasp. It's not as obvious as attending a meeting. And therein lies my
> challenge to try and make that clear to them.

For the teacher, tying attendance at meetings to the curriculum is easier than

helping students identify the relationship between service and the responsibilities of

citizenship.

Program Purpose

Another theme that evolved from the coding of interviews and reflection

papers related to the purpose of the program. This theme was identified by the

researcher as a critical component of understanding whether the stated goals of the

program matched what students perceived as their learning outcomes as well as the

written goals stated in program documents. Program purpose data came from the

following sources: two administrator interviews, one teacher interview, four local

board member interviews, 10 student interviews, and 26 student reflection papers.

Data from the 51 coded passages are presented by student perspective and adult

perspective.

Student Perspective

The student perspective of program purpose evolved from 10 student

interviews and 26 student reflection papers. Reflection paper data tended to mirror

information garnered through the interview process. Data are presented by type of

project completed.

Service students. Students who participated in the interview process were

directly asked to state the purpose of the service and government observation

project. The following represents the five service student interview responses:

> It gives you a look at the real world. About responsibilities and government
> altogether. It helps you realize what you need to know for the future.
> (Nicole)
>
> It is easy for people to get caught up in what they have to do. I think
> everybody in the world gets caught up in what they have to do, but I really
> do think the project tried to make people realize that you have to go out there
> and help other people. (Shannon)
>
> [The project seeks] to give you experience of how a good citizen would
> behave or act. (Maria)
>
> To learn about what goes on in the real world—To get out there and see
> what is really happening. (Maggie)
>
> Kind of like a help me help you [project]. Like, the teachers are helping us
> to be responsible and we are helping everyone around us when we go to the
> service [sites]. (Meredith)

Based on these responses, the researcher determined three characteristics

that the students identified in the purpose of the service program: to get hands-on

experience, to learn a perspective outside of self, and to develop personally. Three

students referred to hands-on experience through phrases like "real world," "go out there," and "see what is really happening." Shannon and Meredith used the experience of helping others to suggest a purpose that included learning about others' perspectives. Then, personal development was suggested through phrases like "how a good citizen would behave or act" and "helps you realize what you need to know for the future."

These characteristics were mirrored by responses of students in their reflection papers. Although there was not a specific prompt asking students to state the purpose, many described why they thought the project was important. Some students thought that the project was important because it allowed them to get hands-on experience. S27 noted that the project helped him "get ready for the real world," while S35 felt that the project gave her "the responsibility to go somewhere, meet new people, and learn about society around me." Others emphasized the fact that the program encouraged students to look outside their own perspective. S04 explained that the project made him

> realize that there are many different people and cultures with many problems. [The project helped me understand] that those groups are in need of our help. You see different aspects of life that you never realized before. You help others, but you help yourself in the process.

Student S26 mirrored the sentiment that outside perspectives were important when she stated that we should "not just do things for money." She went on to explain that people needed to be concerned for others as well. And finally, several reflection paper responses noted the personal development aspect of the program:

It helped me become a better citizen [skill development]. The project showed me that everything has a price—living in the United States we have many privileges that other countries do not offer. Helping people for free is a good way to show that we should take advantage of what our society has to offer. (S10)

The project helps students build self-esteem while helping people in the community. (S13)

Community service opens our minds up to new things and helps us grow while helping other people. (S24)

One should note that some of these reflection paper responses reflect more than one characteristic of the purpose.

Government observation students. Students who participated in the interview process were directly asked to state the purpose of the service and government observation project. The following represents the five government observation student interview responses:

To go out and dedicate time to something. (Katie)

To have students realize what government is and figure out what the student role is in it. (Anna)

Basically, the purpose is to get involved in the community and know what is going on in your neighborhood. (Dylan)

To get more people involved in the government and the community because most people aren't. Then there are people who complain. They don't realize they have the power to do something. (Mallory)

To try to get us to realize what's going on. To try to open our eyes to what government is like—what citizenship is really like. The project also expects us to go out and do something. (Liz)

Based on these responses, the researcher determined two characteristics that students identified in the purpose of the government observation program: to

experience how government works in the real-world and to know how to be a citizen. Anna and Mallory both referred to the experience of working with local government. At the same time, Katie referred to the real world experience of the project through a phrase like "to go out." Dylan and Mallory also alluded to the real-world experience by emphasizing involvement in the community. Finally, only Liz specifically mentioned citizenship in her response, but Dylan referred to the importance of having knowledge about what was going on in their neighborhood and getting involved, and Anna identified the importance of knowing what one's role was in the community—all aspects of citizenship behavior.

These characteristics were mirrored in the responses of students in their reflection papers. Although there was not a specific prompt asking students to state the purpose of the project, many described why they thought the project was important. Some students thought the project was important to experience how government works:

> These meetings are a valuable experience because for the first time in our lives, we see a real government meeting taking place, and it is good to know what is happening in the community. (M21)

> I believe this project is valuable for high school seniors because I have honestly never seen my government in action aside from my attendance at these meetings. I also think it's helpful to see your community working like that before you even have the opportunity to vote in the elections that choose these people [leaders]. (M42)

Others felt that the project purpose was related to engaging students in real-world experiences:

> I think it is valuable because it teaches students a lot about their government. [The students] get taught all these things they feel they will never need to

know and then they get to see [the topics] getting addressed in their town. They finally realize how important [the instruction] was. (M26)

[The project] gets kids out of the classroom and into the real world of how a government works. You get to find out what is going on around the place you live. (M33)

Finally, one student who was a recent immigrant explained the importance of the project in terms of what it taught him about the work of citizens. Although he did not use the term "citizenship," he described the importance in this way:

I cannot forget when on the one meeting, the scout group came. They came to honor our flag. They were invited by the mayor who was very proud. He wanted to show how important are the young people who gather for a common aim—to help each other disinterestedly—and to show to people that it is possible when they do it for country....The larger knowledge about government and an impact on decision making is the success in future democracy making. (M41)

One should note that some of these reflection paper responses reflect more than one characteristic of program purpose.

Adult Perspective

The adult perspective of the program purpose evolved from two administrative interviews, one teacher interview, and four local board member interviews. Generally, the purpose of the program suggested by the adults mirrored responses of the students. Civic skill development, understanding multiple perspectives, participating in a real-world project, and understanding the workings of local government all were stated as purposes of the program. Although Kelly's response that the purpose of the project was to enhance students' understanding of

civic virtue was not directly stated by students, civic virtue is an aspect of the development of citizenship skills that was alluded to by students.

For Burns, civic skills meant going out into the community and gaining knowledge "about how the system works." In his perspective, learning about the system would provide them an opportunity to learn not to be powerless. He felt that the purpose was "[that they learn that] as an active citizen they have a voice....Ideally you would like them to come away knowing that [they] are not powerless. They are not victims of the system."

For Hughes, the purpose of the project was to enhance civic skills related to understanding multiple perspectives. She stated:

> We had this view of students giving back to society and the idea of being good citizens....By getting them out of the school and into the community, they were exposed to a new world view....We also saw this project as just another means of fulfilling the civic mission of schools.

For Hughes, this project was a "hands-on" way of introducing students to the community with all of its diversity.

Although Kelly cited civic skills as the purpose, the skills she identified were related to curricular components—civic virtue. For Kelly, "the purpose of the project, both meetings and service, is to teach civic virtue. Citizenship is not something you are born with—Rather, it is something you learn. It is something that has to be taught."

Finally, each of the four local board members believed that the purpose was to gain civic skills. For them, civic skills meant understanding the operation of local government:

an inability of students to answer the question posed in the prompt. Data suggest

that more work could be done to help students make tighter connections between the

project and the formal curriculum. Data also suggest that the curriculum is in need

of activities that help guide students in making the connection between

service/government observations and civic virtue.

The data on program purpose also indicated that there was consistency in

terms of what the perceived purpose of the program was. Students, school

personnel, and local board members all identified that there was a sincere desire to

provide an opportunity for students to go out into the community and better

understand the role that they could play as citizens. They would become more

familiar with that role through exposure to multiple perspectives, an understanding

of the procedures that guide local government and organizations, and exposure to

people who were already exhibiting the skills of citizenship.

Research Question 3

*In what way do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect
their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship?*

Research Question 3 focuses on how students felt their service and meeting

attendance related to the responsibilities of citizenship. In coding interviews and

reflection papers, 89 passages were identified. These passages evolved from nine

student interviews and 46 reflection papers.

Two themes evolved from interviews and reflections papers. First, many students identified the project as enhancing their understanding of civic virtue—a topic which had been identified as a component of citizenship within the curriculum. Students also identified that completing the government observation project enhanced their understanding of a working democracy. The following summarizes the interview and reflection paper findings for Research Question 3. The data are separated by theme and source.

Enhancing Students' Understanding of Civic Virtue

In coding reflection papers and interview transcripts, students consistently identified that they were able to relate their service or meeting attendance to civic virtue. Civic virtue, according to the student text, is defined as "the dedication of citizens to the common good, even at the cost of their individual interests" (Center for Civic Education, 1996, p. 266). Civic virtue is related to the responsibilities of citizenship because the term helps identify the proper behavior of a citizen. The following summarizes how students described their understanding of civic virtue as a result of their service or government observation project. The responses are presented by source.

Student Reflection Papers

Student responses indicated that the most common way that service and government observations influenced their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship was through an enhanced understanding of civic virtue. Fourteen service students and 19 students who completed government observations related their experiences to the concept of civic virtue. Their responses are presented by type of project completed.

Service students. The ways in which students related performing service to civic virtue varied. Students who completed service tied civic virtue to the project in three ways: students who view service as an example of civic virtue, students who view service as civic virtue and a vehicle through which change can occur, and students who demonstrated a more comprehensive understanding of service and civic virtue as a responsibility of citizenship.

For four students, tying service to civic virtue meant that they were able to identify that they were performing civic virtue by completing service. Showing a very basic understanding, S02 defined civic virtue and then noted that "these good deeds [prairie restoration] really did nothing for me, but...I was able to do something for the community." In other words, his sacrifice is an example of civic virtue. Another student, S01, stated that "[t]hese [service] activities all showed civic virtue because I sacrificed my time and freedom for the common good." In some reflections, the response was even more basic. Two students, S02 and S43,

identified their personal sacrifice (a component of civic virtue) as one of not being

able to sleep in on a Saturday. Often, in these responses, the student did not define

civic virtue but instead used the term in context.

