TWO-YEAR COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS USING SERVICE-LEARNING:

INTEGRATION INTO PRACTICE

By

MARCY LANE SMITH

(Under the Direction of Desna Wallin)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to understand how two-year college faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice, with particular attention paid to the nature of faculty reflection about service-learning. Four research questions guided the study: First, what motivates faculty to participate in service-learning? Second, what is the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice? Third, what is the nature of faculty reflection surrounding service-learning? And fourth, what are faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning?

This qualitative investigation involved interviews with twelve faculty members who are using service-learning in courses at two-year technical or community colleges. Participants represented a variety of academic and career or technical disciplines. Document analysis of syllabi and service-learning assignment sheets was also used as supporting evidence. Findings in the study addressed each of the four research questions, and participants also gave input regarding the role that service-learning plays in two-year colleges.

Findings of the study suggest that faculty members are initially introduced to service-learning in a variety of ways, but are motivated to continue to participate in service-learning

primarily by a belief that student learning, both academic and civic, is enhanced by participation in service-learning. Faculty members go through a similar process as they integrate service-learning into their practice, moving from a concern with logistics through a negotiation of challenges, and finally through reflection and evaluation, which leads to revision and further integration of service-learning. Findings indicated that faculty members use informal reflection, particularly conversations with colleagues, more often than more formal methods, and that their theoretical understandings of service-learning are most often framed in terms of learning, rather than of service.

Three conclusions were drawn: First, there is a five-step process through which faculty members go as they integrate service-learning into their practice; this process includes their initial introduction to service-learning, as well as the process they have gone through as they begin to use it. Second, faculty members frame both their practical and theoretical work with service-learning in terms of learning. Third, faculty reflection about service-learning is most often informal and collaborative, and is an integral part of the integration process.

INDEX WORDS: Service-Learning, Two-Year College Faculty, Reflection

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MARCY LANE SMITH

B. A., Oglethorpe University, 1990

M. S., University of Georgia, 1992

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By

MARCY LANE SMITH

Major Professor: Desna Wallin

Committee: Sharan Merriam
Lorilee Sandmann
John Schell

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
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DEDICATION

For Alex and Charlie

The best teachers I've ever had

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background

Faculty members in two-year colleges face many challenges today. Shifting demographics in higher education are altering the "who" of college teaching, and perhaps nowhere else in higher education does such diversity exist than in the two-year college. According to the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC), the average community college student is 29 years of age, and over two-thirds of two-year college students attend school part time (www.aacc.nche.edu). Due in part to lower cost and open admissions, two-year colleges have been referred to as the "gateway to postsecondary education for many minority, low income, and first-generation postsecondary education students" (www.aacc.nche.edu). Adequately meeting the learning needs of a diverse student population sparks questions about the "what, where and why" of teaching and learning for these faculty members, and they are often left wondering what to do when traditional lecture methods of teaching are not effective. Also, many two-year college instructors are experts in their chosen discipline but are often much less schooled in teaching methods and materials. And although lecture as a teaching method in higher education certainly still maintains its presence, increasing numbers of college instructors find themselves searching for ways to create significant learning experiences for students (Fink, 2003; Bain, 2004).

For increasing numbers of college instructors, *service-learning* has provided an avenue through which instruction can come alive for students. Because service-learning requires active

participation on the part of both instructors and students, it challenges traditional notions of learning and teaching in which bits of information are transmitted in one direction from teacher to student. Service-learning has received increasing attention in institutions of higher education over the past fifteen years (Eyler & Giles, 1999). As a form of experiential education, service-learning incorporates academic learning objectives with community service and reflection to deepen both the service and learning experiences. A growing body of literature (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999; Burr, 2001; Eyler, 2000; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hodge, Lewis, Kramer, & Hughes, 2001; Jones, 2002; Karayan & Gathercoal, 2005; Koth, 2003; Litke, 2002; Prentice, Robinson, & McPhee, 2003; Reardon, 1998; Sedlak, Doheny, Panthofer, & Anaya, 2003; Steinke & Buresh, 2002; Strage, 2004; Waite, 2005) finds researchers scrutinizing both the processes and outcomes of service-learning – for both students and teachers. Meanwhile, practitioners of service-learning, such as faculty members on campuses across the nation, design and implement service-learning experiences that will couple service with the academic competencies of their courses. Faculty members are widely acknowledged as being key players in both the introduction and institutionalization of service-learning in colleges (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Litke, 2002; Garcia & Robinson, 2005). In the process of discovering how to implement service-learning in their work, instructors are themselves in a position to reflect on their practice as learners as well as teachers. This study strives to examine the experiences and perceptions of two-year college faculty members as they begin to reflect on their experience incorporating service-learning into their practice.

According to the Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning (2001), the most prominent scholarly journal devoted solely to the study of service-learning, there are three central characteristics of service-learning. They are relevant and meaningful service with the

community, in which students engage in service that is meaningful both to the academic content of the course and to the community, (b) enhanced academic learning, in which academic competencies are reinforced and strengthened through an experiential learning approach that connects learning with real-world experience through reflection, and (c) purposeful civic learning, in which students gain, in addition to academic understandings, knowledge about their role in society as a whole (Howard, 2001). In essence, service-learning is a balanced approach to experiential learning that places equal weight on both service to the community and learning of students (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Prentice & Garcia, 2000). Service efforts should also meet identified community needs, and reflection is critical in helping students connect their experiences with course content and learning objectives.

What service-learning looks like may be very different from one course to the next, as the following examples illustrate. An environmental history instructor leads students in preservation efforts at the Butte Creek Ecological Preserve in northern California (Stemen, 2003). In response to a neighborhood controversy over a new transitional housing program for formerly homeless families in their community, the Community College of Aurora cooperated with the Colorado Coalition for the Homeless and the Lowry Family Center through service-learning projects in their criminal justice and paralegal training programs to provide a hotline for families located at the center, and basic legal information to families (Lisman, 1996). First year composition students at Herzberg College performed tutoring of youth as service, and then were asked to analyze their experiences in writing based on critical reviews of texts that addressed social forces such as class, race, and gender (Deans, 1999). Architecture and construction students from Oklahoma State University – Oklahoma City (a two-year college) prepared an in-depth architectural study to make recommendations for historic preservation

enhancements that could be made, and then presented their results to the city government (Burr, 1999).

Philosophical Foundations of Service-Learning

The origins of service-learning – and perhaps its future as well – lie with individuals who have questioned how learning takes place and the role of education in society. The work of John Dewey (1859-1952) is often cited as providing the philosophical basis for the pedagogy of service-learning (Giles & Eyler, 1994; Saltmarsh, 1996). Dewey emphasized the relationship between experience and learning, and the educative nature of experience as contrasted with more traditional modes of education (Dewey, 1938). David Kolb (1984), who built on the work of Dewey as well as the works of Kurt Lewin and Jean Piaget, developed a theory of experiential learning, outlined learning from experience as a cycle that begins with concrete experience, then moves through reflective observation to abstract conceptualization and experimentation. Service-learning practitioners provide concrete service experiences for students, and some scholars have used Kolb's model to understand the process through which learning happens as a result of those experiences (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Petkus, 2000; Eyler, 2002a).

More recently some service-learning theorists (Deans, 1999; Johnson-Hunter & Risku, 2003) also draw from the work of Paolo Freire, who challenged traditional "banking" models of education (Freire, 1970) and advocated education that poses problems for students to solve, which allows students to engage in critical thinking and requires them to challenge social contexts. While Dewey, Kolb and Freire focus on different aspects of the teaching-learning transaction, they each inform service-learning practice in different ways.

Two-year colleges and service-learning

The term "service-learning" is used today in both K-12 and higher education settings to describe a wide variety of activities that involve service and reflection used to engender learning on the part of students. These activities exist on a continuum from single, isolated service activities in a freshman orientation course, for example, to intensive programs that last over sustained periods of time and are highly integrated with colleges' missions and goals (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Service-learning is steadily gaining visibility in two-year colleges, thanks in part to the Broadening Horizons Project for Service Learning (Horizons) offered through the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). Horizons began in 1994 with the goal of building on existing foundations to integrate service-learning broadly throughout associate-degree granting institutions (American Association of Community Colleges, 2005). The project, through a grant program, offers technical assistance, resources and mentoring to two-year colleges interested in beginning or expanding their service-learning programs.

Two-year colleges have historically been rooted in the communities they serve and have always served a widely diverse student population. They have also focused on teaching over research. As such, these colleges have a historical context that fits well with service-learning. The community college came on the scene early in twentieth-century America as an institution that provided access to higher education, both academically and geographically, for students who otherwise would not have been able to attend college (Cohen & Brawer, 1996). Community colleges, with their connections to the communities from which they grew, "were not just *in*, they were *of*, *by*, and *for* the people in their surrounding area" (Zlotkowski, et al., 2004, p. 14). Throughout their history, community colleges have remained closely tied to their communities and are in positions across the country to become engaged with communities in service efforts.

The institutional mission of the community college is one that has at its core educational access for all, maintaining "open channels for individuals, enhancing the social mobility that has characterized America . . . and [accepting] the idea that society can be better, just as individuals can better their lot within it" (Cohen & Brawer, 1996, p. 37). Service-learning is recognized as being a comfortable fit with both the educational and service missions of community colleges (Serow, Calleson, Parker, & Morgan, 1996).

Students who enroll in two-year colleges are often first generation college students, many are of nontraditional age, and they represent a diverse population. Many two-year college students also work full time, and many come from low-income communities (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Franco, 2002; Zlotkowski et al., 2004). As Cleary (2003) indicates about community college students with whom she does service-learning at one of the City Colleges of Chicago: "These students do not need to see 'how the other half lives.' They are 'the other half'" (p. 56). Service-learning as an experiential learning strategy "is particularly pertinent for [community college] students, many of whom are intimidated by the classroom and have more confidence in their ability to succeed in the 'real world'" (Cleary, 2003, p. 59). Given student populations in community colleges, the goals of service-learning may take on dimensions that are not present – at least in some degree – in their four-year counterparts. This study strives to examine some of these dimensions of service-learning in two-year colleges, particularly related to how two-year faculty members address such differences when fostering service-learning with students.

Faculty Participation in Service Learning

In order for service-learning to become a part of the fabric of an institution, faculty members must be committed to using it (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Prentice, 2003; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). There are a variety of factors that encourage faculty members to engage

in service learning. According to McKay and Rozee (2004), faculty members who participate in service-learning often have characteristics that are similar, such as a tendency toward innovations and a desire to create environments that are optimal for student learning ("Service Learning Engages Students," 2004; McKay & Rozee, 2004). Being asked by other faculty members to try service-learning is another factor that has been identified as a reason that faculty members begin using service learning (Levine, 1994; Abes, Jackson & Jones, 2002; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003; Hayden, 2004). Garcia and Robinson (2005) found that the primary factor that motivated two-year college faculty to participate in service-learning was the presence of a service-learning coordinator, and that students' increased learning of core competencies and understanding of social problems and social change were also important. Faculty members may also be motivated by their own perceptions that student learning – both academic and personal – will be enhanced through the use of service-learning (Bringle, Hatcher & Games, 1997; Abes, et al., 2002; Hayden, 2004). A personal sense of community engagement and civic responsibility on the part of faculty members is also important in motivating them to participate in service-learning (Holland, 1999; Hayden, 2004). Regardless of the reasons for which faculty members begin using service-learning, they are using it in increasing numbers in two-year colleges across the country. Current estimates are that half of the more than 1,200 two-year colleges in the United States offer service-learning (American Association of Community Colleges, 2005). The question that remains is, given what certainly are varying levels of support from institutions, in what ways are faculty members using service-learning, and how are they learning to use it? More research is needed in the areas of faculty experience in service-learning, as well as the costs of service-learning to faculty (Bulot & Johnson, 2007).

Reflection

One of the critical elements of service-learning is reflection. Reflection is widely recognized as that which bridges service experiences and learning in service-learning; Eyler (2001) asserts that if students are to truly realize potential benefits of service-learning such as "deeper understanding of subject matter, critical thinking, and perspective transformation, intensive and continuous reflection is necessary" (p. 35). In fact, there has been great attention paid in the service-learning literature to understanding the role of reflection in service-learning and helping faculty members effectively lead students in reflection activities (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Cooper, 1998; Eyler, 2001; Eyler, 2002b; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Litke, 2002). The type or structure of reflection activities has also been found to influence whether a service-learning activity will be "educative and lead to new ways of thinking and acting, or miseducative and reinforce existing schemata and stereotypes" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999). Faculty members, too, are encouraged to be reflective in their own service-learning work (Franklin, 2000) and to critically reflect on their own assumptions about service-learning (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999). However, the majority of research conducted in service-learning has been on measuring student reflection and learning outcomes (Kiely, 2005), not looking at faculty reflection. As part of the process that faculty members go through as they use service-learning, this study will examine the reflection of faculty members in two-year colleges who are using service-learning.

Statement of the Problem

Service learning involves integrating community service elements with academic curriculum to enhance student learning. When successful, there is overwhelming and consistent evidence that service learning opportunities can strengthen both academic achievement and civic engagement on the part of students who participate in service learning opportunities (Eyler &

Giles, 1999; Prentice & Garcia, 2000; Franco, 2002; Koth, 2003; Weglarz & Seybert, 2004). When successful, faculty members (Hodge et al., 2001; Stemen, 2003; Weglarz & Seybert, 2004), institutions and communities all benefit (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Allen, 2003; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). A number of factors have been identified as important to the success and sustainability of service learning initiatives. The commitment of faculty members to service-learning and the use of reflection in service-learning are viewed as being essential (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Litke, 2002; Garcia & Robinson, 2005).

While all institutions of higher education have the opportunity to provide service-learning experiences to students, "community colleges are in a perfect position to address the need for civic engagement through their mission to play an active role in the communities they serve" (Hodge, et. al., p. 677). Since community colleges enroll 44% of all undergraduates and are more affordable and accessible than four-year institutions for many students (Franco, 2002), examining the experience of faculty who design and implement service-learning in two-year colleges is an important task, especially given that service-learning enhances student academic achievement, personal growth and civic engagement. According to the American Association of Community Colleges (2005), half of the two-year colleges in the United States offer service-learning, and on average, colleges that provide service-learning offer it in 18 different courses annually and involve 424 students in service-learning projects (Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). Whether service-learning is broadly institutionalized, or whether individual faculty members begin using it on their own, there is very little research on why and how faculty members begin using service learning, and what their experiences are as they go through the process of adopting service-learning in their courses (Abes, et al., 2002; Hayden, 2004; Holland, 1999; Howard, 2001; Levine, 1994; McKay & Rozee, 2004). While previous studies have identified some of the

factors that may influence whether or not faculty members adopt service-learning as a teaching method, (Abes, et al., 2002; Hayden, 2004; Holland, 1999; Levine, 1994; McKay & Rozee, 2004;), less is known about the experiences of faculty members as they incorporate service learning into their coursework. Also, while much emphasis is placed on reflection as an integral part of service-learning experiences for students (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, 2001), there is a need for research that examines how faculty members reflect on their service-learning experiences and practice.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to understand how two-year college faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice, with particular attention paid to the nature of faculty reflection about service-learning.

The study will address four primary questions:

1. What motivates faculty to participate in service-learning?
2. What is the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice?
3. What is the nature of faculty reflection surrounding service-learning?
4. What are faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning?

Significance of the Study

The success and quality of service-learning teaching and learning depends largely on faculty who are responsible for planning and evaluating service-learning coursework. While college administrators play a vital role in the institutionalization of service-learning in two-year colleges, without the participation of knowledgeable and willing faculty members, service-learning would simply not be possible. Research on service-learning courses initiated by two-

year college faculty members is scant and the service-learning field would benefit from studies that increase our understanding of why faculty members choose to use service-learning, how they understand service-learning to fit with their teaching practices theoretically, and in what ways they utilize reflection in their own experiences with service-learning.

This study is significant because it seeks to examine the processes that faculty members go through as they integrate service-learning into their teaching practices so that those processes may be more fully understood and facilitated. This study is also significant because it attempts to investigate how two-year college faculty members engage in reflection around their service-learning practice, in hopes that mechanisms that support reflective practice might be recommended. This study will contribute to an understanding of the faculty experience in service-learning, including their motivations for using service-learning as well as challenges they face when implementing service-learning. This study will also contribute to an awareness of ways in which faculty development opportunities surrounding service-learning can be enhanced to provide appropriate support to faculty members who implement service-learning.

Operational Definitions of Terms

Service-Learning: As used in the present study, service-learning can be defined as a pedagogy that combines service to the community with academic coursework and some form of reflection.

Two-year colleges: In this study, two year colleges are those which offer the associate degree as the highest degree awarded. Community and Technical colleges both fall into this category.

Faculty members: As used in this study, faculty members are individuals who teach in two-year colleges, whether in career or technical courses, or general education courses.

Reflection: In this study the term reflection is used to indicate both reflection done by students (and led by faculty members) as a part of service-learning experiences, and reflection done by faculty members about their own experiences using service-learning. As used by service-learning practitioners, reflection might include such items as debriefing exercises, class discussions, journals, reflection papers or dialogue.

Critical reflection, a term also used in this study, indicates reflection which "involves a critique of the assumptions on which our beliefs have been built" (Mezirow, 1990a, p. 1).

Summary

Advocates of service-learning contend that it has tremendous potential to offer positive outcomes for students, faculty, institutions of higher education and the communities they serve. Faculty members are widely recognized as the key to successful implementation of service-learning, as well as its institutionalization in two-year colleges. In an effort to better understand the phenomenon of faculty participation with service-learning, this study strives to scrutinize the processes through which faculty members become involved with service-learning and incorporate it into their practice as teachers. This study will examine faculty motivation for participation in service-learning, the process that faculty members go through as they integrate service-learning into their practice, the nature of reflection that faculty members engage in surrounding their service-learning practice, and the ways in which faculty members theoretically conceptualize service-learning.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Service-learning has garnered significant attention in higher education over the past fifteen years. As a pedagogy which blends service, academics, reflection and civic engagement (Garcia, 2004), service-learning has been both celebrated and challenged for its contrast with traditional approaches to learning. With increased pressure for academic accountability at all levels of education, as well as widespread concerns about the erosion of community and civic responsibility in American society, service-learning advocates find themselves being called upon for answers to very serious questions about the impact of service-learning on academic achievement (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, 2000; Howard, Gelmon, & Giles, 2000; Litke, 2002; Sedlak et. al., 2003; Steinke & Buresh, 2002; Strage, 2004). As a group, faculty members who utilize service-learning in their courses possess useful practical knowledge about what works in service-learning, yet as a field we know very little about their knowledge of service-learning or the process that faculty engage in to learn from their practice. Additionally, because of the ways in which two-year colleges are distinctly different in many ways from four-year colleges and universities, two-year college faculty are in a unique position with respect to service-learning as well. These faculty members experience challenges and opportunities that often differ from those faced by their counterparts in four-year institutions when implementing service-learning in their courses. The purpose of this study is to understand how two-year college faculty members

integrate service-learning into their practice, with particular attention paid to the nature of faculty reflection about service-learning.

In the following section existing literature in five areas will be addressed which will lay the groundwork for the present study. First, in order to define and understand "service-learning" adequately, it is imperative to have working knowledge of both definitions and understandings of service-learning as it appears in higher education today, as well as some of the philosophical traditions from which service-learning has grown. Thus, definitions and philosophical foundations of service-learning will be outlined in the first section, followed closely by a discussion of current theoretical models of service-learning. Also, because the current study examines service-learning in two-year colleges, a discussion of service-learning as it exists in two-year colleges will also be included in this section. Second, a growing body of literature exists which touts the benefits of service-learning and positive outcomes associated with service-learning participation for students, faculty members, colleges and communities. The inclusion of this body of literature is intended to capture some of the current thinking about the importance of service-learning and its potential functions in education as a whole. There continues to be some debate surrounding what the most important benefits of service learning are, and a basic understanding of this controversy will inform the present study, particularly as it impacts how faculty members think about their practice. Third, because this study has as its focus faculty members who use service-learning, issues of key importance are both literature surrounding faculty members who use service-learning, including motivators and deterrents to service-learning participation for faculty, as well as characteristics, roles and responsibilities of two-year college faculty members. Literature will be addressed related to both of these areas and specifically relevant to faculty members in two-year colleges. Fourth, reflection holds a central

role in service-learning, and is widely acknowledged as a cornerstone of service-learning practice especially as it relates to student reflection. I will summarize service-learning literature around reflection in order to capture what service-learning theorists and practitioners mean when they talk about reflection.

The fifth area of literature in this chapter is a departure of sorts from service-learning literature and will focus instead on literature surrounding reflective practice in adult education. Although service-learning practitioners use the term "reflection" often, what is meant by reflection in that context is somewhat different than what is meant by adult educators who talk about reflection and reflective practice. I will examine literature in this area as it informs the present study, and attempt to make vital connections between this literature and the work of service-learning educators.

The following databases were used during this literature search: ERIC, Academic Search Premier, and Professional Development Collection at EBSCO Host, Dissertation Abstracts at ProQuest and Education Abstracts at ProQuest.

Service-Learning Foundations

Today, many administrators and instructors in institutions of higher education are plagued with a nagging sense that their traditional campus-based instructional methods are not capable of engendering the type of learning that really counts – learning how to think critically and solve complex problems in real life contexts. They also wrestle with understanding their civic role in society and the communities they serve. Service-learning is widely appealing as a response to these concerns, due in part to its origin in active and experiential learning and its focus on civic engagement (Zlotkowski & Saltmarsh, 2004). In the following section,

philosophical underpinnings of service-learning will be addressed, as well as theoretical models and definitions of service-learning as it exists today.

Philosophical Foundations

The work of John Dewey (1859-1952) is often cited as providing a philosophical basis for the pedagogy of service-learning. Linkages between Dewey's ideas and the tenets that underlie service-learning are readily apparent. In the first place, Dewey began a dialogue about the role of experience in education, and what types and under what conditions experience is likely to lead to learning. Dewey (1938) called for a reformulation of education that was appropriate for democratic society, one that places an emphasis on a person's ability to become an active, participatory citizen, rather than a passive receptor of information (Harkavy & Benson, 1998). This call for a new, progressive system of education asserted an "intimate and necessary relation between the processes of actual experience and education" (Dewey, 1938, p. 20). He was also careful in explaining that "mere activity does not constitute experience" (Dewey, 1916, p. 139), and that the "*measure of the value* of an experience lies in the perception of relationships or continuities to which it leads up" (Dewey, 1916, p. 140). In his plea for progressive education, in contrast with traditional methods of education, Dewey (1938) asserted that the experiences of an individual are "educative": when they build on previous experiences and involve interaction between learner and environment. Traditional modes of education tended, according to Dewey (1938), to engender the acquisition of pieces of information in isolation from the experiences of the learner, and in isolation from the others in the environment, and thus were less likely to be truly "educative," or able to be transferred to new situations. This examination of an experience and the conditions under which an experience may or may not lead to learning is a prevalent idea in service-learning scholarship today; in fact, "Dewey's focus on the iteration between thought

and experience is the touchstone for most service-learning practitioners" (Eyler & Giles, 1999, p. 194). Dewey's contribution to service-learning is considered by many to be his "showing that student experience is at the center of education and that student experience is both a process (the process of interacting with a learning environment) and an outcome (what results from these interactions)" (Carver, 1997, p. 145).

Dewey (1910) also stressed that action and thinking are linked through reflective thinking, and that reflective thinking serves as an impetus for deeper levels of inquiry, which in turn stimulate deeper levels of thinking and learning. As Dewey (1910) defined it, reflective thought is "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p. 6). Reflective thinking bridges the gap between something that is experienced, and the learning that is a result of that experience. It requires a person to make connections between something that is experienced, and the significance of that experience, both in terms of the understanding of existing ideas and its application in subsequent situations. This view of reflection can be seen in conceptualizations of service-learning practice today: "Reflective inquiry is at the core of service-learning, creating meaning out of associational experience" (Saltmarsh, 1996, p. 18).

The ideas of community and collaborative learning are also an emphasis in Dewey's work (1916, 1938). He believed that education needed to be connected to the community, in fact that a teacher should "become intimately acquainted with the conditions of the local community . . . in order to utilize them as educational resources" (Dewey, 1938, p. 40). He also declared that classroom communities can model positive aspects of community living. In asserting that educative experiences involve interaction with materials and people, Dewey (1938) also

recognized the importance of "easy and ready contact and communication with others" (p. 60). Service-learning, too, prioritizes connections with the community, and social development and leadership skills of students (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Dewey (1938) also wrestled with the purpose of education, both for the individual and for society. He asserted that education, and those who have the courage to call themselves educators, must prepare individuals to live in a complicated world, and that rote memorization of information falls far short of what is truly education (Dewey, 1938). He questioned the value of education that neglects teaching an individual to process and understand future experiences in favor of the accumulation of bits of information:

> What avail is it to win prescribed amounts of information about geography and history, to win ability to read and write, if in the process the individual loses his own soul: loses his appreciation of things worth while, of the values to which these things are relative; if he loses desire to apply what he has learned and, above all, loses the ability to extract meaning from his future experiences as they occur? (Dewey, 1938, p. 49)

The most important attitude that can be developed, according to Dewey (1938), "is that of desire to go on learning" (p. 48), and that attitude will enable an individual to cope with, and learn from experiences throughout a lifetime.

