

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

To gain a greater understanding of civic attitudes among college students and the pedagogy of reflection, it was necessary to examine bodies of literature regarding experiential education, extracurricular volunteer programs, service learning (SL), and reflection. This chapter is organized around six sections. Literature regarding the foundations of experiential education is examined in the first section. Then, the literature comparing experiential education and traditional education is explored in the second section. The third section describes community service opportunities in higher education, student volunteer characteristics, and current developments in SL. Evidence of positive student outcomes related to community service is covered in the fourth section. The fifth section discusses the pedagogy of reflection. Finally, a summary of the literature and contributions to future research are covered in the conclusion.

The Foundations of Experiential Education

Experiential education is an educational pedagogy that was developed over a century ago. Through the decades, concepts of experiential education have been employed in many fields such as cooperative education, internships, outdoor education, organizational training and development, and SL. It is the process individuals go through to test their environment, therefore assuming that knowledge is not fixed but instead a living cycle of attaining truth through experimentation (NSEE Foundations Document Committee, 1997).

Dewey initially captured the essence of experiential education in the early 1900s (Dewey 1925; Dewey, 1938). Dewey's argument for experiential education was that events are only in existence in an operative way, and the major concern is the meaning of the events. Experiencing things in life is unavoidable; therefore, his question was how to make sense of the experience.

Dewey theorized that experiential education begins with a concrete experience that is then processed through an intentional learning format resulting in useable knowledge (Dewey, 1925).

The interconnection of experience, learning, and development has provided an opportunity for various forms of experiential education to grow. Organizational theorist Lewin believed experience was tied to personal and organizational development in the 1940s. Lewin found such development occurred when individuals or groups set goals, reflected on prior experiences to create a theory, used that theory in their work and then revised their goals and theories based on the outcome of their new experience (Lewin, 1952). Even today, principles of experiential education are used in team building, creative problem solving, and conflict resolution with organizational training and development (NSEE Foundations Document Committee, 1997).

In the 1960s and 1970s, Freire used experiential education as a means to empower oppressed people in Latin America. Freire viewed acts of learning such as reading, writing, and speaking as political movements that could be used for the empowerment of people. He theorized that people are empowered when they realize the world is not a static place and understand it instead as a reality in transformation.

Freire developed the concept of conscientization. Conscientization is the critical awareness of the parts individuals play in the making of their surroundings. This awareness provides them the power to change the conditions they self-define, thus, breaking an authoritarian model for an egalitarian process (Freire, 1970).

During the 1980s and 1990s, Shor, a professor of English at the City of New York Graduate Center and the College of Staten Island, put Freire's concepts to practice in his classroom. Shor shared the power of teaching a college course with his students. The curriculum

was negotiated and the classroom authority was shared. The effort to include the students in the experience of making their own education resulted in outbreaks, power struggles, and student-demands. Through this experimental course structure, Shor derived the more people are allowed to actively participate in their learning the more control they will seek (Shor, 1996).

Human development theorist Kolb took experiential learning one step further. He suggested that learning is the process in which knowledge is created through a transformational cycle of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Both Freire and Kolb contended that the goal of experiential education was not only to transform experience into knowledge, but also to use this new knowledge for both individual and collective developmental purposes (NSEE Foundations Document Committee, 1997).

Experiential education has also been connected with theories of cognitive and developmental psychology. The works of Gilligan, Piaget, Perry, and Kohlberg are linked by the belief that cognitive and moral development impact how humans make meaning of experiences (NSEE Foundations Document Committee, 1997).

According to Gilligan, intellectual and moral developments represent attempts to create an understanding of experiences and perceptions in everyday life. Piaget's work, from 1952, was rooted in cognitive-structural theories that examine the process of intellectual development with a focus on *how* people think, reason, and make meaning of their experiences. In 1968, Perry's theory or scheme of Intellectual and Ethical Development used forms of development as structures that shape how people view their experiences. Then, Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development attempted to define individuals through representations of how they transform their thoughts with regard for what is right or viewed as necessary (Evans et al., 1998).

Experiential Education versus Traditional Education

Dewey criticized traditional education. He described traditional classroom-based education as dualistic methodology created in response to the demands of urban industrial capitalism. He explained that this dualism was based on deductive logic that works from the general to the specific and assumes that the learner is ignorant and the teacher is the wise authority figure. In Dewey's opinion, traditional education was undemocratic and hierarchically structured which, thereby, divorced subjective from objective ways of knowing and separated experience from learning. Dewey's concept of experiential education was intended to be holistic and integrative, based on the process of making meaning out of knowing (Dewey, 1938).