Other students viewed civic virtue as part of community action. In each of

these four responses, students defined civic virtue and then wrote about civic virtue

as being part of changing problems within the community. These students often

explained how service was important for teens to complete. The following

represent these students' responses:

> Civic virtue is the cultivation of habits of personal living that are claimed to
> be important for the success of the community....Civic virtue is important in
> a [community] because if people don't work together to help out their
> community, there would not be improvement and people who are less
> fortunate than others would never get the assistance they need. (S42)

> Civic virtue is the dedication of citizens to the common good....With
> someone like me, it is still very important to have civic virtue which is what
> I did when I chaperoned teen mixers and especially when I did [trail
> preservation]. I think that it is good for students to do community service
> because it can be so easy for high schoolers to get so self-centered that they
> can forget that it is not a horrible thing to help people. (S37)

> Having children go out to help and participate in their community builds
> civic virtue....Civic virtue is the dedication of citizens to the common good
> even at the cost of their individual interests. When civic virtue is
> present...community improvement can happen. (S23)

A final group of six students had a more expansive view of the relationship

that service has to civic virtue. In each of these responses, students defined civic

virtue and then related their participation in service as a key component of

citizenship:

> Civic virtue is the morality or a standard of righteous behavior in
> relationship to a citizen's involvement in society....It also helps people

understand their ties to the community [and] their responsibilities within it....Without an understanding of civic virtue, we are less likely to help others in the community or volunteer our time for others. (S39)

My definition [of civic virtue] is putting the needs of your community in front of your own needs. There are many people who do this every day. Everywhere, people are practicing civic virtue whether they are voting for mayor, volunteering at a charity, or even attending a PTA meeting. (S31)

This specific experience [building homes for the homeless] has shown me the importance of [showing] civic virtue. To me, civic virtue is the responsibility of every citizen to participate in their country simply for the benefit of bettering the community as a whole. Citizens cannot just take from their country. They must give back their time and talents....Our government class promotes this civic duty through encouraging the volunteer spirit and attendance at meetings. (S32)

When addressing the convention in Virginia to ratify the new Constitution, James Madison said, "Is there no virtue among us? If there is not, we are in a wretched situation. No theoretical checks—no form of government can render us secure...." Civic virtue requires putting the common good above personal interests, and without it a united nation would not exist. (S12)

All coded responses in which students related service to civic virtue fit into these three categories. However, many students did not respond to this question. Data do not indicate whether these students were unable to make that connection or if students merely chose to respond to different aspects of the writing prompt. Interview responses are summarized in a subsequent section.

Government observation students. The ways in which government observation students could relate attending meetings to civic virtue also varied. Students who completed government observations tied civic virtue to the project at three levels: students who view attendance at meetings as an example of civic virtue, students who could tie what they had seen at the meetings to their

understanding of civic virtue, and students who view attendance at meetings as a responsibility of citizenship. There was also a fourth group of students who did not identify the relationship between government observations and civic virtue.

Three students demonstrated a basic understanding of how government observations were related to civic virtue. For example, one student (M06) identified the definition of civic virtue and then related her attendance at a meeting as being an example of civic virtue. Another student (M49) states that his "experience at the government meetings relates to civic virtue because I'm benefiting my community by knowing about government and knowing how things work." A final example shows why the student felt that demonstrating civic virtue was important in terms of his own performance:

> Civic virtue is important because if people [show] civic virtue then they are not just thinking about themselves, but about their own country and the society as a whole....I showed civic virtue because I sacrificed my own time to go and listen. (M21)

Eight students articulated an emerging understanding of the relationship between meeting attendance and civic virtue. For some students, this meant being able to find examples of meeting attendance issues outside of their own personal experience. One student (M01) felt that elected representatives served in a way that showed civic virtue. He also used the example of a ban on smoking to show that by attending meetings he learned that citizens sometimes need to give up something that is in their own personal interests to serve the common good:

> One other important thing I learned in this class is something called civic virtue. [Civic virtue] means that citizens give up some of the rights granted

to them to keep the community safe. For example, people give up their right to smoke and stop smoking in public places so they don't hurt others. (M01)

Another way in which some students showed an emerging understanding of civic virtue was through their discussions of what they learned about the roles of elected officials. The following excerpts show ways in which students felt elected officials either were examples of civic virtue or the roles that students felt elected officials should play based on their understanding of civic virtue:

> When we elect a person to represent us in the government, we rely on them to pay attention to our needs and not on their own needs....In my opinion, I felt all of the directors of meetings dealt with the needs of the community. (M08)

> Civic virtue is important to a government meeting because the people who run the meeting give up time from their busy schedules to care about people....Also the people who come to the meetings show civic virtue by attending and bringing questions to the board because they care about what goes on. (M18)

> One display of civic virtue is participating in government meetings and observing [government] workings. By going to government meetings, one is giving up personal time to ensure the future of the community—to ensure that officials are representing the people and are thoroughly inspecting issues before deciding matters. (M44)

A final way in which students demonstrated an emerging understanding of government observation's relationship to civic virtue was through identifying the local meeting as a place in which issues were resolved. One student (M42) identified that "government meetings relate to civic virtue in that I was actively involved in the government process by viewing how government works. Meetings are also the place to go if citizens want to cause change." In basic terms, she identified the importance of the meeting place as an agent of change. Another

student identified that in addition to allowing her the opportunity to practice civic

virtue, meetings helped her "learn about the everyday concerns of residents" (M11).

Through her response, she noted that issues help guide what take place at meetings.

There was also a set of four responses that might be considered a more

sophisticated understanding of the relationship between meeting attendance and

civic virtue. Within this set of responses, students were able to tie meeting

attendance and civic virtue to the responsibilities of active citizenship:

> Attendance at a local meeting is crucial because it is part of our civic duty to
> participate in government and recognize what is happening in society today.
> It is also important to see choices people are making for things that affect the
> lives of everyone in the community. (M17)

> Through participation, one learns how the government works on a most
> basic level. This creates a person who is better informed and less arrogant in
> their role in society and perhaps inspires civic virtue in the observer to an
> extent that makes him want to participate on a board. (M44)

> For a democracy to work properly, people need to show civic virtue.
> Citizens that attend government meetings show civic virtue along with
> participating in discussions and even being members on the board. (M18)

Each of these passages illustrates a student understanding of citizenship that

involves enlightened participation by citizens and board members as well as a belief

that meeting attendance is a critical responsibility of a citizen.

A final category indicated that four students did not relate meeting

attendance to civic virtue or were unable to articulate a cogent response on the issue.

For example, one student defined civic virtue and then said that civic virtue "is

important to keep government going" (M31). The student did not elaborate or

articulate how attending meetings and civic virtue "keep the government going."

Another student stated:

> Civic virtue mirrors the common good, which is to do what is best for the
> community even at the expense of...individual rights. Civic virtue is
> important in democracy because sometimes it outweighs individual rights
> and the law plays a factor into what outweighs what. Democracy could not
> survive without civic virtue because otherwise the individual rights would be
> by itself and it would interfere with other people's individual rights and
> chaos would erupt. (M49)

Although the student appears to be explaining the delicate balance between

individual rights and common good, the answer is muddled because his answer

mixes the term "civic virtue" with the concept behind common good. Another

student tried to explain the relationship between individual rights and common good

by saying that if people only look at individual interests there will be "anarchy"

(M51).

Like the service responses, this subsection describes student responses that

try to link project participation to civic virtue. Students were able to make this

connection to varying degrees; however, many students chose not to respond to this

aspect of the prompt. The researcher cannot determine, based on the data, whether

non-responses indicate a lack of understanding or the fact that the student focused

on other aspects of the prompt.

<u>Student Interviews</u>

In coding student interview transcripts, three out of the five service students identified the role of citizenship as one in which the characteristics of civic virtue were important. Although none of the students specifically mentioned the term "civic virtue," each indicated that helping others and being responsible were critical roles that citizens played. None of the government observation interviewees indicated civic virtue or its characteristics as a critical role that citizens must play. The following describes the ways in which service interviewees responded.

One student, Meredith, indicated that the role of citizens was "to be responsible. To know what is right and wrong and to do what you have to do to help people." Although civic virtue is not specifically mentioned, she identified the fact that a citizen has responsibilities outside of himself that need to be acted upon.

Shannon also indicated that helping others was a critical role that citizens need to play. She used a personal experience from her service project—helping a young softball player gain enough skill to get her first hit in a game—as an example of how she helped someone, and it really put a smile on her face. She then went on to explain that

> if you only concentrate on what you have to do and only concentrate on what, you know, your problems are and what you have to do in your job and your classes, no one is going to go anywhere. If you stop and help someone do what they have to do or help someone in class....That is being a good citizen. You know, helping someone out.

Once again, although civic virtue is not directly mentioned, Shannon is describing the characteristics of a citizen as one in which civic virtue is displayed.

The third student, Nicole, also indicated that a citizen should exhibit civic virtue, but in a unique way. At first, when asked how she would describe the role of a citizen, she answered, "I think they should work." However, through follow-up questions she clarified that remark when she identified that "they should work, like help people." Once again, the student indicated that citizens should understand that they have a responsibility to help others—one of the characteristics of civic virtue.

A fourth student, Maggie, felt the role of a citizen was "to follow rules wherever you live and do the right things." This is not related to civic virtue; however, in follow-up questions, when she was asked if she saw herself as being a responsible citizen when she helped supervise a junior high dance, she indicated, "I never thought of that. Yeah." Maggie was not able to relate service to the role of citizenship on her own, but she concurred with a prompt in which the possible link was presented to her within the context of her own service experience.

Enhancing Students' Understanding of a Working Democracy

In coding reflection papers and interview transcripts, students identified that attending meetings influenced their understanding of how a democracy works. Because one of the responsibilities of citizenship is participation in government, these responses were coded because they elucidate what students felt they learned

about democracy. Student responses are presented by source. However, it is important to note that service students did not reflect on their perceptions of democracy other than in the discussions already articulated in the section on civic virtue. Data from student reflection papers came solely from students who had completed the government observation project.

Student Reflection Papers

In coding reflection papers completed by students who attended meetings, 31 students discussed their understanding of democracy as related to their project. The ways in which students were able to relate their experiences to democracy varied. Students who completed meetings tied their experiences to an understanding of democracy in five ways: students who recognized attending meetings allowed them to view democracy, students who used examples from their meeting attendance in explaining democracy, students who viewed participation in a democracy as a critical responsibility of a citizen, students who did not feel democracy was represented at the meetings, and students who did not effectively relate meeting attendance to democracy.

Ten students identified that attending meetings allowed them to view democracy (e.g., "Going to government meetings helps show how local government works" [M22]). Others defined their understanding of democracy as a result of meeting attendance. For example, M07 noted, "Democracy is the free and equal

right of every person to participate in a system of government." M33, however, felt

that "democracy means that government is run by the people. At these meetings,

you're allowed to speak your mind as an individual." In each of these passages,

students articulated a basic understanding of democracy as a result of attending

meetings.

Another group of 12 students reflected on how certain things they saw at

meetings reflected democracy:

> While attending these meetings, I noticed that democracy is also used on the local level. People ruled by having representatives for them speak to local government. These representatives looked out for the common good of the entire town and also tried to help individuals who were having problems. Another way democracy is used in local government is that people have the chance to stand up and be a direct part of government. (M19)

> [The meetings] were very democratic—always taking roll call and seconding every motion and asking if there were any questions or comments. (M08)

> Democracy allows people to have a say in issues and meetings provide a great opportunity for that. I noticed that democracy at the local level is not very conservative. People do not hold back on their opinions and neither do some politicians. (M07)

> What I observed about democracy at the local level is that it works. I see that almost anything that you want within reason can happen as long as you bother to show up and voice your opinion....Democracy at the local level really gives us power over our immediate government. (M32)

Although there was a certain level of naiveté in the responses, the reflections

indicated that students felt that a meeting could be an avenue through which citizens

could participate. They also indicated that they felt they observed characteristics of

democracy.