Dewey (1916) spoke about the social and societal purposes of education as well. Education in society should not be for the purpose of maintaining existing structures, but rather should be "men consciously striving to educate their successors not for the existing state of affairs but so as to make possible a future better humanity" (p. 95). Education has social aims, and individual development must be directed toward those aims. These critically important questions about the role of education in society continue to be asked today, and that must be

addressed by those who embrace service-learning as an approach to teaching and learning. Advocates of service-learning recognize the need for intentional integration of education for future civic engagement in service-learning opportunities, and for a "better understanding of the importance and complexities of civic responsibility" (Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002, p. 6).

Building on Dewey's idea that experience is central to learning, David Kolb (1984) defined learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience" (p. 38). He explained the *process* of learning from experience as a four-stage cycle that begins with concrete experience, moves to reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and finally to active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). In order for learning to occur, each of these four must be present: experience alone is not enough to cause learning, nor is reflective observation without something to reflect upon (Kolb, 1984). This cycle serves as a basis for many service-learning models that begin with having a service experience, then stepping back from that experience and reflecting on it, then connecting the knowledge gained with existing ideas and knowledge such as information in course texts or materials, and then applying gained knowledge again in a process of active experimentation (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Petkus, 2000; Eyler, 2002a). Kolb (1984) goes on to assert that experience is "the process by which development occurs" (p. 132), and that rather than being separate from experience, development is the result of experience. Kolb's model has played an important part in understanding *how* learning results from experience, a concept that is at the heart of service-learning. Also, Kolb (1984) speaks specifically about the value of experientially based programs in higher education, and the "learning/ development payoff of such a mix of academic and practical training" (Hursh & Borzak, 1979, as cited in Kolb, 1984, p. 207). Kolb's model further suggests that "experiential approaches accommodate students with different learning styles better than

traditional didactic methodologies" (Cone & Harris, 1996, p. 33). Many service-learning practitioners have recognized this, and acknowledge that "offering service learning to students also gives an instructor an easy way of providing a vehicle for all learning styles to be addressed in the course" (Prentice & Garcia, 2000, pp. 24-25).

While Kolb's (1984) model has certainly emerged as a dominant way of describing experiential learning, other models have been presented as well (Kiely, 2005). In an effort to expand understandings of experiential learning beyond those that rely heavily on reflection, Fenwick (2000) summarizes five perspectives on experiential learning: reflection (with which we are most familiar); interference, in which unconscious interferes with conscious ideas and learning occurs as those conflicts are resolved; participation, in which knowledge is viewed to be part of participation in a situation; resistance, in which learning and development occur as a result of resisting mechanisms of cultural power, and co-emergence, in which a learner and the environment are understood to be linked and to be enacting on each other in the process of learning and development. Being aware that there are different ways to conceptualize experiential learning is important for understanding not only the experiential learning models that two-year college faculty members draw from in guiding their service-learning practice, but also how they learn from their experience integrating service-learning into their practice.

Another scholar whose work has shaped the philosophical frameworks within which many service-learning scholars operate is Paulo Freire (1921 – 1997). Freire (1970) was a Brazilian literacy educator, and many of his important ideas have contributed to the philosophical underpinnings of service-learning (Deans, 1999). Certainly similarities between the ideas of Dewey and Freire have been noted, particularly their common views of the educational process as "bringing action and reflection, theory and practice, means and ends, self

and society into . . . relationships on both the cognitive and social levels" (Deans, 1999, p. 20). Freire, however, views education in relation to political power, and frames his observations of education within a dominant (and oppressive) social order. His ideas take into consideration "culture, class and race – factors which Dewey largely sidesteps when speaking of students" (Deans, 1999, p. 20).

In redefining the roles of student and teacher, Freire (1970) contrasts the "banking" approach to education, in which the teacher "makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat" (p. 58) with what he calls "problem posing" education, in which teachers must "abandon the educational goal of deposit-making and replace it with the posing of the problems of men in their relations with the world" (p. 66). This fundamental shift in understanding of how education happens requires that teachers reject "the vertical patterns characteristic of banking education" and understand that students and teachers become "jointly responsible for a process in which they all grow" (Freire, 1970, p. 67).

> Service-learning pedagogy rejects the banking model of education, where the downward transference of information from knowledgeable teachers to passive students is conducted in 45-minute increments. It subverts the notion of classroom as graveyard – rows and rows of silent bodies – for an active pedagogy committed to connecting theory and practice, schools and community, the cognitive and the ethical (Butin, 2003, p. 1675).

Freire questioned, as Dewey did, the role of education in society, and believed that traditional "banking" education, which reinforces the perpetuation of the dominant social order, must be critically examined in order for change to be brought about: "The banking method emphasizes permanence and becomes reactionary; problem-posing education – which accepts neither a 'well-behaved' present nor a predetermined future – roots itself in the dynamic present

and becomes revolutionary" (Freire, 1970, p. 72). In this way, education connects students with the world, and allows them to gain new information within a larger context, and question rather than passively accept new information; thus education allows students to become more critical of existing social structures.

Finally, Freire deals with reflection and action with his concept of praxis, or "the action and reflection of men upon their world in order to transform it" (Freire, 1970, p. 66). In this case, reflection and action are both viewed as essential, but are understood to be instruments for transforming the world, rather than merely to enhance individual understanding. What Freire has contributed to service-learning scholarship is an understanding that education should encourage reflective action and address real-world problems. Service-learning scholars have connected with Freire's work and continue to make connections between his ideas and the work of service-learning (Deans, 1999; Kiely, 2004; Butin, 2003). Service-learning projects that "pair critical consciousness aims with concrete social action are a fitting manifestation of Freire's theory in practice" (Deans, 1999, p. 22).

The philosophical roots of service-learning, then, have been planted by those who have understood that learning happens – and deepens – when it occurs in contexts that are based in real experiences and interactions with both people and materials. The intuitive appeal that service-learning has for many is its understanding of these fundamental concepts about teaching and learning. Service-learning as an experiential approach to education runs contrary to many notions held dear by proponents of traditional modes of education. For example, "broadening the learning environment beyond the instructor's purview is clearly contrary to standard pedagogical operating procedures" (Howard, 1998, p. 23).

Scholars are recognizing that "even when learners have acquired some conceptual understanding of a discipline or field, they are often unable to link that knowledge to real-world situations or problem-solving contexts" (Bain, 2004, p. 24). Placing service-learning in an even larger context of educational reform, service-learning has offered for many a glimpse of the immense potential of education – and educators – to reach beyond the limits of teaching subject matter, and instead teach students how to think deeply and critically, and to apply learning to addressing social problems in real life contexts (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Theoretical Models of Service-Learning Today

There appears to be some general consensus about basic necessary components of service-learning. In order for service-learning to occur, students must engage in service that is relevant and meaningful, both to the course being taken and to the community being served. In the first place, service should not be an "add-on," but must be directly related to course objectives (Weigart, 1998; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Howard, 2001; Prentice & Garcia, 2000). The service should also be relevant and meaningful to the community being served, and meet an identified community need (Allen, 2003; Weigart, 1998; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Howard, 2001; Prentice & Garcia, 2000). There must be avenues by which community members can communicate what their needs are, so that service experiences can meet needs identified by the community, rather than by the college or university (Weigart, 1998). Reflection, too, is viewed as an essential component of service-learning experiences (Weigart, 1998; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Howard, 2001; Prentice & Garcia, 2000).

Different theoretical models exist, however, that propose different ideas about what the purpose and intended outcomes of service-learning should be. Questions such as "Is 'service' always a good thing?" "Do service experiences reinforce existing stereotypes?" and "What

should the outcomes of service experiences be, both for students and for the community?" come to the forefront, and are framing the dialogue in higher education about service-learning today. Based on answers to those questions, different models have emerged. For example, Morton (1995) identified three "paradigms" of service-learning. These are (a) service as charity, which views service as "helping" those who are less fortunate (b) service as project, which involves channeling resources in the most effective ways and getting something done in partnership with community agencies, and (c) service as social change, in which service leads to individual and community change.

Kahne and Westheimer (1996) spoke about two service-learning orientations, one of change and one of charity, and they also make the distinction between moral, political and intellectual goals of service-learning practitioners. Within the moral domain, service activities may be separated into two types of relationships: those that emphasize charity are called "giving" and those that emphasize deepening relationships are called "caring" (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996). Within the political domain, service-learning activities serve either to "demonstrate the value of altruism and the dangers of exclusive self-interest" (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996, p. 594), or to move students toward "critical reflection about social policies and conditions, the acquisition of skills of political participation, and the formation of social bonds" (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996, p. 594). Finally, according to Kahne and Westheimer (1996), service learning should be recognized for its potential to "promote powerful learning environments" (p. 595).

Butin (2003) identified four "conceptualizations" of service-learning within the larger context of educational innovations: (a) the technical perspective, which emphasizes "efficacy, quality, efficiency, and sustainability of both the process and the outcome" (p. 1679) of service-

learning, (b) a cultural perspective, which focuses on "individuals' meaning making within and through" (p. 1680) service-learning, including attention to acculturation and both local and global communities, (c) a political perspective, which examines "competing constituencies and how these issues are manifest through power (im)balances, questions of legitimacy, allowed or silenced perspectives, and negations over neutrality/ objectivity" (p. 1681), and (d) a poststructuralist perspective that is concerned with "how an innovation [service-learning] constructs, reinforces, or disrupts particular unarticulated societal norms of being and thinking" (p. 1683).

Problems with the first paradigm identified by Morton, service as charity, seem readily apparent: service experiences in this model communicate to students that service is something to be done by "us," who have resources and power and privilege to "them," who do not. In cases such as these, it is possible that service-learning experience might actually reinforce the stereotypes and assumptions students brought into the classroom (Jones, 2002). Many service-learning practitioners recognize the dangers inherent in thinking about service in this way. Howard (2001) emphasizes that "failure to submit to this principle [of developing service *with* the community] will lead to service that is impositional and that may reinforce stereotypes and prejudices for students, and to partnerships that are less likely to be sustained" (p. 24). Interaction within the charity model of service-learning is often one-way – from helper to recipient of help (Franklin, 2000).

The second model identified by Morton, service-learning as projects, seems to be prevalent – projects to clean up a river bed or create a newsletter for a community organization or organize a clothing drive for a homeless shelter. When participating in experiences such as these, students are likely to develop communication and leadership skills, view their own "civic

engagement" in deeper ways, and increase support of local agencies. However, in this model existing social structures are presumed to be doing the right thing, and the problem that is addressed through projects is that all people don't have access to them equally (Morton, 1995). Projects are often designed to address those inequities, rather than to challenge social structures and examine their contributions to inequities present in society. Butin's (2003) first conceptualization of service-learning – the technical perspective – also emphasizes certain aspects of the charity and project approach.

Finally, in contrast to a project model of service-learning, a social change model examines the inequities mentioned above, and works to change social structures and institutions that perpetuate inequities and oppression. Service-learning experiences in this model prioritize relationships with community members and empowering people to protect what they value (Morton, 1995). Working within this model, instructors might plan participatory action research projects in conjunction with a community (Giles & Eyler, 1998; Reardon, 1998), or other community advocacy and organization efforts that "require a critique of power relations and knowledge of the culture of social change" (Franklin, 2000, p. 28). There are numerous advantages to this model, not the least of which is that existing social structures are examined and critiqued rather than taken for granted. Likewise, Butin's (2003) political and poststructuralist conceptualizations, as well as Kahne and Westheimer's (1996) second political notion of service-learning share this advantage as well. It is important to note, according to Morton (1995), that each of the paradigms can be done in either "thin" or "thick" versions. While "thin" versions are often implemented without integrity and may "raise false expectations, inflame social divisions and leave people tired and cynical" (p. 28), "thick" versions of each

paradigm “are grounded in deeply held, internally coherent values” and as such any of the three can result in meaningful service for everyone who is involved.

A number of service-learning scholars question whether these three paradigms or other conceptualizations of service-learning operate on a continuum (Giles & Eyler, 1994; Morton, 1995; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002), with the charity model on one end, the social change model on the other, and the project model falling somewhere in between. Morton (1995) also questions whether individuals, perhaps both students and faculty members, move along a continuum of service in a developmental fashion, beginning with an “immature” idea of service in the beginning, and through service move to more “mature” ideas of service and social action. Recently, Wang and Jackson (2005) found that while the charity orientation toward service prevailed among students, participation in service-learning experiences can help students develop toward a social justice orientation. If this is to happen, “service-learning courses must be very intentionally designed to develop students’ social justice perspective” (Wang & Jackson, 2005, p. 46). Mitchell (2007) asserts that in order to move students toward a social justice perspective through service learning experiences, educators should do such things as take intentional steps to bring intentional focus to issues of justice, focus writing opportunities on service and the broader social context, encourage prolonged service experiences that move toward progressively deeper action, provide exposure to issues of marginalization and oppression and support students where they are and “affirm the commitments they are able and willing to make” (p. 110). There is another view that different models of service-learning are separate, and perhaps overlapping, ideas (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996; Franklin, 2000; Butin, 2003). Kahne and Westheimer (1996) assert that it is important to understand the “goals and

motivations that underlie the spectrum of service-learning projects emerging in schools throughout the country" (p. 598**).**

Finally, it has also been suggested that individuals have a primary model within which they operate most of the time (Franklin, 2000), and that "while we can do work across these paradigms, we are most at home in one or another, and interpret what we do according to the standards of the one in which we are most at home" (Morton, 1995, p. 29). At present, it seems fair only to say that these models of service-learning pervade both scholarship and practice in the area of service-learning, and these questions are ones that service-learning advocates wrestle with in trying to understand their practice. This last idea of a primary service orientation is one that will be addressed in more detail later. It has implications for understanding how theoretical models impact faculty practice in service-learning.

Service-Learning in Two-Year Colleges

According to a 2003 survey by the American Association of Community Colleges, nine out of ten community colleges that responded to the survey report that they either offer or are interested in offering service-learning, and only 10% indicate no interest in service-learning (Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). Perhaps this prevalence of service-learning by two-year colleges is result of the local missions of community colleges, who have traditionally been closely aligned with the communities which they serve (DiMaria, 2006). In addition, in 1994 the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) received a grant from the Corporation for National Service "to strengthen the service-learning infrastructure within and across community colleges, and to help train faculty members in skills needed to develop effective service-learning opportunities" (AACC, 2007). The project that AACC developed in order to do this was the Service Learning Project, renamed "Broadening Horizons through Service-

Learning" in 1997. Since its inception, forty competitively selected colleges from across the country have participated in the Horizons Service-Learning Project through AACC; as Horizons members, these schools have received technical assistance, faculty development and administrative support designed to facilitate the institutionalization of service-learning at those institutions.

Outcomes of Service-Learning

By far the greatest attention has been paid in service-learning literature to identifying the benefits of service learning programs – for students, for faculty members, for institutions and for communities (Astin, et al., 1999; Eyler, 2000; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Karayan & Gathercoal, 2005; Malone, Jones, & Stallings, 2002; Pribbenow, 2005; Sedlak et al., 2003; Steinke & Buresh, 2002; Strage, 2004; Strain, 2005; Waite, 2005). As a relatively new approach to teaching and learning, it stands to reason that early research efforts would focus on "proving" its effectiveness (Eyler, 2000; Kiely, 2005). In most institutions of higher education, it would be difficult for service-learning advocates to leverage support for programs that are not connected in some way to positive outcomes for students, or at least to positive outcomes for the institution itself (Eyler, 2000). As a result, the discussion about outcomes of service-learning is ongoing, with researchers focusing heavily on demonstrating tangible results of participation in service-learning programs (Kiely, 2005). The following section, will provide a summary of some research to date that addresses outcomes for students, institutions, and communities. In setting the stage for examining faculty members' participation in service-learning it is necessary to examine the environment in which most faculty members work – one that increasingly holds them accountable for outcomes on a variety of levels.

Outcomes for Students

By far the largest body of research that exists about service-learning has examined what students get out of service learning, and in what ways they benefit from participation in service-learning experiences (Eyler et. al., 2001). Perhaps the most cited of these is that service-learning has been found to increase students' awareness of community needs, appreciation of differences among people, awareness of the impact individuals can have on their communities and a desire for active participation as socially responsible citizens (Franco, 2002; Koth, 2003; Weglarz & Seybert, 2004; Simons & Cleary, 2006). Franco (2002) asserts that community colleges may in fact be better positioned to help students realize these benefits than universities, due to the diversity and life experiences that community college students bring to the table. Service-learning is also frequently advanced as an antidote to civic disengagement, and particularly among young people, the idea being that a primary purpose of colleges and universities is to prepare students for lives as active and engaged citizens (Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002). Social and emotional outcomes of service-learning have also been cited often. Prentice and Garcia (2000) include as benefits of service-learning improved interpersonal and human relations skills and enhanced self-concept as a result of students having "an impact through their active and meaningful contribution to their communities" (p. 23). Eyler and Giles (1999) also found that students recognize the value of service-learning in their own understanding of themselves. Strain (2005) uses examples from numerous service-learning classes to illustrate the contributions that service-learning makes to students' moral development. He contrasts those service-learning experiences with other classroom processes: "the situations that we place students in when we teach service-learning classes have the power to evoke moral sensitivity and seriousness far better than concocting moral dilemmas or than my raising questions based on even the best

readings" (p. 65). Bell, Horn, and Roxas (2007), in a service-learning program with pre-service teachers, found that when service-learning experiences included instructors seeing students in multiple contexts, doing activities with non-traditional power dynamics and connecting ideas to teaching and learning, students were more likely to develop "more complex understandings of diversity" (p. 130).

Cognitive and academic benefits for students are often the benefits that are most attractive to faculty members who are considering using service learning. In a summative article about engagement in the university, Hollander and Saltmarsh (2000) assert that students who participate in service-learning will receive benefits such as a reduction of negative stereotypes and increase in tolerance for diversity, greater self-knowledge, greater spiritual growth, increased desire to include service to others in career plans, increased leadership and increased connection to the community. Academic benefits may include career development benefits such as being able to have a realistic preview of job responsibilities through community service (Prentice & Garcia, 2000; Weyglarz & Seybert, 2004; Baldwin, Buchanan, & Rudisill, 2007), or improved content knowledge (Stemen, 2003). Strage (2004) found that students who participate in service-learning experiences earned higher grades than non-service-learning students. Eyler and Giles (1999) identified a number of cognitive and academic outcomes of service-learning, including increased solution complexity, increased application of issue knowledge, increased strategic knowledge, and better understanding of course materials. Critical thinking skills have also been identified as a benefit of service-learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Sedlak et al., 2003). In a study of service-learning in a teacher education program, Baldwin et al. (2007) found that service-learning positively affected teacher candidates' dispositions toward teaching in diverse settings, and helped them examine long-held attitudes toward diversity. Newman, Bruyere, & Beh,

(2007), in their research with service-learning projects in a natural resource leadership program, found that service-learning projects helped students become aware of leadership traits such as trust and empowerment; interestingly, though, students did not demonstrate behavioral changes in their own leadership styles even in the face of increased knowledge about leadership traits. Kronick (2007), in his work with engineering students doing service learning, asserts that students who do service-learning from fields that do not lead to a career in human services become better attuned to the needs of their communities, and even though they may not be employed in a service-related field, may be more likely to contribute on a volunteer basis to their community as a result of their service experiences. Additionally, Kiely (2004) provides a conceptual framework for "understanding how students experience multiple forms of perspective transformation over time" (pp. 15-16) based on his work with an international service-learning project in Nicaragua. He found that students underwent transformations to their worldviews and lifestyles (Kiely, 2004).

Outcomes for Faculty

While students may be the most obvious beneficiaries of service-learning outcomes, faculty members who use service-learning benefit as well (Hayden, 2004; Hodge et al., 2001; "Service Learning Engages Students," 2004; Weglarz & Seybert, 2004). Participating in service-learning is often a "way for [faculty members] to get excited about their jobs and really [be engaged] in what they [are] doing" and to feel rejuvenated in their teaching ("Service Learning Engages Students," 2004). In a study done with community college faculty members who use service-learning, faculty members reported that service-learning experiences had been "professionally revitalizing" and that they gave an opportunity to model lifelong learning for students (Hodge et al., 2001).

In addition to personal benefits of service-learning for faculty members, faculty members also believe in the academic benefits of service-learning for students, and the perception of student learning can be a benefit for them as well (Hayden, 2004). Weglarz and Seybert (2004) found that over half of faculty in their study cited "allows for practical application of theory/ course content" as an advantage of service-learning (p. 125). Faculty members also rated student development in all areas of development (social/ interpersonal, personal, career choice/ development, intellectual development, and development of civic responsibility) between "important" and "very important" outcomes of service-learning (Weglarz & Seybert, 2004). In a study with 368 human sciences/ Family and Consumer Sciences faculty members, including both service-learning faculty and non-service-learning faculty, Banarjee and Hausafus (2007) found that all faculty, regardless of whether or not they were using service-learning, perceived it as a "value-added teaching strategy" p. 36). This study also indicated that "student learning outcomes were most important in faculty's decision to use service-learning" (Banarjee & Hausafus, 2007). Also, Prentice and Garcia (2000) found that career and technical program instructors believed that service-learning helped instill students with understandings of professionalism, engaging with the community in their professional area, and investigating potential career options. In the words of one environmental studies faculty member who uses service learning in his environmental history course:

> Service learning is hard work, but it pays great dividends in learning opportunities. The best ones often arise unexpectedly. At the end of the semester controversy erupted on our preserve when the time came to use a chainsaw. Gray pines are native to the preserve, but they had expanded outside their characteristic range by following the mine tailings from the upland terrace into the riparian channel. When our restoration crew began to

> remove some gray pines to plant California sycamores, neighbors complained. I could not have created a better example of the issues involved in attempting to restore nature. In a heated discussion peppered with the terms "nature, native, and natural," students got a clear understanding of how the meanings of words are socially constructed, and how powerful those meanings can be in trying to deal with the environmental history of a landscape. The discussion convinced me that to plant is to think. (Stemen, 2003, p. 77)

Outcomes for Institutions and Communities

Students and faculty members are not the only ones to benefit from service-learning. It has been determined that institutions see increased recruitment and retention rates when, through service-learning, students are more socially and academically engaged in their colleges (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hodge et al., 2001; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). Interestingly enough, Astin, et al. (1999) found that participating in service during college was associated with higher levels of donating money to one's alma mater after graduation. Community colleges, too, as their name would indicate, must necessarily maintain vital connections with the communities they serve (Zlotkowski et al., 2004); service-learning can provide a community link that increases visibility of the college in the community, and increases the community's trust in the college.

According to Campus Compact (2004), service-learning students participate in a wide variety of community service initiatives such as tutoring, mentoring, health initiatives, environmental initiatives, women's issues, parenting and child initiatives, housing and homelessness programs, HIV/AIDS programs and senior services. Information from the American Association of Community Colleges (2005), indicates that two-year colleges participating in service-learning build community partnerships with community agencies such as K-12 institutions, social services agencies, environmental agencies, health care agencies, pre-k

and Head Start programs, animal care agencies and senior centers. Merely examining the numbers of college partnerships and community activities is an indication of the benefits that communities realize when colleges participate in service-learning. One of the hallmarks of true service-learning experiences, however, is a connection to a demonstrated community need (Allen, 2003; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). Service-learning, then, allows for institutions to create partnerships with community agencies that require them to be involved with those agencies to such a degree that they understand their expressed community needs, and design experiences that help meet them. In addition to being direct recipients of students' service efforts, community partners appreciate students' learning as a result of service-learning experiences. Bacon (2002), in a discussion with community partners, found that community partners valued students' learning in service-learning experiences as a means for solving problems and as an avenue through which students developed an increased awareness of complexity. Finally, a fundamental precept of service-learning might be that communities benefit when students become engaged as active citizens in community life. Whether students come through a service-learning experience with a commitment to community service, an increased awareness of community needs, a reduction in negative stereotypes or an increased sense of self-efficacy and desire to influence the political system, communities, and society as a whole will likely reap benefits of those changes that occur within individual students.

Criticisms of Service-Learning and of Service-Learning Research

While there is much to be found about widespread benefits of service-learning, there are also some concerns that must be addressed. Proponents of service-learning are many – and vocal – about what they believe to be key outcomes of service-learning for students; in fact, one criticism of the literature surrounding service-learning is that much of it is based on professors'

testimonials about positive service-learning, rather than documented and rigorous evidence of student learning as a result of service-learning (Simons & Cleary, 2006; Joseph, Stone, Grantham, Harmancioglu, & Ibrahim, 2007). In their study of business students who had participated in service-learning projects, Joseph et al. (2007) found that students' attitudes toward participating in service-learning projects was positive overall, but many students didn't make a distinction between community service learning projects and other outside projects. Additionally, students in their study did not associate the community service projects in which they had participated with their own "improved job skills/ marketability, critical thinking, and concern for the welfare of the community" (p. 332). And while "reduction of negative stereotypes" has been often touted as a benefit of service-learning, there is also evidence that in some cases negative stereotypes may actually be reinforced as a result of service-learning experiences (Jones, 2002; Cone, 2003; Baldwin et al., 2007). In a study of teacher candidates, in which many positive outcomes of service-learning were found and encountering one's own biases was a stated objective of the study, Baldwin et al. (2007) also found those negative stereotypes present in student responses, such as the following from a service-learning project in an urban school setting:

> Attitudes were the big thing . . . the way they are brought up some kids just don't have the respect for their elders, and if their parents don't make them give it to them, why should they give it to the teacher? (p. 323)

In his review of the Joint Educational Project (JEP) at the University of Southern California, Richard Cone (2003) found that when service is not fully integrated into a course well in ways that make sense for students, negative outcomes, rather than positive ones, may be the result. In his research with JEP, Cone (2003) found that when service wasn't well integrated into

course content and function, students found multiple "observations" to support previous biases, and students were inclined to adapt a deficit view of the community "without understanding systemic issues that place the source of problems outside the community" (p. 14). Additionally, some negative consequences of service-learning have been noted in certain circumstances. Werner and McVaugh (2000) assert there are a number of frequently-used "rules" that can have a negative impact on whether or not students will continue to participate in community service after their service-learning experience has ended. They assert, for example, that *requiring* service can negatively impact a student's likelihood to commit to long-term service beyond the bounds of the service-learning experience: "as long as people are required to participate in service, they will, but once they leave the controlling setting, they stop participating unless they develop internal, personal motivators" (Werner & McVaugh, 2000, p. 119). Their study suggests that when students have choice and control over their service activities (rather than when service activities that have been pre-determined by the instructor), they will be more likely to make a long-term investment in community service (Werner & McVaugh, 2000). In addition, Jones (2002) asserts that service-learning can, when faculty members are not prepared well to do it, actually reinforce those negative stereotypes that students hold. She asserts that faculty members must be prepared to deal with complex issues that arise as students bring a variety of experiences and levels of preparation to service-learning experiences. Negative service-learning consequences such as these become hurdles that faculty members must overcome when deciding to implement service-learning in their courses.