Traditional education is concept-centered and focused on classroom instruction alone. This approach is inadequate for the preparation of well-prepared citizens. Traditional education teaches students how to collect facts but not how to process and critically evaluate information in a real-life setting (Koulish, 1998). This empowers professors and limits students, thereby robbing students of their sense of subjectivity which encourages them to remain silent (Wright, 1989).

SL reinforces the strengths of traditional education while transcending its limits. Experiential education is personal and active because it is a process of learning by doing. In higher education, the classroom becomes an arena for cognitive skill development through the accumulation of information and research methods. Then the learning extends through connections with the community where students build their problem solving abilities, critical thinking skills, leadership roles, and team work ethics (Koulish, 1998).

Service combined with learning adds value to each and transforms both. The students' roles are made more complicated when the course is built around service. Their active participation in the real world serves as a mechanism to integrate the learning process with life

experiences (Beckman, 1997). Unlike traditional education where the students are passive receivers of knowledge, SL allows students a hands-on opportunity to participate in problem solving and planning programs (Checkoway, 1996).

Research has shown that students learn by constructing meaning from their experience (Brooks & Brooks, 1993; Prawat, 1992). Traditional education seldom provides direct experience and the subsequent reflection that learning requires. The component of reflection is critical to SL. Conrad and Hedin (1982) found that reflection was the key element that contributed to SL students' learning. However, the importance of processing an experience rather than a textbook as the authority is foreign to those who subscribe to traditional education. Instead of only focusing on fact retention, SL projects provide students with the opportunities to develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes that can be applied to real-life situations (Wade, 1995).

Promotion of Civic Attitudes in Student Development

The development of civic attitudes is evident in community service participation. Community service performed at institutions of higher education has manifested itself in campus-based volunteer programs and SL courses. Students today have the opportunity to provide service to the community through participation in extracurricular volunteer service programs or academic courses that incorporate a component of service (Rhoads, 1998). It is also important to understand the typical student volunteer characteristics and why these students choose to serve (Astin & Sax, 1998). Discussion of current developments in professional organizations, legislation, literature, and student programs is also helpful in understanding the community service movement.

Campus-Based Volunteer Programs

Extracurricular volunteer service opportunities have been established at institutions of higher education. These programs can be found at volunteer service offices on many campuses. Usually, these programs are associated with student affairs and tend to put a greater emphasis on solving community needs, which runs the risk of over-emphasizing service and under-estimating learning. Programs linked with student affairs are less stable because they are usually a lower priority within the university's mission and normally linked to only one academic department if credit is offered (National Center for Service Learning, 1982).

Extracurricular volunteer service programs are usually strictly service oriented and not highly concerned with the reciprocity of benefits between the student who is serving and those being served. Instead, these programs tend to be more flexible in responding to student needs and are open to student initiatives. Volunteer service programs also have the ability to be more responsive to community needs and more committed to solving community problems (National Center for Service Learning, 1982). Unlike SL, students who participate in non-academic volunteer programs usually do not receive course credit or have a reflection process incorporated into their service experience (Myers-Lipton, 1998).

Since the early 1990s there has been an increase in the membership of national organizations dedicated to promoting engagement in public and community service (Astin, 1998). Recently, the YMCA of the USA established six Young Adult Civic Connector Centers at institutions of higher education across the country. These centers are part of a national effort to connect 18-29 year olds with community associations, institutions, and local elected officials. The goal of bringing young adults into contact with the community, government, and political life is to increase the level of meaningful involvement. Through outreach activities, training, and

recognition, the YMCA seeks to build a movement of citizens committed to volunteerism and governance as a strategy to strengthen American society on all levels (Leza, 1999).

The Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) and the Campus Compact are two other national organizations that presently model the approach to community service for college students. Although COOL is a grassroots organization and Campus Compact works from the top down, both require carefully defined goals and research procedures to guide college students in the projects they propose and participate in. The organizations frequently offer fellowships or tuition reimbursements for students with outstanding contributions to the community (Astin 1998; Rhoads, 1998).

In the early 1980s, COOL was established to create on-campus activities that promote student-centered volunteerism (Fitch, 1991). The organization is a volunteer clearinghouse that acts as a support network for student-run community service programs. Their mission is to strengthen students' capacities for social action in an environment of diversity and to foster a voice in the community that addresses the challenges in society. COOL is directed by recent college graduates, and presently has a network of approximately 600 colleges and universities nationwide (Myers-Lipton, 1998).