There were also four students who described the connection between the responsibilities that citizens have in making democracy work. In each of these responses, students identified that officials and citizens alike needed to be responsible for the preservation of democracy.

> Democracy is a government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised by them directly or indirectly through representatives. At the local level, people can come forth directly with any concerns when asked if any citizens have anything to say. The elected officials need to listen to what [the people] say....If they choose not to listen they risk being voted out of office. Attendance at a local meeting is crucial because it is part of our civic duty to participate and recognize what is happening. (M17)

> Civic virtue is the most important input into a democracy. When people come together and devote their time and give their honest opinions on how things should work, our democracy grows stronger....If people did not devote their time to come to these meetings...things might be a lot different. (M50)

> In all the meetings I attended, I observed democracy. I observed that the board members had the power to say yes or no to any proposal put forth to them. I observed that the audience was able to speak their minds if they so chose. I also observed that when an audience member chose to speak that the board would give them their full attention....(M45)

> A person with civic virtue would regularly participate in the community through volunteer programs and participating in meetings. It is people with civic virtue that perpetuate democracy by volunteering for organization boards or holding a government position such as mayor. Democracy is reliant on civic virtue.

This group of students focused on relating responsible citizenship to the preservation of democratic principles.

A fourth group of students had a very different interpretation of democracy as observed at the local meetings. This group of three students identified that they were very concerned with the lack of democracy at the local level. M24 noted:

In general, it seems like there is very little democracy. The audience just listened and had no say in what was going on. In fact, most of the audience was only parents of the students being recognized [by the board for some achievement] or [G]overnment students there [as a requirement].

M24's concern was based on a general lack of attendance at meetings. Another student, however, identified the brevity of meetings as the reason she was concerned:

> Democracy is defined as all the people being given the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process. In general, I feel the meetings did not show democracy at the local level. Four of the five meetings were extremely short and did not even exceed 20 minutes. I did not feel that each matter was discussed to the fullest. The only meeting in which I observed democracy was at [City X]. This is because there were numerous people who all spoke their opinions and tried to make themselves part of the discussion. There was even some arguing back and forth. (M11)

The third student observed that "democracy [was] used loosely" through an example of a board experience where the board members did little to respond to the community requests.

Finally, two students attempted to relate their experiences and civic virtue to democracy but did not articulate that connection clearly. M02 wrote, "Civic virtue is important to our country's democracy because it gives our country the strength to continue to live as a free nation." The discussion is disconnected to the rest of the essay. Similarly, M38 was unable to discuss civic virtue's relationship to democracy. After stating that civic virtue is one of the responsibilities that is expected of citizens, he stated that civic virtue is important in a democracy because "democracy is all about participation and with the common good, rights are protected." Although it appears that the student is trying to identify that citizens

must exhibit civic virtue in order to keep democratic entities from infringing on

rights, his statements are not clear.

<u>Student Interviews</u>

In coding student interview transcripts, all five government observation

students identified the role of citizenship as one in which characteristics of

democracy were emphasized. Although none of them specifically mentioned the

term "democracy" is their explanations, their responses fell into two categories. In

response to the interview prompt, three students emphasized that a citizen has a

responsibility to participate, while two students focused on a citizen's responsibility

to be informed. Both of these categories are related to a student's understanding of

democracy. Participation is important because effective democracy relies on the

participation of citizens, whereas enlightened citizenship—informed citizenship—is

a key factor to motivating citizens to participate.

Three students identified the importance of participation in describing the

responsibilities of citizenship. Anna described this responsibility of participation

simply: "[The role of a citizen] is to participate at some point in your life and share

your views so that the board members can have, like, opinions and can [be exposed]

to more views than their own." For Anna, democracy is enhanced when people

participate because participation leads to diverse views being considered. Katie

reinforced that perspective on participation. For Katie, attendance at meetings is a

critical role of citizens because participation encourages one to practice free speech that would allow board members to know how the individual feels. Katie also emphasized voting as a critical way of participating. In her response to the interview prompt on the roles of citizens, she noted, "I think you should always vote. I think that is really important because I could tell there were a lot of people in the crowds who weren't liking [their representatives]." For Anna and Katie, participating was acting to ensure that multiple perspectives were part of the democratic process.

Dylan also emphasized the importance of participation as a responsibility of citizenship, but he did so through the use of negative examples observed at meetings. First, he identified his concern that few people participated: "The meetings were not filled with people. That kind of shows how little people really care for what is going on in their neighborhood...unless it directly affects them." Dylan then went on to show frustration that people are quick to complain but fail to use local boards as a means of change. He said:

> I mean, everybody kind of complains like here and there about, "Oh, this is stupid," but nobody gets involved and tries to change anything....It's kind of lame that you have to actually be in the middle of conflict to actually care about it. (Dylan)

Dylan used his concern with things that he observed at meetings—lack of participation by residents—as a means of identifying what he thought was a critical role of citizens. For Dylan, the role of a citizen is one in which the person finds it important to participate in the discussion whether or not he or she has a personal stake in the issue.

Although three individuals identified participation in the democratic process as being an essential role of citizens, two others focused on the importance of enlightened citizenship, that is, being informed. Enlightened citizenship is referred to here as separate from participation because it is just one aspect of taking part in the process. For example, Liz felt that attendance at meetings was important, but "knowing what was going on in the area" was considered equally important. Mallory expanded on that distinction. For her, participation was something that citizens did by choice, but being informed was an essential responsibility of a citizen:

> More or less, you should, if you choose not to be active in meetings, or whatever, if you do not have time, or if you do not have time to help out in the community, you should at least try to keep up with what's going on and not be completely naïve as to what is going on around you.

Mallory went on to explain that the least someone could do was read a paper in order to find out who is running for elections. She also used the example of No Child Left Behind legislation as something about which citizens should be aware: "Or like, with the school. I am sure that a lot of people have no idea [what is going on]. 'AYP, what is that?' Well, shouldn't you be aware of something like that?" Mallory used specific examples as a means of emphasizing the importance of being informed as a citizen.

Summary of Data from Research Question 3

The purpose of Research Question 3 was to identify what students perceived they learned about the responsibilities of citizenship through their service and government observation projects. Service students demonstrated to various degrees their ability to tie civic virtue to the service they completed. Government observation students, however, identified an understanding of civic virtue as well as a better understanding of democracy among the concepts that they learned that were related to the responsibilities of citizenship. Interview data complemented the reflection paper data by indicating the same two themes. However, interview students were less likely to use the actual terms in the interview process. They described the same themes through the terms' characteristics.

Research Question 4

In what ways are service learning experiences and government observations comparable?

Greenfield High School requires each student enrolled in United States Government to complete either 12 hours of service or attend five government meetings in order to practice the skills of citizenship. In terms of assessing student performance in the grade book, these two projects are considered comparable. A student is graded on a 100-point scale for completing service and on a 100-point

scale for completing government observations. However, despite the fact that each project is perceived as engaging students in activities that prepare them for the lives of adult citizens, the researcher wanted to compare and contrast project outcomes based on student responses.

In order to compare the two projects, the researcher coded passages from student interviews and reflection papers that indicated what the students learned from completing the project. Coded passages were then organized into themes. As a result of this theme development, the researcher determined that there were several areas in which both service and government observation students identified common outcomes. Common areas included a sense of accomplishment, unanticipated outcomes that created positive experiences, a variety of social capital indicators, and the potential for negative learning experiences.

There were also various outcomes that were unique to each project. Service students identified knowledge of service organizations and how their work was meaningful, knowledge of service organization beneficiaries, personal development, teamwork, and career-related knowledge as the outcomes of performing service. Government observation students, however, identified knowledge about the nature of public participation, knowledge of local board issues, and local board governing procedures as the student outcomes.

One should note that these outcomes were both student identified (meaning students clearly stated the outcome as something they learned) and researcher identified (meaning the researcher noted that outcome as a result of comparing

student responses throughout the interviews and reflection papers). This section presents common student outcome data and project-unique student outcome data presented by theme. Within each section, there is a brief discussion of the themes and then a chart depicts the incidence of each theme with examples from student work.

Common Student Outcomes

Student data indicated that there were several ways in which students shared a common learning experience. Table 19 shows the incidence of those common outcomes by type of project completed. First, both sets of students indicated that they felt a great sense of accomplishment at the conclusion of their projects. For service students, the sense of accomplishment was often a product of feeling good about helping others—whether it was a personal feeling of fulfillment or the joy in watching the people who benefited from the service. For government observation students, this feeling was often a function of having participated in the local government process, even if only as an observer. Dylan noted that one board recognized his participation, and that made him feel good about having attended the meetings.

Table 19

Student Outcomes Common to Service and Government Observation Students

Student Outcome	Project Type	Incidence (Number of Passages Coded)
Sense of Accomplishment	Service	10
	Meetings	3
Unanticipated Positive Outcomes	Service	15
	Meetings	23
Social Capital Indicators	Service	43
	Meetings	50
Potential Negative Impact	Service	3
	Meetings	20

Service students and government observation students both commented that the project in many ways had unanticipated outcomes. For service students, this response was articulated through statements that explained how the student had anticipated "forced labor" (S10) but had been pleasantly surprised to find that they enjoyed volunteering. Service students also cited that they had not anticipated how serving might change their views about certain causes. S14, in particular, found that her work with the homeless had seriously changed her preconceptions of those who were homeless. Government observation students tended to feel that the project had not been as difficult as they had originally believed. However, the unanticipated outcome was sometimes surprise about how an issue had been handled at the meeting.

The third common theme among participants related to social capital indicators. Service students identified the following outcomes that were related to

the concept of social capital: the role that personalities played in effectively running or being part of a service event, the importance and value of developing relationships through a service organization, the use of personal social capital to make connections for a service site, understanding the reciprocal nature of providing service, interactions between students and local community members, interactions with students outside of the participant's peer group, and the social benefits associated with the service site. Government observation students also indicated social capital indicators. The following social capital indicators were described by government observation students: an understanding of the role of personalities in effectively running local government meetings, trust and respect for local government officials, interactions between students and local community members, and the social benefits of attending meetings. Although different aspects of social capital were described for each group, the characteristics of social capital were common to both service and government observation students.

Although the previous three common themes tended to suggest positive outcomes of completing the project, a final theme indicated a potential negative impact of completing service or attending local government meetings. Although only 22 passages were cited by the researcher for having illustrated a negative impact, these passages, combined with the safety issues addressed in data from Research Question 1, suggest that care needs to be taken to minimize these student experiences. Service students cited three types of negative impact experiences: lack of organization on the part of the service site, lack of interest or sense of need in the

type of work completed, and a negative experience while performing service. Government observation students cited the following types of negative experiences: frustration from observing poor conduct among people at the meetings, disappointment from learning about corruption among board members, student perception that the board did not encourage democratic participation, student feelings of being an outsider at some of the meetings, difficulty for some new immigrants to understand topics at meetings, and student inability to articulate what he or she had learned through the experience. Rates for service students are low because they do not include concerns about safety issues that were addressed in Research Question 1. Having discussed themes common to service and government observation reflections, the next two sections discuss outcomes unique to each project.