Faculty Participation in Service-Learning

In order to set the stage for this study, it is important to examine existing literature about faculty and service-learning. The literature in this section will examine motivators for faculty

members to participate in service-learning and deterrents to their use of service-learning. I will also discuss factors that specifically impact the faculty in two-year colleges.

In order for service-learning to become a part of the fabric of an institution, faculty members must be committed to using it (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Prentice, 2003; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). Perhaps the largest motivator for faculty members to use service-learning has already been mentioned: the belief by faculty members that students are learning from their service-learning experiences. Other motivators have also been identified, though. To begin with, faculty members who participate in service-learning often have characteristics that are similar: service-learning faculty demonstrate a "willingness to go try something new and ambiguous" and "an interest in solving a pedagogical problem" related to students who were not connecting the learning to their real life experiences ("Service Learning Engages Students," 2004). McKay and Rozee (2004) found that faculty who adopt community service learning pedagogy consistently demonstrated a number of attitudes including a "belief in doing good teaching," a commitment to "provide opportunities for students to engage in their own learning," and an understanding of service-learning as a "person-centered alternative to the push for instructional technology" (p. 27).

Beyond pre-existing characteristics, faculty members are motivated to participate in service-learning in a variety of ways. Levine (1994), a faculty member using service-learning after many years as a traditionally-oriented instructor, asserts that being asked by other faculty members to try service-learning, along with both financial and instrumental support, provided motivation for him to give service-learning a try. Abes, et al. (2002) corroborate Levine's assertion, finding that 60% of faculty members in their study were motivated by being asked by another faculty member. Their survey results also indicated that increased student understanding

of course material and student personal development were motivating factors as well. In the 2003 survey of Service Learning in Community Colleges conducted by the American Association of Community Colleges, respondents in 52% of colleges identified peer influence or mentoring as reasons for beginning service learning (Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003). In a qualitative study that examined faculty participation in service-learning, Hayden (2004) found that participation in service-learning was often a direct result of being "recruited" by a peer or service-learning coordinator. Her study also identified five themes surrounding faculty motivation for adopting service-learning in their classrooms: (a) the influence of past experiences, including childhood and adolescence, (b) personal characteristics including values, spiritual background, and personality, (c) present involvement with community service, (d) relationships and interactions with peers, and (e) the perceived benefits of service-learning, both for teaching and for students (Hayden, 2004). Ward (1998) also recognizes the importance of the culture of a college in supporting service-learning, and asserts that it is important for service-learning to be moved "from the periphery to the core" of what institutions do, and for faculty to be recognized for doing it (p. 74).

Holland (1999) found that faculty members were "motivated by personal value structures" (p. 38). Although external rewards systems such as financial compensation or release time were cited as important, many researchers have noted that a personal sense of community engagement and civic responsibility on the part of faculty members is important in motivating faculty members to participate. Interestingly, Bringle, et al. (1997) found that second generation faculty members were often "less idealistic and visionary and, as such, [were] more interested in the concrete outcomes that will occur for them and their students" (p. 46).

Research in community colleges has substantiated that institutional support, particularly the involvement of the Chief Academic Officer and the presence of a full time service-learning coordinator are vital in motivating faculty members to create and maintain viable service-learning programs (Prentice, Exley, et al., 2003; Garcia, 2004). Garcia (2004) found the presence of a service-learning coordinator on campus to be the primary motivator for faculty members to participate in service-learning. [However, in 2003 only 47% of two-year colleges that responded to a national survey by AACC and that offer service-learning (184 out of more than 1300 two-year colleges in the U.S.) reported having a service-learning coordinator (Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003).] Even where there is not a service-learning coordinator, however, faculty involvement in service-learning is widely acknowledged to be a key element in the integration of service learning on college campuses (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Bringle, et al., 1997; Garcia, 2004; Holland, 1999; Prentice, 2003; Ward, 1998). Also, faculty members taking the initiative to talk with other faculty members about service-learning has been shown to motivate new faculty members to give service-learning a try (Abes, et al., 2002; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003; Levine, 1994). Garcia (2004) also found that veteran faculty members were more likely to use service-learning than newer faculty members.

Concerns related to "time, logistics and funding" have been identified as factors that deter faculty members from participating in service-learning (Abes, et al, 2002; Driscoll, 2000; Holland, 1999; Weglarz & Seybert, 2004), as well as concerns about increased workload, lack of rewards or administrative support, teaching comfort levels, student resistance and assessment issues (Hayden, 2004). Driscoll (2000) suggests that understanding faculty time commitments in service-learning more fully, including whether teaching a service-learning course takes as much time the second time it is taught, are useful directions for future research.

Service-Learning and Two-Year College Faculty Members

While much of the literature regarding faculty members and service-learning has been done by and about four-year college faculty members, this study is one in which the focus is on faculty members in two-year colleges. Faculty members in two-year colleges differ from their counterparts in four-year institutions in several important ways, including who they are and what they are required to do. Some of these differences, outlined in the following section, afford two-year college faculty members challenges in implementing service-learning that faculty members in four-year institutions do not have to face. Some of those differences provide unique benefits for two-year college faculty members when implementing service-learning as well. What follows is a discussion of some of those differences and challenges, as well as opportunities that arise from them for two-year college faculty members who employ service-learning in their courses.

Faculty work load in the two-year college is defined almost exclusively in relation to teaching. Time spent in the classroom each week is often used as the yardstick against which faculty work is measured (Cohen & Brawer, 1996). Two-year college faculty interests seem to fall among the same lines: "75 percent of community college faculty are primarily interested in teaching, while only 46 percent of baccalaureate faculty have that same focus" (Casting new light on old notions, 1998, p. 45). In fact, in a recent study of community college faculty perspectives, Hardy and Laanan (2006) found that "institutional factors about which most faculty are most pleased revolve around their instructional duties and the autonomy that they have regarding how to carry out those duties" (p. 809). Beyond teaching responsibilities, which comprise the bulk of a two-year faculty member's responsibilities, other responsibilities include tasks such as committee work and student advisement. Many two-year college faculty members,

however, engage in additional activities anyway, in spite of the fact that they are not required to do so, nor are they evaluated on their participation in research or outreach activities. Results of the 1997 National Survey of Faculty administered by the Carnegie Foundation indicated that 38 percent of two-year college faculty members were participating in activities related to publication or presentation and 80 percent of two-year college faculty engaged in some type of consulting or professional service (Casting new light on old notions, 1998).

Implications of faculty work load on the choice of faculty members to engage in service-learning seem to be multidimensional. While service-learning, which is a method of teaching, certainly fits within the primary responsibilities of two-year college faculty, the time to create new service-learning opportunities, organize logistics with community partner agencies, and plan activities for reflection and integration of understanding back into course objectives takes time – beyond time that is already expended in course preparation and teaching. Faculty members in two-year colleges, then, when deciding to adopt service-learning as a pedagogy have to face the challenge of finding the time to start and sustain such efforts. Strategies frequently offered to encourage faculty participation in service-learning that will address the time issue, such as increased administrative support for faculty or a centralized service-learning office with resources to assist faculty with service placements and course construction (Hinck & Brandell, 2000), may have a stronger impact on community college faculty than strategies like linking service-learning activities with faculty reward structures. Secondly, two-year college faculty members, partly as a result of intense teaching loads, often work in isolation from each other and from administrators; this isolation has been identified as an important challenge facing community colleges today (Van Ast, 1999; Levine, et al., 2004). This isolation could have serious consequences on the implementation of service-learning, particularly considering that

being asked by another faculty member to try service-learning is a vital motivator for faculty to participate in service-learning (Abes, et al., 2002; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003; Levine, 1994). In order for this important transaction to take place, faculty members must be encouraged, both formally and informally, to interact with each other around issues about service-learning. Campus Compact (2004) considers mechanisms that "help faculty mentor and support each other in learning to design and implement service-learning courses" (Zlotkowski, et al., 2004) to be "best practice" for incorporating service-learning into the culture of an institution.

Community colleges have long been thought to be teaching institutions above all – institutions which prioritize teaching excellence and access to all students, de-emphasizing research or academic scholarship (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Van Ast, 1999; Zlotkowski, et al., 2004). This affords these institutions unique challenges, as well as opportunities in the area of service-learning. Service-learning as an approach to teaching fits well with the academic missions of community colleges (Serow et al., 1996), and it is important that faculty members are encouraged to view service-learning that way. Also, "[b]ecause of community colleges' local missions, they are often situated perfectly to establish partnerships with service providers" (Dimaria, 2006, p. 53). In recent years, dialogue about community colleges has surrounded the idea of a "learning college" (O'Banion, 1997; Roueche, Milliron, & Roueche, 2003), a concept that "places learning first and provides educational experiences for learners anyway, anyplace, anytime" (O'Banion, 1997, p. 47). In a 2006 summary of the results of a national Community College Survey of Student Engagement, McClenney (2006) outlines five benchmarks of effective educational practice in community colleges: (a) active and collaborative learning, (b) student effort, (c) academic challenge, (d) student-faculty interaction, and (e) support for learners. Service-learning offers promising opportunities in several of these areas, most notably

perhaps those of active and collaborative learning and student-faculty interaction. Van Ast (1999) asserts that two-year colleges are undergoing a paradigm shift from the goal of expanded access to one of academic excellence. Service-learning advocates have worked hard and made good progress toward documenting the *academic* strengths and benefits of service-learning for students (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Prentice & Garcia, 2000; Strage 2004; Weyglarz & Seybert, 2004). While some would argue that more work must be done in understanding the learning connections afforded by service-learning if it is ever to be accepted fully in higher education (Eyler, 2000; Steinke & Buresh, 2002), there is little disagreement that service-learning holds student learning as its focus in an age when learning has come to center-stage in the two-year college arena. Kiely (2005) argues that enough studies exist which document the impact of service-learning on academic learning, and that the time has come to look at its transformative potential for students, faculty, communities and institutions. Based on that, community college faculty members are in an excellent position to implement service-learning, given that it is in concert with a learning-centered approach to education. As was identified earlier about faculty members in general, many two-year college faculty members specifically are motivated to include service-learning in their courses because of their perceptions that student learning is enhanced (Burr, 2001; Stemen, 2003; Weglarz & Seybert, 2004). Community college faculty members are highly in-tune with teaching, and as such may be likely to be attracted to alternative pedagogical strategies such as service-learning. This is consistent with the view of community college faculty as devoted to teaching as their primary commitment (Van Ast, 1999; Casting new light on old notions, 1998; Sperling, 2003; Zlotkowski et al., 2004).

While service-learning as pedagogy may fit well with the mission and tasks of two-year colleges, faculty members in these institutions face challenges of student body diversity and of

their own backgrounds. The students in two-year colleges have always been extremely diverse (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Zlotkowski et al., 2004), and this diversity has often been identified as one of the most profound challenges facing two-year colleges today (Van Ast, 1999; Levine, et al., 2004; Roueche et al., 2003). Two-year college faculty members, then, are faced with the challenge of designing opportunities that will engender learning on the part of students who vary – even within a course – on dimensions such as age, race, ethnicity, cultural background, learning style, prior educational experience, educational goals, perceptions of themselves as learners, socio-economic status, family roles and responsibilities and employment status. While it seems that service-learning will have much to offer such a wide array of learners, implementing it in a course, particularly for the first time, is bound to be somewhat intimidating for an instructor. O'Connell (2002) asserts that when instructors find ways to develop individualized approaches to civic learning, assess prior civic learning of adult students, and create learning opportunities that honor adult needs, service-learning can provide rich connections between the experiences that nontraditional learners bring with them and the learning goals instructors have for them.

Another challenge faced by two-year college faculty members when implementing service-learning is that, while the community college is largely known as a teaching institution, many of its faculty members have not been trained as educators (Sperling, 2003; Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Boettcher & Conrad, 2004).; rather, their formal training is most often in their area of expertise. Many faculty members come to teaching in the two-year college from years of working in the industry which they are preparing students to enter and have little if any experience with learning theories or pedagogy. As a result, in the absence of formal training in educational practices, faculty members in community colleges "most often 'back into' these

understandings. They discover them in a hit or miss fashion, through practice and observation. And teaching wisdom in community colleges is often passed along, like folklore, from one faculty member to another" (Sperling, 2003, p. 596). According to Boettcher and Conrad (2004), many faculty are "unconscious competents in the discipline of instructional design" (p. 1), and learn about teaching and learning through interaction and observation of peers. This is probably also true in service-learning practice, and is a question that will be addressed in this study. This not only underscores again the importance of faculty interaction with one another, but also illustrates another challenge: in implementing service-learning, faculty members may be without an appropriate foundation (or conceptual framework) from which to build an understanding of service learning. Service-learning is at risk of becoming another "thing to try," without any theoretical grounding, which may leave it open to going the way of any of the 'latest' fads in higher education. Faculty members need to be assisted in understanding the philosophical underpinnings and theoretical frameworks of service-learning so that they will be more likely to integrate it into their own practice in a lasting and substantial way.

It also bears mentioning that service-learning should be seen within a larger context of how innovative ideas take root, and how people adapt and make changes in their behavior and accustomed ways of performing. According to diffusion of innovation theory, Rogers (2003) asserts that when innovations take root within a social system, four elements are present: an innovation, communication channels, time, and a social system within which the innovation will be diffused. Rogers (2003) states that researchers in the area of the diffusion of innovation address important questions when they examine "how earlier adopters differ from later adopters of an innovation" as well as "how the perceived attributes of an innovation, such as its relative advantage, compatibility, and so on, affect its rate of adoption" (p. 12). Likewise, Prochaska,

DiClemente and Norcross (1992), in their research aimed at explaining how individuals can change an addictive behavior, proposed a five-stage model of change, beginning with precontemplation, moving through contemplation, preparation, action and maintenance. Though designed in different contexts, models such as these can offer guidance when examining how and through what process faculty members integrate service-learning into their teaching practice.

The reality is also that community colleges today are facing budget crises and enrollment surges (McClenney, 2004; Levine et al., 2004). Without external support, which two-year colleges are less likely to have than their four-year counterparts (Zlotkowski et al., 2004); colleges may find it difficult to sustain service-learning programs. The impact of this on faculty members is evident: faculty members may be less likely to engage in service-learning when institutional supports are not there (Holland, 1999; Garcia, 2004). Additionally, part-time faculty members have been found to be less likely to participate in service-learning than full time faculty (Garcia, 2004). With so many courses being taught by part-time faculty members in community colleges, systems must be put into place that will inform and support part-time faculty members in service-learning. Campus Compact (2004) recommends active recruitment of adjunct faculty members for participation in service-learning activities (Zlotkowski et al., 2004).

Much of the research that has been done on faculty in service-learning has involved surveys of large numbers of faculty members in order to identify factors that influence their participation in service-learning. Less work to date has focused on ascertaining the process that faculty members go through as they use service-learning, how they learn to integrate service-learning into coursework, and how they reflect on their own experiences in service-learning. This study, therefore, focuses more on individual experiences with service-learning by interviewing two-year college faculty members who are using it.

Reflection in Service-Learning

Reflection is widely acknowledged as a central component of service-learning (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999), and has been referred to as the hyphen in service-learning: that which connects the service experience with the learning that ensues from a service experience (Eyler & Giles, 1999). "Almost all discussions of service-learning practices emphasize the importance of reflection" (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996, p. 597), and reflection is viewed by both service-learning researchers and practitioners as a critical element of good practice in service-learning (McEwen, 1996; Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Bringle & Hatcher; 1999; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Howard, 2001; Eyler, 2002b; Litke, 2002) Service-learning experiences that include integrated reflection throughout have been found to be linked with more positive outcomes for students in all areas – cognitive, social, emotional – than service-learning experiences in which reflection is more adjunct and less central to the experience (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, 2001). Hunt (2007) argues that reflection is what allows students to question their assumptions and societal stereotypes, and ultimately move beyond them as a result of a service-learning experience.

Reflection is addressed in most introductory literature, where would-be service-learning instructors are made aware that reflection must be present, and what kinds of reflection activities might be used. The works of Dewey (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Bringle & Hatcher, 1999) and Kolb (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, 2002b) are used as theoretical bases for reflection in service-learning, but 'how-to' pieces about reflection are more prevalent. Bringle and Hatcher (1999) suggest the use of reflective journals, experiential research papers, ethical case studies, directed readings, class presentations and electronic reflections as types of reflection tools. In their AACC publication for community college instructors entitled *Integrating Civic Responsibility*

into the Curriculum, Gottlieb and Robinson (2002) include numerous reflection ideas and sample reflection questions. Eyler (2001) cautions instructors to make sure that reflection is continuous through a course (rather than just an assignment at the end), that it explicitly connects the service experience with the content of the course, that reflection challenges students to pursue difficult questions, and that it is integrated naturally into the project rather than being an "add on" with no connection. She developed a "reflection map" that helps instructors think about two dimensions of reflection: context and chronology (Eyler, 2001). Students should participate in reflection alone, with the class or a group, and with the community partner. Students should participate in reflection before, during and after service (Eyler, 2001). Instructors can place each of these six on a matrix and end up with a way of mapping reflective course experiences. In spite of the availability of tools such as these, Eyler (2002b) fears that "reflection gets rather short shrift in typical service-learning experiences" (p. 518).

Leonard (2004) advocates the importance of reflection as a component of service-learning as a "transgressive" pedagogy that promotes social justice and change. By encouraging students to reflect on the complexities that they encounter during service-learning experiences, she asserts that reflection has the potential to require students to "see themselves differently, to expand the narrowness of their own lives; and to recognize the fundamental threads of universality that binds each and every one of us" (p. 70). Additionally, Kiely's (2005) work suggests that reflection and dialogue following a service-learning experience, while useful in helping students process certain dimensions of their service-experience, is not adequate by itself for promoting transformational learning in students through service-learning. Instead, he suggests, both reflective and non-reflective learning processes are necessary in order for this type of higher-order learning to take place.

A number of tools are available for faculty members to understand and use reflection (the tasks of reflection) with students. The question remains, however, in what ways do community college faculty members reflect on their own experiences as service-learning instructors. There is some recommendation that faculty members engage in reflection (Franklin, 2000). Giles (1999) asserts that a key to effective service learning practice is reflection on the part of both students and practitioners. In speaking to service-learning practitioners, he argues that the safeguard against service-learning practice that reinforces stereotypes and an existing social order is for faculty members to be critical in their own thinking and to try to model critical work for students. He also maintains the value of critical reflection: "Critical reflection causes people to bump up against things and consider them. Without it, I worry for myself, but also for this movement that I am a part of" (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999, p. 217). Hatcher and Bringle (1997) recognize that "as faculty use reflection activities, their teaching will become more dynamic and interactive" (p. 157), and citing Donald Schön's (1983) work, encourage instructors to become reflective practitioners. Franklin (2000) encourages faculty members to keep journals of their service experiences. However, since much of service-learning literature surrounding reflection centers on student reflection, faculty members who wanted to better understand how to reflect on their own practice would most likely have to go outside current literature in service-learning.

One final point that bears making is that reflection is not always critical reflection. Yet, reflection that includes critical analysis is particularly important in service-learning (Kahne & Westheimer, 1996). Unfortunately, faculty reflection in service-learning – particularly critical reflection – is most likely quite varied and somewhat haphazard among faculty members.

Bringle, et al. (1997) make the distinction between efforts needed to recruit faculty members into the work of service-learning, and those needed to further the professional development of faculty members who are already using service-learning. They assert that colleges must provide opportunities for existing service-learning faculty members to "become reflective practitioners and model those attributes for their students" (p. 47). The question is whether faculty members who engage in reflective practice will also model those attributes for other faculty members. Indeed much attention is placed on recruiting faculty members into service-learning, and it seems that when faculty members use reflection and allow other faculty members to have access to those reflections in collaborative ways, new service-learning faculty members will benefit in at least two ways. First, they will see the process of reflection as real and connected to their work as instructors, rather than only as something on a checklist to be sure and include when you offer service-learning to students. Second, they will be privy to some of the messiness associated with critically thinking about service and students and learning (which is sometimes very challenging). Rather than deterring new faculty from service learning, this may give them a more realistic view of service-learning, and remove some of the pressure likely to be produced when efforts to promote service-learning consist wholly of the presentation of a carefully constructed litany of its benefits.

Finally, critical reflection provides community college faculty members with tools to address the sometimes "volatile mix" of students from widely diverse backgrounds often found in their classrooms (Brookfield, 2002). Critical reflection, too, often becomes a collective activity when faculty members work together to examine the foundations of their own practice; as Brookfield asserts: "We need colleagues to help us know what our assumptions are and to help us change the structures of power" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 36) in our institutions. Those who

implement service-learning opportunities heed the counsel of Dewey who advises to prioritize student interactions with one another and collaborative learning. The irony that cannot be escaped, however, is that faculty members often do this in painful isolation from one another. For true leadership to happen, and in order to move toward a more integrated service-learning practice across institutions, faculty reflection must be prioritized and supported.

Reflective Practice

To clarify the scope and dimensions of reflective practice, this final section will outline theories of reflective practice from which the present study will draw. I will address Schön's pioneering work with reflective practice, the developmental theory of reflective judgment as espoused by King and Kitchener (1994), and critical reflection as it is understood in the work of both Mezirow (1991) and Brookfield (1995). Since none of these theories speaks directly to service-learning practice, I will elucidate ways in which these theories can inform faculty reflective practice in service-learning.

In working to explain effective practice in the professions (including education), Donald Schön (1983) began by challenging the dominant perspective of professional practice, that of "technical rationality." Technical rationality asserts that answers are available through empirical evidence and observable facts, and that knowledge and practice are separate. From this perspective, which is grounded in philosophical positivism, "professional practice is a process of problem *solving*" (p. 39), and this type of technical problem solving "fails to account for practical competence in 'divergent' situations" (p. 49).

A primary reason that the model of technical rationality is no longer sufficient, according to Schön is the dilemma of "rigor or relevance." This dilemma occurs when practitioners realize that if they accept the perspective of technical rationality, they necessitate a choice between

scientific rigor (technical rationality) and relevance to practice (real-world situations). The metaphor that Schön (1983) uses to describe the rigor-or-relevance dilemma has compelling implications for service-learning practice in higher education. He speaks of "high, hard ground where researchers can make effective use of research based theory and technique" (p. 42), and contrasts hat with the "swampy lowland where situations are confusing 'messes' incapable of technical solution" (p. 42). The problem is, of course, that the problems of "greatest human concern" reside in the swamp.

When contrasting rigor and relevance, however, Schön is not contrasting theory and practice. On the contrary, he advocates that theory is built through practice in a process called *reflection-in-action*. Through this process, reflective practitioners can construct theory as they go about their work tasks, and the dilemma of rigor-or-relevance can be "dissolved if we can develop an epistemology of practice which places technical problem solving within a broader context of reflective inquiry" (Schön, 1983, p. 69). Reflection-in-action is central to the "artistry" that many professionals exhibit when they "deal well with the situations of uncertainty, instability, uniqueness and value conflict" (Schön, 1983, p. 50). The process of reflective practice involves the defining of a problem (often discovered through some unexpected event), creating procedures to solve the problem in the midst of action, and then taking corrective action to solve the problem (Schön, 1987). This process explains how practitioners reflect-in-action, and produce knowledge by examining the processes of their practice. This has particular relevance to service-learning practice both because it highlights the importance of reflection in the experience – learning equation, and because it points to parallel processes: those in which students learn from service-learning through reflection, and those in which faculty members learn by reflecting on their own practice designing and implementing service-learning.

According to Schön (1983), the idea of reflective practice turns the relationship between competence in practice and professional knowledge upside down: "We should not start by asking how to make better use of research-based knowledge but by asking what we can learn from a careful examination of artistry." This artistry includes "an art of problem framing, an art of implementation, and an art of improvisation" (p. 13). In addition to inverting the relationship between practice and knowledge, one must also examine the ways in which people learn how to be reflective practitioners. Schön (1987) claims that in order to educate reflective practitioners, "we are led inevitably to certain deviant traditions of education for practice – traditions that stand outside or alongside the normative curricula of the schools" (p. 15). Among these "deviant traditions" include experientially based learning models, apprenticeships, and coaching. It is here where Schön (1987) makes a connection with Dewey's ideas about learning through experience.