Campus Compact was established in 1985 by a group of college presidents that supported the belief that community service is key to holistic student development (Fitch, 1991). The creation of this administrative body was initiated with the goal to combat the growing generation of self-centered, materialistic students by encouraging participation in community service activities. Today, Campus Compact has a membership of over 400 presidents and chancellors from institutions across the country and has dedicated resources to its Integrating Academic Study with Community Service Program (Myers-Lipton, 1998). Their current goal is to increase

the average number of students participating in community service from 10% to 30% by the year 2004 (Ehrlich & Hollander, 1999).

Other service-related agencies interact with college campuses by offering college students volunteer service opportunities in various locations. The Youth Service America (YSA) provides resources to young American to serve locally, nationally, and globally. YSA has created a network of over 200 service organizations with extensive information on research, best practices, resources, and service opportunities available on their web site: www.SERVE.net.org. For example, information on organizations such as Break Away, Up With People, and Do Something are available via links through the SERVENet page. Users can enter their zip code and immediately be given a list of volunteer opportunities in their area. The database can also match volunteers with service activities based on their ages (Youth Service America, on-line).

Break Away: The Alternative Break Connection is a nonprofit organization. It is a national resource providing information on alternative break programs, services, training, and publications. Break Away also offers alternative spring break programs for teams of college students to engage in experiential learning by taking part in short term community service projects during their break. Students work in conjunction with community agencies and learn about issues such as literacy, poverty, racism, hunger, and homelessness. The objective of the alternative break is to expose students to issues and situations they otherwise would not have had the opportunity to experience firsthand (Break Away, on-line).

Up With People is another organization geared toward giving students an opportunity for exposure to unfamiliar environments. The Worldsmart program is a yearlong experience organized by Up With People that combines international travel with musical performance and

leadership development through community service. Students gain a breadth of knowledge, skills, and wisdom and are transformed into global citizens (Up With People, on-line).

The Do Something organization inspires young people to believe that change is possible. This national organization trains, funds, and mobilizes students to become community leaders. Do Something believes in the spirit of family and friendships, a lifelong passion for learning and education, the importance of health and affordable health care, an economy built on opportunities for employment and housing, and a responsive and accountable government. It offers connections with service opportunities that relate to and uphold its beliefs (Do Something, on-line).

Academic-Based SL Programs

SL courses use experiential education by combining service (the experience) and learning (the academic coursework and reflection). These courses offer academic credit and are linked to universities via academic affairs. To sustain an effective SL program, certain criteria need to be met. The program must engage students in actions for the common good of the community and provide open structures for critical reflection of their service. Clear learning goals, realistic time commitments, and individual responsibilities need to be established from the beginning. Additionally, the appropriate match between student and service site requires special attention. These processes will increase the likelihood of a positive experience for everyone involved (Kendall & Associates, 1990).

The training process is vital to the longevity of a SL program. Initially, the students' skill levels are assessed to avoid redundancy in training. Then training goals, expectations, and learning objectives are set and clearly communicated to the students. Training sessions utilize the proper pedagogy to keep the lessons practical and engaging. At the end of the session, an

evaluation is conducted by soliciting feedback from the participants. Students are not over-trained, because other needed skills or information normally are learned on-site (Kendall & Associates, 1990).

The supervision of students is necessary to provide guidance and support without limiting individual creativity. The quantity of supervision is contingent on what service activities are being conducted and the volunteers' skill levels. Supervision is an on-going process. Initially a supervisor provides students with their job descriptions and performance expectations, and then follows up with feedback in an evaluation of their progress. It is important that supervisors have a good working relationship with clients (people receiving the service) to more accurately gauge the effectiveness of the volunteers who are placed at each site (Kendall & Associates, 1990).

The purposes of SL program evaluation are to continually prove the program's value, monitor administrative efficiency and productivity, and assess the quality of the students and the services provided. Evaluation should be done at the beginning, at the end, and anytime in between during a program cycle. Evaluation must be integrated as a key component of the program in the planning process. Assessment should be done so often that it becomes a natural part of the program itself (Kendall & Associates, 1990).

SL programs are linked to academic affairs; therefore, they tend to have a high level of commitment from the institution due to their association with the institution's academic mission. This encourages involvement by many different academic departments. These programs are usually centralized in a coordinated SL center because they have an academic component. However, SL programs tied to academic affairs run the risk of over-emphasizing learning and under-estimating service. The largest emphasis tends to be on student learning; therefore,

many community agencies and organizations may be exploited in the process of achieving academic goals (National Center for Service Learning, 1982).