Outcomes Unique to the Service Project

Students who completed service projects identified a separate set of outcomes that were unique to completing volunteer work. The following represents unique learning outcomes to completing service as described through student reflection papers and student interviews: recognizing that the work is meaningful and the characteristics that make it meaningful, knowledge of the ways in which individuals and groups benefit from student service and the work of service organizations, recognizing the personal development as a result of completing

service, recognizing the benefits of teamwork through service, and career-related

knowledge as a result of working with certain organizations. Table 20 describes the

incidence rate for each service-unique outcome by number of passages coded. A

brief description of the outcome categories follows.

Table 20

Student Outcomes Unique to the Service Experience

Student Outcome	Incidence of Passages
Organizational Structure	14
Identify Beneficiaries and How Helped	29
What Makes Service Event Meaningful	
Cause	29
Dedicated Staff	8
Felt Wanted and Appreciated	8
Helpful, Yet Fun	6
Personal Development	34
Teamwork	9
Career-Related Knowledge	5

Students who completed service identified that they learned about service

organizations and why their work is valuable. As students described the

organizations with which they worked, the students often discussed why the work

that they did became personally meaningful for them. For some, they were

impressed with the dedicated volunteer staff while for others it was the cause that

the organization served that moved the student. Still others cited that the work was

meaningful because the organization made them feel wanted and appreciated.

As students learned about the organizations, they also had to grapple with identifying the beneficiaries of those organizations. Not only did students have to identify who benefited from the organization, but they also learned how those individuals and groups benefited from the work and organization.

Although the first two outcomes are related to knowledge of the organization and service, the next three categories deal with student-centered outcomes. First, students cited personal development as an outcome of completing service. Students who cited personal development discussed the confidence and skills that they learned or practiced in completing service.

Students also cited teamwork as an outcome of their work. Although this was not an outcome for all projects, nine students in particular mentioned that their project required them to practice working with others toward a common goal. One should note that this outcome would only apply to projects in which one worked with others, but projects such as the food warehouse, teen mixers, and environmental projects were all mentioned in describing the teamwork outcome. These were all projects in which Greenfield students consistently participated.

A final outcome listed by students was personal knowledge that was related to career interests. Five students in particular noted that their experiences helped them define what fields they would like to explore. One student, S16, specifically chose to work with special education students because that work allowed her to explore a career interest. Others did not specifically choose a site for the career it helped him or her explore but found that there were specific work environments in

Students who completed government observations identified that they learned about the nature of public participation. Although 13 of the students expressed sincere concern over the lack of participation at meetings, other students expressed their pride in attending meetings, felt that participants had a voice, and felt that seeing participation at the meetings positively influenced their view that meeting attendance was an important function of citizenship.

Another outcome that was unique to government observation students was learning firsthand about the issues that were dealt with by local governing bodies. For some students, this knowledge was presented through vivid description of issues that were addressed at specific meetings. Others identified that watching issues evolve at meetings taught them that participants and board members do not always get their way, that there are multiple perspectives to each issue, and that becoming informed about issues was an important aspect of citizenship. One should note that a few students also noted that some boards did not seem to have any issues because things were handled so quickly.

Although students did not always recognize this as something they learned, the researcher noted that many students were able to describe the procedures of local governing boards. When describing and comparing meeting attendance, students demonstrated the ability to state where they had gone and how they conducted themselves, how boards had different styles of managing meetings, how different boards had different ways of managing deliberation, that different board

members played various roles, and the importance of conflict resolution in conducting meetings. In discussing their knowledge of procedures, students also showed their knowledge through using vocabulary related to the governing of local board—closed session, roll call votes, limits on speech during deliberation, etc. Because the class text does not address these specific terms, they could only have been learned through prior knowledge or through completing this project.

Summary of Data from Research Question 4

The purpose of Research Question 4 was to compare and contrast the student outcomes of completing 12 hours of community service and five local government observations. Because the curriculum implies that they are considered equal projects for purposes of student assessment, the researcher wanted to identify the ways in which the projects were both similar and different. Student-identified and research-identified outcomes indicated that the two projects had a set of similar outcomes, but there were also outcomes that were unique to each project. Common outcomes included a sense of accomplishment, unanticipated positive outcomes, social capital indicators, and potential negative impact. This set of core outcomes suggests that although not equal projects, the projects are equitable in terms of the social capital indicators that they promote, which might encourage the behaviors of active citizenship upon graduation.

The data also revealed unique outcomes of service and government observations. Service students noted knowledge of organizational structure and program beneficiaries, an understanding of what makes service meaningful, personal development, teamwork, and career-related knowledge. Government observation students identified knowledge about the nature of public participation, knowledge of issues faced by local boards, and knowledge of procedures. Although these outcomes were a function of the project completed, all of them conform to potential outcomes of experiential learning that is geared toward civic education and citizenship education.

Conclusions on the Interviews and Reflection Papers Data

Chapter V presented a variety of data that evolved from the coding of student reflection papers, student interviews, and adult interviews. One of the goals of coding data was to elicit student and adult perceptions of the structure of the program as well as the ways in which the citizenship education program was integrated into the curriculum. Another goal of coding data was to elicit the ways in which students felt that the program influenced their views of citizenship. Finally, data were coded in an effort to compare student-perceived outcomes of participation in Greenfield High School's service and government observation citizenship education program.

As a result of that coding, the structure of the program as revealed through documents was consistent with that described by participants. The data also revealed that although many students were able to tie the projects to the course curriculum, more structured activities are needed to help guide students in making that curricular connection. Finally, although the projects are not equal, study data revealed that the projects were equitable, particularly in their promotion of social capital indicators.

Having presented document review findings in Chapter IV and interview and reflection paper data in Chapter V, Chapter VI discusses the ways in which the findings relate to other literature in the field and makes suggestions for future study.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine one suburban high school's implementation of a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that used service learning and government observations to promote the skills of active citizenship. This study used qualitative methods as a means of gathering information from a variety of sources associated with the Greenfield High School program—students, teacher, administrators, local community board members, and program documents—in an effort to answer the four research questions.

This chapter is comprised of four sections. The first section summarizes the significance of key findings and their relationship to other literature. Themes are presented by research question. The second section returns to the theoretical framework that guided this study and discusses how findings relate to that framework. A third section makes recommendations to various practitioners of civic education. And finally, a fourth section suggests directions for future research.

Study Findings: Significance and Tie to the Literature

The following sections synthesize the findings from both the document review as well as the themes developed out of the interviews and reflection papers. The significance of the themes and their relationship to the literature review are presented by research question.

<u>Themes from Research Question 1</u>

How has one suburban secondary school structured a mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum?

Verification forms from the student participants indicate that 273 Greenfield High School students completed over 700 government observations and over 1,600 hours of service during the fall and spring semesters of the 2005-2006 school year. In interviewing both adults and students associated with the program, four themes emerged related to the structure of the program within Greenfield High School: the history of the program, student motives in selecting project choice, the procedures related to completing the project, and community relations impact of the program. Document review indicated the ways in which the program procedures *de facto* reflected the program as conceived through policy statements. However, each theme also had subthemes. Table 22 lists the themes and subthemes related to Research Question 1 in an effort to summarize the key findings.

Table 22

Summary of Themes and Subthemes from Research Question 1

History of the Program • History of the Original Program • Factors Contributing to a Change in the Program • The Process Adopted to Undertake Program Change • The Mandatory Nature of the Program • Culture of the Current Program

Student Motives in Selecting Project Choice
• Service Project Students
   • Interest in Specific Cause
   • Desire to Work with People
   • Convenience of School-Coordinated Events
   • Desire to Work with Organization with Which Student Already Has a Relationship
   • Opportunity to Enhance Person Skills
   • Hands-on Nature of Service
   • Missed Deadline for Government Observations
• Government Observation Students
   • Opportunity to Complete a Project Student Felt Tied Closely to Course Curriculum and Student Interests
   • Convenience of Meetings in Terms of Schedules/Location
   • Previous Experience with Service

Procedures • Student Roles in Completing Project • Teacher Role in Facilitating Project
Community Relations Aspects of Project • Benefits of Interaction Between School and Community • Problems and Potential Concerns Related to the Project

History of the Program

In terms of the history of the program, this study helped develop new knowledge that might be significant for both social studies practitioners as well as service learning researchers. First, the data related to the change process allows practitioners to see how one school tried to align philosophy with policy. The data also highlight the importance of how a school that is implementing new policy can benefit from the experience of another school that has a mandatory project. For example, the Greenfield experience emphasized how board support, financial commitment in teacher release time, and networking with other schools aided transition of the mandatory policy.

The history of the program theme also sheds light on concerns that some researchers have had with mandatory programs. Although Jacobs (2000) expressed concern about the oxymoron of forced service, data from this case study did not reveal community or student concerns about the mandatory nature of the project. Rather, students and adults alike seemed proud of the project as it exists. Students even suggested that the mandatory nature made a difference because they might not have completed the project otherwise. This lack of resistance might be a result of the culture of the program that has developed since its inception, or it might be the result of the use of an alternative civic project—government observations. Regardless, student completion rates were revealed to be high. Teacher evidence revealed that it was truly the exception to the rule for students not to complete the

project or fail the class due to failure to complete the project. Study data also corroborate work by Metz and Youniss (2005) and Reinders and Youniss (2006) that suggest that the mandatory nature of the project (their research was on service only) does not negate the potential for civic development.

Student Motives in Selecting Project Type

The theme of student motives in selecting project type also helped develop new knowledge in terms of the impact of implementing a service program that has an alternative project—government observations. A review of the literature did not reveal information about what factors influence student choice when given options. This information is relevant for service practitioners, as student choice affects the workload of service/government observation coordinators. In this case study, 53% of the students overall chose government observations. Therefore, the workload was manageable for teachers in coordinating and verifying service. If these numbers were to change significantly in favor of completing service, more release time or additional support staff would be necessary to maintain high accountability of student work. This information has great significance for Greenfield High School as they plan for the continuation of this project as well as to others schools that might want to incorporate mandatory service or meetings as part of the curriculum. Researchers might also want to investigate other programs that use

options and determine which factors universally influence students in selecting projects.

Program Procedures

      The program procedures theme also provided new knowledge related to the practical way in which Greenfield structured its program. The dominant themes of the teacher role involved "motivator" and "monitor." These themes reflect the significant factor that accountability plays in the roles that teachers play: the teachers develop the calendars, send reminders to students, make appropriate phone calls throughout the semester to make sure that students are making adequate progress, and assess student reflection papers. All of these jobs emphasize the importance that teacher release time plays in the success of the program. Because recent years have seen a diminished amount of release time for the coordinators—in the 2005-2006 school year two teachers received a 29-minute release of homeroom time for project coordination as compared to previous years in which two teachers had each been released for an instructional period—future concerns are whether the teachers can provide the same amount of accountability to ensure program success rates. This concern illustrates Melchior's (2000) warning about the cost of committing to high-quality service programming. Although there were only 300 seniors during the 2005-2006 school year, the school maintains an enrollment of 1,800 students. Other schools that want to incorporate mandatory projects need to

consider what type of workload the projects present to both students and teachers and how conducting the program has an associated cost.