Finally, Schön (1983) describes what reflective practitioners might encounter in the places where they work, and interestingly enough, he uses the example of a teacher working in an educational bureaucracy. Reflection-in-action "poses a potential threat to the dynamically conservative system in which [the teacher] lives" (p. 332). He recognizes that "isolation in [the] classroom works against reflection-in-action. [The teacher] needs to communicate her private puzzles and insights, and test them against the views of her peers" (p. 333). More optimistically, Schön (1983) paints a picture of an organization that is open to reflective practice: such an institution "would require a learning system within which individuals could surface conflicts and dilemmas and subject them to productive public inquiry, a learning system conducive to continual criticism and restructuring of organizational principles and values" (pp. 335-6).

Schön's work is clearly relevant to service-learning theory and practice. In the first place, service-learning practice in two-year colleges, as well as the societal issues that service-learning wants to address, are residents of the 'swamp,' and those who would dare to attempt service-learning would do well to heed Schön's advice and help students understand the value of knowledge gained in the midst of problem framing and problem solving during practice. Service-learning practitioners are more likely to be effective in their own practice only in the degree to which they use reflection-in-action. There is plenty to be learned from workshops and articles in the area of service-learning, but those 'technical' understandings will only be useful as they are able to be applied in practice. Service-learning faculty are likely to encounter all sorts of 'surprises' in their practice – events which cause them to redefine problems – and principles of reflective practice will allow them to "place technical problem solving within a broader context of reflective inquiry" (Schön, 1983, p. 50). Ideally, too, instructors will be able to make explicit their own reflection-in-action so that students can have the benefit of seeing what "being a reflective practitioner" looks like.

Another compelling theory of reflective practice is one that is developmental in nature. King and Kitchener (1994) postulated that *reflective judgment,* or the ability to "evaluate knowledge claims and to explain and defend their points of view on controversial issues" (p. 13) develops in seven stages. An assessment of this development of reflective judgment will only be possible through the use of "ill-structured" problems, or those which "cannot be described with a high degree of completeness or solved with a high degree of certainty" (King & Kitchener, 1994, p. 10). Each of the 'stages' is defined by a distinct set of assumptions about knowledge, about how knowledge is acquired, and by strategies for solving ill-structured problems. According to King and Kitchener (1994), pre-reflective thinking is present in stages 1-3, in which knowledge

is generally thought to be certain, though sometimes temporarily unavailable, and can be obtained through direct observation or via authority figures. Quasi-reflective thinking is present in stages four and five, where knowledge begins to be seen as uncertain and based on situational variables. Reflective thinking is present in stages six and seven and involves an understanding that knowledge is constructed based on information from a variety of sources and that in spite of uncertainty, conclusions can be drawn based on the best possible information at the time (King & Kitchener, 1994). The task of instructors, then, is to assist students in moving from where they are through the stages to higher levels of reflective judgment.

This theory of reflective judgment has important implications for service-learning practice, both in terms of students and faculty members. First, thinking about reflective judgment developmentally will be instructive for service-learning instructors who are trying to encourage students to think critically and solve complex problems (often cited as goals of service-learning experiences). Also, this model of reflective judgment is useful in helping instructors assess and understand the likely diversity in levels of thought they will encounter when working with adult students of all ages. The model will also enable instructors to intentionally plan experiences that will challenge students to move further, and higher, in their abilities toward reflective judgment. Likewise, instructors who begin using service-learning will also likely possess varying levels of reflective thought themselves, which means that individuals who work with faculty members using service-learning might also plan experiences that challenge faculty members to move further and higher as well.

Another implication of the developmental nature of this theory is that it involves a move away from simplicity toward complexity in reflective judgment. An argument could be made that the move from a charity perspective of service to one of social justice, whether those

perspectives are viewed as continuous or discrete, involves on some level an increased acknowledgement of complexity. Perhaps a reciprocal relationship exists between both students' and faculty members' advances in reflective judgment and the experiences they are exposed to in service-learning: As their levels of reflective judgment advance, they will be more able to understand complexities in the world; as they are faced with more complex situations, their levels of reflective judgment will advance.

Finally, service-learning practitioners must come to appreciate the value of service-learning opportunities for creating the types of experiences from which development – or learning – is likely to occur. The social problems introduced by service-learning for students, and in implementing service-learning for faculty, involve the messiness of life for which easy answers are not readily available; they are often "ill-structured" or "swampy" and as a result have great potential for spurring growth and learning. King and Kitchener (1994) believe that ill-structured problems are a vehicle through which reflective judgment can be both assessed and taught.

Within the theory of transformational learning exists the idea of critical reflection, which "involves a critique of the assumptions on which our beliefs have been built" (Mezirow, 1990a, p. 1). While this idea exists within a larger theory of transformational learning in adults, I think it bears attention here as a theory of reflection because it has significant implications with regard to faculty members using service-learning. In the context of adult learning, significant personal and social transformations may result from critical reflection on assumptions (Mezirow, 1990b); this has relevance for both students and instructors in service-learning practice. In the subsequent section, the work of Mezirow and Brookfield in the area of critical reflection will be

summarized, and implications and applications of critical reflection for service-learning practice will be addressed..

According to Mezirow (1990a), individuals hold a number of meaning schemes (specific beliefs, attitudes or beliefs) and meaning perspectives (broader frameworks through which an individual filters and interprets the world). Transformational learning occurs when a transformation occurs in one of a person's meaning perspectives (perspective transformation). Such a transformation may come about as a result of a "disorienting dilemma," or an event for which our existing meaning perspectives are inadequate (Mezirow, 1991). Critical reflection plays an important role in fostering perspective transformation. Perspective transformation involves "becoming critically aware of how and why our presuppositions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand and feel about our world" (Mezirow, 1990a, p. 14). This type of perspective transformation, according to Mezirow, can happen when a person makes a critically reflective assessment of distortions in her own meaning perspectives. These distortions may be epistemic (like the distortion that every problem has a solution), sociocultural (like those that pertain to power and social relationships), or psychic (like those generated by traumatic events in childhood) (Mezirow, 1990a; 1990b). When these distortions are corrected, an individual can move toward more "inclusive, discriminating, permeable and integrative perspectives" (Mezirow, 1990a, p. 14), which are inherently superior and indicate transformative learning.

In an effort to further clarify the concept of critical reflection, Mezirow (1991) also makes an important distinction between content, process, and premise reflection. *Content* reflection involves reflection on *what* we think, feel or act upon (Mezirow, 1991). *Process* reflection involves reflection on *how* we think, feel or act (Mezirow, 1991). *Premise* reflection,

however, has come to be known as critical reflection; it is reflection on *why* a person thinks or feels or acts in certain ways (Mezirow, 1991). It is premise reflection that "opens the possibility for perspective transformation" (Mezirow, 1991, p. 110).

Mezirow (1998) goes on to distinguish between critical reflection on assumptions that involves objective reframing, and critical *self* reflection on assumptions that involves subjective reframing of a problem. Critical reflection on assumptions that serves the purpose of objective reframing involves "examining the validity of the concepts being communicated to you" or pausing to examine "one's own assumptions in defining [a] problem" (p. 192). Critical self reflection on assumptions, on the other hand, "emphasizes critical analysis of the psychological or cultural assumptions that are the specific reasons for one's conceptual and psychological limitations, the constitutive processes or conditions of formation of one's experience and beliefs" (Mezirow, 1998, p. 193). Because of its focus on the ways in which individuals make meaning of their experiences in the wake of disorienting or complex experiences, and its emphasis on critical reflection, Mezirow's model is useful as a theoretical framework for explaining the transformative aspects of service-learning (Kiely, 2004, 2005).

Brookfield (2000) draws from Mezirow's notion of critical reflection to explain how adult educators might engage in critically reflective practice. Brookfield (2000) asserts that critically reflective practice has two purposes within adult education. The first is to focus on the "uncovering of submerged power dynamics" (p. 39) in classrooms. The second is to "uncover hegemonic assumptions, which are assumptions about practice that we believe represent common sense wisdom and that we accept as being in our own best interests" (p. 40); these assumptions, however, "actually work against us in the long term by serving the interests of those opposed to us" (pp. 40-41). Critical reflection, according to Brookfield (1995) involves the

process of “hunting assumptions” and awareness of “implicit assumptions that frame how we think and act is one of the most challenging intellectual puzzles we face in our lives” (p. 2). Assumptions that must be identified may be paradigmatic (basic structure we use to order the world), prescriptive (about what we think should be happening in situations), or causal (about how the world works and what conditions will cause change). (Brookfield, 1995).

To achieve critically reflective practice, Brookfield (1995) suggests that adult educators adopt four critically reflective lenses through which teaching and learning can be viewed (Brookfield, 1995): (a) the lens of our own autobiographies as learners, which allows teachers to empathize with what students are experiencing, (b) the lens of our students’ eyes, which requires that teachers request feedback from students about how students view them, (c) the lens of our colleagues’ experiences, in which talking with colleagues about their own teaching experience allows us to “check, reframe, and broaden our own theories of practice” (p. 35), and (d) the lens of theoretical literature, which can provide multiple perspectives on the experiences a teacher has. When teachers get to the point that they realize that some of the assumptions they have held do not fit the situations in which they find themselves, the work of critical reflection can help teachers see their practice in new ways.

A reality that cannot be ignored is that critical reflection is not easy, nor is it always experienced positively (Brookfield, 1994). Practitioners who engage in critical reflection are examining, and in some instances discarding, fundamental cherished assumptions that may have undergirded their professional practices for a long time. The fact that a teacher, for example, might feel uncertain after undertaking serious critical reflection is to be expected, and must be acknowledged rather than ignored. Brookfield (1994; 1995) discusses hazards that individuals who are truly critically reflective may face. They may feel a sense of impostership: that “at some

deeply embedded level that they possess neither the talent nor the right to become critically reflective" (Brookfield, 1994, p. 205), nor do they believe they are as competent as others believe them to be. Educators may also experience a sense of lost innocence when through critical reflection they realize that "the dilemmas of teaching have no ultimate solution" and that "becoming a skillful teacher will always be an unformed, unfinished project – a true example of lifelong learning" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 239). Another risk, particularly pertinent to service-learning practitioners, is that of "cultural suicide," which happens when "people who make public their questioning of taken-for-granted assumptions and expectations find themselves excluded from the culture that has defined and sustained them up to that point in their lives" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 235).

Because "few of us are likely to initiate a project that promises enlightenment only at the cost of torture" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 22), benefits of critical reflection must be made clear. Brookfield (1995) is quick to point out that critically reflective practice helps teachers take control of their lives as teachers, rather than "see[ing] classroom life as completely beyond their control" (p. 263). It helps teachers be grounded in the present and provides a rationale for practice, so that one is not "blown about by the winds of cultural and pedagogical preference" (p. 265). Ultimately, "critical reflection urges us to create conditions under which each person is respected, valued and heard" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 27).

Critical Reflection and Service-Learning

Because service-learning comes complete with many assumptions – about the world, about service, about students, about learning – critically reflective practice is a crucial component to service-learning that must not be neglected, because it forces faculty members to reflect on these assumptions. Adopting service-learning remains enough outside the "norm" of

academic culture in higher education that faculty members who do so may face 'dangers' associated with critically examining and changing their practices: "service-learning, when deeply done, subverts some of our most foundational assumptions of our sense of identity as higher education faculty" (Butin, 2005, p. ix). Also, since faculty members are the engineers of service-learning experiences that students have, this study looks specifically at the critically reflective practices of this important group of individuals in two-year colleges.

It is a widely accepted idea that reflection is the hyphen in service-learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999) which connects the service with the learning for students. One question that this study will attempt to answer is whether reflection might also be what connects service learning with faculty development – or learning – as well. Zlotkowski (1998) asks a significant question: "How can service-learning practitioners best understand its conceptual richness, best sort out and arrange its constituent elements, so that they can go about steadily increasing their competence rather than succumbing to a sense of inadequacy?" (p. 82). While so much focus is placed on student learning and student reflection in service-learning, it is of equal importance to examine faculty learning and faculty reflection. There are many who look to the potential of service-learning for transforming education and communities (Kielsmeier, 2000; Kiely, 2005), and celebrate service-learning for the transformative experiences it affords students (Moon, 1994; Malone et al., 2000; Kiely, 2004). Perhaps service-learning, particularly through critical reflection, has the potential to transform faculty members as well (Kiely, 2005).

Critical reflection informs the questions in this study. First, critical reflection will require faculty members' to reflect on their own worldview and on the concepts of service and service-learning. Through critical reflection, faculty members will also reflect on their own assumptions about students, as well as about teaching and learning. Reflecting on *content* and *processes* of

service-learning will yield important information. Reflecting on the *premises* on which practice is based, however, has the potential to ground service-learning practice with a strong rationale, one of the benefits of critically reflective practice (Brookfield, 1995).

It has been asserted that faculty members, whether they recognize it or not, have a primary orientation toward or understanding of service – as charity, as project, as social change – or somewhere in between (Morton, 1995; Franklin, 2000). When faculty members write about service-learning they often refer to their beliefs about what service should be or where it fits in their own world view. Levine (1994), for example, warns against the dangers of volunteerism as charity. Koth (2003) connects his commitment to service-learning with his own spiritual beliefs about his place in the world. These types of assumptions (premises) have the potential for great influence over a person's approach to service-learning, but often go largely unexamined in practice. Engaging in critically reflective practice might mean scrutinizing these premises through the lens of the theoretical literature, or through the lens of individual autobiographies, either of which could potentially cause faculty to re-think our practice in the classroom (the service-learning context). Also, while service-learning often offers students a "disorienting dilemma" by bringing them in contact with events that do not fit within their current meaning perspectives, faculty members can also experience such disorienting dilemmas as they incorporate service-learning into coursework. These dilemmas can serve to motivate faculty to reflect critically on those meaning perspectives. In order for service-learning to have this effect, however, faculty members "must be allowed to reflect upon current practices and assumptions in such a way that renders hidden tensions, inconsistencies, an inequities available for scrutiny and critique" (King, 2004, p. 134)

Also, faculty members often hold strong beliefs about teaching and learning, and premises about the role of teachers and learners and what 'teaching' looks like. Adopting a critically reflective approach to teaching in service-learning courses will involve questioning those assumptions. The information-dissemination model of teaching in two-year colleges, for example, is still prevalent. The established model is one where faculty members possess industry-specific (technical) knowledge and pass that on – in a downward motion – to students. Even instructors who dare to step out of this model and try service-learning may have a hard time letting go of their need to rush in and "teach" students pre-determined subject-centered material. Critically reflective practice enables faculty to more fully understand the dangers of hanging on to premises that are less than fruitful, which may enable them to let go of previously unchallenged assumptions.

Finally, there is wide variation in the state of faculty development efforts in community colleges. In most places, faculty development programs involve isolated and nontransferable 'training' opportunities, but "rarely reach the faculty most in need of assistance and frequently irritate them" (Murray, 2002, p. 96). Perhaps a better way to view faculty development, and especially faculty development in the area of service-learning, would be through the lens of critically reflective practice and transformational learning. Cranton and King (2003) stress that transformative learning is an appropriate professional development goal for adult educators, and that toward that end professional development activities should "incorporate activities that foster content, process, and premise reflection" (p. 34). Service-learning faculty may be an at-risk group – at risk of becoming overburdened and burned out, at risk of becoming frustrated and disillusioned and abandoning service-learning practice, at risk of offering poor quality service-learning experiences to students as a result of little or no critical reflection on their own practice.

A recently published qualitative study that looked at service-learning faculty revealed that for faculty, "connections and opportunities to reflect on their teaching with others in a community of teaching and learning were both outcomes of their use of service-learning and factors that contributed significantly to shaping and deepening their experience" (Pribbenow, 2005, p. 35). Understanding the nature of this reflection is an important first step in re-framing ideas of faculty development for service-learning faculty as 'learning.'

Summary

When exploring the perceptions and reflection of two-year college faculty members in service-learning, it is important to understand related literature as it offers illumination in five areas: (a) what service-learning is, the philosophical understandings that under gird it, and theoretical models found in its implementation in colleges today, (b) outcomes of service-learning, both positive and negative, for students, faculty members, institutions and communities, (c) faculty participation in service-learning, including motivators and deterrents to service-learning use as well as particular issues faced by two-year college faculty in the implementation of service-learning, (d) the role and nature of reflection in service-learning, and (e) Traditions of reflective practice that may inform this examination of faculty reflection in service-learning.

Service-learning has deep connections with experiential learning, and is important for many reasons, including positive outcomes for all stakeholders in the service-learning process, not the least of which are multiple positive outcomes for students who participate in service-learning experiences. In implementing service-learning, faculty members in two-year colleges face numerous challenges, including heavy teaching loads and diverse student populations, as well as numerous opportunities, including tight connections with the communities which they serve. Reflection provides a critical bridge in service-learning between service and learning

realized by both students and faculty members. And when faculty members engage in critical reflection on their practice, they realize deeper and more satisfying levels of teaching practice and open and more democratic classroom environments. This study has its origin at the intersection of these five areas of existing understanding, and in it more explicit connections will be drawn between these areas as the practice of two-year college faculty members who are using service-learning is explored more fully.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

An interpretive qualitative approach, which was used in this study, has as its goal "understanding how individuals experience and interact with their social world, [and] the meaning it has for them" (Merriam & Associates, 2002, p. 4). From an interpretive standpoint, meaning is what distinguishes social action from the movement of physical objects (Schwandt, 2000, p. 191). Additionally, "qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 3), which means that qualitative researchers "study things in their natural environment" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 3). Thus, the understanding of meaning in the context of natural settings is the focus of interpretive qualitative research.

A qualitative research approach was chosen for the present study because the goal of the research was to capture the phenomenon of how faculty members process their own service-learning experiences, and how they reflect on them. This goal was duly suited for a qualitative study, which will allowed for a close examination of the meaning that service-learning faculty make of their experiences and the processes through which they reflect on them. While both quantitative and qualitative research is present in service-learning, there is some thought that qualitative research is particularly appropriate for service learning research: "for service-learning research, given its character as a value-laden, dynamic, change-oriented, and often idiosyncratic phenomenon, [research] paradigms that address issues of context, values, change, and personal understanding seem not only appropriate, but in fact, necessary" (Shumer, 2000, p. 81).

Research Design

This research was conducted using a basic interpretive qualitative design (Merriam & Associates, 2002). A basic interpretive qualitative design, which allows a researcher to examine and understand how individuals interpret and construct meaning from their experiences, was particularly appropriate for this study, the purpose of which has been to examine the experiences of faculty members as they incorporate service-learning into their practice. The choice of research design is centrally connected to the research question; in fact, "[f]or the qualitative researcher, the question cannot be entirely separated from the method" (Janesick, 2000, p. 382).

There are several characteristics of qualitative research which made it an apt choice for this study. First, qualitative research strives to "understand the meaning people have constructed about their world and their experiences" (Merriam, 2002, p. 5). Second, "qualitative methods facilitate study of issues in depth and detail" (Patton, 2002, p. 14). Using a qualitative methodology in this study enabled the researcher to be able to address details of faculty members' experiences as they related them from their own perspectives, and to understand in depth the meanings faculty members construct about service-learning as they experience it. The questions driving this study are ones that concern the experiences of individuals rather than aggregate information about large groups of faculty; a qualitative methodology best addressed those questions. Third, the qualitative research process is an inductive one, in which "researchers gather data to build concepts, hypotheses, or theories" (Merriam & Associates, 2002, p. 5). In the present study hypotheses were not tested; instead the goal was to hear and understand faculty members' experiences. Finally, data in qualitative studies involves thick, rich descriptions of a phenomenon in question, rather than general, summative information; in this case, the results offered rich descriptions from the participants' own words surrounding how

two-year college faculty members incorporate service-learning into their practice, and the nature of that reflection (Patton, 2002).

Sample Selection

As is typical in a qualitative research design, a purposeful sampling strategy was used in this study. Purposeful sampling "focuses on selecting information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under study" (Patton, 2002, 230). In order to illuminate the research questions in this study, faculty members who met the following criteria were included: (a) faculty who teach in two-year technical or community colleges, (b) faculty who have used service-learning for at least one year in their courses, and (c) faculty who teach in a variety of academic disciplines. The first two criteria were established so that information could be gained specifically to address the research questions of the study. The final criteria allowed maximum variation in terms of faculty members' academic disciplines. The benefit of doing this was that information gained from participants about service-learning was not discipline-dependent; rather it examined service-learning as it is used: widely across disciplines in two-year colleges. A sample of twelve faculty members in two-year colleges was chosen for the study. Using snowball sampling, research began with faculty members known to the researcher who are doing service-learning, and then proceeded by asking those faculty members to identify other faculty members through their contacts in other two-year colleges. Participants were intentionally selected who represented the arts and sciences and technical or career programs. After an initial nine interviews were done, additional participants were deliberately sought and added who represented allied health programs, since these programs figure prominently in two-year colleges and yet had not been represented in the study. Also, both technical and community colleges

were represented in the sample. All of the participants in the study were full-time faculty members at their respective colleges. Of the participants, two were men and ten were women.

Data Collection

Two primary methods of data collection were used in this study: interviews and document analysis. These two methods yielded the most information possible about the questions under study, and complemented and challenged each other in order to strengthen the validity of the research.

Interviews

Interviews were the primary method of data collection for the study. The purpose of interviewing is "to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective" (Patton, 2002, p. 341). Faculty interviews were used to gain insight into the perspectives of faculty members who are using service-learning in their two-year college classrooms. There are three approaches to the design of qualitative interviews (Patton, 2002): (a) the informal conversational interview, (b) the general interview guide approach, and (c) the standardized open-ended interview (Patton, 2002, p. 342). For this study, a general interview guide approach has been chosen (see Appendix A for Interview Guide). An interview guide will provide "topics or subject areas within which the interviewer is free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular subject" (Patton, 2002, p. 343). The interview guide that was created provided a framework for the interviews. This allowed the researcher to ensure that the same subject areas were addressed with each interview participant, but allowed flexibility so that conversations with different participants were built at different points during the interviews. The interview guide was reviewed after each interview to determine if there were changes that needed to be made. Interview questions were open-ended, and were designed to garner honest responses about the

experiences faculty members have had as they began to integrate service-learning into their practice (Patton, 2002). Probes and follow up questions were often used to clarify responses that were unclear. Because it is true that in qualitative data collection, "[t]hick, rich description provides the foundation for qualitative analysis and reporting" (Patton, 2002, p. 437), every effort was made to elicit as much detail and description as possible from interview participants.

Interview questions were created that addressed each of the four research questions of the study: First, what motivates faculty to participate in service-learning? Second, what is the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice? Third, what is the nature of faculty reflection about service-learning? And fourth, what are faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning? Questions were designed to understand how faculty members became interested in using service-learning, and about their motivations for doing so, as well as to understand the experiences of faculty members as they began using service-learning. The interview also included questions about how they designed courses and how students responded to service-learning experiences, as well as about their own feelings about the experience, and questions were designed to understand how and what types of reflection faculty members used as they incorporated service-learning into their teaching practices, as well as how they led their students in reflective activities. Some of the interviews were done via the telephone and some were done face-to-face. All interviews, regardless of method, were tape-recorded and then transcribed. Using the constant comparative method, transcripts were analyzed throughout the research process for salient themes, commonalities and differences.

Prior to conducting this study, a pilot interview was conducted with one faculty member who had used service-learning. There were two primary purposes for the pilot interview. First,

with the understanding that in a qualitative study "the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and data analysis" (Merriam & Associates, 2002, p. 5), it was important to practice interview techniques so that when the study began, the "instrument" was as sharp as possible. Second, the pilot interviews allowed the researcher to try interview questions, and gave feedback about the usefulness of the study questions that have been developed. As a result of the pilot interview, questions were added that directly addressed challenges that faculty members face as they implement service-learning, and that directly asked participants about the place service-learning holds in two-year colleges.

Document Analysis

Another source of data for this project was document analysis. Document analysis "provides a behind-the-scenes look . . . that may not be directly observable and about which the interviewer might not ask appropriate questions without the leads provided through documents" (Patton, 2002, p. 307). Documents for this study included course syllabi and assignments for service-learning experiences, and reflection assignments given to students. It was originally proposed that the study would also examine reflection documents that faculty members might have generated themselves in the course of using service-learning, but no such documents were available; in fact, one of the findings of the study was that when faculty members reflect, it is often in verbal and informal ways, rather than through formal written methods. Course syllabi demonstrated the ways in which faculty members structured their service-learning courses, and the ways in which they assigned service-learning. Examining reflection assignments given to students provided insight into the ways in which faculty members frame reflection for their students. The purpose of analyzing these documents was to complement the interview data, and provide evidence and examples of faculty members' understanding and use of reflection.

Data Analysis

In qualitative research, analysis of the data does not begin when data collection is through; rather, the "fluent and emergent nature" (Patton, 2002, p. 436) of qualitative inquiry requires that data collection and data analysis occur simultaneously in many places. In the present study, the constant comparative method of data analysis was used, in which units of analysis were compared with previous ones throughout the research process (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Patton, 2002). This method, developed for use in grounded theory research by Glaser and Strauss (1967), includes a basic, defining rule: "while coding an incident for a category, compare it with previous incidents in the same and different groups coded in the same category" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 106). In this vein, as interview transcript and document analysis began, notations were made of patterns, themes or core categories that emerged from the data. A coding system was developed, which was a "process that enable[d] the researcher to identify meaningful data and set the stage for interpreting and drawing conclusions" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 27). The researcher then reviewed the data and as an 'incident' was coded, compared its theme or category with themes and categories that emerged during analysis of previous incidents, and made notations again where similarities and differences existed (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This process continued throughout the entire data analysis process. Finally, after integrating the themes that were identified, each was examined in the context of answering the research questions posed in the beginning of the study.