In SL programs associated with academic affairs, faculty usually initiates the inclusion of an optional or mandatory SL component into a credit-bearing course (Parker-Gwin & Mabry, 1998; Rhoads, 1998). Faculty who have incorporated SL found that it enhances performance in the traditional measures of learning. It also increases students interest in the subject and improves problem-solving skills (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Students who choose a SL component are involved in a community service project coupled with structured reflective exercises and course-related requirements. Relating their service to the course through reflection provides the potential to broaden their appreciation of their academic discipline and enhance their sense of civic responsibility (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996; Rhoads, 1998).

Volunteer Characteristics

Students who elect to do community service tend to be more inclined than other students to seek out service. Women also have a greater tendency to serve than do men (Astin & Sax, 1998; Chapman & Morley, 1999; Stukas, Switzer, Dew, Goycoolea, & Simmons, 1999). One key factor in service participation is whether students have volunteered during high school. The characteristics of a typical student volunteer include high self-rated leadership ability, involvement in religious activities, and commitment to participation in a community action before attending college (Astin & Sax 1998; Sax & Astin, 1997).

Those who volunteer in college also tend to be less materialistic and less involved in drinking and smoking than non-volunteers (Astin, 1996). Students who have parents or friends who serve in the community are more likely to participate in service activities themselves (Fitch, 1987; Stukas et al., 1999). Although some students have a higher tendency to serve than others,

their participation in service activities may not reflect the impact of their service participation (Myers-Lipton, 1998).

An evaluation of the Corporation for National Service's Learn and Serve America Higher Education (LSAHE) program was conducted jointly by the University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) and the RAND Corporation. By incorporating the UCLA's national CIRP survey data in the study, it afforded an assessment of the LSAHE program's effect on student development (Astin & Sax, 1998).

The joint study cited that the bulk (70%) of undergraduate service work is done in student activities and student affairs programs. On the average, only 29% of community service work is done in academically linked SL courses. In addition to collegiate service, 48% of students performed community service in noncollegiate organizations as well. The most common locations for service were universities (52%), elementary or secondary schools (37%), social or welfare organizations (29%), hospitals or clinics (26%), community centers (23%), and parks (20%). The percentages add up to be more than one hundred because many students volunteered at more than one location (Astin & Sax, 1998).

The most common reason for students to volunteer is to help other people. A sense of satisfaction is the second leading reason why students get involved in community service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Fitch, 1987). Other popular reasons to serve are feelings of personal satisfaction and the chance to improve society. Of these top four reasons, three are related to civic responsibility and helping others (Astin & Sax, 1998). Research also shows that students who perceived they were making a contribution to society were more likely to continue serving in the future (McKenna & Rizzo, 1999).

Current Developments

Over the years, various areas of community service have experienced substantial developments. New national service legislation has afforded funding for community service programs, and an increased amount of Internet resources and literature related to community involvement and SL have been produced. Additionally, national organizations focusing on experiential education have been established.

Seven years ago, President Clinton signed the National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993 into law. The enactment of this law formed the Corporation for National Service designed to involve Americans of all ages and backgrounds in community projects. Its goals were to foster civic responsibility and provide educational opportunity for those who make a commitment to serve. From this legislation, the AmeriCorp national service program, National Senior Service Corps, and Learn and Serve America were created (Transcript: Bill Clinton, April 11, 1994).

In 1995, President Clinton ordered that the Action Agency (provided for by the Domestic Volunteer Service Act of 1973) be merged with the Corporation for National Service. This merger was due to an overlapping of similar goals between the two organizations and to further develop nationwide community service projects (Transcript: Bill Clinton, April 11, 1994).

In an effort to extend and amend the national service law, the National and Community Service Amendments Act of 1998 was submitted by President Clinton. The proposed amendments focused on reducing AmeriCorp costs, integrating age and income guidelines for National Senior Service Corps members, and reorganizing the Learn and Serve America administration. The legislation was submitted for the purpose of strengthening the partnership

between national service programs and traditional volunteer organizations (Transcript: Bill Clinton, March 23, 1998).

AmeriCorps is the national service program established to give students the opportunity to participate in community service in exchange for post-secondary educational funding. By 1998, over 100,000 American students had served their country through the AmeriCorps program. Students participated in service activities that assisted in meeting current social needs (Transcript: Bill Clinton, March 23, 1998). For example, the National School and Community Corps (NSCC) is one of the AmeriCorps programs. The NSCC participants take part in restructuring school and urban school reform. This program enriches the school environment to benefit students, parents, and the community as a whole (National School and Community Corps, on-line).

The National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (NSLC) was established to disseminate information for Learn and Serve America and various other educational service programs and practitioners. The NSLC manages a database of on-line service-related information. For facts on how SL projects provide students with opportunities for self- and community improvement, the NSLC has established a website (nics.jaws.umn.edu). They also offer a toll-free number to answer questions about available resources, referrals to other organizations, and bibliographical information. NSLC Information Specialists are prepared to send out free packets of materials on SL programs, definitions, initiatives, and standards. Also available are electronic discussions groups and an on-site library at the University of Minnesota (National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, brochure).

Internet resources offer information on how students can thoughtfully participate in organized social action through SL. The Big Dummy's Guide to Service Learning

(www.fiu.edu/~time4chg/library/bigdummy/html) is a simple web site that provides answers to questions about SL projects, including how SL is different from community service, the role of the educator, planning a project, and ideas for combining service and learning. There is also the Service-Learning: The Home of Service-Learning on the WorldWideWeb (csf.colorado.edu/sl/index.html) that explores the benefits of incorporating community service into learning activities. Users are able to join a discussion group, read articles related to local needs, and follow a series of links to other nonprofit organizations involved with social service projects.

Professional publications specific to SL and community involvement have evolved. In recent years, the first journal has emerged that publishes articles on curriculum issues in community SL, research, and evaluation results. The Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, located at the University of Michigan, is a peer reviewed publication addressing issues related primarily to higher education and some pieces of interest to post-secondary teachers (Allen, 1997).

To complement research in student development and student services, a new 18-volume series of monographs is being published by the American Association of Higher Education (AAHE). Each book in the series will provide a focused examination of the relationship between SL and individual disciplines. The volumes will address academic disciplines such as composition, accounting, education, political science, psychology, and sociology. Additional disciplines will follow (Deans & Meyer-Goncalves, 1998).

National organizations related to personal involvement have also been established. Today the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE) serves as a resource for proponents of experience-based education methods. It has been in existence for over twenty-five years and is a leading professional organization for SL practitioners. The NSEE provides its members with a

quarterly newsletter containing articles on the latest experiential education studies, and discounts on publications, conference registrations, consulting, and NSEE Resource Center materials. Members are also given the opportunity to join Special Interest Groups (SIGs). These groups are organized around similar conceptual interests for the purposes of networking and discussing leadership opportunities. Consulting services for educational institutions are also available (for a fee) through the NSEE to aid in the development of experiential education workshops (National Society for Experiential Education, on-line).

Benefits of Service

Students participating in community service at institutions of higher education have benefited from the many positive outcomes related to their service experiences. Both extracurricular volunteer service programs and SL courses impact civic attitudes through service activities (Astin & Sax, 1998).

Outcomes Related to Volunteerism

There are many outcomes related to civic attitudes through participation in volunteer service programs. Participating in volunteer activities has an impact on feelings of self-empowerment. Students' concern for the environment and financial status are also affected. Volunteer work can motivate people to care for others, increase protest participation, and improve leadership abilities (Astin, 1993). There are also long-term effects of volunteer work evidenced through behaviors and values (Astin, 1999; Fendrich, 1993; Yates & Youniss, 1998).

The effect of volunteer work is evident in student outcomes. The Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California, Los Angeles, has been collecting data through the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) survey since 1973. It is a longitudinal study that includes over 500,000 students at 1,300 institutions of all types (Astin, 1993).

The model of input-environment-outcome (I-E-O) guides the study. The input refers to the characteristics the students possess before they enter college. The term environment refers to the exposure to educational experiences, programs, faculty, and peers. Outcomes refer to the student characteristics after the exposure to the various collegiate environments. This model assesses the impact of different environmental experiences and conditions on students' growth or change (Astin, 1993).

Volunteer work was one of the environmental factors measured in the CIRP survey. There is a pattern of outcomes related to students who participate in volunteer activities. Volunteer participation has a strong correlation with personality measures. Social activism, leadership, protesting, and tutoring other students are positively associated with volunteer participation. Attitudinal outcomes are also correlated with volunteer activities. Developing a meaningful philosophy of life and the promotion of racial understanding and environmental cleanups are attitudes related to volunteer service. Additionally, volunteer work has significant positive correlations with degree attainment, cultural awareness, public speaking and interpersonal skills. There were also positive correlations between those who perform volunteer service and those who chose to pursue careers as physicians and clinical psychologists (Astin, 1993).

Volunteer work has long-term effects. It was reported that the effects of community service in youths persist for a 15-year period. Therefore, the best factor for predicting community involvement at age 30 is whether or not there is participation at age 15. This study suggests that individuals who engage in community service activities at an early age are more likely to continue serving throughout their adult lives than those who did not serve at an early age (Yates & Youniss, 1998).

Voluntary protesting in public demonstrations while in college also has long-term effects on continued community service and civic responsibility. Black and White alumni from Florida A & M University who participated in protests related to segregation during the 1950s and 1960s, were surveyed 10 and 25 years after the protests took place. In comparison to White non-protesters, White protestors are more likely to have advanced degrees and be employed in education. They are also more likely to participate in protests after college than are their White non-protestor counterparts.

Black protestors are more likely to pursue advanced degrees and have higher incomes than are their Black non-protestor counterparts. In comparison to Black non-protestors, Black protestors are more likely to belong to civic organizations and to be concerned with peaceful race relations. Both the White and Black protestors voted at higher rates. Overall, both groups of protestors were more involved in serving their communities and political issues than were those who did not protest (Fendrich, 1993).

Other long-term effects related to volunteer work were found in a group of students who were surveyed once in 1985 during their first year in college, a second time in 1989 and a third time in 1994-1995. The Student Information Form (SIF) was administered in 1985 to 279,985 students from 546 institutions to serve as a pretest for the longitudinal study. In 1989, 27,064 students from 388 institutions completed the first follow-up survey. It included items regarding college experiences and perceptions and posttest questions relating to the pretest survey from 1985. The second follow-up survey was completed in 1994-1995 by 12,376 students from 209 institutions. This second survey provided information on graduate school attendance and early career experiences (Astin, 1999).

Long-term behavioral outcomes correlated with volunteer work were revealed in the results. Students who indicated participation in volunteer activities are more likely to attend graduate school and earn advanced degrees. They also had a higher propensity to donate money to their alma mater and socialize more with people from different ethnic backgrounds. Students who volunteered during college were more committed to participate in community action programs. They also were more likely to provide aid for others needing help and to take part in environmental cleanups. Additionally, collegiate volunteers were more concerned with promoting racial understanding and developing a meaningful philosophy of life than were those who did not volunteer in college (Astin, 1999).

A direct correlation can be made between participation in volunteer work during college and participation in volunteer work after college. Results revealed that volunteering six or more hours in the last year of college doubles the likelihood of volunteering after graduation. For example, 44% of the students who indicated that they spent six or more hours doing volunteer work in their last year of college are volunteering at least one hour a week after graduation. However, only 19% of the students who did not volunteer in their last year of college are volunteering after graduation (Astin, 1999).

Outcomes Related to SL

There are numerous positive outcomes related to SL. It is a vehicle for students to reflect on personal issues and governmental responsibility (Yates & Youniss, 1998). SL also provides a means for students to explore personal values, increase their understanding of others and of diversity, and broaden their perception of social good in the larger community context (Rhoads, 1998). Gains in skill development, self-efficacy, and renewed interest in academic coursework can be attributed to SL (Wade, 1995). There is also a relationship between SL and a recognized

need for professional advocacy, a greater understanding of the importance of political activism (Cotunga & Vickery, 1992), and an increased level of civic responsibility (Myers-Lipton, 1998).

Community service through SL programs encourages reflection on personal issues and governmental responsibility. Data were collected from students enrolled in a one-year SL course at a Catholic high school. Students were enrolled in a mandatory junior-year religion class that required them to work 20 hours a week at a downtown soup kitchen for the homeless. Included in the study were 160 currently enrolled students and 121 alumni who took the class previously. Data were gathered through questionnaires, in-class writing assignments, and discussion sessions (Yates & Youniss, 1998).

During the study, students voiced their opinions on how they could take a personal role in enacting social change and the limits on individual initiative. They also discussed how public funds should be spent and the government's responsibility to the homeless. Other issues relating to race and diversity also surfaced. Topics such as understanding the meaning of being a Black American and the negative social images of Blacks were mentioned. Students related experiences of family members in the civil rights movement and Vietnam to their present experiences. The results revealed that current students wanted to continue volunteer activities even after the mandatory class was over. Therefore, alumni data were examined to explore whether students actually did volunteer more after the class (Yates & Youniss, 1998).

Alumni surveys indicated that 44% did other voluntary service while still in high school, 45% volunteered sometime after high school graduation, and 32% were currently volunteering. Six themes emerged in the political development of the alumni. Because of the SL course, alumni were awakened to societal problems and brought into contact with people who were different from them. These experiences taught them about their responsibility to help others. The

ability to make a difference in society inspired them to continue serving. Furthermore, the students were educated about social ills and taught to think critically (Yates & Youniss, 1998).

Exposure to SL can also cause pre-service teachers to change their views and improve their abilities as teachers, resulting in a rededication to their profession. A study was conducted on 41 teacher-education students who were involved in a social practicum project for one semester. The SL activities varied greatly, ranging from cleaning up parks to working with senior citizens. Data were collected through class papers, journal entries, and a written survey. Seminar discussions and open-ended interviews with 10 students were also used in the data collection. Interview questions focused on previous and present service activities and what participants were learning about themselves and others through their service experiences (Wade, 1995).

Outcomes from the data revealed that overall students increased their self-efficacy. Twenty-nine students attested to learning something new about themselves or developing a new skill. Students also learned new information about community service. Their SL experience developed a stronger concern for societal issues and increased their commitment to serving in the community. However, there were others that felt frustrated by their inability to contribute more and the length of time it took for noticeable change to occur (Wade, 1995).

SL can have an impact on college students' knowledge, attitudes, and future professional behavior. In a nutrition course, a component of SL was included to encourage action toward solving social problems. The SL experience provided firsthand exposure to hunger-related issues to heighten the students' sensitivity to the problem and to encourage social responsibility. Students were enrolled in a semester-long community nutrition class that offered the option to volunteer in a food bank and soup kitchen for 20 hours per week. Data were collected through

students' written work and oral observations. Ten of the 12 students opted to participate in the SL component (Cotugna & Vickery, 1992).

The participating students reported that they had a reality shock due to the number of children and people their own age that they encountered at the soup kitchen. Furthermore, the SL students were forced to examine their own value systems and to dispel the myth that people who are hungry are from minority groups. They realized that many hungry people are elderly, handicapped, or people just like themselves who fell on hard times. All of this enlightenment created a professional challenge for the nutrition students. They recognize the need for professional advocacy and the importance of becoming politically active (Cotugna & Vickery, 1992).

Students who participate in community service through SL courses show an increased level of caring. Three universities were included in a qualitative study that assessed students who participated in a variety of short-term, long-term, local, and distant community service experiences. Data were collected over six years (1991-1996) from 108 formal and informal interviews. Sixty-six open-ended surveys, 200 participant observations, and analysis of various students' journals were also examined. Ninety percent of the students were undergraduates and 10% were graduate students (Rhoads, 1998).

The results revealed that students involved in community service experience a self-exploration that helps them think more about themselves and how others might view them. Quotes from students reflect concerns regarding whether they were judgmental of others or if they were being sensitive (caring) to the needs of others (Rhoads, 1998).

There were also results that suggested an increased understanding of others. Students who have firsthand experiences with homeless or low-income families realize there are names

and faces behind the statistics of people in the streets. Students' quotes discuss the reality of social problems and that helping others does make a difference (Rhoads, 1998).

A greater understanding of the social good in the larger community context was also revealed. There was an increased level of consciousness in making choices to help change society. Some students mentioned that there are consequences to not helping others. For example, people who are not doing a thing to help must live with a guilty conscience knowing that there are others who are hungry and homeless (Rhoads, 1998).

Differences also exist in levels of civic responsibility in SL students, volunteer program students, and non-volunteers. Twenty-five students in a two-year comprehensive SL program were compared to 25 volunteer program students, and 150 random non-volunteers. All the students in each group were in their junior year. The SL students connected their service experiences with reflection through discussions and academic applications. The volunteer program students were placed in community service projects through a campus volunteer clearinghouse without a reflection or academic component. The non-volunteers did not perform any service at all (Myers-Lipton, 1998).

A survey that included scales on civic responsibility, locus of control, and civic behavior was administered in a pretest/posttest fashion. The Civic Responsibility Scale has items related to caring for people in need. Other items in the Civic Responsibility Scale related to the responsibility to solve social problems and the obligation to vote in elections. The Locus of Control Scale contained items related to empowerment, making change in politics and world events, and consumer-controlled pricing. The Civic Behavior Scale inquired about contacting government officials and protest participation.

When the data from the pretests were compared to the posttests for each group, the results revealed that there are greater increases in all the scales for the SL students. This indicated that service linked to academics and accompanied by reflection increases civic responsibility (Myers-Lipton, 1998).

Reflection

Reflection is critical to the internalization of knowledge. It should be included in the process of experiential education from the beginning. Experiences are defined through reflection as learners make connections between their activities and their learning goals. Before the experience, students should reflect on their preconceived notions on a topic related to the educational goals and then reflect again during and after their experience to note the changes in their attitudes and behaviors (NSEE Foundations Document Committee, 1997).

Many experiences create controversy. However, if these experiences are not reflected upon they can be harmful or misleading to the individual. A lack of sensitivity can develop and a decrease in the learner's responsiveness is likely to occur (Dewey, 1933). Although an experience alone might cause personal growth, it is not until the experience is thoughtfully considered and analyzed that future actions are influenced (Checkoway, 1996; Glenn & Nelson, 1988).

Within a SL course students participate in community service and reflect on their service relating the course content to greater social issues and civic responsibility. Reflection links concrete experiences to abstract concepts. College courses that include SL achieve the maximum educational benefit by building the component of reflection into the curriculum of the course. These reflective activities connect course objectives with the service experience and occur on a regular basis throughout the semester. The instructor guides the students through reflection

exercises encouraging feedback by providing an opportunity to examine personal values. (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997).

It is important for reflection activities to foster academic learning to establish integrity for SL in higher education. Throughout the semester the learning from service can be enriched through regular and varied analytical reflective activities. The three most frequently used methods of reflection are journals, directed writing exercises and structured class discussions (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997).

Journals can be used as a written exercise based on the learning objective and design of the SL course. Professors sometimes require students to include a list of terms in their journal entries or to reread their previous entries and highlight comments that relate to the course content. Keeping a journal is a common assignment, yet some professors choose not to use journals because students are not adequately challenged. The entries often result in a log of service activities without thoughtful analysis of the experience. Journals can also be hard to evaluate (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997).

Directed writings require students to relate their service experience to a reading assignment. Short written assignments are used to develop critical thinking. Students are required to synthesize their text in light of their service experience. These writing exercises can then be used as a foundation to a more complex paper or to frame class discussions (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997).

Course content can also be integrated with service through class discussions. Students can be asked to compare and contrast what they have read in the text with their actual experience. Open discussion allows students to learn from one another and give voice to fears (Koulish, 1998). By listening to the various comments from the group, students construct or

reclaim their personal values. It is an effective classroom-based reflection activity because it broadens the students' perspectives and fosters critical thinking through dialogue (Beckman, 1997; Hatcher & Bringle, 1997).

When serving in the community, students often encounter unfamiliar situations that challenge or contradict their perspectives. Therefore, it is pertinent that real world issues are incorporated into reflection regardless of the method used, whether written or discussion. As students' values are transformed in light of their previous perceptions and real world experiences, it is expected that their behavior would also be modified. Students' personal development and civic responsibility is supported through exercises that include a clarification of personal values (McEwen, 1996).

Conclusion

SL has been studied in a variety of ways. Research has been conducted through qualitative methods such as observations, open-ended questionnaires, journal entries, and discussions (Cotugna & Vickery; 1992, Rhoads, 1998; Yates & Youniss, 1998). There are also studies that incorporate both qualitative and quantitative research methods (McKenna & Rizzo, 1999; Primavera, 1999; Wade, 1995). Predominantly, both large scale and small research studies related to SL and community service are conducted by employing survey instruments for data collection (Astin, 1993; Astin, 1996; Astin, 1999; Astin & Sax, 1998; Chapman & Morley, 1999; Fendrich, 1993; Fitch, 1987; Myers-Lipton, 1998; Sax & Astin, 1997; Stukas et al., 1999).

Research indicates that SL students report an increased desire to participate in community service, a deepened sense of personal responsibility to the community, and a heightened level of commitment to community service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Markus et al., 1993). It is in the best

interest of the community to impress upon students the importance of service, however, it cannot be assumed that students' service participation is automatically linked to concepts of civic responsibility (Mohan, 1994; Stukas et al., 1999). Service alone will not teach students citizenship or tolerance of others (Cohan, 1994). To gain the full benefits of SL, reflection must be incorporated into the curriculum. By incorporating reflection, students' learning will be enriched by connecting their service to their coursework (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997).

The literature that was reviewed in this chapter examined the history of experiential education and how it differs from traditional education. Also, the various ways students can serve in college, how serving benefits them, and the importance of reflection was presented. Students who participate in SL courses are exposed to an environment that provides a variety of positive outcomes. Additionally, the research stated that learning, personal development, and civic responsibility are increased when coupled with reflection. However, very little research exists that examines the associations between pedagogy, frequency and environment of reflection and civic attitudes, civic attitudes and students' characteristics, and civic attitudes and future service.