Despite the data that indicate that the structure of the Greenfield program leads to student success in completing the project, the data related to structures and procedures indicate that there is inconsistent evidence to show that students play an active role in planning and organizing the service efforts—factors that have proven to be indicators of a high-quality service program in terms of enhancing civic attitudes (Morgan, 2002; Morgan & Streb, 2001). Morgan and Streb (2001) found that student voice played a significant role in strengthening the civic skills that students took from the service experience. In their study, when students played a significant role in planning and organizing the service event, evidence of civic indicators in students rose significantly after participating in service learning. More research would be needed to determine if Greenfield students measured significant growth on these indicators despite the fact that some students plan and organize their own projects while others do not. Verification forms indicated that 64.5% of service performed by students was completed using school-coordinated events. Students had varying levels of responsibility at those sites. Still, the focus on accountability reflects the values of the program and school in wanting a program that is mandatory while still working to ensure the individual success of students in completing an experiential learning project that allows students to practice the responsibilities of citizenship.

<u>Community Relations Aspects of the Project</u>

The data from this study mirror research by Billig (2000b) and Berman (2000) in terms of how service provides opportunities for community members to value youth. The experiences from this study also shed new light on the potential of government observations to have the same outcome. However, the suburban location of Greenfield High School made attendance at meetings easier. More than 700 meetings were attended at 22 local boards. Each of those boards was within 7-10 miles of the school. That allowed the distribution of students to flow smoothly without disturbing the local boards.

Despite the potential benefits of implementing service and government observations, this study also highlights new concerns that can arise anytime a school sends its students into the community, particularly for events that are not always supervised by school or certified personnel. Because the incidence of incidents was so low—most of the concerns being the "potential" for problems expressed by the researcher—the school's decision to invest in release time for teachers seems to have paid dividends and is instructive to both those that have programs in place and those who might wish to start a service or government observation program. Other schools that have a service project in which students attend service sites without school supervision might need to do an inventory of potential liability issues.

Themes from Research Question 2

What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of how the program is integrated into the United States Government curriculum?

Research Question 2 focused on the way that the program was integrated into the curriculum. Teacher interviews, student interviews and reflection papers, and document review were utilized to investigate this question. Data revealed three themes related to this research question: ways in which the program was incorporated into class activities, ways in which the program was tied to curricular units and the text, and program purpose.

Program Integration into Class Activities

The study revealed that students, teachers, and documents all told consistent stories about the ways in which the service and government observation program was integrated into the curriculum. In addition to orienting students as part of a class activity, student completions of meetings and sometimes service typically led to discussions about what was going on at local board meetings and service sites.

Despite the consistency of student and teacher reports of discussions in class and a generally positive feeling among students about the ways in which the program is integrated, Dylan indicated that those discussions were not always in depth. The Civic Mission of Schools Report (CIRCLE, 2003) indicates that

involving students in quality discussions about current events and policy is a promising practice of civic education. Although Greenfield High School seems to have established a practice of discussing issues as a result of participating in meetings or service, program documents do not reveal a structured way through which those activities might occur. However, this study might provide the foundation through which a more formal way of integrating discussion on the nature and structure of service organizations and local governing bodies might take place that would be consistent with the Civic Mission of School Report.

Although student and teacher responses suggested the positive benefits of issues discussions as a result of attending meetings and completing service, more might need to be done to provide for a consistent means of incorporating those discussions in class activities.

Tying Service and Government Observations to Instructional Units and Text

Study data reveal new knowledge about the way in which students tied the project to content from instructional units and the text. In fact, the study suggests that the student's ability to tie the project to content was dependent on the type of project the student chose to complete—though students perceived both projects as being related to the concept of civic virtue. Additionally, the formal way in which this correlation was demonstrated was through the reflection paper. The following summarizes the ways in which students tied the project to curricular units:

Service Students:
- Tied service to the concepts of civic virtue and common good.
- Tied service to other concepts emphasized in the class—rights of the disabled and boycotting.
- Identified service as an activity in which the student's sense of responsibility is developed.

Government Observation Students:
- Made general comments about link to class content.
- Described it as an opportunity to see how the structure of the government works.
- Tied the project to key terms that were emphasized throughout the semester—civic virtue, democracy, free speech, privacy issues, common good, federalism, and Connecticut Compromise.

The data from service students indicate that when the program is couched in terms of civic responsibility, as Barber (1992) proposes, they are better able to articulate an understanding of service as a responsibility of citizenship. The data from the government observation students provide a foundation for the field of civic education for future study of the impact of using government observations in the civic curriculum.

One caveat should be expressed related to data that demonstrated how students were able to tie their projects to the curriculum. Carol Kelly, the service coordinator, indicated that even she felt that more work could be done to facilitate quality reflection papers:

The reflection paper might need to get more attention in class. I really sort of launch the students in their own direction on that. I give them a writing prompt of suggested topics to discuss in the paper. They're not required to discuss each and every one of those [issues], but it gives them an idea....

Table 18 identified two types of writing prompts for each project. Summary questions basically encouraged the student to write about what they did and

accomplished. The reflection questions required more analysis of the work by students. Perhaps the United States Government teachers at Greenfield High School could find a way to promote more engagement of students with the reflection prompts that require more critical thinking. Although the activities fall under what Bringle and Hatcher (1999) consider quality reflection activities, more emphasis on the critical reflection questions might result in more students making more comprehensive statements about the tie between the written curriculum and the service/government observation project. Because students are allowed to choose which prompts to answer, the researcher cannot tell if some students were unable to tie the project to the curriculum or whether they just chose not to engage in what might be perceived as harder questions. Other schools that incorporate service learning might need to evaluate the ways in which they structure reflection.

Program Purpose

Gauging the program purpose was an important function of determining whether the various stakeholders held consistent views of what the project goals were. The following represents the program purpose findings as articulated by service students, government observation students, and adults related to the program:

- Service Students—to get hands-on experience, learn perspectives outside of oneself, and to develop personally.
- Government Observation Students—experience how government works, get real-world experience, and practice the work of citizens.

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- Adults—Civic skills development, understanding multiple perspectives, participation in real-world projects, understand the workings of local government.

Although there are some subtle differences between the purpose as stated by various stakeholders, service students, government observation students, and adults associated with the program all agree that this program was implemented to serve a civic purpose. Whether it is to observe the local structure of government, to gain hands-on experience with a local service organization, or practicing responsibility, Greenfield High School students are practicing various roles that adult citizens should play in a vibrant democracy. This ties closely with what Westheimer and Kahne (2004) consider service programs that promote "the participatory citizen." The participatory citizen is promoted through programs that "focus on teaching students about how government and other institutions (e.g., community-based organizations, churches) work and about the importance of planning and participating in organized efforts to care for those in need" (p. 244). The significance of these data for other programs is that schools that engage in these types of programs need to ensure that their goals are aligned across stakeholders as well as from written policy to program practice.

Themes from Research Question 3

In what way do students' perceptions of their experiences reflect their understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship?

Research Question 3 focused on how students were able to specifically tie their work to the responsibilities of citizenship. Although this question is related to how participants were able to tie the project to the curriculum (Research Question 2), this question allowed the researcher to look more closely at the ways in which students saw this project as enhancing their understanding of the roles that citizens play in a democracy. As a result of coding student reflection papers and student interviews, two themes emerged that were related to students' perceptions of the responsibilities of citizenship: enhanced understanding of civic virtue and enhanced understanding of democracy.

Enhancing Students' Understanding of Civic Virtue

Civic virtue is related to the responsibilities of citizenship because the term helps identify the proper behavior of citizens. The study data provide new knowledge about how service students and government observation students related their projects to civic virtue.

Service Learning Students:
- Students who view service as an example of civic virtue.
- Students who view service as civic virtue and a vehicle through which change can occur.
- Students who demonstrate a more comprehensive understanding of service and civic virtue as a responsibility of citizenship.

Government Observation Students:
- Students who view attendance at meetings as an example of civic virtue.
- Students who could tie what they had seen to their understanding of civic virtue.
- Students who view attending meetings as a responsibility of citizenship.
- Students who incorrectly identify government observation's relationship to civic virtue by not using terms accurately in context.

The extent to which students could make a connection between the project and civic virtue varied; however, most who chose to respond to that reflection prompt were able to see the project being aligned with the goal of promoting civic virtue. This suggests promising aspects of using service and government observations in civic education courses. However, these findings also suggest that programs need to focus on structuring their reflective activities in a way that moves students to deepen their understanding of service and government observations as a responsibility of citizenship. Although most students were able to make the connection, some students were only able to use terms in context. Others were able to demonstrate higher order thinking about the same topic based on the same experiences. More data are needed to determine which factors contributed to some students' ability to make more elaborate connections.

The data also suggested an unanticipated concern about why service students had a more difficult time tying service to the responsibilities of citizenship. Kelly stated:

> Service is tougher to tie—[The students] don't view [service] as political. The social isn't political, or the personal isn't political in their minds. Yet, it really is. I think the Little League and the Cub Scouts and all those things are political because they are creating citizens. It takes a village, you know...If we didn't do [service], who would? I think [understanding service's relationship to citizenship] is a much more complex concept to grasp. It's not as obvious as attending a meeting. And therein lies my challenge to try and make that clear to them.

More data are needed to understand the difficulty service students have in comparison with their government observation counterparts. However, the answer might be related to Kahne and Westheimer's (1996) analysis of change-driven and charity-driven service and Morgan and Streb's (2001) analysis of student leadership in service. Students who take a more active role in planning a service activity might be better prepared to make that connection. Although students at Greenfield played a variety of roles—some even taking leadership positions—that was not always the norm for Greenfield service students. Greenfield and other practitioners should emphasize projects in which students have direct contact with service recipients (Metz, McLellan, & Youniss, 2003) and encourage student voice in projects (Morgan, 2002; Morgan & Streb, 2001) to enhance student understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship.

Enhancing Students' Understanding of Democracy

In addition to citing enhanced student understanding of civic virtue, study results also noted that the project enabled government observation students to better understand democracy. The following represents the ways in which government observation students felt their understanding of democracy was enhanced:

- Some students articulated that meetings simply allowed them to view democracy.
- For other students, observing meetings allowed students to cite incidents and issues and how they were examples of democracy.
- Another group of students was able to connect what they saw with a more comprehensive understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy.
- A few students expressed concern at the lack of democracy—lack of attendance, brevity of meetings, and nonresponsiveness of government.
- A few students tried to make a connection to democracy but did not articulate that connection clearly.

Generally speaking, government observation students made the connection between what happens at local meetings and practicing democracy. This represents new knowledge in the field of civic education. Students who responded to the more complex reflection questions (not just summary questions) were better able to make this connection. These data provide a foundation for future research that can look at how and what students learn when they participate in a government observation program as part of a school's United States Government curriculum.

Research Question 4

*In what ways are service learning experiences and
government observations comparable?*

Document review reveals that there is a presumption of equity between the

service learning and government observations in the Greenfield High School United

States Government curriculum. Both are assessed on a common scale, but even

more importantly, each project is assumed to be an experiential project that allows

students to practice the skills of adult citizenship. This section summarizes the

study findings that compare and contrast the project outcomes based on student-

perceived benefits of completing service and government observations. Three

themes developed as part of this analysis: common outcomes, service-unique

outcomes, and government-observations-unique outcomes. All of the data from

these themes represent new knowledge within the field of civic education and

citizenship education in terms of how the two projects might be comparable.