Validity and Reliability

The constructs of validity and reliability are essential to good research, and need to be defined in relationship with qualitative research studies. Janesick (2000) advocates letting go of traditional (positivist) notions of validity, reliability and generalizability and getting on with

discussions of “powerful statements” from rigorous and carefully done qualitative studies “that uncover the meanings of events in individuals’ lives” (p. 394). Understanding that even as the subject matter of qualitative inquiry is often difficult to quantify and measure, so is it also difficult to measure the quality of qualitative research, and the idea of measurement is too reminiscent of positivist, quantitative research for the comfort of some qualitative researchers. Through the lens of qualitative research, however, there are ways of increasing internal validity, reliability and external validity (Merriam & Associates, 2002).

Internal validity

The construct of internal validity holds particular significance in qualitative research and the question of internal validity is the ever-important question of whether or not the findings of the study reflect reality, which is the reality of the experiences of those being studied (Merriam & Associates, 2002). With reality assumed to be constructed by individuals, the question becomes how well researchers represent the perspectives of the research participants. Since qualitative studies start and end as close to the research participants as possible, “internal validity is considered a strength of qualitative research” (Merriam & Associates, 2002, p. 25).

Triangulation, or the use of multiple methods, sources, analysts or perspectives, is thought to add to the credibility of a research study and strengthen confidence in the conclusions that are drawn (Merriam & Associates, 2002; Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) describes four types of triangulation useful in shoring up internal validity of qualitative studies: (a) triangulation of methods, which might involve including some type of quantitative method along with qualitative ones, (b) triangulation of sources, in which different qualitative data sources – in this case interviews and document analysis – are compared for consistency, (c) triangulation with multiple analysts, in which multiple researchers might analyze the same data, or might compare analyses

of different sets of data within a study, and (d) triangulation of theory, in which the same data set might be examined using several different theoretical frameworks. Triangulation, in whatever form, counters the concern "that a study's findings are simply an artifact of a single method, a single source, or a single investigator's blinders" (Patton, 2002, p. 563) and allows readers to be more confident that the researcher has come as close to capturing the experiences of the participants as possible.

Two other possible ways to ensure internal validity are through processes called member checks and peer reviews (Merriam & Associates, 2002). The process of member checks involves "having the people described in . . . the analysis react to what is described and concluded" (Patton, 2002, p. 560). This might be done at various stages during the research process, and will be particularly important for researchers to do "once they have achieved a more or less coherent structural analysis" (LeCompte, 2000, p. 152). What better way to assess whether findings have captured the experiences of the participants than to ask the participants themselves? Also, having peers or colleagues review the work can increase validity as well. Member checks were completed in this study after all interviews were complete. A summary of preliminary findings was presented to three participants, who confirmed that they were reflective of their experiences. The purpose of this exercise was to ensure that the findings resonated with the participants, and that they felt that their experiences were captured adequately in the findings.

Finally, reflexivity on the part of the researcher cannot be underestimated as a method of increasing internal validity in a study (Merriam & Associates, 2002). Locating one's self in the study is crucial in allowing readers to more fully understand the processes and conclusions of the research. Being reflexive in a qualitative research study might entail making explicit your own biases, prior knowledge and beliefs. It might include recognizing the ways in which you as a

researcher are “affected, indeed transformed by what [you] observe” (Boostrom, 1994, p. 63). Likening a qualitative researcher to a photographer who is trying to capture a scene that others will later view through your lens, it is best to inform them where you were standing when you were holding the camera.

Reliability

Rather than viewing reliability as the ability to be replicated, qualitative researchers might view it to mean that “given the data collected, the results make sense – they are consistent and dependable” (Merriam & Associates, 2002, p. 27). Making use of an audit trail can help qualitative researchers ensure the reliability of their work. An audit trail involves keeping records, and “describes in detail how data were collected, how categories were derived, and how the research decisions were made throughout the inquiry” (Merriam & Associates, 2002, p. 27). An audit trail will also include researcher reflections about issues or questions that come up during the research; this seems an apt technique in a study that has reflection as its subject. Also, having another person review the audit trail can increase validity as well (Patton, 2002).

Since the researcher has been the primary instrument in the present qualitative data collection, increasing personal ability as an interviewer or observer has paid dividends with regards to reliability. A pilot interview helped to prepare the researcher for future work by increasing skill. Also, as Boostrom (1994) asserts, researchers can gradually learn what to pay attention to, which will enable them to be in tune with as much detail – valuable detail – as is possible in the research environment. It is the sincerest hope of this researcher that this has happened in this case.

External validity

Perhaps the criteria that qualitative researchers have the most trouble reconciling with their view of the world is that of external validity or generalizability (Merriam & Associates, 2002). Indeed, generalizability is a creature of the quantitative world – increase sample size and variability so that the results of the study can be as widely generalized beyond the research participants as possible. Deschler and Grudens-Schuck (2000) purport that "generalizability is so esteemed that many scientists believe that knowledge is worthy only when it contributes to the construction of principles, models or theories that explain phenomena universally" (pp. 597-598). Qualitative research, though, is not generalizable in the sense that results are statistically generalizable from a sample to a population. Donmoyer (1990) argues that traditional ways of thinking about generalizability are not adequate for qualitative researchers "who are concerned with individuals and the meaning in their lives" (as cited in Janesick, 2000, p. 393). Janesick (2000) also argues that thinking about generalizability in its traditional, positivist sense "not only falls short, [but] may in fact do serious damage to individual persons" (p. 394). Generalizability in qualitative research, then, might be understood to be dependent on the user, or the reader, of the research. When readers are able to read a qualitative research study and understand how it might apply in their own situation, the research could be said to be 'generalizable.'

The key in helping readers understand as fully as possible the findings of the research so that they may extrapolate them to another setting lies in the thick, rich descriptions which are the hallmark of qualitative research results (Merriam & Associates, 2002). The more meticulous the researcher is in describing the perceptions of research participants, and the more detail is used in describing and interpreting their experiences, the better someone else will be able to understand that phenomenon. When understanding is increased, so is the ability (and likely the desire) to

apply that understanding in other situations. Likewise, variation within the sample, albeit small, will increase the likelihood that readers will be able to apply the findings (Merriam & Associates, 2002).

Finally, in the present study, it seems suitable to apply the principle of catalytic validity as well. Catalytic validity "points to the degree to which research moves those it studies to understand the world and the way it is shaped in order for them to transform it" (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2000, p. 297). As faculty members were interviewed about service-learning, it is anticipated that some of those conversations impacted research participants in a way that will help them gain understanding about themselves as teachers. This will in turn impact their effectiveness and satisfaction in those roles, particularly with regard to their service-learning practice. Certainly that has been the case with regards to this researcher, as participation in these conversations has offered powerful insight into not only the research questions, but to my own service-learning work as well.

Qualitative research methods are appealing for their acknowledgement of the complexities of human experience, and for their failure to pretend that human researchers can operate without biases, or that the possibility exists that research will uncover any one, uncontroverted reality. Service-learning has many complexities of its own, as do the students, faculty members, administrators and community partners that make up the human enterprise of service-learning. A qualitative research design has been an invaluable tool, and indeed has been a comfortable fit, for investigating faculty members who use service-learning.

Researcher Bias and Assumptions

Given the subjective nature of reality that is presupposed by researchers undertaking qualitative inquiries, eliminating researcher bias is not viewed as a plausible or desirable goal by

qualitative researchers. Rather, the focus in qualitative research is on identifying and monitoring researcher bias "as to how they may be shaping the collection and interpretation of data" (Merriam & Associates, 2002, p. 5). As I conclude the present study, it has been important for me throughout to acknowledge my own experiences and beliefs about service-learning and about reflection, so that readers of the study will understand my perspective as they strive to understand the conclusions of my research. Two areas must be addressed here: what predispositions and biases have I brought to the research study? And what changes have I undergone as I conducted the collection and analysis of the data? (Patton, 2002).

First, it is almost impossible to escape the fact that I am a teacher, a two-year college faculty member and a teacher educator, and in those roles I am frequently faced with students who struggle with understanding how theory and practice meet – or don't – in real-life situations. I often listen with wonder – and sometimes dismay – as students try on new ideas and try to figure out where they fit with their practice in classrooms with young children. I am also a faculty member who has been learning over the past four years how to incorporate service-learning experiences in courses I teach, and my own learning experiences are sure to color the way I view this research, and what participants report about their own experiences. I have come to believe in service-learning and what it offers students. So, as I came into this research it has been vital for me to recognize my own beliefs about service-learning. As an instructor, I believe that service-learning and other forms of experiential learning enhance student understanding of course material. As a novice in the art and science of service-learning course design, my experiences using service-learning have been generally positive, and positive enough for me to want to continue trying. As those experiences and beliefs are part of who I am, it would be foolish for me to presume that I could set aside these beliefs and experiences completely in order

to become entirely 'neutral' during the research process. It is essential, though, that I acknowledged at the outset, and reflected upon throughout, the role that my own predispositions have on my role as a researcher, and on my own interpretation of the data I have collected.

Additionally, I have brought my own ideas and experiences with reflection to the data collection and analysis processes. As a faculty member with some experience requiring or offering reflection experiences to students, and with some experience reflecting on my own practice, I have come to believe that reflection, and critical reflection in particular, are difficult concepts for both students and faculty members to grapple with, and yet are essential to the learning process. I find that I am particularly susceptible to the "inspirational rhetoric that surrounds discourse on critical reflection" (Brookfield, 1994, p. 205), yet I wonder about the extent to which faculty members – myself included – actually use critical reflection in their practice. My acknowledgement of this predisposition has been essential as I have striven to collect and analyze data that speak to the reflection experiences of others.

Second, I believe myself to be a person who learns much through interactions with others. So, as a qualitative researcher it is important for me to recognize changes in my own perceptions, beliefs or attitudes that may result from my conversations with others throughout the research process, and the very real possibility that 'who I am' may be different as I interviewed the twelfth person than it was as I began to interview the first. My conversations with these twelve individuals have offered me a rare opportunity to connect with other people who, in this area of practice, are experiencing things that are very similar to my own experiences. I recognized myself in some of the things they said, and I know that I must be able to acknowledge that recognition, and its potential to alter my interpretations of their words. Again, while trying to stop these changes from happening would have been hard work indeed, refusing

to recognize them as they happened would have posed critical concerns for the research at hand. As Denzin (1978) asserts, for a researcher "to be insensitive to shifts in one's own attitudes opens the way for placing naïve interpretations on the complex set of events under analysis" (as cited in Patton, 2002, p. 569). Therefore, I have endeavored to "take seriously [my] responsibility to describe and study" (Patton, 2002, p. 568) what the effects of my existing predispositions and changes that I have undergone during the research process have had on the process itself.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to understand how two-year college faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice, with particular attention paid to the nature of faculty reflection about service-learning. There were four research questions that served as the focus for the study:

1. What motivates faculty to participate in service-learning?
2. What is the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice?
3. What is the nature of faculty reflection surrounding service-learning?
4. What are faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning?

The following chapter will achieve two major objectives: first, it will highlight the twelve faculty members who participated in the study, and second, it will outline the findings that address each of the four research questions.

The Participants

There were twelve faculty members from two-year colleges across the country who participated in this study. Some of the interviews were done face-to-face, and some were done via the telephone. As identified in chapter three, individuals who participated in this study teach in two-year colleges (community or technical colleges), have been doing service-learning in their courses for at least one year, and collectively they represent a variety of academic fields. See Table 1 for an outline of participant information.

Table 1: Overview of Participant Information

Participant's Name	Discipline	Number of Years Using Service-Learning
1. Catie	Accounting	1.5 years
2. Josie	Psychology and Sociology	1 year
3. Rafael	English	4 years
4. Grace	Sociology	10 years
5. Betsy	English	12 years
6. Dan	Physics	2 years
7. Pam	Early Childhood Education	2 years
8. Deborah	Psychology	5 years
9. Emma	Spanish	2 years
10. Susan	Physical Therapy Assistant	3 years
11. Donna	Occupational Therapy Assistant	5 years
12. Rebecca	History	10 years

Individual Participants

Catie. Catie is an accounting instructor in a technical college. She is warm and welcoming, and she has a methodical and thoughtful way of speaking. She has used service-learning in her accounting courses for about one and a half years. During her service-learning projects, she has partnered with a local senior center each spring and had her accounting students prepare income taxes for qualified seniors. As part of the project, students meet with the seniors

and gather pertinent information, prepare the tax returns, and then meet with the seniors again to share the prepared taxes with them.

Josie. Josie is a sociology instructor in a technical college, and at the time she was interviewed she had been doing service-learning in her courses for one year. She had partnered with a local center for family resources and involved her classes in several projects with the same partner, including assisting with working in the local food bank and distributing food at Thanksgiving, and helping prepare and staff a major fundraiser for the organization. She has also worked collaboratively with an English instructor as part of a freshman experience, in which she also included service-learning. Her bubbly enthusiasm and energy underscored her excitement about service-learning, which is still relatively new to her.

Rafael. Rafael is an English instructor in a technical college. He has been doing service-learning for four years at the time of our interview. He began doing projects that he designed and presented to students, who implemented them in various English courses he teaches. Now, he has students work individually and choose projects in their own areas of interest. For three years, Rafael's students participated in an immigration project, where his English students interviewed senior citizens who were immigrants, recorded the interviews, and wrote brief histories which were shared with the local senior center and the senior's families. Rafael is also working on a dissertation that is focused on service-learning, and he also serves as a mentor for the Horizons project.

Grace. Grace teaches sociology in a community college. She has been doing service-learning for ten years, after beginning by designing a social ecology course with a fellow faculty member that was framed around the issue of civic engagement. The course was designed as a response to their perceptions that students are becoming increasingly disengaged from

community life. Presently, as a part of the service-learning component of her courses, students volunteer in a local after-school program and an adult literacy program. Grace also serves as a faculty service-learning coordinator on her campus, and she works with approximately forty faculty members who use service-learning.

Betsy. Betsy is an English instructor in a community college. She has been using service-learning in her courses for twelve years, and she has used service-learning in both two- and four-year colleges. She candidly spoke about her own "boredom" with her classes before she discovered service-learning, and in good humor admitted that her students were probably as bored as she was. Throughout the time she has been using service-learning, her English students have participated in a wide variety of service projects, including tutoring middle school students in inner city schools, as well as a number of literacy-related projects and projects focused on poverty.

Dan. Dan teaches physics at a technical college, and has been doing service-learning for two years. During our interview, which we conducted in his physics classroom, he went into his adjacent office several times so that he could bring things out to show me. His projects involve an ongoing partnership with a local elementary school, where his students go into a fourth grade classroom and teach basic physics concepts to the children. He showed me some of the light bulb circuitry kits that he uses with the children, and he explained to me how they work. His excitement, both about service-learning and about science, was palpable and I left wishing I had been taught by a science teacher with such energy.

Pam. Pam is an early childhood instructor in a technical college. Because I also teach in an early childhood program, we had much to talk about, and focusing our discussion on service-learning alone was a bit of a challenge. Since her college does not have a child

development lab, Pam began using service-learning two years ago in order to give her students more hands-on, practical experience working with children. Her students are involved in projects involving creating literacy projects for local child care centers, and planning and implementing parenting classes through a community agency.

Deborah. Deborah is a psychology instructor in a community college. She has been using service-learning for five years, and during that time her students have completed service-learning projects at a retirement home where they provided support for older adults, and have volunteered in the Alzheimer's unit. They have also provided directed child care for children whose parents were enrolled in a local English as a Second Language (ESL) class. I was struck as I listened to her talk by the variety of psychology courses she teaches – she mentioned theories of personality, introduction to psychology, human growth and development – and her ability to make clear connections with service-learning in each of those areas.*Susan.* Susan is an instructor in a physical therapist assistant program. She has been using service-learning for three years. Susan responded quickly to my request for an interview, and I spoke with her over the phone in the evening while she was on her spring break. In her program, her students design their own service-learning projects by identifying community partners with a need for health care related services, and providing those services. Projects have included designing exercise programs in an assisted living home, designing conditioning and flexibility programs in local high schools, and providing a health fair at a high school near the college campus. The focus of her program, and her service-learning projects, is career preparation, and she maintains that service-learning helps them be ready to go to work when they graduate from her program.

Donna. Donna teaches in an Occupational Therapist Assistant program in a two-year technical college, and has been using service-learning for five years. When she started talking

about the projects she does with her students, she listed eight or ten projects, and then we both laughed when she said, "And that's just in this one class!" Her students, taking on various roles related to occupational therapy, participate in numerous individualized projects throughout her community. Examples of projects include guiding activities related to personal hygiene and parenting skills through the Salvation Army, providing tutoring to middle school students through a neighborhood center near the college, working on a project to help disadvantaged and cognitively disabled students attend their high school prom, and educating senior citizens in local assisted living centers about fall prevention.

Emma. After participating in service-learning as an undergraduate student, Emma uses service-learning as an instructor in her Spanish courses. She is soft spoken and deliberate with her words, and she ate her lunch at her desk while we talked on the phone. She works in a community college and has been using service-learning for two years. She teaches a three-course series in Spanish, and she introduces the service-learning experiences progressively over the three courses, with students becoming involved with different areas of the project in each subsequent term. Her students participate in a wide range of activities, including tutoring younger students and working with elderly individuals, all the while immersing themselves in both the Spanish language and Hispanic culture of the area. When they have completed their service, Emma's students write their reflections in Spanish, which encourages in-depth use of the language. She encourages various types of grammatical construction, as well as logical thought, by asking hypothetical questions of her students such as "if you had a million dollars to give this community organization, what would you want it to be spent on?"

Rebecca. Rebecca teaches history in a community college. When Rebecca responded to my request for an interview, I admit I was curious about what a service-learning connection with

history might be. Her answer to that question was delightful, and was something that according to Rebecca, she mulled over for about a year. When placing her students in service-learning sites in the area where she works, Rebecca focuses on the process of history, rather than the content of the courses she teaches. Students in her courses volunteer at museums and in educational settings where they complete tasks such as cataloging historical artifacts, assisting with setting up historical lectures and arranging school visits.

Overview of Findings

The findings of this study address four areas as designated by the four research questions. These areas are faculty motivation for participation in service-learning, the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practices as teachers, the nature of faculty members' reflection about service-learning, and faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning. See Table 2 for an overview of the findings.

The findings of this study illuminate important information about the ways in which two-year college faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice as teachers. First, it was found that faculty members are often introduced to service-learning by a colleague. Faculty members who continue to use service-learning after having been introduced to it are often seeking innovation. They also are motivated to continue using service-learning because of their perceptions of enhanced student learning, both academic and civic/ social as a result of service-learning. Additionally, some faculty members have a propensity toward service in their own lives.

There is a five-step process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice as teachers. First, they are introduced to service-learning and decide to use it. Second, they develop a working definition of service-learning. Third, they find ways to manage

logistics and confront challenges that occur as they implement service-learning. Fourth, they utilize feedback from a variety of sources and reflect on their work, and fifth, they make changes to their service-learning practices based on this feedback and reflection, and theoretically integrate service-learning into their practice.

Faculty members reflect on their service-learning in a three primary ways: (a) private, introspective reflection, (b) collaborative reflection, and (c) written reflection. Most often, faculty members reflect informally with other people about their service-learning work. Also, when two-year college faculty members talk theoretically about service-learning, they most often frame their theoretical understandings in terms of student learning, rather than of service. They cite theoretical models of learning such as active or experiential learning, which, faculty members assert, engender deeper levels of learning in their students. They contend that service-learning has utility when capturing various learning styles of students and that service-learning allows students to engage with the curriculum and make stronger connections with the material they are learning. Finally, faculty members in this study overwhelmingly view service-learning as a natural fit for the student body and the mission/ purpose of two-year colleges.

Table 2: Overview of Findings

What motivates faculty to participate in service-learning?

- Initial motivations
  - Introduced by a colleague
- Continuing motivations
  - Seeking innovation
  - Perceptions of increased student learning, both academic and civic/ social
  - Propensity toward service

What is the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice?

- Introduction to service-learning and decision to use
- Working definition of service-learning
- Managing logistics and confronting challenges
- Reflection, evaluation and feedback from students and community partners
- Changes to implementation and theoretical integration

What is the nature of faculty members' reflections about service-learning?

- Private, introspective
- Collaborative, informal
- Written

What are faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning?

- Based on student learning
- Active, experiential learning
- Deeper levels of learning and stronger connections with curriculum
- Meets a variety of learning styles

Faculty Motivation

The findings about faculty motivation to participate in service-learning can be divided into two categories: how faculty members were introduced to service-learning and were motivated to begin using service-learning, and motivations for continuing to use service-learning once they had begun. The following section will address ways in which participants described their initial and continuing motivation to use service-learning in their courses.

Motivation to Begin Service-Learning

Because a number of the faculty in this study work at colleges that have participated or are participating in the Broadening Horizons Grant project, through the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC), it is perhaps no surprise that some participants were first introduced to service-learning because of this project. Pam was introduced to service-learning when her college began writing the grant for the Horizons Project. Both Rafael and Josie remember volunteering to do service-learning when their college was awarded the Horizons Grant. According to Rafael, "She asked for volunteers, and I said, 'well, I'll do it,' not knowing exactly what it was." Catie professes that she had heard about service-learning and was curious about it, so when a workshop was provided at her campus as part of the Horizons project, she went so that she could learn more about it. Dan was introduced to service-learning through the service-learning coordinator on his college campus, and Rebecca first heard about service-learning at a workshop offered on a college convocation day at her school. Emma participated in service-learning herself as an undergraduate student, an experience which she said has remained with her in her life as an instructor:

> I participated in service-learning when I was an undergrad and that was very influential in – I guess my entire life. . . . so when I made the move into teaching I wanted to keep that. I wanted to make sure that my students could have that kind of experience.

Betsy, Deborah, Susan, Donna and Grace all assert that they were introduced to service-learning by a colleague. Deborah was introduced to service-learning by an administrator who had already begun taking steps toward creating community partnerships; she states that she went forward with service-learning in part because this person had done so much introductory work already. Betsy tells that a colleague offered her a textbook to review for her English courses that addressed social issues. She began teaching about social issues, and then the colleague mentioned an idea he had heard about: service-learning. Their interest grew, and they went to conferences to learn more about service-learning. Grace had a similar experience:

> A colleague approached me with an idea and he said that he was concerned about the increased – what he saw as the increased disengagement of young people from community life, from civic life. And he had this idea that we would create a six-credit class – Introduction to Sociology – and a social ecology class, where we would teach our course material, but organize it around the topic of civic engagement. The centerpiece of this six-credit class would be that students had to do a 20-hour service project.

Susan recounts the way in which she was introduced to service-learning in her interview for her present position; one of the interview questions she was asked was whether she knew what service-learning was.

After having been introduced to service-learning initially, faculty members who participated in this project talked candidly about how they got started using service-learning. Some of the participants admitted to being bored with their courses and seeking innovation and

excitement through the use of service-learning. Betsy's words aptly reflect the sentiment expressed by several participants: "I don't know who was more bored with my course, my students or myself." According to Rafael, service-learning is something that "motivates me to make my classes better. Even though I teach one section of five classes, I still will find myself getting bored, like on autopilot . . . teaching the same thing over and over again." Dan states, "I like doing things different that I've never done before. I like changing things."

Many of the participants expressed a desire to go forward using service-learning because of anticipated benefits for their students; they were searching for more effective ways to teach so that their students might learn more. Recognizing that students in her courses have different learning styles, Rebecca values service-learning because she believes that it allows for learning in a way that is different from traditional assignments: "it's like that different way of learning; it's like that hands-on learning for people who really have trouble sitting still and reading a book." For that reason, too, Rebecca leaves service-learning as an option rather than a requirement for her students. She wants students to be able to choose assignments that will fit with their own individual learning styles and lifestyles:

> I feel really strong about keeping this assignment in as an option, because . . . there are some students who just like to stick with the scholarly aspect of things and that's totally fine. But I find that this one is probably more of an affective kind of an assignment and some people really thrive on that.

After being introduced to service-learning, Catie discussed the idea with her students, and ultimately made the decision to include service-learning in her accounting classes because she felt that "it gives them more real-world experience than the classroom allows for." Pam began using service-learning to ensure that her students were given hands-on career exploration in the

field of early childhood education: “because we don’t have a child development lab, it’s really hard for some of our students to try out what they’re learning, and service-learning allows them to have that opportunity.”

Another compelling finding was that several of the participants expressed that before beginning with service-learning, they already had a personal propensity toward civic engagement and volunteer work. When talking about his service-learning project where his physics students go into a local elementary school and teach basic physics concepts to fourth-graders, Dan says, “My background is – I did a lot of tutoring, church school with children. I’ve constantly been involved with children in my life, so it was a very easy transition to do service-learning, especially working with younger people.” Betsy describes her inclination toward service-learning by saying, “It’s really funny, I’ve always been very civic minded,” and about his initial attraction to the idea of service-learning, Rafael states, “Service-learning fit in very well with the things I value. I mean I do service, I volunteer; I always have and I always will.” Rebecca, while stating that she doesn’t do any formal volunteer work herself, avows that “I just feel like my whole life is service in a way.” Emma feels that her service-learning work has been enhanced by the fact that she worked in a variety of nonprofit and community-based agencies prior to beginning work as a teacher. Not only are some of those agencies serving as community partners in her service-learning work, but she believes that it was this work that helped her make important connections that she hopes to bring to her students through service-learning.

Motivation to Continue Using Service-Learning

It seems apparent that the primary motivator for all of the faculty members in this study to continue using service-learning after they had begun was their perception of enhanced student learning. Most participants cited what they believed to be increased academic learning as a

result of service-learning projects, as well as touting the advantages of real-world application of course concepts. As a result of the tutoring project, Dan believes that his students learn the concepts of physics better: "They learn these circuits better, that's one thing they learn. They learn how to manipulate that better, so they're learning their circuitry better." Betsy and Rafael both indicate that their students become better writers as a result of their service-learning projects, partly because they were writing for a real audience. In Rafael's words:

> So in the past in technical writing . . . they have this little fictional company and you have all these activities that this fictional company does, and those students will write memos and letters and reports and that sort of thing around that fictional crap that the book made up, so now they're writing about real-life stuff. They write a memo to me when they do the proposal, they write a thank you letter to the organization. They write a report to the organization where they try to take one of that agency's issues that it deals with and help them to do it a little better.

Both Josie and Grace articulate the ways in which they believe that the content of their sociology courses comes alive to students as they participate in service-learning projects. When discussing a project she has done with the food pantry in her local area at Thanksgiving, Josie says,

> The Thanksgiving project works perfect because in sociology we talk about homelessness, we talk about social class – a whole chapter, we talk about sixty million Americans living at or below the poverty level. How does this homelessness affect our culture? What are the consequences of homelessness? And when our students actually get the food and hand it out and work the food pantry and hand them to the needy families two days before Thanksgiving, and they make that connection. They get it. Their reflection papers make me know that they get it.

Likewise, Deborah asserts that her psychology students "get to connect what they're doing with different concepts in the book." Pam, in her early childhood program, observes increased critical thinking in her students, as well as an opportunity to apply what they were learning in class. Both Donna and Susan believe that service-learning allows students in their physical and occupational therapist assistant programs to gain a deeper understanding of the profession. Susan states: "Physical therapists have such varied roles in the profession that service-learning offers an application of these roles." Emphasizing the mission of the technical college system within which she works, Donna has this to say: "our emphasis in [our] technical college system is that our students walk out with strong technical, hands-on skills. I feel that service-learning not only complements, but enhances those technical skills." Emma believes that through service-learning experiences, her Spanish students "gain a lot more confidence in their ability to use the language in real contexts outside of the classroom environment, and that is a huge step toward their continuing with the language after they complete the course. She also asserts that participating in these experiences gives students the "feeling that what they've been studying is relevant and useful and in a lot of cases it's given them some idea of what they want to do with their future careers," which might include work with nonprofit agencies or community based organizations.

From faculty members' perspectives, student learning is not limited to the realm of the academic as a result of service-learning. Often throughout these interviews, faculty espoused that students experience increased civic competence, and an enhanced sense of civic engagement, among other non-academic benefits. Dan, who is most accustomed to thinking about his students' comprehension of principles of physical science, feels that service-learning broadens his students' competencies in social areas as well:

> One of the things I think about now is the ability of my students to get along with other people. I wasn't really aware of that. I mean I see that around here, but how they really functioned out there, when they had to be in charge, how they interact with each other when they're working and with the young people. That was different for me.

Donna also feels that "the most important thing [students get out of service-learning] is first of all their actual interactions with people besides the instructors and their peers." She notes that the courses in her occupational therapist assistant program are small and close-knit groups, and service-learning requires students to step out of that comfort zone and get a feeling of the larger world of work in the professional field. In her physical therapist assistant program, Susan agrees that "service-learning makes our students so much more ready to deal with people, and to deal with the people as a group as well as to deal with the individual patient." Deborah notes the ways in which the challenges students face through service-learning allow them to learn about themselves, "especially when they differ from what someone else is doing." She believes that in psychology, the fact that service-learning enables students to "learn what other people's worlds are like" is a real strength of service-learning. Likewise, while Emma wants students to increase their competence with the Spanish language by participating in service-learning, she also wants students to be aware that "learning language is not just the academic study, but it has real implications and that it's connected to other things." That is why she encourages students to become involved with issues facing the Latino community through their service-learning projects. She believes that as a result of service-learning experiences, students "become more aware and informed citizens, which is a goal that's difficult to quantify, but still a very valuable piece of [their education]."

Several other faculty members also cited a connection with the larger community as a primary benefit of service-learning. Josie believes that her introductory sociology students gain "a sense of community and civic engagement out of it – where they fit and how they can help." Likewise, when talking about the civic benefits of service-learning for her students, Betsy feels that as a result of those experiences students "know how they fit in the world, what important issues there are in their own backyards and nationally." Rebecca tries to use service-learning as a way to help students see beyond themselves to the greater world:

> I think that's one of our jobs to open their eyes to what's out there in the world, you know to move beyond their own petty lives, you know. We all have a petty life, so we need to have our eyes opened and I feel that that's a part of what this does.

Catie sees that as a result of her service-learning projects in her accounting classes, students became more familiar with their community, and her hope is this: "In the long run I would like for them to feel a need or a desire to become involved with community needs once the experience is over." She believes this to be a foreseeable outcome of the projects, since she found that students did finish the project with what she described as a "vested interest in their community beyond [just] working." Pam believes that her students gain valuable workforce skills through their participation in service-learning.

Rafael and Grace both use the word "obligation" in describing a sense of commitment to their community that they believe students gain through participation in service-learning. Grace says, "[Service-learning] gets them out into the community, being active members of their local communities, contributing and understanding that role, that obligation that they have." Rafael asserts that while his students were doing their service projects, "they were also learning about the services that [a local community partner] provided for the community and understanding the

negatives and their responsibility to take care of those who are less fortunate than them. . . . I think that it makes them a better person. They become more civically engaged. They realize that they have to give something back, that they need to give something back to the community. That it's their obligation to do so." In speaking of service-learning in her physical therapist assistant program, Susan has this to say:

> The physical therapy profession, as designed by the APTA or American Physical Therapy Association, has what it calls core values, and some of the core values are altruism and compassion and professionalism and doing things for the betterment of people. And I just think service-learning fits into every one of those core values of the profession, and is this great way for students to engage in and learn about their community and develop as a person, especially those core professional values.

Process of Integration

As faculty members continue to work with service-learning, it seems that they gradually integrate it into their practice as teachers. This process of integration was one of the primary foci of this study, and is outlined in the following section. (See Figure 1). After being introduced to service-learning and deciding to use it, the second part of the process seems to be developing a working definition of service-learning, examining its parameters, and figuring out how it can be connected to course content. After becoming familiar with service-learning, Josie talks about figuring out how service-learning could fit with the competencies of the courses they were teaching. She expresses that she had difficulty figuring that out in the beginning, and that Gail Robinson from AACC corrected her a few times in the beginning: "'we are not volunteering, this has to be built into the curriculum.' The hardest part of service-learning is asking your community partner, 'what do you need? How can I help you?' and then tying that into your

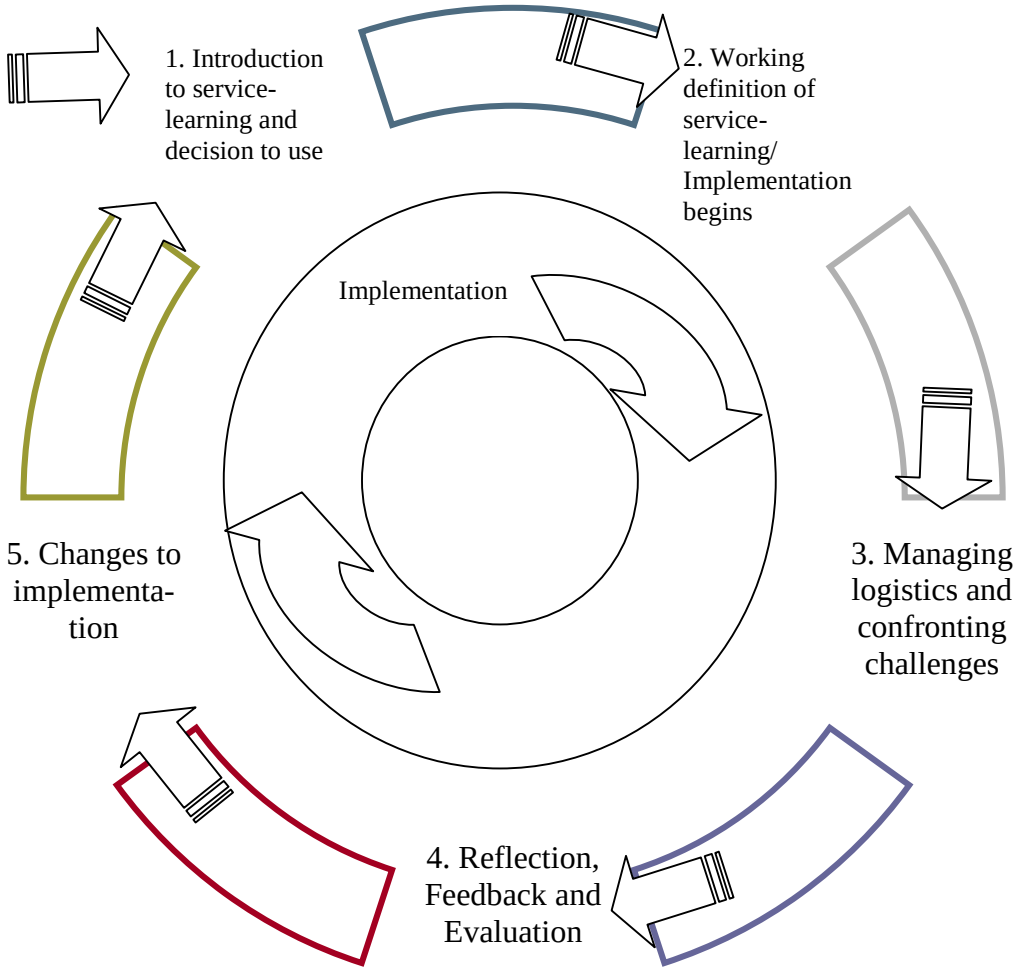
curriculum." In explaining the process she went through in understanding the fact that service-learning must be tied to curricular objectives, she has this to say, "[In the beginning] I just thought of it as volunteering and the curriculum – I thought everything relates to psychology. But actually building it into the curriculum: I'm much more demanding of that now." In fact, in a service-learning assignment sheet which she gives to student participants, Josie begins by quoting a service-learning definition from the American Association of Community Colleges. As an accounting instructor, Catie states, "It's kind of difficult in my content area to find activities that fulfill the course competencies." Rafael expresses that he did research on his own to figure out what service-learning was: "I did a lot of reading on my own because as soon as I realized what service-learning was and how kind of cool it was and how it was really something that I would want to do, I decided that I would do my dissertation on it, back from the very beginning." Grace, Catie and Betsy all went to conferences or workshops as they were beginning in order better to define service-learning in their own minds. Soon after she was hired, Susan met with her associate dean who explained service-learning and its components to her. She then began her work by meeting with other faculty members who had been using service-learning as well as her college's service-learning advisory committee in order to fully understand how to use service-learning herself. While Rebecca had a difficult time figuring out how service-learning might be connected with the content of her history courses, she had an epiphany that allowed her to move forward:

> I could not quite figure out how to configure it with my history courses, because I teach things like Western Civ. and ancient Mesopotamia and Rome, and how does something in [my state] hook up with that . . .I had been mulling it over for about a year, and I started to come up with the idea that I would just hook up students doing the – meeting

the objectives of the class with the process of history, not the exact topics we were studying. . . . So, once I got that figured out, then everything else sort of fell into place for me.

When Donna began using service-learning, she was working with another faculty member. They began a collaborative project, which allowed her to learn about service-learning while working with another person. What she found was that the most difficult aspect of service-learning in the beginning was "finding the correct community partner to meet the competencies, the objectives of the course."

Figure 1: Five-Step Process of Integration



The next step in the integration process was managing the logistics of the projects that they chose and negotiating challenges that arose. Faculty members discussed many difficulties that they face in figuring out the reality of making service-learning work in the context of their many responsibilities as well as the multiple roles their adult students fulfill. All of the faculty members discussed issues such as choosing a community partner or service site, transportation, and student criminal background checks. On her work with service-learning in her English classes, Betsy says, "I've improved how to do things logistically, as far as let me get this background check at this point, let me do this at this point, dealing with issues of risk management – all of those practical, logistical things I continue to make changes. I've also adjusted depending on who the best community partners are." Catie talks about the issues she faced of setting up a schedule for doing tax returns that met both the students' and seniors' needs, as well as making sure all of the information the students gave to the seniors was correct: "I had to coordinate. I had to make sure all the material was correct. I had to set up some sort of schedule with the senior center, and had to do it based on the senior needs rather than on my class needs, which became very difficult, too. The logistics of it became very interesting." On Pam's service-learning assignment sheet that she gives to students, she begins with a list of logistical concerns that must be addressed before a student can begin their service, such as having a criminal record check on file and having the project pre-approved by the instructor. Dan speaks about the process of making sure all of his adult students make it to the service site: "It's sometimes a little bit stressful getting everybody over there." With enthusiasm he adds: "Nobody's ever been late!"

Communication with community partners was also identified as a primary challenge that must be negotiated in order for service-learning experiences to go smoothly. Susan emphasizes

that faculty members must negotiate is clarity of expectations between themselves and community partners:

> . . .really hammering out what that partner needs and expects. . . . You know what your students can offer, and you know what your students know, but that partner may not. So really creating very clear expectations and creating very set and agreed upon ideas of what the finished product will look like. That way you're both working toward the same goal.

Donna reiterates this, adding that part of her difficulty is helping her community partners understand what service-learning is, and what it is not. Emma articulates that student expectations are also an issue that must be addressed. Based on their experiences in an academic environment, students may have come to expect something different than what they find in community settings:

> Students are used to an academic environment where they're given the syllabus and where everything is laid out, homework has specific due dates and dates for class and everyone's there and at the right time, and they expect that when they go into the community, and that's not how things work in the community.

All of the faculty members talk about time being a significant logistical issue that has to be overcome, both for their students and for themselves. Grace and Catie talk about how busy their students' lives are, many of whom are holding down jobs, raising families and going to school. Fitting time in those busy schedules to do service is a challenge. In Grace's words: "Our students are time-stretched and many of them are working full time and have families, and I think that's one of the challenges, to not only find a way to fit service into that schedule, but also something that's meaningful in the time they have open." Donna began to schedule service-time

in the same way that she schedules lab time in her clinical courses in order to deal with the time crunch that many of her students feel. Rebecca says that her worst experience is when she has a student "flake" and not show up for their service-assignment; she maintains that she lost one of her favorite community partners when a student didn't show up for a day of service there, though she is grateful that most of the time students are very reliable in their service.

In addition to time issues faced by their students, when asked about the challenges they face in implementing service-learning, all of the faculty members in the study mentioned not having enough time themselves. When speaking about their own time, Rafael's words sum up those of all of the participants: "I mean we all don't have enough time. It [service-learning] is extremely time consuming." All of the participants were open about how much time it takes to do service-learning, and about the fact that they have many other responsibilities that they must juggle. Josie, when talking about the many service-learning possibilities she envisions for her psychology and sociology classes, states, "Now managing time is a very different thing. We're on a very strained timeline." Grace, in explaining why she believes time to be a bigger issue for two-year college faculty than for those who teach in four-year colleges, states,

> I think our faculty teach heavier loads and so while I don't think that service is necessarily a lot of extra work in a course, I think that it's sometimes hard for other faculty to come on board with that, because if they're teaching four or five classes, it just feels to them like they can't add another thing.

She goes on to talk about the changing nature of faculty work that makes it harder for her to focus on service-learning,

> I think from the faculty member's point of view, I know in the classroom, and this is part of this feeling is that we have students who are coming less and less prepared for college

> so we have to do more and more work with them. And we're expected to do a lot of assessment, and you know then there's the emails and a lot more committee work it seems than there was in the past, so I think there's a lot of things that have changed about the nature of our work that just makes it harder for us to focus on these things.

Betsy corroborates this feeling when talking about the assessment that goes along with doing service-learning: "If you're teaching a full load of four classes, it's really hard to do service-learning because you don't have time to do all that paperwork, the assessment piece is big."

Additionally, several faculty members expressed frustration at what Grace referred to as "tepid administrative support." Deborah agrees that a lack of administrative support on her campus makes her service-learning work difficult, and that even though administrators "give lip-service to [service-learning]," little instrumental support is given. This is not the case across the board, however. Rafael, Josie and Susan praise the administrations at their respective schools for the support that is given to service-learning at their colleges. Rafael credits his college president for much of the progress that has been made with service-learning at his college, saying that the president has always been a big supporter of service-learning, and therefore has allocated essential resources needed to grow a service-learning program. Susan echoes this idea, asserting that the fact that the "higher echelons" of administration at her school have endorsed service-learning has allowed it to flourish.

The final two steps of the process were getting feedback on the service-learning experiences, both from students and from community partners, and reflecting on the experiences as an instructor. Then, changes were often made in the way service-learning was implemented in subsequent courses as a result of this feedback and reflection. In the process of integrating service-learning into their practice, faculty members look to a variety of forms of feedback and

evaluation. All of them addressed in one way or another the importance of students' reflections in how they thought about their work. Dan became aware of the anxiety level of students, as well as their response to the children with whom they were working in the physics project. "The first time we did it, in the reflections, one of the women talked about being incredibly anxious. She was still anxious when it was over with, but she felt more at ease with young people." He also says, "My students like the incredibly enthusiastic response from the students over there." Josie states that her students' reflection papers were one of the ways that she knew they had made critical connections between the course content and the service that they did: ". . . they make that connection; they get it. Their reflection papers make me know that they get it." She also realized based on student feedback that "they love hands-on, experiential projects," particularly in contrast with more traditional classroom experiences. Catie talked with her accounting students before, during and after the tax preparation project, and got invaluable insight from them about what they got from the project: "They were able to put their coursework to work for them. And after the fact, many of them expressed interest in finding avenues that they could provide time within the community doing whatever." She also realized that an unexpected outcome of the project was how attuned her students had become to the needs of the seniors. For example, they increased the font size so that the organizer would be easier to read. Catie maintains that she knew that they knew "the tax stuff behind it," but was pleasantly surprised by how deeply they delved into the community.

Donna states that she uses student's reflection papers as a form of evaluation, and maintained that she takes students' feedback seriously when making changes to future assignments. She also said that she uses student feedback to demonstrate to her national accrediting body her use of evaluation and program improvement.

Instructors also garner feedback from community partners as a method of making future program changes. Pam uses both formal and informal methods of garnering feedback from her community partners, which she asserts allows her to reflect on ways to make her service-learning projects better. Emma believes that her relationship with her community partners works to her advantage because they give her candid feedback about what is working and what is not. She said that after conversations with her community partners she finds herself asking, "well, geez, am I really helping the community or am I – you know what sort of a model am I giving? Am I burdening these organizations more than they would normally be?" At Susan's school, community partners serve on an advisory council alongside school faculty and administrators, which is an avenue through which partners can give feedback on a variety of issues.

Based on the feedback they received, or on their own reflections, faculty members often found that they made changes to the service-learning experiences they offered to students. Those changes ranged from minor, logistical changes, to fundamental changes in the way projects were structured. Catie talks about changing the way the tax project would be implemented the next time it's used: "One of the things we have determined is that we will not give the organizer to the seniors to fill out. Next time the organizer will be completed by the student." Betsy talks about learning that some community partners were easier to work with than others based on logistical concerns, such as choosing agencies that have a process for criminal background checks already in place, rather than having to take that on as an instructor. Dan expanded the focus of his project in his second year to include other physical science concepts: "This year we're going to do the same thing [light bulbs and electrical circuits], except we're going to do force and motion, too, which I'm trying to figure out how the best way to handle that." Susan made changes to her service-learning program based on both a statewide curriculum change which re-distributed

clinical and classroom hours among classes in the program, and in response to a community partner's request for additional and different help. These types of procedural and logistic changes vary greatly from person to person, and from project to project. While Rebecca stopped requiring students to keep a journal of their experiences because she felt that it was not accomplishing her reflection goals for students, Susan vowed to begin a journaling process for her students in future projects.

Even while negotiating such daunting challenges, the participants in this study have continued to grow and change the ways they provide service-learning. In addition to smaller changes such as the ones previously mentioned, several of the faculty members have undergone fundamental changes in the way they offer service-learning to their students. Betsy and Rafael, both English instructors, talked at length about the process of letting go of control over the service-learning projects during the time they have been using service-learning and allowing students to have more and more control over the projects they do. Betsy says:

> But most of the teaching has dealt with partnerships. It's forced me to get better organized, too, and I also think the companion piece to that is over time I've let go more and more control over the class. I'm much better at walking in and being prepared for them to say anything about the service-learning, anything about the service aspect, and I'm much more willing to jettison whatever it was I had planned that day because we have to reflect and discuss about something that happened – a critical incident or something. So I'd say I've gotten to be less of a kinda control freak teacher.

Rafael, too, talks about letting go of control over the projects. He asserts that in the beginning of his time using service-learning, he did whole-class projects over which he maintained all of the

control. Now, he allows students to pick their own projects, and maintain control over their projects – and their learning:

> And I'll give you a good example. When I first started doing service-learning, I really felt like the projects should be group class projects. I thought that they were the best because I'm so egocentric, you know, like all teachers are, and we want control of everything our students are doing and we think that we're the ones who can create these wonderful experiences for them and that's what I thought. I thought that I could plan this wonderful experience that they could all go and do that would make them so much better. You know, that would make their experience so much better. And it worked, I mean you know, they were . . . those projects are effective. But what I came to realize from talking to students and from talking to other faculty around the country is that the individual projects like I was telling you about can be so much more powerful because the student is in charge of his or her own learning. They get to decide everything. They're the ones that have to think it through – how does this fit into the objective? And they're the ones who have to decide the reflection activities they're going to do to help them make the connection between the service and the learning. Um, and so for me that was a big step, because that was me giving up control, total control of my classroom and really letting them do the learning for themselves. So really that was a big change for me that I had to think about for about a year, to see exactly how it was going to work.

Over time, Rebecca has come to accept that when students are out in the field doing service-learning experiences, she is not in complete control of what happens: "they're sort of out there and I don't have 100% control over their experience. But I let it go, and once in a while something goes wrong, but the overwhelming majority of the time has been really great."

Deborah, describing a change she has undergone over the time she has been using service-learning, states "I'm more active with my students now than I was originally, talking with them about what they're learning and helping them learn" She says that she reviews their reflections more often now than she used to, and provides more active and frequent feedback to them now. She also states that she is more actively involved with the community partner herself then she was when she began.

In addition to faculty members verbalizing the changes they have made over time as they implement service-learning, some of them talked about changes that still need to be made, but haven't yet been. In Grace's words: "We haven't evolved in the way I would have liked, in large part because of limited institutional resources. . . We haven't done nearly as much as I would have liked with community partners simply because I don't have the time." Josie, who has been using service-learning only about one year, has begun to look at ways to expand service-learning in her sociology courses:

> I need to just stretch beyond . . . and I'm going to have to stretch beyond our partner and find some other things for civic engagement. . . . Maybe I need to go do something in race relations, or maybe I need to go do something with gender or maybe I need to relate some different type of project. And it takes some creativity and I'm still not there yet. I have along way to go yet. I'm no expert about programming and building it in and what would be best for the curriculum competencies. But there's lots of room to grow.

When describing her desire to include journaling as a reflection tool in future courses, Susan talks about using a variety of ways for students to reflect, including online discussion boards, presentations, and end-of-term celebrations. Some of the faculty members also talked about potential administrative changes at the college level that would make offering service-learning

easier for faculty members in the long run. Rafael, whose college has just created an office of service-learning, spoke optimistically about what a difference that change will make: "I think we're moving in the right direction with [name of service-learning coordinator] being the service-learning coordinator now, at least part-time, and bring the Vista worker on full-time just to do a lot of that clerical work."

Finally, as faculty members spoke openly about their work integrating service-learning into their teaching practice, several of them asserted that having experienced service-learning, they would be unable or unwilling to go back to teaching in the more traditional ways they had been before. Betsy describes a time when she had to go back to teaching her developmental English classes without service-learning because she moved to a new college where community partnerships for service-learning had not yet been established: "And oh, God it was just so boring, and I don't think they learned the material as well." Josie describes the idea of teaching without service-learning as going backwards: "And I can't do a class now without service-learning. You've just added this whole new component to your class, and you can't go backwards." Rafael says, "If anything I feel much more strongly about service-learning today than I did four and a half or five years ago." He adds that he includes service-learning in all of his courses now. Rebecca also emphasizes that once she started, she has never stopped using service-learning. In fact, all of the participants in this study have continually used service-learning in their courses and continue to use it today.

In describing their work with service-learning, many of the participants echoed the sentiment that the longer they have done it, the more comfortable they have become with it, and the more innovative they are able to be with service-learning. Susan's words capture the reaction

of many participants: “There is definitely an experiential comfort that goes with doing more than one project, and there is a lot of intimidation . . . the first time you try it.”

The Nature of Reflection

As faculty members discussed their service-learning experiences and the reflections that they received from students about those experiences, they also began to talk about their own reflections. They talked about the varied ways in which they reflect on their service-learning experiences as a faculty member. Their answers showed three ways that faculty members reflect on service-learning: private, introspective reflection; collaborative reflection; and written reflection.