The study found that there were several outcomes that were similar among

students who completed service and students who completed government

observations. The following lists those common outcomes:

- Ability to tie project to civic virtue
- Enhanced understanding of civic virtue
- Sense of accomplishment
- Unanticipated consequences that created positive learning experiences
- Various social capital indicators
- Potential, but rare, opportunities for negative learning experiences

The study also found that there were several outcomes that were unique to each project. The following lists those outcomes that were unique to each project:

- Student Outcomes Unique to Service
  - Knowledge of service organizations and how their work is meaningful
  - Knowledge of service organization beneficiaries
  - Personal development—self-awareness, personal skills
  - Teamwork
  - Career-related knowledge

- Student Outcomes Unique to Government Observations
  - Ability to tie project to concept of democracy
  - Enhanced understanding of democracy
  - Knowledge of the nature of public participation
  - Knowledge of local board issues
  - Knowledge of local board procedures

As stated in the section presenting Research Question 1 study findings, data suggest that there is a perception that students who complete government observations take an easy way out of completing the mandatory project. Some students and local board members even mentioned that they felt attending meetings was a passive assignment—students just had to sit and watch. However, data from this study suggest that government meetings are not necessarily as passive as one may think. Reflection papers require government observation students to actively incorporate what they saw with what they learned in the classroom. In fact, data suggest that government observation students were more likely to demonstrate that they could tie their project to the curriculum than service students—higher numbers of government students provided reflection on the tie to curriculum than service students.

Data suggest that government observation students actively processed their experiences in several ways. First, students wrote about what they saw while often injecting their opinions on a situation. Sometimes they discussed what they thought based solely on the context of the issue. At other times, they articulated their feelings about how a citizen or civic leader should behave, a process that helps students gauge what type of citizens they do or do not want to be. In many ways this represents one of the goals of the Civic Mission of Schools Report (CIRCLE, 2003) for engaging students in current issues.

Another way in which students actively processed their experiences was through interacting with the local board environment even though they might not have been involved politically or part of the formal process. Students cited several instances in which they had interactions with board members and community members. Sometimes students were asked to lead the board in a pledge, and other times students had an opportunity to ask questions of board members or were addressed directly by board members. The results of this study indicate that a great deal more needs to be done to understand the learning process that one undertakes in attending local meetings and the factors that best contribute to a student's civic development.

With that said, this does not imply that the researcher found that one project was "better" than another. Rather, the data suggest that this program, developed out of reflective practice and seeking to avoid the oxymoron of "forced volunteerism," supported the philosophy that "one size does not fit all." Although completing

service and meetings is not equal, data from this study suggest that they are equitable in terms of promoting experiential learning within the civic education context.

<p style="text-align: center;">Social Capital Theory and Mandatory Service Learning</p>

Having looked at the themes that evolved out of the research questions, it is appropriate to return to the theoretical framework that guided this study. Putnam's (2000) use of social capital theory and the potential of service learning to promote students' civic engagement is one part of the framework. Barber's (1992, 1997) emphasis on mandatory service that is couched in terms of civic rhetoric is the other part. The following sections discuss findings against the backdrop of those frameworks.

<u>Robert D. Putnam and Social Capital</u>

First, Putnam (2000) cites that "civic virtue is most powerful when embedded in the dense network of reciprocal social relations" (p. 19). In fact, for a community to be rich in social capital, the community must be full of networked, virtuous people. Although this study did not measure the intensity of networks throughout the community, the findings did establish that there were numerous new

connections between the program youth and adults and organizations within the community.

Putnam (2000) also cites that service learning has the potential to combat social trends that indicate Americans are not as connected as they once were. The results of this study indicate that students engaged in activities they would not have if the program had not been in existence at Greenfield High School. For service students, evidence suggested that they left the program better understanding the role that organizations play in the community and how their work aids service beneficiaries. Many service students also indicated that they understood service was a responsibility of citizenship.

Although Putnam's work did not investigate government observations and despite the fact that meeting attendance is considered a more passive project, government observation students also made connections with community members in a way that was related to social capital theory. Government observation students cited evidence that they learned more about the political processes at the local level as a result of their experiences. Although service students were engaged with work at an organization, reflection papers and in-class activities enabled government observation students to be engaged with issues. The end result was a group of students who understood that being informed and being active were critical elements of citizenship responsibilities.

In discussing the role that voluntary associations and social networks help contribute to democracy, Putnam (2000) cited the potential for both "external" and

"internal" effects. External benefits "allow individuals to express their interests and demands on government and to protect themselves from the abuses of power by their political power" (p. 338), whereas internal benefits foster "habits of cooperation and public-spiritedness, as well as the practical skills necessary to partake in public life" (p. 339).

Findings from this study indicate that the program used by Greenfield High School to promote citizenship behaviors in its students is more likely to promote internal benefits than external benefits. External benefits imply a program focused on what Kahne and Westheimer (1996) would consider change-driven goals. In a program that promotes the external benefits of voluntary networks and social networks, students might actively be working to "right a wrong" in the community. However, findings from this study show that the school specifically chose to select policies that engaged students in activities that help a need within the community while not engaging students in politically charged activities. Because choice is left to the individual student, advocacy is the result of student choice, not school sponsorship. The findings suggest that this was done to heed warnings by researchers such as Garber and Heet (2000), who cite that advocacy by a school can create trouble within a community. This is consistent with the structure of the government observation program as well. Although the program encourages students to be more cognizant of the structures within the community that solve problems and address issues within the community, advocacy is not promoted.

However, the findings do suggest that both service and government observations promoted the internal benefits of voluntary networks and social networks. Service and government observation students both readily identified that being an active member of the community was an important role that citizens should play. The "habits of cooperation and public-spiritedness" were seen in reflections of students who demonstrated that the project had helped internalize the expectation that citizens must be informed and active on the part of government observation students and that citizens should help others among service participants.

Relationship to Other Social Capital Research

Three critical studies related service learning to social capital theory. The following section describes how study findings both elaborate and corroborate the work of Morgan (2002), Kahne et al. (2005), and Koliba (2003).

Morgan used quantitative data to suggest the following:

- Students involved in service moved to a statistically significant "slightly trusting" score from a "slightly untrusting" pretest score.
- Student perceptions of the social network that they could rely on jumped in a statistically significant manner over the period of the service activity while control group responses actually decreased.

This study used qualitative data to corroborate those findings. Both service students and government observation students suggested that their perceptions of the adults involved in the organizations with which they worked and the local meetings they attended changed as a result of their program experiences. Service students

regularly cited that they respected the work of both the organizations and the adults

associated with the organization. Government observation students praised the

work of many of the board members and active citizens that they observed (with a

few exceptions). Although this study did not specifically measure trust and social

networks, evidence indicates that study findings are consistent with those of Morgan

(2002).

Kahne et al. (2005) used mixed methods to investigate the potential of a

specific service learning curriculum on social capital indicators. Their work

suggests the following that are related to this study:

- Participants posted positive gains in their self-reported commitment to civic and public norms of engagement.
- The potential of the high school government curriculum to support development of specific indicators of social capital—commitments to engagement, social trust, and knowledge of social networks—was apparent.

Similar to Morgan's work, Kahne and colleagues' study indicated that students who

complete service are motivated to continue their work. Although this measure does

not necessarily predict future involvement, it does show a willingness to participate.

Likewise, Greenfield High School seniors, both service and government observation

students, indicated a desire to continue performing service and attending meetings.

Once again, longitudinal work could determine whether the commitment they show

at the end of the program leads to continued work in the community.

Perhaps even more importantly, this study corroborates Kahne and

colleagues' finding that the United States Government curriculum has the potential

to support the development of various indicators of social capital. MacManus

(2000) cites a study that suggests that most students find their civic education at the

high school level to be boring. Although students had a great deal to talk about in

terms of their service and meetings experiences, they never mentioned boredom. In

fact, the sense of accomplishment that they felt as a result of their activities is

indicative of the fact that they felt their project "made real" the content from the

classroom.

And finally, this study extends the work that Koliba (2003) established on

service learning's relationship to social capital indicators. He identified the

following relationships that were established through projects that allowed for the

development of social capital:

- Opportunities to seek guidance from adults.
- Developing new relationships with teachers.
- Increased trust in relationships between adults and students as a result of witnessing students acting responsibly.
- A variety of new relationships forged between adults and students in the community.

The findings from this study concur with and extend the results of Koliba's work.

First, this study establishes a list of student-perceived outcomes that are related to

social capital theory. The findings are presented by project type.

- Service
  - the roles that personalities play in effectively running or being part of a service event
  - the importance and value of developing relationships through a service organization
  - the use of personal social capital to make connections for a service site
  - understanding the reciprocal nature of providing service
  - interactions between students and local community members
  - interactions with students outside their peer groups
  - social benefits related to completing service

- Government Observations
  - an understanding of the role of personalities in effectively running local government meetings
  - trust and respect for local government officials
  - interactions between students and local community members
  - the social benefits of attending meetings

These findings are significant because they extend Koliba's findings to the secondary service environment; his work was conducted primarily in the elementary and middle school arena. The fact that this study was conducted in an ethnically diverse and immigrant-rich suburban school adds a new dimension to the literature on service learning and social capital. Koliba's case study focused on rural sites in New England.

Benjamin Barber and Mandatory Service

The other part of the theoretical framework that guided this study came from Barber's interest in service learning. Barber (1992) identifies that service learning has the potential to rehabilitate schools as learning communities whose central function is creating citizens and strengthening democracy. He also feels that the problem with some service programs is that they focus on the concepts of "voluntarism, charity, and good works" (p. 244). In his mode of thinking, service is best articulated in the "rhetoric of civility, responsibility, and good citizenship" (p. 245). When service is couched in these terms, citizenship is being taught, not just charity.

This framework of service in the name of citizenship was selected for its compatibility with the goals and curriculum of the Greenfield High School program. Although Barber never mentions experiential learning activities such as government observations, he does note the possibility for alternative assignments that serve similar goals. This study provides evidence about the nature and structure of a program that has goals that are consistent with Barber's framework. The program is embedded into the civic education curriculum of Greenfield High School and many program documents cite the importance of civic engagement and responsibilities of citizenship in providing the program rationale.

Evidence from this study indicates that when a program is promoted for its civic purpose, students are able to articulate the purpose of the program in those terms. Service students tended to tie the program to the concept of civic virtue while government observation students cited civic virtue and the nature of democracy. Perhaps the only aspect of Barber's framework that was not consistently apparent was the potential for social change and political advocacy. Although some students exhibited these traits through designing their own service programs, most students used school-coordinated events as an introduction to service. The government observation program also did not instill advocacy as a program goal, but students still were able to observe advocacy (and sometimes lack of advocacy) in action.