By far the two most common ways that faculty members reflected were private reflection done independently, and collaborative reflection that involved discussing service-learning with colleagues. Most of the faculty members interviewed in the study talked about their own private reflections. Betsy said, “I do reflect all of the time, but it’s mostly this private, introspective . . . I don’t do a lot of writing, though I am a writer and I have been known to do that.” Rafael admits that he reflected for a year on his service-learning experiences before making significant changes in the way he structured the projects in his English classes. He states that most of the reflection he does is “very personal stuff.” Since Emma is the only faculty member in her department who does service-learning, she contends that she does not collaborate with anyone else to reflect on service-learning. What she does instead is less formal reflection that is personal, informal and often based on feedback from community partners. Rebecca, when discussing her reflections on her own service-learning, uses notes she makes as she reads students’ reflection papers as a primary mode of reflecting. (She also articulates her own reflection that although she is “convinced” that service-learning is good for people, she doesn’t

do any formal service to the community herself). In fact, all of the faculty who participated in this study read students' reflections and use them to spark their own reflection about service-learning. Donna uses student reflections as a catalyst for her own thinking about service-learning; she also confesses that "I have on my professional development plan to do a reflection; I do have to say I haven't done it. I just run out of time and energy. And I should, and I know the benefits, but I haven't." Catie outlines questions she asked herself after the service-learning projects were finished:

> I had to reflect on what I thought should be accomplished and was it indeed accomplished. In other words, did they have a better understanding of their community? Did it elicit the desire in some of them to want to do more? Or did it do the opposite and make them not want to have any involvement?

Perhaps the most common way in which faculty members reflect on service-learning, however, was to talk with other faculty about it. Most of the faculty members in the study revealed that they rely on conversations with others in order to reflect on their service-learning experiences. Catie said, "I certainly discuss it with all my colleagues as to its importance and that I believe that everyone should become involved in some sort of service-learning." Both Rafael and Josie discuss service-learning with fellow faculty members in informal settings. Rafael says, "[A colleague] and I talk about service-learning everyday when we go to lunch, so we're reflecting on that very informally." Josie reports, "I talk to other faculty. I talk to [another instructor] a lot because we're in the same freshman experience, so we talk a lot about our projects – are they worthwhile, are they not?" Susan and Deborah both believe that talking about service-learning with other faculty member is an important way that they can reflect on their own work, even though Deborah admits that there is not as much talking going on between faculty at

her institution as she would like there to be. Susan, whose administrators are very supportive of service-learning work, states that her supervisor, who is very committed and knowledgeable about service-learning, is a good "sounding board" for her. When talking about a reflection session that she does at the end of one of her service projects, Betsy says:

> We have a reflection session at the end where it's everybody on the team whose involved with these kids where we say "what's going on with this kid?" and "did you notice so-and-so?" and that exercise works well, I think, so I think when you're working collaboratively reflection works best.

Susan discusses the advantages she finds of sharing with colleagues about service-learning: "being around other faculty who've done it for years and who have great ideas, it just energizes you and it gives you ideas and it gives you that positive reinforcement of 'Yes, this is why I do it.'"

Several faculty members also mentioned conferences – both in their academic discipline and conferences specific to service-learning – as a way of connecting with colleagues and reflecting about service-learning. Dan spoke about a physics conference he attended where he learned about a project at another school that he wants to try, where physics students went into low income homes and checked for leakage of air, made recommendations and installed insulated water heaters and weather stripping. He maintains that he is trying to get that project started at his school. Catie, too, heard about service-learning at a workshop, and then she presented her projects at a conference for two-year college accounting instructors. Grace says, "Going to conferences and talking to other people at those conferences who use service-learning is an opportunity to reflect on and think about and make changes." Rafael believes that

conferences allow him the opportunity to reflect on his service-learning, and make changes in his practice as a result of that reflection:

> Just from listening to other people talk about their service, it makes me question and re-evaluate what I'm doing. When I go to conferences and I get other people to describe the kinds of projects that they're doing and the kinds of outcomes that they're seeing as a result of doing those projects, that's when I start to make changes in what I do and the way I do it.

Some of the participants also mentioned participation in a listserv as a way of reflecting with others about service-learning. Grace and Rafael both find that the listserv provided through the Horizons project of AACC to be a valuable tool for reflection, and Grace participates in a Service-Learning in Higher Education listserv as well: "I usually read those [listserv postings] and that also gives me ideas and makes me think about what we're doing or how we could do things differently."

Theoretical Understandings of Service-Learning

As faculty members talked about their ideas about service-learning, most of them framed those ideas in terms of pedagogy. Betsy refers to is as "the pedagogy that works," and other participants echo that sentiment. Dan uses the term "active learning" to describe both what his physics students were doing, as well as what the elementary school students were doing in the physics lessons his students designed. He contrasts this with a more typical "show and tell" type of teaching model. He praised active learning, saying that what he likes about service-learning is "the idea that [the students] have to do the work. The what-if questions, active learning." Betsy and Josie also attest to the experiential nature of service-learning. Betsy asserts that one of the reasons service-learning works so well for her students is that it is meaningful to them as an

experiential form of learning. Josie discusses length about the fact that her students have responded so positively to experiential learning like they find in her service-learning projects: "And the other thing is they love hands-on, experiential projects." In talking about how service-learning has impacted her own teaching style as a result of her students' response to service-learning, she says, "I no longer do chalk-and-talk. And polling that millennial student, they don't want just chalk and talk anymore . . . They want to get involved with the community. They want that experiential learning, and they tell me." Faculty members also believed that their students become more engaged with the curriculum when they are involved in service-learning as a part of a course. Rafael says that he believes that when students are engaged with the curriculum like they are in service-learning, they realize higher levels of learning:

> They have a better understanding of the curriculum. I think that they are truly learning instead of you know just memorizing things. I think that they get a higher level of learning from doing service because I think that they do have to do some analysis and some synthesis as far as moving from the service they're doing through the reflection with the analysis and the synthesis to the actual learning that occurs with that.

In order to help students engage with the curriculum during their service experience, Rebecca includes on the handout students receive at the beginning of the semester the reflection questions they will be asked to answer when the service experience is over. She includes questions designed to require student participants to make connections between their service and the content of the course: "Discuss how your activities related to the discipline of history, and how they did or did not intersect specifically with the course you are taking." In speaking about her projects, she also outlines the ways in which service-learning fits well with the learning styles of some of her students. Susan also requires students to reflect on the learning styles of individuals

with whom they work when doing service. Students are asked to reflect on the learning styles of their audience as they provide health education activities for members of the community. Also, when asking students to reflect on their service-learning experiences, Donna asks them to make the connections between their service-learning experience and both the competencies of the course they're taking as well as the "practice framework" within the occupational therapy profession.

While all of the participants talked theoretically about service-learning from an instructional standpoint, Rafael spoke about the types of service he requires and what he hopes students get out of the service from a theoretical standpoint. He also spoke about changes that have occurred in the ways he views service now, in contrast to when he first began using service-learning.

> So I guess if you think of service as being either charity or social justice, at first I really didn't care what my students thought they were doing – if they thought it was charity or if they thought it was social justice. But now I'm kind of wanting them to see the social justice aspect of service, and so when I'm guiding them in their selection of projects, I'm trying to get them to do the more – the social justice projects, the get out there and effect change projects, rather than the, you know, collecting things kinds of projects.

Likewise, Emma reflects back on the questions that she asks students about their service-learning experiences, and professed to be in the process of re-working them so that she can find reflection questions that better require students "to deepen their critical reflection on their roles in service-learning" as well as to assist them in making connections to the larger community.

Service-Learning and Two-Year Colleges

Finally, although it was beyond the scope of the initial four research questions, many of the participants consider where and how well service-learning fits in two-year colleges. Several participants cited the "workforce preparation" focus of two-year colleges as one reason that service-learning fits well there. Susan and Donna both assert that service-learning helps students hone vocational skills as well as experiential skills and allows them to come out of a short program (two years as opposed to four) ready for being a professional.

Several instructors acknowledged that there are things about two-year college students that make service-learning a natural fit. Catie, when referring to her students, points out that her students are there to stay in the community where they are going to school, and yet often do not know what community services are available, and do not think about ways they could help their community. Likewise, Grace has this to say about her perception of an ideal fit between service-learning and two-year colleges:

> I think in some ways it's ideally suited because people who attend our colleges are often lifelong members of the community, or they will be, you know. They're adults who've settled in one of these towns . . . so they already have an interest and investment in their local communities, unlike four-year schools where the students are often there just for four years. Or five. [Students in four-year colleges] don't have that same type of attachment to [this town] that someone who owns a house here, who sends their kids to school here, who plans to live here for a long time.

Betsy asserts that two-year colleges have been doing service-learning "better and longer" than their four-year counterparts, and that one of the keys to the success of two-year colleges is that it resonates with their population:

> I think because we do deal with the nontraditional students who want to do something meaningful, we deal with students who have had to access services in the community themselves. This resonates with them because they understand, "hey, I was on the receiving end, now I'm on the giving end.

Emma has also found that many of her two-year college students are already out there interacting in the community, and some of her students have had real first-hand experience with social services and thus are more likely to empathize and understand what they're seeing as they're completing service. She believes that these factors make service-learning even more significant for them. She also indicated that because she often has students in her Spanish classes who already have degrees in various fields, community partners are excited to have access to the expertise that some of her students bring to the service site.

Deborah cites civic engagement as a primary reason why service-learning works well in two-year colleges: "I think it [service-learning] fits remarkably well because we are trying to teach our students to be better citizens, to take responsibility for things that need to be changed in our city." Susan believes that because of the truncated time frame that students spend in a two-year college, in contrast with four or five years spent in a baccalaureate institution, service-learning gains added significance, particularly in a professional preparation program such as hers:

> When you have a two-year program and you're talking about vocational skills, essential skills, being able to come out of a two-year program ready to interact with people, ready to act as a professional, ready to understand your role in a community, ready to understand your role in a healthcare system . . . is a lot to grasp in two years. And I think service-learning is the key to making that transition happen.

All in all, participants spoke positively about the ways in which service-learning works in their two-year institutions. They spoke candidly about challenges they face, and outlined numerous motivations for finding ways to integrate service-learning into their teaching practice.

Summary

In conclusion, findings of this qualitative study address the four research questions: What motivates faculty to participate in service-learning? What is the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice? What is the nature of faculty members' reflections about service-learning? And what are faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning? Interview data from twelve participants was inductively analyzed through a constant comparative method of analysis, and document analysis was used to complement interview data. Primary findings of the study include the following: Faculty members are often motivated to begin using service-learning because they are introduced to it by a colleague, or because they are searching for innovative approaches to instruction. Some faculty members indicated that they previously held a propensity toward community service or volunteerism prior to beginning using service-learning. The primary motivator for faculty members to continue using service-learning is their perceptions of student learning, in both academic and civic/ social areas. Faculty members go through a process as they integrate service-learning into their practice that includes developing a working definition of service-learning, negotiating logistics and confronting challenges, reflecting and soliciting feedback from students and community partners, making adjustments to practice, and theoretically integrating service-learning into their practice. Faculty members most often reflect informally and collaboratively on their service-learning practice. And faculty members' conceptualizations of service-learning are rooted in ideas about learning. Additionally, faculty members believe that service-learning is a natural fit

for students in two-year colleges because of their close ties to their communities, and for the community college mission of preparation for work life.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study is to understand how two-year college faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice, with particular attention paid to the nature of faculty reflection about service-learning. Twelve faculty members working in two-year technical and community colleges across the country were interviewed, and were asked questions that corresponded with the four research questions which are the foundation of this study: First, what motivates faculty to participate in service-learning? Second, what is the process by which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice? Third, what is the nature of faculty reflection surrounding service-learning? And fourth, what are faculty members' theoretical understandings of service-learning? The following section contains conclusions drawn from the findings of the study, discussions of the implications and applications of these findings to the practice of service-learning in two-year college programs, and makes recommendations for additional research that would further the study of this phenomenon.

Conclusions and Discussion

The findings of this investigation shed light on key aspects of the implementation of service-learning by two-year college faculty. From the findings, there are three primary conclusions that can be drawn. First, there is a five-step process through which faculty members go as they integrate service-learning into their practice; this process includes their initial introduction to service-learning, as well as the process they have gone through as they begin to use it. Second, faculty members frame both their practical and theoretical work with service-

learning in terms of *learning*. Third, faculty reflection about service-learning is most often informal and collaborative, and yet is still an integral part of the integration process. The following section will address each of these three conclusions.

Process of Integration

Based on responses of interviewees in this study, a five-step process of integration is being proposed, which outlines the way in which faculty members integrate service-learning into their practice as teachers. The first step of the process is being introduced to service-learning and deciding to use it. Findings of this study indicate that the Horizons project is making a profound impact in this area. Most of the faculty members in this study teach at institutions that either presently are or have in the past been participants in the Broadening Horizons project through the American Association of Community College (AACC) (only one faculty member in the study works at a college that is not a Horizons participant, though her college has expressed an interest in participating in the future). The primary goal of the Horizons project is "to build on established foundations to integrate service learning into the institutional climate of community colleges" (http://www.aacc.nche.edu). In a phone interview with Gail Robinson, director of the Horizons project, she emphasized that willing and enthusiastic faculty members are one of the primary foundations upon which Horizons hopes to build in two-year colleges as they begin service-learning. In fact, it is her belief that without faculty who understand service-learning and who are willing to get involved in figuring out how service-learning fits in their courses and to give it a try "you're never going to be able to sustain a program" (G. Robinson, personal communication, March 7, 2008). Most of the faculty members in this study were recipients of basic information about service-learning when their colleges began in the Horizons project; some of these participants, however, already had been introduced to service-learning and

were in some case instrumental in encouraging their institutions to go forward with Horizons. For others, their college's participation in Horizons was long ago and they participate now not having bee involved in Horizons directly. In any case, many faculty participants in this study indicated that they decided to begin using service-learning as a result, in whole or in part, of information and support that they received from AACC through the Horizons project. They mentioned workshops sponsored on their campuses by AACC, support from their mentor colleges, and resources distributed by AACC as they outlined their beginnings with service-learning work. By recognizing the potential that faculty bring to the table, AACC it would seem has been successful in helping to start faculty on their way in the integration process by introducing them to it and giving them basic tools with which to decide to begin using it.

Another primary mode of introduction to service-learning mentioned by several participants was being introduced to service-learning by a colleague. As previous service-learning research has found (Levine, 1994; Abes, et al., 2002; Prentice, Robinson, et al., 2003; Hayden, 2004), being asked by a colleague to participate in service-learning also helped participants in this study decide to use service-learning. In some cases this was an administrator; in others it was a fellow faculty member, but in either case, participants spoke of their willingness to "give it a try" after being approached by a professional colleague. And, in spite of research which has indicated that faculty members in two-year colleges often work in isolation from one another (Van Ast, 1999; Levine, et al., 2004), participants spoke enthusiastically about collaborations with others during the beginning of their service-learning work. In fact, it may be that it is precisely due to the isolated nature of their work that faculty members find collaborations such as the ones spoken about by these participants around service-learning so rewarding. Faculty members in this study related stories of courses co-taught around service-

learning as well as collaborations with supportive administrators during the process of their initiation into service-learning. One faculty member discussed an ongoing service-learning collaboration, as she uses service-learning with two other faculty members in a freshman experience that she still teaches.

After having been introduced to service-learning and deciding to use it, the second step of the process is that faculty members spend time creating a working definition of service-learning, including spending time determining the ways in which service-learning "fits" within the course competencies of the course they are teaching. Most introductory literature in service-learning emphasizes the fact that service-learning must not be random, but must necessarily be connected to course content (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Howard, 2001). Faculty members in this study worked to figure out a connection for service-learning in their courses, and for some it was easier than others. The English, psychology and sociology instructors spoke of multiple possibilities for service-learning within the context of their courses; in fact the English instructors recognized that since their course competencies involve writing, students can complete service in almost any area; they are meeting course objectives when they write about the service they do. Other instructors, such as those in technical or professional programs, or in science, history or Spanish, had more of a struggle figuring out how service-learning fit within their courses; the benefit they had, however, was that they all knew their competencies very well. Perhaps the instructor with the most profound challenge in this area was Rebecca, who teaches history, and she spoke about spending a year mulling over how to fit service-learning in her courses, before she had an "Aha!" moment that allowed her to move forward, connecting service-learning to the process of history, rather than actual course topics. One of the faculty members also mentioned conversations she had with Gail Robinson of AACC in which Gail continued to remind her that "it has to fit with

your course competencies!" Indeed, in my conversation with Gail, she re-iterated the importance of helping faculty members understand how to connect service-learning with course content. In a service-learning assignment sheet which she gives to student participants, one of the psychology instructors in the study begins by defining service-learning for students, and begins with a service-learning definition quoted from the American Association of Community Colleges.

The third stage of the integration process, about which faculty members spent the most time talking, is the process of managing logistics and confronting challenges. There has been much literature outlining factors that deter faculty from using service-learning, such as "time, logistics and funding" (Abes, et al., 2002; Driscoll, 2000; Holland, 1999; Weglarz & Seybert, 2004), as well as concerns about increased workload, lack of rewards or administrative support, and assessment issues (Hayden, 2004). All of these were mentioned by participants in this study, but were not presented as "deterrents" as much as "challenges" to be overcome, and all the faculty members in this study had successfully negotiated challenges such as these and continued to use service-learning in spite of their presence. As faculty members began using service-learning, they encountered inevitable logistical concerns about how, where and when they would incorporate service-learning into their courses. This included continued work with course competencies, as well as identifying community partners. Clarity of communication with partners was identified, as well as identifying ways to include service that met the needs of a diverse – and nontraditional – student population. Faculty members also identified administrative support, which some of them had and some of them did not, as being crucial in their work with service-learning.

Fourth, faculty members professed to garnering feedback from both students and community partners, and making changes to their service-learning assignments and experiences based on that feedback. Faculty members used both formal and informal methods to solicit feedback from community partners, and numerous accounts were given of changes made to projects based on the (often changing) needs these partners. Student reflections, too, were used as a yardstick with which to measure project effectiveness and to plan for improved effectiveness in future projects. Because "reflection" is an essential component to service-learning as it is defined by scholars, all of the faculty members in this study were requiring students to reflect on their experiences, often in writing, sometimes online or in class, and all of the participants referred to one thing or another that a student had said in a service-learning reflection. According to one participant, "their reflection papers make me know they get it." Faculty members also reflected on their own work with service-learning, most often in collaborative ways with other faculty members. This reflection became a critical component of the integration process because it allows faculty members to solve problems and get new ideas from other people, which in turn helped as they planned for future projects.

Finally, as faculty members discussed their work using service-learning, they talked about changes made to their practice over time: requiring more or less time with service, moving from group projects to individual projects or from individual projects to group projects, removing a journaling requirement for students, planning to add a journaling requirement. While it certainly cannot be said that any of these faculty members made the same changes, such as to say that they all moved toward or away from a particular process or idea, they each made changes determined by their own individual experiences with service-learning. None of the participants in this study, at the time that they sat down to be interviewed, were implementing

service-learning in exactly the same way in which they did when they first began. And, while some of the changes made were of a more fundamental nature than others, change itself seems to be a hallmark of the integration of service-learning into practice. It should also be noted that as faculty members talked about changes made, they talked both about past and future changes, so that the conclusion can be drawn that the integration of service-learning into practice, in the case of these faculty members, is one that will be continuous in nature.

Examining faculty members' integration of service-learning as a process provides a lens through which instructive parallels can be seen. First, understanding the integration of service-learning as a process through which faculty proceed offers connections with other process models. For example, through the lens of Kolb's model of experiential learning, it might be said that as faculty members delve into the particulars of service-learning as they begin with it, they are immersing themselves in the *concrete experience* of using service-learning. Faculty members are in a sense themselves having a hands-on, active learning experience from which they will learn about how to use service-learning effectively as a teaching strategy. Later, as Kolb (1984) theorized, faculty members observe and reflect on their experiences (reflective observation), integrate ideas and theories into their thinking based on their experiences (abstract conceptualization), and then use the new ideas and theories in subsequent implementation (active experimentation). As faculty members negotiate the challenges they face, provoke and respond to their own and students' reflections about their service-experiences, and make changes to their practice based on multiple modes and sources of feedback, these tasks are "directly related to the integrative challenges" (Kolb, 1984, p. 207) of teaching. Analyzed in this way, the process of integrating service-learning into teaching practice is for these faculty members experiential learning for them, as well as for their students; that which they hailed as being one reason that

service-learning works so well in their classrooms may in fact be true for them as well. In fact, Kolb's assertion that "for many so-called nontraditional students – minorities, the poor and mature adults – experiential learning has become the method of choice for learning and personal development" (1984, p. 3) is echoed in the voices of many of the participants of this study.

Another example of such a parallel might be found in the change model proposed by Prochaska, et al. (1992), though this model explains the states of mind of faculty members as they decide to begin using service-learning; in contrast the present model explains the process that occurs after they have chosen *action*, as it is deemed in the Prochaska model. As faculty members become aware of service-learning, through whatever means, they begin precontemplation. As they are "mulling it over" they are in contemplation as they decide how to proceed with service-learning, and then they move to preparation as they ready themselves to use service-learning. Then, the stage of *action* refers to the stage where a faculty member has begun to use service-learning; interestingly Prochaska et al., who developed this model based on examining the behaviors of individuals with addictive behaviors and their choice to change those behaviors, assert that *action* is taken to overcome a problem. In this instance, the problem that faculty members are overcoming might be "boredom," or simply a perception that students are no longer satisfied with "chalk and talk" as a mode of learning. Finally, maintenance occurs as faculty members consolidate the new behavior (in this case service-learning) into their lives, or their teaching practice. These last two stages are those which the present model hopes to illuminate. While teaching using traditional methods would not likely be referred to as an addictive behavior, it is entrenched enough in our system of education at all levels, that choosing to change and move away from those methods might involve letting go of something that has become very comfortable over time.

Second, conceptualizing faculty members' integration of service-learning as a process puts service-learning, and faculty choice to use it, in a larger context that allows researchers and practitioners to infuse theoretical understanding throughout all levels of service-learning practice. Service-learning as pedagogy has been theoretically grounded in the works of Dewey, Kolb and Freire, and the connection between theory and student service-learning experiences has been well covered. Looking at faculty participation in service-learning through theoretical models such as this one, though, has the potential for expanding the theoretical conversation around service-learning. Much of current literature surrounding faculty and service-learning examines motivators and deterrents to service-learning for faculty (Holland, 1999; Driscoll, 2000; Abes, et al., 2004; McKay and Rozee, 2004). Having established a relatively stable foundation of literature examining *why* faculty members might or might not use service-learning, a logical next step, then, is to move toward further examination of *how* faculty members use service-learning as well.

Learning

Perhaps the most compelling conclusion drawn by this study is that faculty members are framing their service-learning practice in terms of *learning*: they are looking for new ways to enhance student learning, they are recognizing and celebrating the learning that students demonstrate when they've participated in service-learning, when they make theoretical connections to service-learning, those connections relate to learning, and finally, as they describe their students, they show well-defined understanding of and appreciation for their learners.

As faculty members expressed their desire to begin using service-learning, several of them voiced frustration with previous teaching methods and a desire for innovation in instruction. Several participants articulated "boredom" with the classes they taught, and were

receptive to service-learning in part because they were searching for something new, both for their students and for themselves. The words of one participant bear repeating: "I don't know who was more bored with my course, my students or myself." Another faculty member expressed a preference she sees on the part of the "millennial student" for a move away from traditional "chalk and talk" methods of education. She has clearly seen that students in her psychology classes prefer hands-on, experiential learning. So, even in the beginning, faculty members were searching for more effective ways for their students to learn.

After being introduced to service-learning, these faculty members chose to continue using service-learning in course after course, and have been continually using it since then, some for as many as ten to twelve years. They cited a number of reasons why they continue to use service-learning, and by far the most prevalent response was their perception that student learning is enhanced when service-learning is present. Hayden (2004) found faculty perceptions of enhanced student learning to be a factor that influences faculty members to get involved in service-learning, and that certainly was the case with participants in this study. Banarjee and Hausafus (2007) also found that student learning outcomes were one of the primary reasons that faculty members chose to begin using service-learning. Likewise, Weglarz and Seybert (2004) asserted that faculty members believe that service-learning allows for practical application of course content. In the present study, whether the participants were enumerating academic or social/ civic benefits they believe students receive when they do service-learning, their connection with their students' learning was palpable. They cited things such as increased knowledge of circuitry, tax codes, psychology concepts such as theories of personality or attachment, children's language and literacy development, grammar, technical writing skills, understanding of sociology concepts such as homelessness and disadvantage, understanding of

physical and occupational therapy principles of professional practice, increased competence with the Spanish language and the processes of history – all of which were professed outcomes of service-learning experiences planned and implemented by the faculty members in this study. Of course not all of the outcomes faculty members observed in students were academic. They also talked at length about service-learning's role in the personal development of their students. They expressed satisfaction that students were able to practice and develop such skills as communication and interaction with other people, making adjustments when things don't go according to plan, commitment to take care of those less fortunate than themselves, and altruism. One faculty member maintained that her own experiences participating in service-learning as an undergraduate student herself contributed both to her sense of civic commitment, and to her desire to share such experiences with her students. When outlining the ways in which they assess student learning, faculty members talked most frequently about student reflections, often in the form of required reflection papers. All of the faculty members who were interviewed referred to student reflections, and some of them talked at length about particular points students had made when reflecting on a service-learning experience. All of these examples were used to emphasize the essence of their message, which was that students learn through service-learning. Quite evidently, these faculty members are attuned to the learning of their students, and are gratified by the learning they see taking place.

Also, when faculty members spoke theoretically about service-learning, they spoke about theories related to learning. They referred to learning styles, to experiential learning, to active learning, to higher levels of learning (such as analysis and synthesis). They used words like "pedagogy" and referred to students taking control of their own learning (and to letting go of control over the learning situation as a teacher). They outlined ways in which they require

students to make connections between their service and course content and professional frameworks. Reflecting on the ways in which these faculty members discussed teaching and learning in their courses using service-learning, it seems that while two-year college faculty members may have been identified as "unconscious competents" in the area of instructional design (Boettcher & Conrad, 2004), *competent* may very well be the operative word. These faculty members were most animated and enthusiastic when talking about what their students learn as a result of service-learning, and they appeared to want to understand this phenomenon theoretically as well as in practice.