Another important component of Barber's (1992) theory is that service should be mandatory:

[I]f service is understood as a dimension of citizenship education and civic responsibility in which individuals learn the meaning of social interdependence and become empowered through acquiring the democratic arts, then the requirement of service conforms to curricular requirements in other disciplines. (p. 250)

Ideally, through service learning students do not just learn to be nice to each other. Rather they learn to be free, which means that they learn that they are responsible to others. Although it may be hyperbolic to say that each and every service student and government observation student walked away with the understanding that citizenship means it is all about "us" (common good), not all about "me," evidence from this study shows that students at least leave the class walking down the right path. Service students were better able to understand the needs within the community, whereas government observation students were able to recognize that even when one did not have a personal interest in a local issue, it was a still a responsibility of the citizens to be informed. Service students and government observation students both learned about the processes through which one would get help—be it from a local organization or a local governing body.

Despite the concern by Loupe (2000) that forced service might be an oxymoron, studies have suggested that is not necessarily true. Metz and Youniss (2005) and Reinders and Youniss (2006) both cite evidence that mandatory service is not an inhibitor to civic development. This study used qualitative data instead of quantitative data like Metz and Youniss and Reinders and Youniss to illustrate that students and community members, at least in the Greenfield program, do not exhibit resistance over the existence of the program. Data suggest a variety of structural

factors that might contribute to that lack of opposition and might be useful to schools that are implementing mandatory programs. Those factors are listed below in the study recommendations.

Overall, Barber's framework of mandatory service in many ways is represented through the program at Greenfield High School. The findings from this study are new in that they demonstrate how one suburban school district adopted for a school of almost 1,800 students a mandatory program that focuses on citizenship education skills through a project with options—service or government observations. The project also conformed to the standard of conducting the program within a course curriculum.

Recommendations

In conducting this study, the researcher hoped to document student perceptions of how completing service and government observations influenced what they learned from their high school United States Government curriculum. Although the study was limited to the work of one working-class, ethnically diverse, suburban Chicago high school, the researcher believes that the information provided by students and adults associated with the program is similar to what one would find in other communities. While future research is needed to confirm that statement, this study provides leaders in civic education and citizenship education as well as curriculum developers, social studies educators, and school policy personnel with

practical knowledge in the way that the United States Government course and social studies curriculum can be enhanced through experiential learning focused on citizenship education.

Implications for Leaders in Civic Education and Citizenship Education

Leaders in the field of civic education and citizenship education need to recognize that the United States Government curriculum provides a venue through which schools can promote citizenship education.

Niemi and Junn (1998) found that nearly 90% of high school graduates take United States Government. Yet, MacManus (2000) cites research that shows that college freshmen describe their civic education as dry and detached. This study strengthens Kahne and colleagues' (2005) resolve that the United States Government curriculum has the greatest potential to encourage active citizenship. Students from this study demonstrated their ability to tie service and government activities to the curriculum in a way that they could not have prior to serving and attending meetings. Overall, students maintained that they were pleasantly surprised by what they learned when they served and observed meetings. They also demonstrated that the result was a better understanding of civic virtue in the case of service students and civic virtue and democracy in government observation students. These results suggest that the Greenfield program promotes what Westheimer and Kahne (2004) consider a program that develops "the participatory citizen" because the goals of the program "focus on teaching students about how

government and other institutions (e.g., community-based organizations, churches)

work" (p. 3). Leaders in the field need to be cognizant of how the policies that are

implemented develop different types of citizens based on their foci.

Leaders in civic and citizenship education who train social studies educators need to prepare teacher candidates to include experiential and other active methods of learning as part of the social studies curriculum—not just content knowledge.

This study highlighted the roles that teachers played in helping students

make contacts with local organizations and governing boards. Teachers were also

responsible for holding students accountable for their work and promoting

reflection. Data suggest that those skills that the teachers exhibited were a function

of a learning curve in becoming more experienced in managing experiential learning

activities. In-service teachers who are trained on the benefits of using service

learning and have been required to take leadership roles in planning experiential

learning activities will be better prepared to initiate and plan high-quality

experiential curricula that are focused on developing the skills of active citizenship.

Curriculum developers and social studies educators need to focus on developing curriculum and lessons that emphasize the development of citizenship skills in addition to the focus on political content knowledge.

This study documented the ways in which students were able to relate their service and government observation experiences to the United States Government curriculum at Greenfield High School. Data revealed that the experiential learning activities allowed students to discuss their knowledge in the context of activities that they performed outside of the classroom. This reflective activity, involving both textual work and experiential learning experience, makes the learning environment more relevant to students and puts the focus on both civic outcomes (political knowledge) and citizenship outcomes (an understanding of the roles citizens play in the community).

Curriculum developers and social studies educators need to tap the potential associated with the use of government observations as an experiential learning exercise that enhances a school's civic education and citizenship education programs.

This study suggests that government observations might be a convenient and practical way of introducing students to the nature and structure of local government. There is no literature to which these study results could be compared. Curriculum developers and social studies educators need to incorporate government

observation activities into the United States Government curriculum and other

appropriate courses in order to provide a research base through which further study

could be conducted.

Implications for School Policy Personnel

If concern over forcing students to serve is preventing some schools from adopting mandatory service learning, school policy personnel need to consider government observations or other experiential learning activities that could serve as practical alternatives to mandated service.

Results from this study suggest that "one size does not fit all" when it comes

to a student's education. For example, some students had already participated in

significant service opportunities prior to enrolling in the Greenfield High School

United States Government class. Therefore, they chose the government

observations project—something that would be new to them. However, those

students' experiences do not diminish the fact that many students entered United

States Government who had never completed service. Because there are real

political consequences to mandatory programs and policies, school administration

and boards need to consider viable options that serve the needs of all members of

the learning community. Service learning promises great potential, but that does not

mean that other learning experiences might not hold comparable, if not equal,

promise. By studying student perceptions of service and government observations,

school policy personnel and community members can better understand the impact of service and government observations programs.

Directions for Future Research

The completion of this case study on one suburban high school's use of service and government observations to promote citizenship education in the civic curriculum leaves some questions unanswered. The following illustrate potential areas for future research in service learning and civic education/citizenship education.

Service Learning

Within the field of service learning, there is a significant amount of research being conducted across many fields. However, there is a need for more research using student voice to describe program impact. Eyler and Giles (1999) conducted a significant study on college-level students, but more information is needed to investigate student-perceived outcomes at the high-school level. Although this study used student voice, the data represent service conducted solely within the United States Government curriculum. Perhaps future studies could look at student voice across a broader spectrum of programs.

More research is also needed on the program structures that facilitate service. There seems to be support to start service programs, but there is very little research that describes how a school can develop a structure that facilitates high-quality programs. This study looked at the history of one school's program, but educators could benefit from a structured investigation of program development and policy across many schools where service has already been implemented.

Data from this study suggested that service participants are not always able to view their work as a task of active citizenship. More research is needed to identify what factors contribute to a student's ability to view service in a variety of contexts as a political activity.

Civic Education and Citizenship Education

Based on the results of this case study, more research is needed on the use of government observations within the United States Government curriculum. The following represents potential areas of study:

- Impact on civic knowledge.
- Impact on civic development.
- Impact on political efficacy.
- Impact on attitudes toward future participation.
- Standards for quality integration—the "best practices" of meeting attendance.

This work would provide educators with data to support and enhance the use of meeting attendance in the curriculum.

And finally, one area for future research would be the replication of this study. Because the researcher was so intimately involved with this program over 13 years and had been the teacher of a majority of the participants, replication might reveal whether the researcher relationship with the program students affected study results.

In conclusion, current research indicates that there is a need to train students for their lives as future adult citizens. This case study examined one high school's practical way of incorporating a mandatory service or government observation program that focused on citizenship education within the secondary government curriculum. The study utilized document review, archival records, and interviews to describe the program structure and student impact. The study found that program participants were able to tie their activities to the curriculum in positive ways. The study also found that by providing an alternative to service that was still focused on citizenship education, the school program could promote a wider range of civic activities and keep from fulfilling the oxymoron of "forced volunteerism."

Perhaps the most important aspect of this study is that the United States Government curriculum has traditionally been one in which students "starve" for practical application of the "dry" content. Literature within the fields of civic education, citizenship education, and service learning as well as the results of this study suggest that the United States Government course could be a significant training ground for reinvigorating the life of the citizen.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL LETTER AND CONSENT/ASSENT FORMS

May 12, 2006

MEMORANDUM

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

TO: Heather McMurray McCurdy
Department of Teaching and Learning
15127 Rosarie Dr.
Homer Glen, IL 60491

FR: Michael Peddle, Vice-Chair
Institutional Review Board #2

RE: Graduate student research involving the use of human subjects for the project titled *A case study of student perceptions of mandatory service and government observations in the secondary government curriculum*

This is to inform you that the above-named application for human subjects research has been approved by Subcommittee Review. The rationale for expedited review is section 45 CFR 46.110 and 21 CFR 56.110, Category 6&7. Although you may begin data collection immediately, please be advised that federal regulations require that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) be made aware of all research activities that place human subjects at maximum or minimum risk. Your application will be brought to the attention of the IRB at its next meeting.

This approval is effective for one year from the date of this letter. I have enclosed a date-stamped copy of the approved consent form for your use. NIU policy requires that informed consent documents given to subjects participating in non-exempt research bear the approval stamp of the NIU IRB. **This stamped document is the only consent form that may be photocopied for distribution to study participants.** If your project will continue beyond that date, or if you intend to make modifications to the study, you will need additional approval and should contact the Office of Research Compliance for assistance. **Continuing review of the project, conducted at least annually, will be necessary until you no longer retain any identifiers that could link the subjects to the data collected.**

It is important for you to note that as a research investigator involved with human subjects, **you are responsible for ensuring that this project has current IRB approval at all times, and for retaining the signed consent forms obtained from your subjects for a minimum of three years after the study is concluded.** If consent for the study is being given by proxy (guardian, etc.), it is your responsibility to document the authority of that person to consent for the subject. Also, the committee recommends that you include an acknowledgment by the subject, or the subject's representative, that he or she has received a copy of the consent form. In addition, you are required to promptly report to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated problems or risks to subjects and others. Please accept my best wishes for success in your research endeavors.

MP/psw

cc: N. Dorsch
J. Lieberman
C. Law
Institutional Review Board members
ORC (#2156)

Northern Illinois University
Department of Teaching and Learning
DeKalb, IL 60115

Assent Form for Student Study Participants

You are being invited to participate in a research study entitled, "A Case Study of Student Perceptions of Mandatory Service and Government Meetings in the Secondary Government Curriculum." The researcher for this study is Heather McMurray McCurdy, who is a faculty member at X and a doctoral candidate at Northern Illinois University.

The purpose of this study is to examine one suburban high school's mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that uses service learning and government observations as a means of promoting the responsibilities of adult citizenship. The study seeks the input of students, faculty members, administrators, and community members who have participated in or coordinated the program as a means of examining the impact this program has had as part of the United States Government curriculum. The study also seeks to compare the experiences of service participants and those who attend local government meetings.

Your participation in this study could take place in two ways. First, you can volunteer to submit your reflection paper that you completed as part of the program for the researcher to use as evidence of your experiences in providing service or attending meetings. You can additionally volunteer to be among the pool of approximately 10 students who will participate in individual interviews that will last approximately 45 minutes. These interviews will be held after school at X during the week of
May 29-June 3.

There are no forseeable risks or discomforts associated with your participation in this study. You have only been invited to participate after your reflection paper has been collected and graded, and interviews will not take place until you have been dismissed for the semester. Participation or the choice not to participate will in no way impact your grade. The benefits that you may receive from participating in this study include the opportunity to share your personal experiences from volunteering your service or attending local government meetings, the opportunity to think about the ways in which service and attendance at local meetings can play a role in the development of a citizen, and the opportunity to contribute to the scholarship in the field of citizenship education.

Although Northern Illinois University policy does not provide for compensation for treatment of any injuries that may result from participation in research activities, this should not be construed as a waiver of any legal rights or redress you might have as a result of participation in this study.

Information obtained during this study may be published in professional journals or presented at professional meetings, but any information that could identify you will be kept strictly confidential. Pseudonyms will be used in place of student or adult participant names, and the name of the school will also be given a pseudonym prior to publication.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not negatively affect you in any way. Additionally, even after agreeing to participate in this study, you will be free to withdraw from the study group at any time without penalty or prejudice.

Any questions about this study should be addressed to the researcher or the dissertation advisor for this study:

Heather M. McCurdy, researcher   Dr. Joyce Lieberman, advisor
15127 Rosarie Drive   162 Gabel Hall, Northern Illinois University
Homer Glen, IL 60491   DeKalb, IL 60115
708/805-1721   815/753-5611

If you wish further information regarding your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Office of Research Compliance at Northern Illinois University at 815/753-8588.

I agree to participate in this research study and acknowledge that I have received a copy of this assent form. Please sign below.

_____

Signature of Student   **Date**

I agree to submit a copy of my reflection paper to be used as part of this study.

_____

Signature of Student   **Date**

I agree to be interviewed as part of this study. I understand that the interview will be audio-taped, and that the audiotapes will be kept private until the time that they are destroyed after transcription.

_____

Signature of Student   **Date**

Northern Illinois University
Department of Teaching and Learning
DeKalb, IL 60115

Parental Consent Form

Your child/ward is being invited to participate in a research study entitled, "A Case Study of Student Perceptions of Mandatory Service and Government Meetings in the Secondary Government Curriculum." The researcher for this study is Heather McMurray McCurdy, who is a faculty member at X and a doctoral candidate at Northern Illinois University.

The purpose of this study is to examine one suburban high school's mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that uses service learning and government observations as a means of promoting the responsibilities of adult citizenship. The study seeks the input of students, faculty members, administrators, and community members who have participated in or coordinated the program as a means of examining the impact this program has had as part of the United States Government curriculum. The study also seeks to compare the experiences of service participants and those who attend local government meetings.

Your child's/ward's participation in this study could take place in two ways. First, your student can volunteer to submit his/her reflection paper that was completed as part of the program for the researcher to use as evidence of your student's experiences in providing service or attending meetings. Your student can additionally volunteer to be among the pool of approximately 10 students who will participate in individual interviews that will last approximately 45 minutes. These interviews will be held after school at X during the week of May 29-June 3.

There are no forseeable risks or discomforts associated with participation in this study. Students have only been invited to participate after their reflection papers have been collected and graded, and interviews will not take place until senior students have been dismissed for the semester. Participation or the choice not to participate will in no way impact a student's grade. The benefits that your child/ward may receive from participating in this study include the opportunity to share his/her personal experiences from volunteering his or her service or attending local government meetings, the opportunity to think about the ways in which service and attendance at local meetings can play a role in the development of a citizen, and the opportunity to contribute to the scholarship in the field of citizenship education.

Although Northern Illinois University policy does not provide for compensation for treatment of any injuries that may result from participation in research activities,

this should not be construed as a waiver of any legal rights or redress you or your child/ward might have as a result of participation in this study.

Information obtained during this study may be published in professional journals or presented at professional meetings, but any information that could identify your student will be kept strictly confidential. Pseudonyms will be used in place of student or adult participant names, and the name of the school will also be given a pseudonym prior to publication.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your decision whether or not to allow your student to participate will not negatively affect you or your child/ward in any way. Your child/ward will be asked to indicate individual assent to be involved immediately prior to participation. Additionally, even after agreeing to participate in this study, your child/ward will be free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or prejudice.

Any questions about this study should be addressed to the researcher or the dissertation advisor for this study:

Heather M. McCurdy, researcher   Dr. Joyce Lieberman, advisor
15127 Rosarie Drive   162 Gabel Hall, Northern Illinois University
Homer Glen, IL 60491   DeKalb, IL 60115
708/805-1721   815/753-5611

If you wish further information regarding your rights or your student's rights as a research subject, you may contact the Office of Research Compliance at Northern Illinois University at 815/753-8588.

I agree to allow my child/ward to participate in this research study and acknowledge that I have received a copy of this consent form. Please sign below.

Signature of Parent/Guardian   **Date**

I agree to allow my child/ward to submit a copy of his/her reflection paper to be used as part of this study.

Signature of Parent/Guardian   **Date**

I agree to allow my child/ward to be interviewed as part of this study. I understand that the interview will be audio-taped, and that the audiotapes will be kept private until the time that they are destroyed after transcription.

Signature of Parent/Guardian   **Date**

Northern Illinois University
Department of Teaching and Learning
DeKalb, IL 60115

Consent Form for Adult Study Participants

You are being invited to participate in a research study entitled, "A Case Study of Student Perceptions of Mandatory Service and Government Meetings in the Secondary Government Curriculum." The researcher for this study is Heather McMurray McCurdy, who is a faculty member at X and a doctoral candidate at Northern Illinois University.

The purpose of this study is to examine one suburban high school's mandatory citizenship education program within the United States Government curriculum that uses service learning and government observations as a means of promoting the responsibilities of adult citizenship. The study seeks the input of students, faculty members, administrators, and community members who have participated in or coordinated the program as a means of examining the impact this program has had as part of the United States Government curriculum. The study also seeks to compare the experiences of service participants and those who attend local government meetings.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to share your perceptions and experiences related to your involvement or association with the X citizenship education program. This information would be gathered through an interview with the researcher which would take approximately 30 minutes. Interviews would be held at X during the month of June, 2006.

There are no forseeable risks or discomforts associated with your participation in this study. The benefits that you may receive from participating in this study include the opportunity to share your personal experiences related to your involvement with the program, the opportunity to think about the ways in which service and attendance at local meetings can play a role in the development of a citizen, and the opportunity to contribute to the scholarship in the field of citizenship education.

Although Northern Illinois University policy does not provide for compensation for treatment of any injuries that may result from participation in research activities, this should not be construed as a waiver of any legal rights or redress you might have as a result of participation in this study.

Information obtained during this study may be published in professional journals or presented at professional meetings, but any information that could identify you will be kept strictly confidential. Pseudonyms will be used in place of student or adult participant names, and the name of the school will also be given a pseudonym prior to publication.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not negatively affect you in any way. Additionally, even after agreeing to participate in this study, you will be free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or prejudice.

Any questions about this study should be addressed to the researcher or the dissertation advisor for this study:

Heather M. McCurdy, researcher   Dr. Joyce Lieberman, advisor
15127 Rosarie Drive   162 Gabel Hall, Northern Illinois University
Homer Glen, IL 60491   DeKalb, IL 60115
708/805-1721   815/753-5611

If you wish further information regarding your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Office of Research Compliance at Northern Illinois University at 815/753-8588.

I agree to participate in this research study and acknowledge that I have received a copy of this consent form. Please sign below.

_____

Signature of Participant   **Date**

I agree to be interviewed as part of this study. I understand that the interview will be audio-taped, and that the audiotapes will be kept private until the time that they are destroyed after transcription.

_____

Signature of Participant   **Date**

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

A Case Study of Student Perceptions of Mandatory Service and Government Observations in the Secondary United States Government Curriculum

Student Semi-Structured Interview Guide

1. Which program did you choose to complete in your U.S. Government class?
   a. Can you describe the reporting process?
      i. Service project? Attendance at meetings?
      ii. Reflection Paper?
   b. What roles do the students take at the service site/government meeting?
   c. What roles did the teachers and school play in the program?

2. Where did you go for your service/meeting observations?
   a. Can you describe one of your service events/government observations for me?
   b. Can you think of any other experiences that you had in completing this project that were memorable?

3. If someone were to ask you to summarize the purpose of the program in one or two sentences, how would you answer that question?

4. As a result of this experience, how would you describe the role of a citizen?

5. Are you familiar with students who did the [other program] option?
   a. If yes, how would you compare your experience to theirs?
   b. If no, what would have helped you better learn about what they were doing?

6. What advice would you give future seniors at X who choose to do the [their project] portion of the program?

7. Were there any challenges to completing the project?

8. In what ways did you feel service events/government observations were a learning experience for you?
   a. If you do not feel it was a learning experience: What suggestions would you have that would make it a better experience?

A Case Study of Student Perceptions of Mandatory Service and Government Observations in the Secondary United States Government Curriculum

Teacher Semi-Structured Interview Guide

1. In what ways have you been associated with the service learning and government observation program here at the high school?

2. Can you explain to me in your own words how the program is organized?
   a. How are students informed about the program?
   b. How does a student go about completing the service project? Government observations?
   c. Once students have completed the requisite service or meetings, what other obligations does a student have in order to fulfill the requirements?
   d. What roles do teachers play in helping students meet the requirements?
   e. What types of resources does a student have available to him or her that provides information about where to go to complete the project?
   f. What happens when a student chooses not to complete the project?
   g. What types of challenges have you experienced related to organizational issues?

3. If someone were to ask you to summarize the purpose of the program in one or two sentences, how would you answer that question?
   a. In your experience, do you feel that students see that link between the project and the curriculum?
   b. What classroom activities link this project that is completed outside the school with other material that is covered in the course?

4. Can you relate any stories that speak to the successes of the program?

5. Can you relate any stories that speak to the challenges that you have encountered as a teacher coordinating this project? Any other concerns about the program?

A Case Study of Student Perceptions of Mandatory Service and Government Observations in the Secondary United States Government Curriculum

Administrator Semi-Structured Interview Guide

1. In what ways have you been associated with the service learning and government observation program?

2. Can you describe the origin of this program?
   a. When?
   b. Who played key roles? Administration? Board? Teachers? Parents?
   c. Why was the program implemented? Service? Government observations? Was the placement within the Government curriculum purposeful?
   d. What steps were taken to ensure successful implementation of the program?
   e. Were other models considered? If so, what models? Why was this model selected over other options?
   f. Why mandatory? Did you perceive this as being controversial? Why or why not?

3. In what ways do you feel this program has added to the general school curriculum?

4. When you were an administrator here, did you have any concerns about the program?

5. If someone were to ask you to summarize the purpose of the program in one or two sentences, how would you answer that question?

A Case Study of Student Perceptions of Mandatory Service and Government Observations in the Secondary United States Government Curriculum

Local Board Member Semi-Structured Interview Guide

1. In what way are you familiar with the X service-learning and government observation program?
    a. In what way are you familiar with the requirements of the program?

2. How would you describe the process when one of X's students attends one of your meetings?
    a. How often would you say that students attend your meetings?

3. Have you ever had any concerns with student attendance at your meetings?

    a. If so, how did you handle your concern? With the student? Did you inform X?

4. If someone were to ask you to summarize the purpose of the program in one or two sentences, how would you answer that question?