Finally, as further evidence that learning is the primary framework within which they are operating, faculty members in this study were very in touch with their learners. Through their responses to interview questions, they conveyed both an understanding and an appreciation of the students they teach. They addressed factors that limit what their students can do, such as time, work, and family constraints, and they outlined strengths that their students bring to the learning environment as well, such as a deep-rooted commitment to their communities and a wealth of knowledge and experience.

The conclusion that learning is the focus of faculty members when planning for, using, and evaluating service-learning is significant for two reasons. The first is that in spite of recent development of service-learning paradigms by several researchers (Morton, 1995; Kahne & Westheimer, 1996; Butin, 2003) which focus on conceptualizations of the service side of the equation, faculty members in this investigation were much more interested in talking about learning. In fact, when the research question about theoretical understandings of service-learning was developed, the expectation was, based on literature in this area, that faculty members might be found deconstructing their own views of service – its power and its purpose. Instead, it was

surprising to find that, with one notable exception, faculty members rarely if ever alluded to their notions of service. Instead, they spent their time considering learning – its manifestations and implications in their service-learning practice. While an outside observer might be able to listen to the descriptions these faculty members give of projects they have designed and implemented, and determine where each could fit within Morton's (1995) typology of service, denoting projects as charity, project or social justice, the faculty members themselves did not address this. Although there were occasional references to the purpose of the service, and there was considerable concern about meeting the needs of community partners, the component of the service-learning equation about which faculty members were clearly most concerned was the learning.

There was one notable exception: one faculty member, who, like his fellow participants, discussed student learning at length, also articulated thoughts about the conceptualizations of service found in service-learning literature. He referred to Morton's (1995) typology directly, and mused about his own desire for students to choose "the social justice projects, the get out there and effect change projects, rather than the, you know, collecting things kinds of projects." His familiarity with and application of this theoretical model to his work is indicative of independent research he has done as a part of his own dissertation about service-learning, rather than anything he has encountered in his work as a two-year college faculty member. The implication, however, is that since he was familiar with it, he applied it to his work.

The second reason that this conclusion is significant, is that it has the potential to connect research in service-learning to research in adult learning, as well as educational and learning theory in a much broader context. It provides a window through which to visualize additional areas for research, as well as service-learning practice that is deepened through a stronger

connection to theory. Individuals like those in this study who are "convinced" that service-learning works are willing to make those strong theoretical connections in their work, and there exists a long history of research about learning; this research is rife with conceptualizations that warrant further connection with service-learning. Also, expanding the *learning* frame to include the *learning* that faculty members experience as they *learn* how to use service-learning in their practice is an apt reminder that as students in two-year colleges are often referred to as "lifelong learners," so faculty members are lifelong learners as well.

Faculty Reflection

The third conclusion from this study is that faculty reflection about service-learning is most often informal and collaborative and yet is still an integral part the integration process. While faculty members often require their students to complete formal, written reflections of their work in service-learning, faculty members themselves do not take that step. Perhaps this relates to a lack of enough time that was identified by many of the participants. In the words of one instructor when admitting that she would like to do written reflection but has not: "I just run out of time and energy." They do, however, talk with others about service-learning. They mentioned colleagues within their academic departments and across their college campuses, colleagues at other institutions whom they encounter at conferences and meetings, service-learning coordinators and other administrative personnel, and listservs. They talk about service-learning over brown bag lunches and in committee meetings. Many of them mentioned the network of other colleges to which they have access through the Horizons project of AACC as a way of talking with other faculty about service-learning. In fact, Gail Robinson from AACC asserts that the Horizons project is structured, through a mentor/ mentee process, so that faculty

members can make connections with other faculty members, if not in their own institutions, then at other Horizons schools (G. Robinson, personal communication, March 7, 2008).

While this conclusion does not ascertain the content of faculty reflection around service-learning, it suggests that faculty members are reflecting collaboratively, perhaps using the third of the lenses Brookfield (1995) suggests for critical reflection: the lens of our colleagues' experiences. According to Brookfield (1995), participating in critical conversations with peers allows teachers to "check, reframe, and broaden our own theories of practice" (p. 35), and peers can serve as "critical mirrors" reflecting our actions back to us. Faculty members told stories of ideas they had gotten from colleagues, questions they had asked and been asked by others, and collaborative work in which they had participated. Also worth noting is the second of Brookfield's lenses, that of our students' eyes (Brookfield, 1995). When faculty members read and respond to student reflections in service-learning, they are looking through the lens of their students' eyes as well. Faculty members in this study appear to draw from student reflections both a sense of what students have learned, as well as how they have experienced the service they have completed. As Brookfield (1995) asserts, "knowing something of how students experience learning helps us build convincing connections between what we want them to do and their own concerns and expectations" (p. 93). Both of these lenses allow faculty members to reflect critically on their practice to a degree, in the sense that they examine their work from more than a single perspective.

This conclusion is also reflective of Schön's (1983) *reflection-in-action*, in which theory is built through practice. As faculty members deal with situations of uncertainty and challenges, such as the ones they encounter in their work with service-learning, they create procedures to solve the problem in the midst of action, and then take corrective action to solve the problem

(Schön, 1987). This is instructive as a way of examining the ways in which service-learning faculty members learn through examination of the processes of their practice, much as Schön suggests. Also, Schön (1983) recognizes that a teacher's isolation from colleagues works against reflection-in-action, as teachers need to "communicate . . . private puzzles and insights, and test them against the views of . . . peers" (p. 333). Likewise, research with community college faculty has identified isolation, partly a result of heavy teaching loads, as an important challenge facing two-year college faculty members (Van Ast, 1999; Levine, et al., 2004); this certainly has implications for faculty reflection in service-learning, as much of that work is done collaboratively.

Finally, a second glance at the types of reflection outlined by Mezirow (1991) is also pertinent to the discussion of this conclusion of the study. Mezirow (1991) differentiated between *content reflection*, in which the subject of the reflection is *what* a person thinks, feels or does; *process reflection*, which reflects on *how* we think, feel or act; and *premise reflection*, in which the subject of reflection is *why* a person thinks or acts in a certain way. According to Mezirow, it is this third type of reflection, premise reflection, that is most likely to lead to perspective transformation and transformational learning. One of the primary purposes of this study was to examine the nature of faculty members' reflection about service-learning, and further examination of the content of faculty members' reflection is warranted. Through the course of the interviews, faculty members made reference to talking to colleagues about what they do in service-learning, and getting ideas from other faculty members, and about what they believe students learn through service-learning. Most of the reflection mentioned by faculty members would most likely be considered content or process reflection – reflection on what they are asking students to do, and how they are implementing service-learning in their practice.

There were glimpses, though, of what might be considered premise reflection. Emma questioned whether her projects were helping the community, or rather were causing a burden to the agencies they purported to help by overburdening them with too many students that they in turn must place in service settings. Rafael admitted that when he began using service-learning he was much less concerned with how students viewed their service – as charity, project or social change – but over time came to realize that his hope for them is that they will choose and embrace a social change model of service; this change is a result of his reflection on *why* he wants students to participate in service-learning.

In summary, three primary conclusions were drawn from this study. The first is that there is a five-step process through which faculty members go as they integrate service-learning into their practice; this process includes their initial introduction to service-learning, as well as the process they have gone through as they begin to use it. The second is that faculty members frame both their practical and theoretical work with service-learning in terms of learning. And the third is that faculty reflection about service-learning is most often informal and collaborative, and is continuous throughout the integration process. This section has outlined those three conclusions, and discussed connections with previous literature.

Implications for Practice

Implications of this work for practice in service-learning are numerous, many of which surround ways in which faculty members in two-year colleges can best be supported in their service-learning work, from the beginning forward. First, faculty members must be supported in their service-learning work throughout the integration process. Often faculty members are supported as they begin working with service-learning, but perhaps then are left to their own devices after getting off to a good start – hammering out a working definition of service-learning

and determining how it fits with course competencies. As Bringle, et al. (1997) suggest, a distinction should be made between efforts to recruit faculty to service-learning and professional development efforts to support faculty members who are already using it. As suggested by the findings of this study, that professional development should include supporting faculty members throughout their process of integration. This support might include offering ways for faculty members to connect with others – both faculty members and administrators – to help them address challenges as they arise. One faculty member spoke positively about her supervisor, whom she said serves as a sounding board for her to talk about service-learning. Analogous to the mentor/ mentee structure of the Horizons project as a whole, using faculty mentors/ mentees within an individual college could also be helpful for faculty members, giving them a person who has recently faced the challenges they are facing with whom to talk and reflect. Also, given that community colleges frequently employ part-time faculty members, attention must be paid to not only introducing these faculty members to service-learning, but supporting them – even while they do not maintain a full-time presence on campus – in their service-learning work. All of the faculty members in this study were full-time faculty members, but the application of these findings surely has implications for adjunct faculty as well.

Additionally, one of the most oft-cited recommendations for institutionalizing service-learning within an institution is the assignment of a service-learning coordinator (Prentice, Exley, et al., 2003; Garcia, 2004), to recruit faculty members to service-learning (Hayden, 2004), and, in the view of some of these participants, to attend to logistics so that faculty members don't have to. Two issues should be critically examined in relation to this recommendation. First, recruitment of faculty must be done with cognizance that the decision to try service-learning is only the first step in a long process. Also, recruitment efforts will be shored up if attention is paid

to the primacy given to learning by these participants, as well as the importance of collaborative reflection. The institutionalization of service-learning might move along more quickly if faculty members talked with faculty members about how students are learning, and if service-learning is brought into other conversations in the college where student learning is being discussed, such as conversations surrounding student learning outcomes and assessment. Second, if the figuring out of logistical considerations is part of the process of integration as faculty members begin using service-learning, removing those tasks and assigning them to another person, such as a service-learning coordinator, might be akin to asking a child to walk who hasn't had the opportunity to crawl. Further examination of this process is necessary to fully understand the function that rolling up ones sleeves and experiencing all aspects of doing service-learning will play. In reality, what might happen is that in the beginning, faculty members refuse the help of a service-learning coordinator because they sense that they need to fully experience the implementation of service-learning. Meanwhile, it is evident that faculty members become more comfortable using service-learning the longer they have been using it, and allowing a service-learning coordinator to handle logistics for faculty members who have moved beyond the first stages of implementation would be an important support. Having someone who can address "details" such as criminal records checks or site contracts and contact information will allow faculty members to have more time (when they have so little of it). Because of this, it is likely to be hailed as a great idea by many faculty, and should be implemented in ways that do not undermine the faculty integration (learning) process.

Another implication of this work may be that faculty members should be introduced to theory, broadly and in connection with learning, conceptualizations of service and reflection. Much in the way that Rafael made a connection with Morton's (1995) service typology because

he was familiar with it, it makes intuitive sense that the more theories that faculty members are familiar with, the more (and deeper) theoretical connections they are likely to make. Faculty members are already connecting service-learning with their understandings of learning theory, but there are many more connections that can be made. If faculty members were introduced to Morton's (1995) typology of service, or Kahne and Westheimer's (1996) ideas around the politics of service, they could be encouraged to examine – and in fact might not need to be encouraged – applications of such theories to their service-learning practice. Also, Eyler (2001) developed a "reflection map" which encourages teachers to consider context (reflection with the class, a small group, and the community partner) and chronology (before, during and after service) when asking students to reflect on service-learning.. In a similar vein, faculty members could be encouraged to reflect on their own practice, and could be introduced to Brookfield's (1995) four lenses through which to view their practice, or Mezirow's (1991) concepts of content, process and premise reflection. In fact, Cranton and King (2003) stress that learning is a goal of professional development for adult educators, and that professional development activities should "incorporate activities that foster content, process, and premise reflection" (p. 34). Service-learning faculty development that focuses on "how-to" do service-learning (find a community partner, connect the experience with course objectives, have students reflect), runs the risk that faculty, without strong theoretical grounding, will flounder in their practice. And faculty members will make theory-practice connections as they integrate service-learning into their practice. Having more theories to draw from will deepen that process and make it a more rewarding one for them and for students whose lives are touched by their work.

Finally, it is evident that faculty members are reflecting on their service-learning practice in different ways (informally and collaboratively) than they are requiring of their students (in

most cases students are required to write a formal reflection at the end of the experience). This disconnect should be examined for the implications it might hold for practice. First, can faculty members find ways to allow students to reflect informally and collaboratively on their service experiences? This may in fact already happen – in the student lounge and before and after class – but by endorsing it as a part of the class environment, faculty members can further validate collaborative reflection, and perhaps model for students a valuable life skill. Additionally, should faculty members be encouraged to reflect formally on their service experiences? Adding another "requirement" might not be the most appropriate avenue through which to do this, but inviting faculty members to write reflections, pieces of which could then be shared through a faculty newsletter might prove fruitful. Encouraging written reflections, even informal ones such as listserv postings, might also be a way to encourage faculty to write about their service-learning experiences, which requires a different process than verbally sharing does. A service-learning coordinator might, for example, use a faculty email list to pose reflective questions for faculty members about service-learning. The faculty members who participated in this project were eager enough to talk with an unknown graduate student researcher at length about service-learning; it seems just plausible that there would be faculty members who would respond to such questions on a listserv as well.

Stepping outside the world of service-learning, this research potentially holds great implications for faculty development and preparation as well. Two-year college faculty, who are not typically products of a teacher preparation program but of the industries from which they come, could benefit greatly from faculty development initiatives that help them begin to develop a theoretical framework that will undergird their practice as teachers. Beyond service-learning practice, two-year college faculty development programs might include learning communities

and mentoring, so that faculty members could learn with each other. Also, faculty members who learn to be reflective on their teaching practice as a whole will not only apply that to service-learning or other pedagogies they opt to use, it can also help them feel more at ease with their transition from industry to classroom.

Suggestions for Future Research

Quite evidently, the world of service-learning holds abundant opportunities for research in addition to multiple implications for practice. In this section, recommendations will be made for future research topics, participants, and methodologies. First, further examination of the model that outlines the process of integration for two-year college faculty members warrants consideration. Following up the present qualitative investigation with both qualitative and quantitative studies designed to illuminate this phenomenon further will be important. A survey of service-learning faculty members in two-year colleges around such issues as mentoring and reflection, addressing challenges and motivation to continue using service-learning could elaborate on the current findings and add more depth and detail to this model of the process of integration. An attempt to identify possible "accelerators" of the integration process, such as the presence of a service-learning coordinator or faculty mentors, would also be useful. Additionally, a case study of individual faculty members as they start their work with service-learning – perhaps faculty members as they begin with the Horizons project and are first introduced to service-learning – through their first year of using service-learning would give a much more finely tuned look at this phenomenon. Appropriate methods of data collection would likely include multiple faculty interviews at various points throughout the year, document analysis of subsequent syllabi and service-learning assignments, feedback from students participating in the faculty members' courses, and solicited faculty member reflections or journal

entries about the process. On another note, a case study of the institutionalization of service-learning through the Horizons project would also provide valuable insight into the larger process of the integration of service-learning into the fabric of an institution, and case studies of colleges that are three, six, and nine years away from their initial participation in the three-year grant project might give valuable information about how service-learning and all of its corollaries hold up over time. It would also be interesting to examine whether faculty participating in Horizons go through the integration process more quickly than faculty who being using service-learning but are not affiliated with Horizons do.

Research grounded in diffusion of innovation theory might also help illuminate ways in which service-learning either does or does not become a part of the fabric of an institution. Given that researchers interested in diffusion ask such questions as how early adopters of innovation differ from those who are slower to adopt something new, and how an innovation is communicated and through which channels over time, there are obvious parallels with service-learning research: What factors or characteristics fundamentally distinguish early service-learning adopters from later ones, or from individuals who never adopt service-learning? What are the ways in which information about service-learning is communicated throughout an institution (perhaps formal or informal channels), and which communication channels are the most effective?

Further analysis of faculty reflection, and particularly the content of that reflection, would also be instructive. Faculty members might be asked, for example, to complete a written reflection of a recent service-learning, and then those reflections could be examined for evidence of critical reflection. A study asking faculty to keep a journal about their service-learning experiences would necessarily provide significant insights into the ways in which they are

reflecting. Additionally, examining questions that faculty members ask students in their reflection assignments might provide insight into the framework from which faculty members are thinking about reflection.

One of the largest areas of future research lies within the area of the participants themselves. When Gail Robinson introduces service-learning to Horizons colleges for the first time, she talks about "green-light faculty, yellow-light faculty and red-light faculty." The traffic light imagery is an apt metaphor for both the attitudes of faculty members when introduced to something new, and their comfort level with the idea of trying service-learning for the first time. When I spoke with Ms. Robinson about this research, I ventured a guess that all of the faculty who participated in this study were green light faculty. Her response was a good-humored, "I would imagine so, yes!" (G. Robinson, personal communication, March 7, 2008). The connection here is that while research with faculty members who are strongly in support of service-learning, and who made the choice to go forward with it when initially introduced to it, can be informative, it is necessary to look at faculty members who chose not to use service-learning as well. Interviews with faculty members who are introduced to service-learning at a workshop and who then decide not to use it, for example, could fill in an important gap in the knowledge: we are getting a sense of why faculty members might choose to use service-learning, but we also need to know why they are not. For all of the faculty members in the present study, challenges that they perceived were just that – challenges that were overcome. For other faculty members, they might present insurmountable obstacles, and it would be a worthwhile endeavor to discover which ones those are, and what faculty motivators for nonparticipation might be. Interviewing faculty members who might be "on the fence" (yellow-light faculty) could also be informative.

Additionally, ensuring diversity of service-learning faculty might necessitate a closer look at who – demographically speaking – is using service-learning, and why. Of the twelve faculty members who participated in this study, ten were women and two were men. Eight were in general education or arts and sciences, and four were in technical/ career disciplines. Of course, as Gail Robinson stated, "it's not for everybody" (G. Robinson, personal communication, March 7, 2008), and the goal of these research efforts should not be perceived as trying to convince everyone to use service-learning. A more appropriate goal of this avenue of research is to more fully understand the mechanisms at work during the process of deciding to use service-learning, so that those faculty members who might consider using service-learning are given an optimal chance to make that choice. Additionally, while all of the faculty who participated in this study were full-time faculty members, two-year colleges utilize part-time faculty members in large numbers, and including part-time faculty in future research would illuminate these phenomena even further. Information might be gained that could be useful in assisting part-time faculty be introduced to service-learning and using it in their courses. Also, as Bringle, et al (1997) suggest, first and second generation faculty members using service-learning have different expectations about goals and outcomes of service-learning; making that distinction in further research and discerning what some of those differences are in terms of the ways in which faculty members theoretically frame their service-learning work would be interesting as well.

Also, one of the more compelling findings of the study was the propensity toward community service and volunteerism expressed by several participants and one of the reasons they were inclined to begin using service-learning. Both Holland (1999) and Hayden (2004) found that a personal sense of civic engagement can be a factor that motivates faculty members to participate in service-learning, and that is borne out in the words of several participants in the

present investigation. Participants talked about their own experiences volunteering throughout their lifetimes, as well as a personal sense of "obligation" or commitment to give back to the community. While none of these individuals expressed this propensity in spiritual terms as did Koth (2003), they spoke clearly about a habit of mind that lends itself toward getting involved and helping in a variety of ways in the community. Research that more fully examines this phenomenon would be an important contribution to the literature in this area. It would also be crucial to look at both service-learning and non-service-learning faculty to determine whether individuals with a propensity toward service both choose and do not choose service-learning, and in what proportion. The Horizons project has a survey measure of civic engagement that is used to measure students' levels of civic engagement and propensity toward service and volunteerism. The measure is used as both a pre- and post-measure in an attempt to measure changes in civic engagement brought about by participation in a service-learning experience. Modification of this instrument, or use of a similar one to measure faculty engagement or propensity toward service might be a good way to elicit this information.

Finally, because much literature in service-learning is aimed at outlining its benefits for students using quantitative measures such as grades distributions or survey responses by students or faculty members, it is an important recommendation that further qualitative research be done in this area. Shumer (2000) proposed that the nature of qualitative research is aptly suited for service-learning, because the nature of service-learning itself is that of a "value-laden, dynamic, change-oriented, and often idiosyncratic phenomenon" (p. 81). Perhaps what is missing in service-learning research is thick, rich descriptions of service-learning from the perspectives of all involved: students, faculty members, community partners and administrators. Qualitative measures such as interviews, case studies and document analyses will provide those rich

descriptions that will allow researchers and practitioners alike to get closer to service-learning than they have been to date. For example, an in-depth analysis of both student and faculty reflections around service-learning would allow for a clearer understanding of reflection than would be provided by a quantitative measure of reflection. Also, comparatively examining service-learning and other modes of experiential learning might prove fruitful as well. For example, interviewing service-learning faculty as well as faculty members who incorporate practica, internships or work experience, or other types of experiential learning into their curriculum might point to some important similarities and some instructive differences between the two. Service-learning advocates are quick to point out that service-learning is not an internship or practicum experience, most of which tend to focus on learning rather than any service that might (coincidentally) occur, nor is it a community service experience that emphasizes only service, with any learning that occurs being tangential. In fact, all of these experiences may have commonalities and differences that would run deeper than merely a definitional distinction, and would be significant if examined more thoroughly. In fact, one study found that students did not make a distinction between service-learning and these other types of outside projects (Joseph et. al., 2007); this bears further investigation.

In conclusion, this study has attempted to capture the experiences of faculty members in two-year colleges who teach using service-learning. Specific areas of investigation included faculty motivations for participation in service-learning, the process faculty members go through as they integrate service-learning into their practice as teachers, the nature of the reflection they do, and the ways in which they theoretically frame their service-learning practice. This investigation serves to further illuminate these phenomena; it has also highlighted connections with current literature, and suggested further avenues of study. Finally, I return to the concept of

catalytic validity as outlined in chapter three: Catalytic validity "points to the degree to which research moves those it studies to understand the world and the way it is shaped in order for them to transform it" (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2000, p. 297). It is my hope that participation in this study helped faculty members further understand service-learning. I know that the conversations I have had throughout the course of this investigation have given me much to think about – both in the context of this research and also for my own service-learning practice. I know my own work with service-learning will be enhanced because of my interactions with these twelve individuals. And perhaps an abiding conclusion is that service-learning offers great potential for learning for everyone involved, including – or perhaps especially – the faculty members who commit themselves to this work.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Describe how you became interested in service-learning?
    a. Where did you first hear about service-learning?
    b. How were other people instrumental in your learning about service-learning?
    c. What other resources were instrumental in your initial learning about service-learning (i.e. articles, conferences, etc.).
2. Describe some of the service-learning opportunities you have provided for students.
3. What motivates you to provide service-learning opportunities for your students?
    a. Why do you think service-learning is important?
    b. Who do you think benefits from participating in service-learning, and how do they benefit? (students, yourself, community partners, your college?)
4. Tell me about your first experience using service-learning?
    a. What kind of goals did you have as you began using service-learning?
    b. In what ways have your goals changed the longer you've used service-learning?
5. Describe service-learning experiences you have used since your first experience using it.
6. How have your ideas about service-learning changed from the time you began using service-learning?
    a. In what ways do you think about service differently now than you did?

b. In what ways do you think about how service-learning fits into your practice as a teacher differently?

7. What do you think caused those changes to happen?

8. How have you processed students' service-learning experiences?

   a. Describe some of the activities you have used with students.

9. How do you think about service-learning as a part of your teaching?

   a. How has this changed since you began using service-learning?

10. In what ways do you reflect on service-learning yourself? (other faculty members, community partners, students, administrators)

    a. Are there people that you talk to?

    b. What sorts of written or formal reflections do you do?

11. What are some of the challenges faced by faculty members like yourself who offer service-learning experiences? What is necessary for those challenges to be overcome?

12. Describe how and where you think service-learning fits in two-year colleges.

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM

TWO-YEAR COLLEGE FACULTY: REFLECTIONS ON SERVICE-LEARNING
CONSENT FORM

I, _____, agree to participate in a research study titled "Two-year college faculty: Reflections on Service-Learning" conducted by Marcy Smith from the Department of Adult Education (770-426-6002) under the direction of Dr. Desna Wallin, Department of Adult Education, University of Georgia (706-583-8098). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have all of the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The reason for this study is to study the experiences of two-year college faculty members in using service-learning in their courses, and to examine processes of reflection surrounding service-learning use.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:

1) **Participate in an interview in which I will answer questions about my experiences using service-learning. This will take approximately one hour.**
2) **Review a transcript or parts of a transcript from the interview to check for accuracy.**

No risk is expected, but I may stop the interview, or withdraw from the study at any time, and all information I have provided will be destroyed.

I participate voluntarily and understand that I have the right to refuse to answer any questions and can terminate the interview at any time. I also understand that I have the right to review the transcripts made of our conversations before these are used if I so choose. I can delete or amend any material or retract or review any of my remarks.

Everything that I say will be kept confidential by the interviewer. I will be identified by a pseudonym in the transcripts and subsequent publications and/or presentations related to this research. Verbatim quotes from me in interview data may be used, but they will be reported so that my identity is anonymous. Any specific organizations, faculty, supervisors, students, and other persons I refer to will be given pseudonyms as well.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project (770-426-6002).

I agree for this interview to be tape-recorded.

Yes _____ No _____

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

Marcy Smith	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	**Signature**	**Date**

Telephone: 770-426-6002
Email: msmith@chattcollege.com

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	**Signature**	**Date**

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu