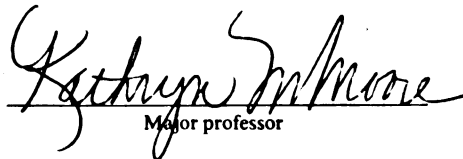This is to certify that the

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INTEGRATING SERVICE AND ACADEMIC STUDY:

SERVICE-LEARNING AND FACULTY MOTIVATION

IN

MICHIGAN HIGHER EDUCATION

By

Christine M. Hammond

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

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ABSTRACT

INTEGRATING SERVICE AND ACADEMIC STUDY: SERVICE-LEARNING AND FACULTY MOTIVATION IN MICHIGAN HIGHER EDUCATION

By

Christine M. Hammond

Student involvement in community service projects is viewed primarily as an extra-curricular activity on most college campuses. However, an increasing number of educators are calling for greater integration between service and study through courses which incorporate service-learning. Support for service-learning is generally rooted in a commitment to volunteerism and has three recurrent strains: service-learning contributes to the vitality of the college or university; service-learning promotes civic responsibility which strengthens the nation; and service-learning contributes to the solution of problems in the wider society.

No matter how persuasive advocates of community service and service-learning might be, decisions regarding the curriculum, subject matter, and instructional methods remain the domain of the faculty who control the content and method of courses. Research on faculty motivation describes faculty as independent workers who are motivated by the intrinsic rewards of research and teaching. These intrinsic factors center upon three conditions: (1) freedom, autonomy, and

Abstract (Continued)

control in doing their work; (2) the belief that the work itself has purpose and meaning; and (3) feedback which indicates that their efforts are, in fact, accomplishing the goal.

This study contributes to the literature on service and academic study by providing baseline data on those faculty who were already engaged in service-learning in the State of Michigan, and by exploring the motivational components of service-learning from a faculty perspective.

Instead of asking the familiar question, "Why don't faculty engage in service?" the study explores the motivations and experiences of those who have actually used service in their courses. Quantitative data were gathered through a survey of 250 Michigan faculty who had incorporated service-learning in their courses in 1992. The survey identified who utilized service-learning; assessed their initial motivations for involvement; identified the factors which contributed to their satisfaction or which discouraged their efforts in service-learning.

Results indicated that faculty motivation for incorporating service is more strongly linked to pedagogical concerns than to service involvement. Respondents also indicated limited support for service-learning on their respective campuses, identifying students as the strongest champions of such initiatives.

DEDICATION

To Dad and Mom, who supported me beyond all understanding.

To my extended family, who strengthened my resolve.

To Tom, whose support and confidence enabled me to complete the task.

To Emily and Stuart, who will discover the joys of

Service and Learning.

And

To the Praise and Glory of the God we know best

Through true service to others.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have graciously provided support and guidance throughout my doctoral program and will have my lifelong gratitude and appreciation.

Dr. Kathryn Moore, Chair of my Guidance Committee, managed to strike just the right balance between prompting and patience. By word and example, she kept me moving forward, reinforcing the value of incrementalism.

Of special significance is the generous and consistent support I received from colleagues at the Thomas M. Cooley Law School, especially Dean Michael P. Cox and Administrative Assistant Barbara J. Palmer. Words cannot capture my thanks for the day-to-day, week-to-week, month-to-month encouragement they have provided. Thanx.

Finally, I was blessed with the best editor in the world. Thank you, Tom, for being sounding board, guide, and friend.

All of these individuals share the credit for whatever value might be derived from this work. Of course, the responsibility for any error or oversight is mine alone.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Focus of the Study

Student involvement in community service projects is viewed primarily as an extra-curricular activity on most college campuses (Kendall, 1990; Lieberman and Connolly, 1992). However, an increasing number of educators are calling for greater integration between service and study through courses which incorporate service-learning (Barber, 1989, 1991, 1992; Nathan and Keilsmeier, 1991; Newman, 1992; Stanton, 1987, 1990; Wieckowski, 1992).

Politicians, practitioners, and philosophers offer many arguments to support the inclusion of service-learning in the formal curriculum (Bok, 1982, 1986; Boyer, 1981, 1987; Boyte, 1992; Bradfield and Myers, 1992; Coles, 1988; Levine, 1989; Stanley, 1989, 1991; Stanton, 1987; Wagner, 1990). This chorus of support for service-learning is generally rooted in a commitment to volunteerism and has three recurrent strains: service-learning contributes to the vitality of the college or university; service-learning promotes civic responsibility which strengthens the nation; and service-learning contributes to the solution of problems in the wider society (Agria, 1990; Barber, 1992; Conrad and Hedin, 1987; Delve, Mintz and Stewart, 1990; Fitch, 1987).

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No matter how persuasive advocates of community service and service-learning might be, decisions regarding the curriculum, subject matter, and instructional methods remain the domain of the faculty (AAUP, 1966; Bowen and Schuster, 1986). Faculty place great value on academic freedom, a freedom which requires that they control the content and method of courses. Research on faculty motivation describes faculty as independent workers who are motivated by the intrinsic rewards of research and teaching (Austin and Gamson, 1983; Bess, 1982; Bowen and Schuster, 1986; Cross, 1990; Csikszentmihalyi, 1982; Deci and Ryan, 1982; McKeachie, 1982; Rice, 1986). These intrinsic factors center upon three conditions: (1) freedom, autonomy, and control in doing their work; (2) the belief that the work itself has purpose and meaning; and (3) feedback which indicates that their efforts are, in fact, accomplishing the goal. Yet, these factors are rarely mentioned in the literature encouraging faculty participation in service-learning, a literature which emphasizes the external benefits of service initiatives for the university, the nation, or society.

Three questions emerge from these contrasting perspectives:

(1) What are the arguments and incentives offered by the advocates of service-learning in attempting to motivate faculty involvement in service-learning?

(2) What are the motivations, satisfactions, and dissatisfactions of the faculty who have utilized

service-learning strategies in their courses?

(3) Are the arguments advanced in support of service-learning consistent with the motivational factors identified by faculty who are working to integrate service and academic study?

This study will attempt to answer these questions.

The Significance of the Study

Why should faculty involvement in service-learning be encouraged? Stanton (1987) maintains that the faculty role in linking service to the curriculum is critical in order to ensure that students serve effectively; that they learn from the experiences; that civic education and civic participation and social responsibility be placed squarely within the academic mission of higher education and that the disincentives; to such student participation be removed. Lieberman and Connolly (1992) seek faculty support for service-learning because the faculty, in setting the research and teaching agenda, are in a strategic position to increase the quality of the service experience, and to provide continuity and consistency in the experience. Furthermore, faculty involvement would provide valuable role models for students and would enhance the credibility of service within the institution.

In the book, <u>College: The Undergraduate Experience in America</u>, Ernest Boyer (1987) asserts that, "Service must be something more than 'do-goodism.' College sponsored programs must be as carefully thought out and as rigorously evaluated

as are the academic programs" (p.216). Furthermore, Boyer asserts that the need to enrich the service dimension cannot be left to the students alone:

> For the faculty, there exists the triad of responsibilities: teaching, research and service. Almost every college we visited recited these functions almost as a ritual. And yet, we found that service is often shortchanged in favor of the other two. Even when the obligation is acknowledged, service is often defined in narrow, uninspired ways ... We believe the quality of campus life would be enriched if faculty service became more than a catchword. (pp.217-218)

The literature on service-learning is burgeoning with exhortations for faculty participation yet, "Little attention has been given to the faculty role in supporting student service efforts" (Stanton, 1990, p.1). In a 1988 survey of 52 member institutions of Campus Compact, Stanton (1990) attempted to assess the role of the faculty in service-learning, as desired and as practiced:

> The most frequently cited issues critical to the faculty role in public service were: (1) the need for a clear definition of public service; (2) a sound rationale for faculty involvement both as role models for students and as instructors who help students connect their public service experience to their academic study; (3) faculty's need for resources and time to learn how to link public service effectively with classroom instruction; and (4) the need for additional incentives and rewards for faculty to become involved in public service. (p.15)

Stanton also noted that, "Survey responses indicate a gap between institutions' aspirations to promote an instructional

role for faculty related to public service and the level of activity actually taking place" (p.17). The needs identified by Stanton cannot be addressed without a better understanding of the role that faculty engaged in service-learning have currently assumed.

Yet, if the current literature is any indication, service practitioners (often employed as academic or student affairs administrators) and service-learning faculty speak past each other, in conversations which often seem disconnected and sometimes adversarial. The very term, "service-learning," reflects the dichotomy found in the existing literature. Practitioners and philosophers place strong emphasis on the "service" components. However, the literature on faculty motivation indicates that faculty would be more attracted by and committed to the "learning" that can be derived from a service experience.

This study is intended to contribute to the very modest literature base on service and academic study in two ways:

(1) by providing baseline data on those faculty who were already engaged in service-learning in the State of Michigan, and

(2) by exploring the motivational components of service-learning from a faculty perspective.

Instead of asking the familiar question, "Why don't faculty engage in service?" the study explores the motivations and experiences of those who have actually used service in

their courses. The implications of this research are both scholarly and practical. This exploration of the service dimension of the faculty role enhances our understanding of the scholarly profession by clarifying the circumstances under which faculty will modify their teaching to include a service component. At the same time, a better understanding of the perceptions of faculty who integrate service and teaching provides a base for extending and improving the quality of such efforts. In fact, the study has already proved useful: When the study was initiated, no comprehensive attempt had been made to identify those faculty who were already engaged in service-learning in the State of Michigan. As a result of the study, a faculty network of survey participants has been formed and related course materials have been circulated.

Outline of the Study

The research questions for this study can only be answered by understanding two bodies of literature: the literature on service-learning and the literature on faculty motivation. Accordingly, Chapter 2 reviews the literature on service-learning. The definition of the term "service-learning" is used to frame the discussion. Focusing first on the service component, the chapter traces community service efforts in education: the history of such initiatives, and current patterns of involvement and volunteer motivation. Attention is given to the arguments made most frequently by advocates of service-learning: that such initiatives enhance the role of colleges and universities, benefit the national

interest, and strengthen the society. Following this review
is an examination of the educational reform efforts which have
incorporated service-learning and the learning outcomes which
are anticipated as students engage in service activities.

Chapter 3 then reviews the literature on faculty
motivation and experience. The work of Frederick Herzberg on
motivation and job satisfaction is used as a theoretical
frame, supported by subsequent studies on faculty culture,
role, and motivation.

Chapter 4 outlines the methods by which data for this
study were collected. Quantitative data were gathered through
a survey in Michigan of faculty who had incorporated service-
learning in their courses in 1992. The survey focused on

a)   identifying faculty who were engaged in service-
     learning,

b)   assessing their initial motivations for such
     initiatives

c)   identifying the factors which contributed to their
     satisfaction with service projects and

d)   identifying factors which discouraged their efforts
     in service-learning.

Chapter 4 also discusses the limitations of the study.
These limitations are related not only to the difficulties of
statistical methodologies but, more importantly, to the
difficulties inherent in a limited understanding of the how
faculty define service-learning and the nature of faculty
motivation.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the quantitative portion of the research. Chapter 6 discusses the results of this study and the implications of these findings. The dissertation concludes with an outline of questions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO: THE NATURE OF SERVICE-LEARNING

This chapter provides an introduction to the concept of service-learning by examining various definitions of the term, the history of the movement, current patterns of involvement, and pedagogical assumptions that separate service-learning from traditional teaching methods. The opening section addresses the question: **What is service-learning and how does this approach differ from traditional teaching methods?**

Definitions of Service-Learning

In a comprehensive review of more than 100 definitions of service-learning, Giles, Honnet, and Migliore (1991) found that two themes consistently emerged. In the first, service-learning was the label applied to a particular type of educational program -- an instructional method. In the second, service-learning represented the underlying educational philosophy espoused by those who engage in such initiatives. The authors note,

> As a program-type, service-learning includes myriad ways that students can perform meaningful service to their communities and to society while engaging in some form of reflection or study that is related to the service. As a philosophy of education, service-learning reflects the belief that education must be linked to social responsibility and that the most effective learning is active and connected to experience in some meaningful way. (Giles, Honnet and Migliore, 1991, p.7)

The current literature on service-learning reflects these two basic categories -- program-type and philosophy. The work in the first category has largely been done by students and community service coordinators with a "how to" emphasis on the service component: exploring how students can promote interest and involvement in service (Lieberman and Connolly, 1992; Farr, 1989; Meisel, 1988) and how practitioners can design and enhance their programs (ACTION, 1978, 1979; Cairn and Keilsmeier, 1991; Cotton and Stanton, 1990; Luce, 1988). The second dimension, more philosophical in nature, has been endorsed by university presidents, politicians, and advocates of educational reform who believe that a stronger integration of service and scholarship will benefit their institutions, the nation, and/or the society at large (Bok, 1982, 1986; Bowen, 1977, 1982; Boyer, 1981, 1987, 1990; Carnegie Commission, 1967, 1973; Couto, 1987, 1992; DiBiaggio, 1988; Harkavy, 1991; Kennedy, 1991; Kerr, 1963; Newman, 1985, 1989, 1992; Payton, 1988; Schuh, 1986; Warren, 1991).

Both the programmatic and philosophical dimensions of service-learning are reflected in the definition provided by Campus Compact and the National Society for Experiential Education, the two leading educational organizations in this field. In a joint publication, these two groups describe service-learning as a "particular form of experiential education, one that emphasizes for students the accomplishment of tasks which meet human needs in combination with conscious educational growth" (Luce, 1988, p.i.) This definition, as

applied to courses for academic credit, has been adopted for use in this study because it has three key components which distinguish service-learning from similar initiatives in community service, civic education, or social action: (1) the active involvement of students, (2) the accomplishment of service, and (3) the enhancement of learning. Summarizing various definitions of service-learning, Gomez suggests that,

> Service-learning is student learning and development through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet real community needs and that are coordinated in collaboration with the school and community... [S]ervice-learning is integrated into the students' academic curriculum and provides structured time for them to talk, write, and think about what they did and saw during the actual service activity. Service is the intentional integration of curricular content with community service activities. Effective service-learning led by committed, well-prepared educators yields documented outcomes benefiting young people, the community, and schools." (3.01 and 3.02)

This chapter will first provide a brief review of the programmatic dimensions of service-learning: its structure and content. Second, the broader, philosophical dimension will be explored, including a brief history of the service movement in education, the endorsements given on behalf of service-learning, the pedagogical traditions which have adopted service-learning techniques, and the learning-outcomes made possible by such activities.

The Structure of Service-Learning Programs

Service-learning takes many forms across a wide array of disciplines. For example, education majors may tutor disadvantaged youth; nursing students may sponsor blood pressure screening seminars or give community presentations on health-related topics; students in the natural sciences may monitor wetlands for changes in the growth of flora and fauna and apply their results to improve the environmental conditions; law students may assist the elderly in navigating the bureaucratic maze of social security benefits; accounting students may assist with income tax materials; marketing students may conduct research or develop advertising for a non-profit organization. These are only a few of the many ways service-learning is currently in use on college campuses. Yet, no matter what the setting, achieving the balance between service _and_ learning brings service-learning a unique set of possibilities _and_ challenges.

Kennedy (1991) asserts that there are two primary tasks in teaching: intellectual management (choosing the best method, setting an appropriate pace, responding to questions, establishing a basis for evaluation, etc.) and logistical management (monitoring attendance, ensuring adequate resources, etc.). Service-learning presents pedagogical challenges to instructors on both dimensions. Those who incorporate service into the curriculum must recognize that "Community service components are more than 'additions' to courses; integrating community service into a course

transforms the course material and the way in which it is taught. Community service experiences often require facilitation and an adaptation of standard teaching methods" (Lieberman and Connolly, p.79).

At the outset, the technical components required for a service-learning experience can be quite complex: Community connections must be established and fostered; travel and other logistical elements must be negotiated; safety and liability issues must be weighed and balanced. Yet all of these pale in comparison to the intellectual and pedagogical challenges.

Intellectually, instructors must define the educational goals of the course and determine the role that service experiences might play in achieving those aims. Furthermore, they must assess the abilities of the students enrolled in the course and identify appropriate service tasks and settings for student participation. In service-learning, each student brings a different level of exposure to and sophistication with the problem at hand, a factor which may play a dramatic role in the nature of the learning experience for the individual and the class as a whole (Kennedy, 1991; Shulman, 1986, 1987). For example, tutoring elementary students in an inner-city school may seem quite straight-forward: a matter of arranging pairs and finding convenient times. Yet, in that setting, one can easily imagine the difference between the educational experience of a student tutor who has grown up in a rural setting or in the suburbs and one who is familiar with the circumstances of inner-city youth. Trying to cope with

the broad spectrum of student experiences in such a setting may reduce the instructor's ability to control the classroom environment, dissolving class cohesiveness as each student pursues what could aptly be construed as an independent study.

Frank Newman (1992) warns of the pedagogical risks related to service-learning as student sophistication grows: "Service experience can be dangerous...for higher education because the net result is that students come into the classroom with more self-confidence, more knowledge, more willingness to challenge authority" (p.17).

Service-learning has been integrated into many experiential courses already accepted in the curriculum: field studies, internships, practica, independent studies, clinical experience programs, co-operative experiences, and cross-cultural training (Arthur, 1991). Nonetheless, each attempt requires significant planning and follow-through. As is the case in clinical settings, service-learning has a technical, an intellectual and an ethical component. In her book, Literacy Action, Louise Meacham reinforces the importance of the ethical dimension with the following example:

> When asked in the fall of 1986 about getting college and university people involved in literacy work, the program director of the county-wide tutoring program burst out laughing. She became very serious, however, when she described a phone call she received late one fall semester. A student from a neighboring university had called and asked if he could "please have an illiterate for a few weeks." The professor of a class he was taking had made tutoring a requirement for the course. The faculty member had done this without making contact with local literacy

groups. (Meacham in Liebermann and Connolly, 1992, p.61)

As a means of avoiding such gaffes, The National Society for Internships and Experiential Education has adopted a set of 10 Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning (1989):

1. An effective program engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good.

2. An effective program provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience.

3. An effective program articulates clear service and learning goals for everyone involved.

4. An effective program allows for those with needs to define those needs.

5. An effective program clarifies the responsibilities of each person and organization involved.

6. An effective program matches service providers and service needs through a process that recognizes changing circumstances

7. An effective program expects genuine, active, and sustained organizational commitment.

8. An effective program includes training, supervision, monitoring, support, recognition, and evaluation to meet service and learning goals.

9. An effective program insures that the time commitment for service and learning is flexible, appropriate, and in the best interests of all involved.

10. An effective program is committed to program participation by and with diverse populations.

In order to meet the standards set by these objectives, most service-learning programs include five basic components: (1) assessment/placement -- assessing student skills and needs and arranging for appropriate placement in a service setting; (2) orientation/training -- in order to set expectations, provide the necessary technical skills and instill a helpful attitude in volunteers (ACTION/NCSL, 1990); (3) supervision/monitoring -- which allows for early correction of

problems which may arise; (4) reflection -- which helps students to synthesize their service experience with the course content; and (5) evaluation. Evaluation is often among the most troubling aspect of service-learning for student and instructor. Experts caution that it is neither the service nor the good intentions but the learning that must be evaluated. Say Liebermann and Connolly (1992),

> While community service is educationally valuable, it is the learning derived from experience -- not the experience itself -- that should be awarded academic credit. As Donald Eberly of the National Service Secretariat notes, "The way to preserve the intellectual integrity of the service experience is to award academic credit for the demonstration of learning from the experience, not just for the experience." (New York Times, 6/3/88)

Methods of evaluating the learning in service-learning can take a variety of forms: the demonstration of a skill; the assessment of a journal, essay or report describing the knowledge or insight gained; the supervisor's certification of performance; observation in a simulated situation; assessment of a product prepared by the student; personal interviews; the assessments of those being served. Such evaluations are not designed to measure some pre-determined disciplinary content but, rather, to assess the growth of the student as a result of the service-experience.

Summary

This review of the programmatic dimensions of service-learning -- definitions, examples, principles of good practice

and course structure -- highlights many differences between service-learning techniques and traditional teaching methods. The technical, intellectual and ethical dimensions of such activities may pose greater challenges for faculty who choose to adopt such methods. Let us now turn to the philosophical dimensions which have traditionally supported such efforts, despite the challenges they present. To understand service-learning, one must consider dimensions of volunteerism and philanthropy in concert with educational theory and practice. Service-learning is not a wholly new technique or model but rather is an _emerging_ phenomenon. It draws from long traditions of service and volunteerism -- from Jane Addams to Ceasar Chevez, and is compatible with philosophies articulated by educators from John Dewey and Paulo Friere.

The following pages of this chapter describe (1) the historical underpinnings of the service component of service-learning, (2) the arguments offered to encourage faculty involvement with service-learning, (3) the pedagogical traditions which incorporate service-learning, and (4) the learning which can be derived through a service-learning experience.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE SERVICE-LEARNING MOVEMENT

The following section sketches the history of the service-learning movement, paying particular attention to the question, **Does the history of service learning provide clear evidence of its place in higher education and its claim to faculty attention?**

The roots of service-learning are intertwined with the history and development of volunteerism and philanthropy, especially among high school and college-age youth (VanBuren, 1990; Independent Sector, 1990; Sherraden, 1991). While it is not the intent of this study to provide a full historical analysis of youth service in society, a sketch of the origins of the movement will provide a useful context for understanding current patterns of collegiate involvement. The term service-learning is sometimes used, almost interchangeably with the terms community service or "youth service." Service-learning emerged from early efforts to engage youth in community service and the continuing popularity of such programs today lends valuable support to service-learning as a component of the formal collegiate curriculum.

Exhortations to charity and works of mercy span the millennia cross cultures. However, the origins of youth service as a distinct enterprise can be traced to the Gilded Age of American history, a period marked by the tidal wave of immigration and the impact of the industrial revolution. The link between service and the education of youth is clearly evidenced in the experiential educational philosophy of John Dewey (1915) and the perspectives on philanthropy advanced by Andrew Carnegie (1933), but it is especially evident in the work of Jane Addams (1910) and the settlement house initiatives.

Youth Service: Product of the Gilded Age

It was Jane Addams who recognized the lure service would have for the young: "We have in America a fast-growing number of cultivated young people who have no recognized outlet for their active faculties. They hear constantly of the great social maladjustment, but no way is provided for them to change it, and their uselessness hangs about them heavily" (p.120). It was Addams who constructed an environment (both in program and philosophy) which enabled them to heed the call. "A Settlement," she wrote, "Is above all a place for enthusiasms, a spot to which those who have a passion for the equalization of human joys and opportunities are early attracted" (p.184).

In her book, <u>Twenty Years at Hull House</u> (1910), Addams documented many of the tensions that remain inherent in service-learning today, including the tension between service and learning. It was no coincidence that her colleagues from the settlement movement in London implored her to take pains to see that Hull House would not become "too educational" (p.366).

Yet Addams was drawn to the power of education and she attempted to reinforce the link between the mind and the heart in several different ways. Faced with the squalor of the immigrant tenements in Chicago, she chose to designate the first building at Hull House, not as a cafeteria or dormitory, but as an art gallery. In illustrating the necessity of cooperation among various labor unions, she used a concept

which modern educators would describe as "integrated" study. In her endeavors to link young and old for mutual benefit, Addams fostered relationships that today would be identified as "mentoring."

Early ventures in service-learning relied on the initiative of private individuals such as Addams, but national trends soon conspired to engage youth in social issues, especially through both World Wars, the Great Depression, and the organized labor movement (Agee, 1939; Day, 1952; Arendt, 1958). The writings of social conscience which emerged in the first half of the 20th century became standard texts for courses which integrated service and study (Lieberman and Connolly, 1992; Levine, 1989; Luce, 1988). Today, they continue to appear in service-learning bibliographies because they speak to the philosophical dimension of service and attempt to foster an awareness of the mutual benefits possible for both volunteer and recipient.

Collegiate Service: Youth Service and Higher Education

Throughout the Gilded Age and into the early 1920's, youth service was devoted to civic and social responsibility, and was separate from the academic enterprise. Participants in Hull House and similar ventures had often completed their formal education before accepting the challenge to employ their skills for the betterment of society.

Although service was recognized as a valued dimension of higher education in both private church-related institutions and in the formation of the land-grant colleges, the

fulfillment of the service mission in higher education remained elusive. According to Crosson (1983), "Most colleges and universities proclaim a commitment to public service as part of their formal mission statement, but few have separate policy documents regarding public service" (p.97). When attempts have been made to specify the service functions of colleges and universities, activities have generally been justified in a scholarly, professional context, i.e., in the accumulation, preservation and transmission of knowledge. Universities contend that they serve society by contributing ideas of value, initiating social criticism, solving social problems and engaging in social activism (Crosson, 1983).

The service-oriented efforts of students have generally been peripheral to institutional service functions. According to Theus (1988):

> Historically, volunteer activity has been unsung and unrewarded on college campuses. When it did exist, campus voluntarism was the step-child of the student activities office and campus social organizations. Fraternities and sororities often encouraged their members to 'do good,' though mostly to elevate their house's image in the community. Student organizations often garnered participation with promises of social contact (dance-a-thons or fun runs, sold as dating bonanzas) or, more practically, with promises of credentials for employment. Little of this activity had as its object the nurture of civic spirit or reflection upon the meaning of service.
> Bona fide service organizations have always existed on campus, of course. The Boy Scouts of America founded a collegiate service fraternity, Alpha Phi Omega, in 1925; it now has active chapters on 311 campuses. Circle K is another well-established, campus-based

national service organization. And campus
ministries for years have tapped the
conscientiousness of their members to tutor
fellow students, rebuild neighborhoods, and
provide child or elderly care -- in the name
of God... (p. 30)

Collegiate involvement in community service reached an
all-time low in the 1950s. The G.I.'s who flooded the campus
in post WWII America believed firmly that they had already
served their country and were now entitled to the benefits of
the peaceful nation they helped to secure. President Dwight
Eisenhower, honorary chair of the Citizenship Education
Project developed by Columbia University's Teacher's College,
emphasized the need for "social investigation and
social/political action" (Conrad and Hedin, 1987, p.744), but
academic leaders, struggling to keep pace with the burgeoning
growth of their institutions, had little time to launch bold
new initiatives.

Collegiate Service and the Federal Agenda

Thus, it is not surprising that the call for student
investment in national and community service did not emerge
from academic convocations. Rather, it was the 1960 inaugural
address of John F. Kennedy -- "Ask not what your country can
do for you. Ask what you can do for your country" -- which
resonated on college campuses and ushered in a new era of
student activism. Student concerns for social justice and
academic relevance, combined with increased frustration over
the depersonalization of higher education in the 1960's,
triggered numerous service initiatives, including the Voter

Registration Drives, the Peace Corps, Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), and the War on Poverty. The voter registration drives of the "Freedom Summer of '64" are especially noteworthy for they serve today as the model for "Empty the Shelters" project, started by students at the University of Pennsylvania (1990) to eradicate homelessness (Collison, 1991). In some cases, the initiatives of the 1960s were linked to academic work, but more often projects were undertaken during a summer or holiday recess or as extra-curricular experiences.

The 1970's witnessed a dramatic decline in service and philanthropy, within education and throughout the nation. This can be attributed in large part to the actions of the federal government. The Congressional Tax Reform Act of 1969, coupled with escalating inflation, severely crippled the activities of many foundations and non-profit organizations engaged in service. Furthermore, women, who made up a significant proportion of the nation's volunteers, began to trade community involvement for paid employment (VanBuren, 1990). Throughout the decade, several reports -- by the National Committee on Secondary Education, the President's Science Advisory Committee, and the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education -- highlighted the passivity of education and called for educational reform (Conrad and Hedin, 1987). Arthur Levine's 1979 work, <u>When Dreams and Heroes Died</u>, painted a frightening portrait of unsurpassed hedonism among the college population.

Some attempts were made to change the course of the "me generation" in the 1970's. VISTA, the federal agency charged with domestic service, developed the National Student Volunteer Program (NSVP) "to encourage school-based service programs via conferences, workshops, a quarterly journal, and a small grants program" (Lockwood, 1990, p.53). Legislation to promote youth involvement in community service was introduced but with little success. NSVP and other federal programs languished throughout the 1970's, almost disappearing completely in the early years of the Reagan-Bush administration (Lockwood, 1990).

The impact of declining federal support for social welfare programs received mixed reviews among those concerned with service initiatives. In his response to William F. Buckley's book, <u>Gratitude: Reflections on What We Owe to Our Country</u>, Steven Conn, co-founder of the "Empty the Shelters" movement, issued an indictment of the Reagan administration:

> ...the Reagan administration had systematically gutted the Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) program. It did the same to federal programs that traded financial help to medical students for service in underserved areas. Even the Peace Corps suffered abuse and neglect throughout much of the 1980s. It seemed clear enough that 'service' was not high on Mr. Reagan's agenda. (Conn, 1991, p.6)

But others offered an alternate explanation, as noted by VanBuren (1990):

> By 1981, newly elected President Ronald Reagan was committed to minimizing the role of government in societal welfare. He set in motion a series of cutbacks that placed more burden on the shoulders of private philanthropy and volunteerism, and he called on citizens to give of their time, talents and dollars. As a result, Americans today are volunteering at a level not seen for decades. (p.19)

Whether motivated by the conservative or the liberal agenda, Americans did renew their commitment to service in the period following the Reagan years. Between 1984 and 1989, hundreds of service programs were initiated in high schools and colleges, and full-time youth service corps more than quadrupled in number, due in large part to Congressional legislation and the verbal encouragement of the Bush administration. The Office of Capitol National Service was created within the White House and the Points of Light Foundation was started as a separate national initiative to encourage voluntarism (Stroud, 1989). As Conrad and Hedin (1987) observed:

> In November, 1990 President George Bush signed into law the National and Community Service Act of 1990, the most significant community service legislation in many decades. The act provides funding for community service programs in schools and colleges and support for full-time service corps that students can enter after high school. In a period when every issue in education becomes more and more politicized, this legislation stands out as a cause championed by both outspoken liberals and staunch conservatives. Even more remarkable, the law was passed in a time of severe federal budget austerity. (p.743)

Perhaps more than any other curricular or co-curricular

program, service-learning initiatives have waxed and waned according to the level of governmental support. Support at the national level has increased during the Clinton Administration as federal funding has linked service to collegiate financial aid. On September 21, 1993, for example, President Clinton signed legislation creating the AmeriCorps, a service program designed to provide tuition stipends and other benefits in return for public service. The National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993 aims at fostering service through AmeriCorps, a Civilian Community Corps, and VISTA.

Student Service Today: Patterns of Participation

Today, service-learning programs are gaining increased attention on college campuses. In addition to the federal support for service, Theus (1988) asserts that "Three initiatives seem to have stimulated the perception that 'greed is out, altruism is in' and that student voluntarism pays off in the national interest" (p.27).

The first of these was the creation of "Campus Compact: The Project for Public and Community Service", an initiative of 12 college and university presidents who committed their institutions to charter membership in 1985. As described by Nozaki (1993), "These presidents committed themselves to establishing community service as an integral element of undergraduate education and agreed to initiate and support efforts on the campus, state and national levels to expand service opportunities" (p.1). Among these academic leaders was Derek Bok (1986), then President of Harvard and a leading

advocate of service-learning, who asserted that introducing educational innovations was appropriate to the leadership role:

> In part because of their unique perspective and in part because of the authority of their office, academic leaders also have a special opportunity to mobilize support for new initiatives. If anyone is to have a vision for a university and communicate its basic directions and priorities, that person is likely to be a president or some other official with broad academic responsibilities. (p.193)

With assistance from the Educational Commission of the States, the Campus Compact coalition mushroomed to include over 300 institutions in the next seven years (Nozaki, 1993).

The second initiative, the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL), began in 1984 when Wayne Meisel, a new Harvard graduate armed with a letter of introduction and support from Harvard President Derek Bok, walked 1500 miles to 65 East Coast colleges and universities and invited each to join in a student-focused network of community service. Fifteen institutions responded to the initial call; today the network includes over 700 campuses and over 200 service organizations (Lieberman and Connolly, 1992, p.2).

The third initiative is represented by a cluster of government-supported agencies involving youth service. As the scope of youth service programs has expanded, so too has the definition "youth." While the image of youthful service might have conjured up visions of hard-working Civilian Conservation Corps or idealistic Peace Corps volunteers in previous

decades, today "youth" service refers to students in high school, middle school or even elementary school who participate in a wide variety of service ventures from neighborhood clean-up efforts to drug-awareness campaigns. Youth Service America (YSA), one of the largest service initiatives in the nation, was established to achieve three goals: to multiply service programs at all levels, to replace cliches and misconceptions about youth, and to foster bonds between youth and their home communities (YSA, 1988, p.2).

During the 1980's, ten states passed legislation to encourage or require community service in high schools (Theus, 1988). These programs generally include one or more of the activities identified by Conrad and Hedin (1987): special events and co-curricular activities; events which gain academic credit or fulfill an academic requirement; events which serve as a laboratory for a traditional course; classes which focus on community service as a topic area; and intra-school programs with a school-wide focus.

The Demographics of Student Service

These youth service initiatives, targeted at ages 14-17, have had a significant impact on the service-learning movement in higher education because they provide students with their initial exposure to organized service programs. In 1990, Rutter and Newman (1990) estimated that 27 percent of high schools offered some form of community service program, involving approximately 900,000 students. A survey of public

schools in Michigan revealed that 54.5 percent had organized school volunteer programs and 15.7 percent had service-learning (i.e., credit-bearing) programs (Moon and Niemeyer, 1991). A 1990 Gallup Corporation study conducted for Independent Sector, an advocacy group for non-profit organizations, revealed that 58 percent of American teenagers, ages 14-17, volunteered in 1989, averaging 3.9 hours/week/volunteer. Independent Sector estimates that these contributions total 1.6 billion hours of volunteer effort, roughly equivalent to a $4.4 billion contribution to the nation's gross national product. Following its study of the American high school, the Carnegie Foundation proposed the creation of a "Carnegie unit" -- a period of voluntary service which would take high school students into the community. Furthermore, the Foundation recommended that colleges and universities consider the completion of such service when making admissions decisions (Boyer, 1987).

Studies indicate that voluntarism in high school does persist into the college years albeit at reduced levels. Alexander Astin has examined patterns of student service involvement using the longitudinal data of the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP). In a 1989 follow-up study of 25,000 students who entered college in 1985, Astin found that the strongest correlation linking students to service was prior participation. This finding was supported by a 1990 study conducted by the Michigan Campus Compact

(MCC): 60.2 percent of college student volunteers had been involved in community service prior to matriculation (MCC, p.16). However, Astin also discovered that the rate of voluntarism declined precipitously in college years. During their high school years, 21 percent of the students surveyed were frequent volunteers; during college that number dropped to 9.8 percent. The number of students who volunteered "occasionally" dropped from 54 percent in high school to 37.7 percent in college. In two 1986 Gallup surveys a 35 percent participation rate among students on 100 college campuses gave further support to Astin's data on community service.

Astin's CIRP data have often been cited to emphasize a rise in the hedonism of college students throughout the 1970s and early 80's. However, reviewing the trends in the CIRP data of the last twenty-five years, Astin observes:

> The value of 'being very well off financially' has increased tremendously in popularity, while the value of 'developing a meaningful philosophy of life' has declined precipitously....It is important to note ... however, that these trends peaked out in 1987 and have since shown slight tendencies in the opposite direction. (p.13)

Despite the decline in service participation from high school to college, Astin also notes that

> During the last few years, we have seen a marked increase in student propensity to be activists. It is especially interesting that the rate of activism is higher even than what we observed in the late 1960s....Student interest both in 'influencing social values' and in 'influencing the political structure' have shown sharp increases during the past four years. (p.14)

In the book, <u>College: The Undergraduate Experience in America</u>, Ernest Boyer (1987) reaches a similar conclusion:

> We, too, found that a growing minority of today's students believe they can make a difference and they are reaching out to help others. In our national survey, 52 percent of the students reported that their high schools provided an opportunity for community service. And about one half participated in some kind of service activity during their college years. (p.214)

Participants in the Boyer survey indicated involvement in eight different service areas: fund raising (47%); service activities (45%) church-service (41%); charity organization projects (31%); election campaigns (20%); work with the elderly or retirees (19%); environmental projects (17%); and hospital service (17%).

Summary

In tracing the history of the service-learning movement, one can see that support for such efforts has waxed and waned according to the national agenda. Furthermore, it is evident that community service, in both curricular and co-curricular settings, is currently receiving considerable support from government officials, university administrators and students. However, service-learning has not been included in the traditional descriptions of faculty service on most campuses, in part because it links service to teaching rather than to research or outreach. Since no other studies have been conducted to link faculty motivation and service, the next section presents information on the motivation of student

volunteers in the hope of gaining insight on this question.

STUDENT MOTIVATION: STUDENT SERVICE

Service-learning has grown, largely because of the enthusiasm of student volunteers. As we speculate about the role of faculty in such endeavors, we might ask: **Would an understanding of the motivation and activities of student volunteers provide insight into the motivations faculty might have for becoming involved in service-learning?** The following section describes the motivation of student volunteers and current patterns of involvement.

The Motivation of Student Volunteers

Why do students volunteer? A prime factor is simply that they are asked. Thirty-six percent of teens surveyed in the Independent Sector report (1990) indicated that they volunteered because they were asked. Of those who had been asked to volunteer, 90 percent did so -- as compared with 87 percent of adults on a similar scale. Furthermore, the Independent Sector report identified the "growing emphasis on community service" in schools as a major factor in promoting voluntarism. Fifty-two percent of teens volunteered through their schools. The rate of voluntarism in schools which emphasized community service was significantly higher than in schools with no service focus. Ten percent of teen volunteers reported that their schools required community service for graduation and 26 percent were aware of one or more course

which required a community service project.

The evidence of student satisfaction with service-learning is largely anecdotal but consistently positive. Consider, for example, the testimony of Alison Marks, a student volunteer working through Amnesty International to assist Central American detainees who were housed at the Port Isabel Processing Center in Texas:

> "I was in school taking Latin American Studies but I wasn't doing anything to help change things ... I wanted to balance out my theories with experience" (Marks in Collison, 1991).

In an effort to categorize such anecdotal evidence, Fitch (1987) organized the responses of 76 students with regard to their service experiences. In his sample, altruistic responses ("I am concerned about those less fortunate than me") emerged as the most prevalent motivation for student voluntarism. Mid-range responses indicated ego involvement ("It is an excellent way to show future employers that I am interested in the community and helping others") and of lowest significance were responses centered on obligation ("It is an assignment or requirement for a class, organization or group I am in") (Fitch, 1987, p.487). These results are similar to those of the Independent Sector study (1990) which indicated that 47 percent of teens volunteered because they wanted to do something useful, 38 percent because they thought it would be enjoyable. In their studies of student volunteer motivation, Rutter and Newman (1983) identified five categories of interest: the acquisition and pursuit of social relationships;

personal growth and development; acquisition of useful skills and knowledge; community awareness and involvement; and career exploration or vocational experience.

These categories mirror the findings of the 1986-87 study conducted by the Service-Learning Center at Michigan State University (Edens, 1988). Motivations of the 1757 students who volunteered that year are provided in the following chart:

Self improvement	90.5%
Helping others	87.1%
Developing interpersonal skills	86.7%
Being involved with others	85.9%
Doing something meaningful	85.9%
Improving skills	85.9%
Pursuing an interest	83.1%
Broadening experience in the community	82.0%
Gaining professional experience	76.5%
Exploring a career	72.2%
Personal reasons	71.8%
Meeting a community need	68.2%
Having fun	67.1%
Learning from a professor	65.5%
Deciding on a career	54.9%
Fulfilling a class requirement	19.2%

Alexander Astin's research indicates that students most likely to volunteer in college were previous volunteers, come from a Roman Catholic or Jewish religious tradition, and rate helping others as a primary life goal. Students least likely to volunteer are those who show strong materialistic motives or who show "a tendency to rationalize college attendance in terms of enhanced income" (Astin, 1990, p.2). Astin also identified several campus characteristics likely to enhance student participation, most notably involvement with peer groups on campus, majoring in the social sciences or in education, and attending an institution which belonged to the

Campus Compact. Astin found that student involvement increased through relationships with faculty strongly committed to social change and he asserts that:

> It is also of interest to note that the amount of interaction between faculty and students has one of the strongest effects on volunteer participation. Since many of the reform reports directed at undergraduate education have emphasized the importance of student-faculty interaction as a way of enhancing the learning process, it is also important to realize that there are additional benefits to student-faculty interaction beyond any effects it might have on the student's educational progress. (Astin, 1990, p.10)

Institutional Support for Service-Learning

Largely in response to increased student interest, support for service-learning is growing on college campuses. The Chronicle of Higher Education reported in 1990 that "At least two dozen institutions have adopted new policies and many more are studying ways to encourage or mandate community service" (Dodge, p.1). For example, many colleges and universities now have a designated staff member (a community service or service-learning coordinator) who works to integrate the interests of students and the needs of the community. In addition, in 1987-88, the Association of American Colleges launched an initiative to encourage curricular attention to philanthropy, volunteerism and the work of non-profit organizations. Through grants from several major corporations, courses were developed to address such topics at eight institutions.

In addition to such initiatives, several colleges have decided to mandate service. At Wittenberg College, every sophomore is required to enroll in a program of service in topics such as literacy, health, the disabled, the elderly or the environment; thirty hours of community service are required for graduation. Bethany College (Ohio) requires 15-20 hours of service for graduation. Tufts University maintains a Community Service Option for 50 incoming freshmen whose admission to the University is guaranteed by virtue of their participation in service. In 1989, Xavier University (Ohio) began offering five undergraduate fellowships, the recipients of which are required to devote 15 hours a week to community service. At Stanford University, the Center for Public Service reports that over 2000 students each year are involved in a wide range of projects from volunteerism to social advocacy. At Harvard, "over 50 percent of all undergraduates are now involved at some period in their college career in tutoring disadvantaged children, staffing centers for the homeless, visiting old-age homes, or working for some other kind of community agency" (Bok, 1986, p.168). Perhaps the most dramatic effort was made by Edward J. Bloustein as President of Rutgers University. Bloustein proposed that all Rutgers undergraduates perform community service as a graduation requirement and has set about integrating service across the curriculum at that institution.

Yet, as demonstrated in the examples above, the support

for service-learning has primarily come from students (e.g., COOL, Empty the Shelters, AmeriCorps, etc.), from academic administrators (e.g., college presidents, community service coordinators, student affairs professionals, etc.), or from broad based educational groups (e.g., American Association of Colleges, the Campus Compact, the Educational Commission of the States). It has not come from the faculty.

While it is true that service-learning is being integrated into the curriculum (Lieberman and Connolly identify 282 service-related courses nationwide in 60 academic areas), and that the influence of faculty is significant to the success of such efforts (Astin, 1990), faculty have been seen as reluctant partners. Advocates of service-learning speak of the challenge of "getting faculty involved," as demonstrated by this advice found in Service-Learning: A Guide for College Students (ACTION, 1990):

> Many professors will not be familiar with the term "service-learning" so be ready to explain that you're talking about a field experience that combines community service with specific learning objectives. You may find professors who have trouble seeing how service is related to their field of knowledge...The skills needed to tackle human problems are often those of the generalist, whereas your professor may be concerned primarily with specialist skills -- those related to a specific subject area (p.9).

The literature among administrators echoes a similar refrain:

> Student development professionals have known for many years about the value of extracurricular volunteerism and community service activities...Interest and cooperation of faculty must be encouraged in order to develop programs with an academic component

that will provide additional incentive for
student participation. (Wieckowski, 1992,
p.211)

Summary

The literature on student volunteerism indicates that
prior involvement is a strong indicator of current and future
participation. Altruistic motivations and their relationships
with others are also key components for student investment in
service initiatives. The campus climate can have an effect on
student volunteer participation rates and, as a consequence,
many colleges and universities are developing programs or
instituting academic requirements to support such efforts.
Given that faculty support appears to be a significant factor
in encouraging community service on campus, advocates of
service-learning are searching for strategies which will
elicit faculty participation. In the next section, we will
examine the most primary incentives and arguments set forth to
bolster faculty involvement.

ENCOURAGING FACULTY INVOLVEMENT: MAKING THE CASE FOR SERVICE-LEARNING

Advocates of service-learning have tried to elicit
faculty involvement by enumerating the benefits of service for
the student, the institution, the nation and the society. The
following section summarizes the arguments most frequently
presented in the service-learning literature to foster faculty
support.

As already documented, support for service-learning has
grown dramatically in the past decade. Increased student

investment in service activities, coupled with the financial incentives provided by state and federal programs, have placed service-learning on the nation's educational agenda. Yet the literature in the previous sections enumerated the ways in which service-learning challenges traditional teaching methods, requiring more time and energy on the part of faculty. The literature also revealed a pattern of modest (although increasing) institutional support for service-learning, coupled with sporadic incentives from the state and national government. The growing popularity of community service among the young has been documented but there has been no corresponding indication of an upsurge in faculty interest. Similarly, the assumption that faculty would share the motivations of their students, who often volunteer because of previous involvement in high school or for altruistic reasons, would be largely speculative. How do advocates of service-learning encourage faculty participation? In the following pages, the most persuasive arguments from the literature are set forth as a response to this question.

Social Responsibility and Curricular Reform

Support for service-learning has been drawn from two reform movements in higher education: the drive to enhance social responsibility and the desire to revitalize undergraduate education (Stanton, 1987). Both sets of reformers are concerned with the application, integration and evaluation of knowledge; the ability to develop perspective; the practice of analytical skills and the political and social

action skills necessary for scholarship (Stanton, 1987, p.182). Each branch of the reform movement allies itself with a different dimension of service-learning. Those who are concerned about social responsibility focus on the service dimension while undergraduate reformers see service-learning as a tool which will bring relevance to academic study. Stanton maintains that

> If there is potential for convergence between these two distinct, but complementary traditions, then faculty participation and support for students' public and community service becomes integral. Faculty have a central role to play in ensuring that these experiences are continually challenging and educational as well as useful for the community on the receiving end. As interpreters of the college's or university's mission, faculty are in the critical position for supporting students' interest and activities in public and community service. More importantly, they must assist students in reflecting critically about their public service experience and in relating them both to broader social issues and to liberal arts disciplines. (Stanton, 1987, p.184)

From those who advocate service-learning as a strategy for enhancing social responsibility, three arguments emerge:

1. Service-learning is consistent with the aims of higher education.

2. Service-learning encourages civic responsibility which is beneficial to the nation.

3. Service-learning enables students to contribute to the welfare of society.

These three incentives, used to solicit faculty support and involvement for service-learning, are discussed in the

following pages. Subsequently, the learning dimensions of service-learning, most frequently cited by advocates of educational reform, are discussed. In Chapter Three these perspectives on service and learning will be compared with the literature on faculty motivation. Furthermore, these arguments have been integrated into the survey instrument for this study, as described in Chapter Four.

Service-learning: Fulfilling the Promise of Higher Education

As an institutional mission, service can be traced back to the Morrill Act of 1862 and the Hatch Act of 1887 which established the agricultural experiment stations. In principal, if not in action, service was readily embraced and spread beyond the land-grant institutions:

> In 1903, David Starr Jordan, president of Stanford University, declared that the entire university movement in the twentieth century "is toward reality and practicality." By 1908, Harvard president Charles Eliot could claim: "At the bottom most of the American institutions of higher education are filled with the modern democratic spirit of serviceableness. Teachers and students alike are profoundly moved by the desire to serve the democratic community...All colleges boast of the serviceable men they have trained, and regard the serviceable patriot as their ideal product. This is a thoroughly democratic conception of their function." (Boyer, 1990, p.5)

Academic leaders today continue to embrace the service mission but their rhetoric has become more inclusive, and, perhaps, even less measurable. For example, Mawby (1987) states that service in higher education may be "best conceived as dynamic and creative teaching and research carried out in

the full dimensions of the human life-span and the broad range of human associations both on and off campus" (Mawby in Arthur, p.38).

Crosson (1983) describes "The service orientation of colleges and universities...as uniquely American and one of the great strengths of American higher education" (p.10). Yet, in recent years, public satisfaction with the academy's ability to fulfill these functions appears to be waning. A 1988 survey conducted by the Gallup Corporation for the Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) asked citizens to grade higher education on its overall performance and on accomplishment of specific tasks. The over-all grade was moderate: 38 percent of respondents gave academe a "B"; 35 percent gave it a "C." However, on three of the specific tasks enumerated in the study, a majority or near majority gave higher education a "C" or below: (a) preparing students to be productive members of the workforce (52%); (b) making young people good citizens (58%); and (c) offering opportunities to explore one's values (48%) (CASE, 1989, p. 4). These are the tasks which advocates believe could, in part, be addressed through service-learning experiences. Given that the citizenry, through taxes or tuition, provides the support for higher education in stringent economic times, it is no surprise to hear calls for accountability: "We are citizens of academic communities that hold great power, operate on quasi-public funds, yet face insufficient criticism about their day-to-day operations" (Levine, 1990, p.26-27).

The call for service as a part of a renewed and refocused academy goes beyond a budget rationale to the efficacy of undergraduate education. According to Newman, "the University is slipping toward the academic equivalent of the hospital -- a place where academic specialists come to practice rather than a place where students come to participate in an academic community" (Newman, 1992, p.4). Boyer (1987) insists that, "there is urgent need in American teaching to help close the dangerous and growing gap between public policy and public understanding" (p.279). A similar refrain emerges from the work of the Wingspread Group on Higher Education (1993):

> What does our society _need_ from higher education? It needs stronger, more vital forms of community. It needs an informed and involved citizenry. It needs graduates able to assume leadership roles in American life... (p.2)

In response to these concerns, service-learning is seen as one mechanism for enhancing the quality of undergraduate education and thereby enhancing the reputation of academe:

> Only if we (in higher education) become the sources of ethical vision for our society and only if we graduate students who have the ethical intelligence to create a better society will undergraduate education once again distinguish itself in the public eye as something more than just another function of society, as something of qualitatively distinct value. Only then will education be perceived as unequivocally worthy of national investment and as the evident path for producing our country's leaders. And only then will American education once again be granted the autonomy, the respect, and dignity that is rightly accorded to all great ethical teachers. (Bloom, 1987, p.16)

Service-Learning and Civic Participation

Perhaps the most prominent of the three arguments supporting service-learning centers on the desire to enhance civic participation and affect issues of social justice at the national level (Barber, 1989, 1991, 1992; Boyer, 1981, 1987, 1990; Salisbury, 1988; Swezey, 1990). For those who espouse this view, service acquaints young people with the fundamental principles of democracy, and enables them to observe the impact of their contributions on others.

However, even among those who ground their support for service-learning in the cause of civic participation, different voices may be heard. According to Newman (1992):

> Democracy depends for its success on two characteristics in the citizenry. The first characteristic we might call goodness, being a good person: recognizing the rights of others; understanding that sharing is important; have a sense of responsibility; being, at the core, a decent person....The second characteristic is a willingness to be part of the community, or more accurately, part of many communities. At its root, democracy is community. (Newman, 1992, p.3)

As a means of translating the goals of civic participation into course syllabi, Keith Morton (1993) delineates four program models. The first he labels as service-learning for Liberal Democracy, a model which is characterized by the relationship of individual to state. These programs usually rely on core documents such as the Bill of Rights and the Declaration of Independence to discuss the tension between personal rights and obligations. The second

model is based on Participatory Democracy and often includes alternative forms of political expression such as populist movements with a focus on empowerment. Third is the model of Social Justice which seeks to provide student participants with a first-hand experience with social injustice and prompt an analysis of long-term solutions. The fourth model is labeled Service as Citizenship, which views service as the "defining act of citizenship and the essential building block of community." Recently, this fourth philosophy has received greater attention through the work of Amitai Etzioni, Robert Bellah, Ben Barber, and other scholars who have joined together as "communitarians."

Those who view service-learning as a tool for civic education challenge scholars to examine the contradictions inherent in the traditional structure of collegiate life. As Leslie Hill (1992) points out:

> Students' experiences in college and universities are likely to reinforce prevailing views of power. Both the hierarchical structure of academic institutions and the content of curriculum and pedagogy socialize students to prevailing political norms and underscore selected aspects of what is generally observed as politics. In interactions with faculty and administrators, students are likely to perceive themselves as isolated, relatively powerless actors, and to invest energy in dyadic relations with individual faculty and administrators for personal gain rather than in collective activities directed toward communal goals. (p.15)

That is, although one might teach about democracy in the college classroom, one cannot presume to teach democratic

skills in institutions which are entrenched in bureaucratic or autocratic systems. Mabey (1992) identifies five barriers to developing civic leadership: an egocentric view of society; an emphasis on individualism; reliance on the "expert" or the "professional"; a mindset that leadership requires a title or an official position; and an emphasis on the negative in civic behavior (don't do drugs, don't get pregnant, etc.). Many of these barriers are easily visible to those who examine campus life today. According to Schultz (1990),

> the first step toward the renewal of our commitment to civic education is the renewal of civic community within the academy...First, civic community must be nurtured across the disciplines...Second, civic community must be nurtured between educators who pursue the classical and those who follow the experiential model...Third, civic community must be nurtured between these two groups of educators and the resource people in the larger community who can contribute to students' learning. (p.13-14)

For some scholars, the tension between the development of active citizenship and the depersonalization of the campus is indicative of the larger struggle in contemporary American society:

> And so we have a kind of paradox. On the one hand we have a political creed that emphasizes the responsibility of each individual to participate in public life. On the other hand we have a society largely dominated by vast, impersonal organizations...which seem to leave little room for effective individual action. (Salisbury, 1988, p.20)

Scholars studying contemporary society lament the frustration citizens feel when they find themselves unable to control

either their personal or their civic destiny. In their book, The Good Society, (Bellah, et al., 1992), Daniel Bell succinctly diagnosis the difficulty: "the nation-state is becoming too small for the big problems of life and too big for the small problems of life" (p.37). Harkavy and Puckett (1991) push this point even further. Citing the work of psychologist Martin E. P. Seligman who coined the phrase "learned helplessness" as a phenomenon at work in the welfare state, Harkavy and Puckett assert that higher education has adopted a similarly defeatist attitude which society can no longer afford. "At the very heart of genuine civic responsibility and social solidarity is the concept of neighborliness, the caring about and assisting of those living near us. Exhortations to overcome self-centeredness and to develop an ethic of service will necessarily have little effect if institutional behavior belies these sentiments" (pp.556-557).

In his book, Scholarship Reconsidered, Ernest Boyer (1990) puts the responsibility for improving civic life on the scholarly agenda:

> Ultimately, in the current scheme of things, the nation loses, too. At no time in our history has the need been greater for connecting the work of the academy to the social and environmental challenges beyond the campus. And yet, the rich diversity and potential of American higher education cannot be fully realized if campus missions are too narrowly defined or if the faculty reward systems are inappropriately restricted. It seems clear that while research is crucial, we need a renewed commitment to service, too. (p.xii)

Although such challenges to transform higher education in the national interest may be inspirational, it is difficult to find evidence that the integration of study and service increases civic participation. According to Conrad and Hedin (1991), "Studies that have examined political efficacy and inclination toward subsequent civic participation as a result of service activities have had mixed results. About an equal number of studies find increases and no increases on these factors" (p.747). Nonetheless, civic participation and civic leadership are often used to encourage participation in service-learning.

Service-learning for an Enriched Society

Those who advocate service as a means of enriching the society see efforts beyond national and political lines. "Service," says Ernest Boyer, "introduces students to new people and new ideas. It establishes connections between academic life and the larger society" (Boyer, 1987, p.215). Much like their predecessors in the Peace Corps and VISTA movements, advocates of service-learning as a means to universal social justice work to ensure that all have the basic goods for a healthy life, are treated with dignity and worth, are entitled to participation, and share a sense of solidarity with humanity (Swezey, 1990). The connotation of service in this strain of the literature entails a moral obligation, requiring not only that students serve society but that they reshape it. As Boyer writes in Scholarship Reconsidered (1990), "The challenge then is this: Can

America's colleges and universities, with all the richness of their resources be of greater service to the nation and the world? Can we define scholarship in ways that respond more adequately to the urgent new realities both within the academy and beyond?" (p.3).

Summary: From Service to Scholarship

The various orientations to service-learning -- as a means to improve the institution, the nation, and the society -- represent a wide array of attempts to define _service_, in word and in action. However, the concerns of the faculty, as discussed in the next section, revolve primarily around knowing, teaching, and learning. While practitioners and politicians have generally defined the "service" in "service-learning," far less attention has been given to its link with learning. The following pages consider the pedagogical underpinnings of service-learning and consider the educational benefits students might derive from participation in such activities.

THE LEARNING IN SERVICE-LEARNING

Although much of the literature directly related to service-learning emphasizes the service dimension, many faculty incorporate service because of its educational value. The following section reviews the pedagogical traditions which might capture and reinforce faculty interest in service-learning.

The Learning Dimension

Woodrow Wilson (1896) once said that, "It is not learning, but the spirit of service that will give a college a place in the public annals of the nation." Thus far, this literature review has focused on the service dimension of service-learning. It is the theme of service -- to the institution, to the nation, and to society -- that is most frequently emphasized by practitioners and politicians in support of service-learning.

In some respects, the literature directly related to service-learning treats the learning component as an almost "silent" partner. Perhaps this is because the learning outcomes are more difficult to quantify: one might count the number of meals served in a hunger-awareness project, but the impact of such an effort on a student may only be fully realized upon reflection months or even years later. Perhaps the emphasis on service can be attributed to the financial support awarded to volunteer projects from the government or from philanthropic organizations. Perhaps service simply lends itself to a stronger rhetoric than does teaching or learning.

Nonetheless, learning is an equal, if elusive, component of service-learning and it is the element of greatest concern to faculty. According to Bowen and Schuster, learning is the "single unifying process" on which rest the four major faculty responsibilities of instruction, research, public service, and academic governance:

> Learning in this sense means bringing about desired changes in the traits of human beings (instruction), discovering and interpreting knowledge (research), applying knowledge to serve the needs of the general public (public service) and creating an environment that contributes to and facilitates learning (institutional service). Learning is the chief stock-n-trade of the professorate. It occurs in all fields, it takes place in diverse settings, and it serves varied clienteles. (Bowen and Schuster, 1986, p.23)

The predominant literature on service-learning asks, "What service will be accomplished through these initiatives?" The literature on teaching and educational reform asks, "What kind of learning can be achieved through service-learning?" Most frequently, service-learning is used as one technique among many employed in experiential education. It has also been incorporated into the efforts of educational reformers who support liberating and holistic educational methods and by those who are concerned with cross-cultural awareness. Lieberman and Connolly (1992) assert that service benefits the educational experience of students because it allows them to shape their own education, test classroom theories, integrate experience and academic work, and develop a contextual framework for their studies. The following sub-sections examine pedagogical approaches which employ service-learning and the challenges such approaches face in traditional academe. The following pages also describe the educational outcomes of service-learning, and outline the basic structure and composition of courses which integrate service.

The Pedagogy of Service-Learning

One need not look far to find critics of traditional educational methods. An analysis of recent reports on the status of education reveals that today's classroom methods promote passivity, reinforce a societal preoccupation with individual interest, and have become too "technical and instrumental" (Schultz, 1990, p.7). In response, some educators have adopted an experiential approach, including service-learning, to foster a connection between theory and practice. As Conrad and Hedin (1987) put it:

> Rooted in the developmental theories of John Dewey, Jean Piaget, and others who stress learning as an interaction with the environment, this approach holds that development occurs as individuals strive to come up with more satisfying and complex ways to understand and act on their world. (p.745)

Basic Concepts in Experiential Education

John Dewey, who is considered the father of experiential education (and who was an active supporter of the service-learning efforts at Hull House), asserted that:

> The nature of experience can be understood only by noting that it includes an active and a passive element...When we experience something we act upon it, we do something with it; then we suffer or undergo the consequences ... Mere activity does not constitute experience. It is dispersive, centrifugal, dissipating...When an activity is continued into the undergoing of consequences, when the change made by action is reflected back into a change made in us, the mere flux is loaded with significance. We learn something... To "learn from experience" is to make a backward and forward connection between what we do to things and what we enjoy or suffer from things in consequence. (Dewey, 1916, p.140)

This relationship between the active and passive is at the heart of service-learning. The action is provided by the service experience; the learning is provided by the faculty through appropriate orientation, supervision and reflection. According to Nathan and Kielsmeier (1991), "Learning through service...rekindles an idea brought to life by John Dewey in the 1930's: that schools should be democratic laboratories of learning, closely linked to community needs. These learning labs create new roles for students and teachers, make use of action-based instructional methods, and lead to the learning of meaningful, real-world content" (p.742).

The most frequently cited model of experiential learning was developed by David Kolb at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Kolb (1984) sketched a cyclical process which begins with concrete experience, leads to reflective observation (based on the experience), then to abstract conceptualization, and completes the cycle with active experimentation. Building on the work of Kolb, Gish (1990) argues that the process is not neatly sequential but that each individual encounters learning on his/her own terms based on personal history and current circumstance and can therefore enter the cycle at any point. According to Gish,

> Traditionally, learning has been viewed as the accumulation of information and the development of concepts organizing that information into some coherent arrangement. This kind of learning is still to be valued. Learning, however, can also be seen as a process that includes all human experience. Active participation in others' lives is

important to learning. Reflection on and
orderly observation of human activity and the
ideas that can define it are equally a part of
learning. Creating concepts that organize the
world so it can be understood and effectively
dealt with is another important element.
Finally, acting and experimenting allows us to
test our experiences, reflections, and
concepts -- and thereby gain additional
learning. (p.199)

In service-learning, the service activity, combined with
the conceptual framework provided by academic study, triggers
the learning cycle. Furthermore, service-learning enables
students to move beyond merely examining or considering a
problem from a distance. According to Rubin (1992), "Service-
learning is a particularly powerful form of experiential
learning if we want students to be able to reach the
developmental stage of commitment, because moral questions and
moral decisions are central to the experience students are
having" (p.160).

Liberating Education

The concepts of experiential education and service-
learning have been absorbed into the liberating educational
strategies endorsed by Paulo Freire (1970), who maintains that
"Knowledge emerges only through invention and re-invention,
through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry
men pursue in the world, with the world and with each other"
(p.58). For Freire, traditional education has forgotten the
interchangeable roles of teacher and student -- learning from
each other, learning together. Instead,

> Education is suffering from narration
> sickness...The teacher talks about reality as
> if it were motionless, static,
> compartmentalized, and predictable...Narration
> (with teacher as narrator) leads the students
> to memorize mechanically the narrated content.
> Worse yet, it turns them into "containers,"
> into "receptacles" to be "filled" by the
> teacher. The more completely he fills the
> receptacles, the better a teacher he is. The
> more meekly the receptacles permit themselves
> to be filled, the better students they are.
> (pp.57-58)

A part of the solution, for those who espouse the philosophies of liberating education, is to encourage students to become active problem solvers: "In problem-posing education, men develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world with which and in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality, but as a reality in process, in transformation" (Freire, p.71, emphasis in original). In regard to service-learning, research by Conrad and Hedin (1987) demonstrated that open-mindedness, problem-solving ability, and analytical thinking were demonstrably improved for community service participants, especially when reflection or focused problem-solving is built-in (p.747). Nathan and Kielsmeier (1991) reinforce the same premise, finding that, "When teachers integrate service and social action into their academic programs, students learn to communicate, to solve problems, to think critically, and to exercise other higher order skills" (p.741).

Holistic Education

Two other concepts within experiential education and service learning -- context and connectedness -- appeal to those who support holistic education and those who are concerned about cross-cultural development.

Holistic education is based on "an assumption that everything in the universe is fundamentally interconnected" (Clark, 1988, p.3). Four key principles underlie the philosophy of holistic education: (1) that we must nurture the whole person, (2) that there is an egalitarian and cooperative relationship between adult and youth, between teacher and student, (3) that truth is grounded in a spiritual world view, and (4) that a preoccupation with materialism is destructive to our society (Miller, 1990). It is not difficult to understand the attraction that experiential education, and especially service-learning, would have in this framework. When utilizing service-learning activities, an instructor must recognize the importance of context, including a respect for "the knowledge of what students bring with them, and the ways that knowledge might influence what they learn; their interests and inclinations; and their cultural backgrounds" (Kennedy, 1991, p.13). To illustrate the significance of this concept in holistic education, Clark (1990) relates the following story told by Saudi astronaut Sultan Bin Salman Al-Saud, who travelled aboard the space shuttle Discovery 5 in 1985:

> The first day or so we all pointed to our
> countries. The third or fourth day we were
> pointing to our continents. By the fifth day
> we were aware of only one Earth. (p.7)

Those who utilize service-learning as a strategy in holistic education hope that students will adopt world views based not on an assumption of separateness and fragmentation but on an assumption of wholeness and interconnectivity as their experiential sophistication grows. As stated by Edward Clark (1989), an advocate of holistic education, "thinking and learning are contextual in nature...A primary focus [is]...to change the way people think about their relationship to the world in which we live" (pp. 56-57).

The concern for context, both as a dimension of the academic setting and as an orientation to lifelong learning, is closely related to a second key concept in experiential education, connectedness. In their book, <u>Turning Professors into Teachers: A New Approach to Faculty Development and Student Learning</u>, Katz and Henry (1988) reinforce the importance of connectedness for active learning: "Classroom learning becomes richer when it uses and connects with what students learn on the outside" (p. 9). The authors encourage faculty to adopt the following principles:

1. Transform student passivity into active learning
2. Account for individual differences
3. Stimulate the process of inquiry
4. Expand the student's ability to inquire with other people
5. Encourage participation
6. Support student efforts
7. Recognize that learning is an intensely emotional experience

These principles can be integrated into the curriculum by using service-learning but not without challenging firmly rooted traditional methods. The following section will explore the pedagogical roadblocks to experiential education and service-learning presented by traditional academe.

Barriers to Experiential Education in Traditional Academe

The academy has not readily embraced experiential, liberation, or holistic education. On one level, the emphasis on experimentation, observation, hypothesis-testing and conceptualization in these methods mirrors "the scientific method." Perhaps as a consequence of their relationship to modern science, the techniques of experiential education are readily accepted in vocational education but continue to be regarded with suspicion in the liberal arts (Smythe, 1990). On a second level, these pedagogies expand the scientific method to allow for a more subjective consideration of the issues: the student no longer views the world from a distance but is encouraged to be intimately involved with the subject. Hence, faculty who choose experiential methods like service-learning may feel separated from the dominant approaches to learning and may consequently feel compelled to justify their methods. As Harrison and Hopkins (1967) lament, "There are attempts to provide action-oriented and experience-based learning models in many institutions of higher learning, but these...settings tend to be peripheral and ancillary to the main work of the college or university" (p.433).

Aside from issues of philosophy, it is sometimes

difficult to win institutional support for experiential education because it is more expensive, requiring a lower student-faculty ratio. Philosophical and financial differences may surface in misunderstandings between "clinical" or practical instructors and their more theoretical, traditional colleges. Such conflicts may lead to a lack of collegial support for service experiences. Difficulties with funding and with collegial support may lead to questions about the quality of the experience and the rigor of the enterprise, a cyclical and defeating process (Bok, 1982).

Yet another difficulty for those who advocate experiential techniques such as service-learning is the narrow connotation of "educational experience" adopted in traditional academe. Although it is routinely accepted in the liberal arts that teaching the "classics" in any discipline communicates knowledge of intrinsic, long-lasting value, experience is accorded academic credit only if it can demonstrate its immediate utilitarian value in acquiring a skill or preparing for a particular career. "Practical experience" is often described in education as if some kinds of experience (such as service-learning) are "impractical" and therefore educationally unworthy (Smythe, 1990). Yet rarely does one question the "practicality" of reading any given essay from Aristotle.

It is exactly the learning derived from wide-ranging experiences that is required for participation in a global

society. Harrison and Hopkins (1967) attributed the serious difficulties encountered by the Peace Corp volunteers they studied largely to the inadequacy of formal education:

> With few exceptions, formal systems of higher education in the United States provide training in the manipulation of symbols rather than of things, and commitment to understanding rather than to action. These systems were designed originally for the training of scholars, researchers, and professionals, for whom rationality, abstract knowledge, emotional detachment, and verbal skills are primary values. These systems, however, are applied across the board to almost all students, regardless of individual occupational fields. (pp.432-433)

Indeed, this orientation has been more recently substantiated in the research of Patricia Cross (1990). The results of the Teaching Goals Inventory, a part of the Classroom Research project which surveyed nearly 2,000 faculty, revealed that "the single most commonly accepted teaching goal today is the 'development of analytic skills,' considered essential by a majority of faculty across most of the disciplines" (p.15). In contrast the importance of developing a respect for others, including persons of different backgrounds was widely divergent within the faculty: this was an essential goal for 46 percent of the faculty in career-related courses (education, allied health, communications) but only essential to 1 percent of the faculty in the sciences. "In short," says Ira Harkavy (1991), "Esoterica has triumphed over public philosophy, narrow scholasticism over humane scholarship" (p.2). Service-learning appears to offer the opportunity for such scholarship

as indicated by responses of students engaged in service through the service-learning center at Michigan State University. Almost 91 percent responded that they had an increased appreciation of others, and nearly 85 percent reported an enhanced ability to work with others as a result of their service experience (Edens, 1988).

Harrison and Hopkins (1967) found that those trained in the traditional classroom lacked many of the skills essential in cross-cultural settings. Such volunteers were dependent on external authority -- always seeking the expert opinion before taking action; they lacked "emotional muscle" to put theories into action; they were reluctant to make choices and commitments; and they failed to take their own feelings or the feelings of others into account when making decisions. The authors assert that such skills are critical to cross-cultural effectiveness:

> The experiences of all our overseas agencies, -- private, governmental, religious -- have demonstrated that the human elements of overseas work are at least as important as the technical ones in the success of a job or mission, and that overseas personnel are much more likely to be deficient in these human aspects of work performance than in technical skills...By interpersonal effectiveness we mean such functions as establishing and maintaining trust and communication, motivating and influencing, consulting and advising -- all that complex of activities designed to inculcate change. In overseas jobs, the performance of these relationship activities must take place across differences in values, in ways of perceiving and thinking, and in cultural norms and expectations. (p.435)

These are precisely the skills students are thought to acquire through service-learning. According to Little (1990), "The beauty of service-learning and its potential is that often it is exercised in a logical gap of conflicting interpretations...with a vision of what is desired driving our effort, we act to realize the possibilities, letting our own values come into play in saying what the possibilities really are" (p.271). When combined with adequate supervision and classroom instruction, service activities combine the active and passive dimensions advocated by Dewey. In settings often far different from their own neighborhoods or residence halls, students come to recognize the importance of context in solving social problems. By working with others, as co-volunteers or in providing assistance, students come to appreciate the connectedness they share with those beyond the campus. Whether career paths take them to the local city or around the globe, Bok (1986) urges the necessary reforms to develop such skills:

> Despite repeated changes in curriculum, most university colleges still rely on large lecture courses and extensive reading assignments that leave little room for independent thought. Too often, the result is an educational process that fails to challenge students enough to develop their powers of reasoning. This is not a happy outcome in a world where students can expect to encounter heavy demands on their intellect throughout their working lives. It is time, therefore, to think seriously about multiplying the opportunities for students to reason carefully about challenging problems under careful supervision. (p.165)

According to Schultz (1990), "The most effective values

education we can provide for our students is an intentional process of collaboration between academy and community" (p.91). However, integrating classical and experiential approaches to civic education requires "modeling of constructive civic participation within the academy itself and between the academy and the larger community" (p.210). That such participation is not easy to achieve was discovered by Harkavy and colleagues in the development of WEPIC (West Philadelphia Improvement Corps), a community action initiative undertaken by the University of Pennsylvania. Intending to apply theories from the various branches of the social sciences to the problems of an inner-city neighborhood, faculty soon discovered that it was difficult to bring coherence and integration to individual students working on widely dispersed projects. Furthermore, "A pervasive distrust of academics existed, since in West Philadelphia graduate students and faculty members had studied the community, written about the community, and then left the community in the same or worse shape than it had been before their arrival" (p.13). On campus, although the WEPIC project enjoyed considerable support and recognition, it nonetheless found itself used as a "side-show" for public relations on behalf of the University. Despite its ability to demonstrate that all three university missions (teaching, research, and service) could be successfully integrated, WEPIC "had only a relatively small band of faculty adherents" (Harkavy, 1991, p.15).

Rigorous, meaningful experiential education requires much

more than providing experiences and allowing students to observe the consequences. The WEPIC project highlighted the need for concrete, visible problems that cross disciplinary lines. Faculty soon found that the mandate, "go forth and do good -- reach out" is not enough. Real problems bring efficacy to scholastic endeavors and to the problems of community development (Harkavy, p.17). A commitment to experiential education requires that teachers accept the challenges demanded by these new techniques and perhaps develop new skills of their own:

> Even those who are attracted to the approaches to learning we have described here may well ask where the teachers will come from to carry them out. Clearly, the desired skill mix is sharply divergent from the blend of intellectual competence and verbal facility found in good classroom teachers.
>
> The teacher in an experience-based program is involved with people, not books; with real situations, not abstractions. He must collaborate closely with his colleagues. In his work with students, he will do little presenting and much listening. Instead of organizing content material, he will seek patterns, principles, and generalizations in the reactions of trainees. Subject matter competence is useful, of course, but it will not get the job done without true competence in the facilitation of learning through focus on process. (Harrison and Hopkins, 1967, p.458)

Having explored the general aims of service-learning as part of experiential education, with some attention to the barriers it faces, let us now consider the educational outcomes that have been demonstrated through participation in service-learning activities.

The Educational Outcomes of Service-Learning

Advocates of service-learning are often stymied by the lack of quantifiable data which support this pedagogical method. Even within the broader and more established arena of experiential education, research has usually focused on program evaluation with little assessment of the experience of student participants. Although anecdotal reports are often glowing, the many variables involved in service-learning and the long-term effects of such experiences make standardized testing difficult at best (Giles, Honnet, and Migliore, p.8). Two Wingspread conferences (1991 and 1993) have been sponsored by the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (in cooperation with the Johnson Foundation and with support from the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation), expressly for the purpose of developing a research agenda for gathering useful data and building a theoretical base for service-learning.

Some quantitative research has been done, particularly regarding personal development and career preparation. Some of the research on personal development has come in response to sociological concerns about the expanded period of adolescence created by the move from an agrarian to an industrial society. As the youth population expands into the 21st century, youth related problems are expected to multiply (Sherridan, 1991). Nathan and Kielsmeier (1991) attribute many of these "problems" to the diminished self-esteem experienced in the youth population:

> Though they may be in high demand for entry-level employment at fast-food restaurants and all night gas stations, many young people are alienated from the society. They are heavy users of drugs and alcohol, they consistently maintain the lowest voting rates of any age group, and the teen pregnancy rate has been described as epidemic.
>
> We believe that these problems stem in part from the way adults treat young people. Unlike earlier generations, which viewed young people as active, productive and needed members of the household and community, adults today tend to treat them as objects, as problems, or as the recipients (not the deliverers) of service. (p.740)

In studies reported by Conrad and Hedin, (1991, p.747), it appears that affording youth the opportunity to channel their energies productively can have far-reaching results. Calabrese and Schumer (1986), studying junior high students with behavior difficulties assigned to service activities, found that these students had lower levels of alienation and isolation and fewer disciplinary problems. Luchs reported that students involved in community service gained more positive attitudes toward others, a greater sense of efficacy, and higher self-esteem than nonparticipating comparison students. According to Cognetta and Sprinthall (1978), studies based on the work of Kohlberg and Loevinger applied to service-learning participants generally found increases in moral and ego development. In summary, Conrad and Hedin (1991) state:

> Evidence from quantitative methodologies is somewhat limited, though a body of research does exist that tends to show that social, personal and academic development are fostered by community service. Evidence from

qualitative, anecdotal studies suggests even
more strongly and consistently that community
service can be a worthwhile, useful, enjoyable
and powerful learning experience. (p.746)

Service-learning can broaden not only the social but the
cognitive dimensions of student life. With respect to
academic performance, Gish (1979) asserts that, "Most people
develop their preferred learning styles in school and use them
throughout their lives. Thus students' life-long learning may
be limited by an imbalance in learning styles" (p. 199).
Service-learning provides an opportunity to develop a broader
range of learning styles. Using meta-analysis, Conrad and
Hedin (1991, p.746) report that studies on tutoring, "found
increases in reading and math achievement scores for tutors
and tutees," but especially for the tutors. Tutoring may lend
itself most readily to measuring service-learning outcomes
because the research methodologies applied to the formal
school can be easily applied. Although there appear to be no
significant gains in general factual knowledge as a result of
service participation, "Consistent gains in factual knowledge
have been found ...[in] the specific kinds of information that
students were likely to encounter in their field experiences"
(p.746). Furthermore,

A consistent finding of research into service
and other kinds of experiential programs is
the high degree to which participants report
that they have learned a great deal from their
experiences. In a nationwide survey we
conducted of nearly 4,000 students involved in
service and other experiential programs, about
75% reported learning "more" or "much more" in
their participation program than in their
regular classes. (p.748)

In addition to the cognitive gains made by participants in service-learning, many have argued that such opportunities provide a valuable academic exposure to the concept of philanthropy and the workings of the non-profit or independent sector. Payton (1988) asserts that recognizing the role of philanthropy is essential to an understanding of American society. On a more pragmatic level, he points out that more people are employed in the independent sector than in the federal and state governments combined: one out of 12 students will be employed in this area. In Michigan, the "non-profit sector of 6,025 organizations employed 260,615 workers with a payroll of almost $5 billion and revenues approaching $11 billion" (p.3). If for no other reason than future employment possibilities, students will benefit from an active engagement with and conceptual understanding of social service agencies.

Career preparation may be enhanced by service-learning as students are exposed to varying occupations. Not only are students invited to consider various forms of work, but they also have an opportunity to consider the nature of work itself. Ernest Boyer (1987) cites Thomas Green (1968) to illustrate this point: "Work is basically the way that people seek to redeem their lives from futility. It, therefore, requires the kind of world in which hope is possible, which is to say, the kind of world that yields to human effort" (p.110). Rutter and Newmann (1989) found that service participants gained enhanced social competence in public speaking, initiating conversations, and persuading adults to

consider their views. Service-learning has been used to counter the overly esoteric emphasis of professional training. According to Bok (1986), "In a recent survey of 1,600 attorneys who graduated from law school between 1955 and 1970, 69 percent said that they had not been trained to counsel with clients and 77 percent declared that law school had not prepared them adequately to negotiate a settlement" (p.92). Such attacks on the profession led to the development of legal clinics which fostered skill development while meeting community needs.

Summary

This chapter has outlined the pedagogical connections of service-learning, the barriers posed by traditional academic methods, and the educational outcomes to be gained. It should be apparent that service-learning is not a technique that can be easily applied. Rather, it poses significant challenges to the faculty who choose to adopt such methods. What would motivate faculty to undertake such challenges? In the next chapter, the theories of motivation developed by Frederick Herzberg are used as a framework for exploring the literature on faculty motivation. An understanding of faculty motivation will thus enable us to anticipate faculty perspectives with regard to their involvement in service-learning.

CHAPTER THREE

SERVICE-LEARNING AND FACULTY MOTIVATION

The previous chapter has described the history and current status of service-learning and has outlined the many reasons given by students, politicians and practitioners in its support. Yet no matter how persuasive these arguments might be, the critical decisions regarding the integration of service and academic study rest with the faculty. Incorporating service into the curriculum, as an elective or requirement, requires curricular reform and the curriculum remains the domain of the professorate. Support for this assertion can be drawn directly from the Statement on Governance of Colleges and Universities endorsed by the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), American Council on Education (ACE), and the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (AGB). While this document urges cooperation in many aspects of university governance, it specifies that, "The faculty has primary responsibility for such fundamental areas as curriculum, subject matter and methods of instruction, research, faculty status and those aspects of student life which relate to the educational process" (AAUP, 1966, p.161).

As would be expected, the decisions and behavior of the

faculty have a profound impact on student learning. According

to Guskey (1988), studies on collegiate teaching and learning,

> consistently reflect two major themes. The
> first is that despite the influence of factors
> that lie beyond the control of professors and
> instructors, such as students' backgrounds and
> previous learning experiences, the quality of
> their teaching has a very strong effect on
> students' learning. In other words, college
> teachers do make a difference. Instructional
> factors under their direct control have a very
> important and powerful influence on what
> students learn, and on the success they
> achieve in college level courses. The second
> major theme is that college students who have
> successful learning experiences persist in
> their learning and are far more likely to
> complete the courses and programs in which
> they enroll. Furthermore, they feel better
> about themselves, about their ability to
> learn, and are far more confident in future
> learning situations. (p.4)

Not only does the faculty control the internal structure

of colleges and universities, Bowen and Schuster (1986) assert

that faculty influence extends far beyond the classroom walls:

> The nation depends upon the faculties also for
> much of its basic research and scholarship,
> philosophical and religious inquiry, public
> policy analysis, social criticism, cultivation
> of literature and the fine arts, and technical
> consulting. The faculties through both their
> teaching and research are enormously
> influential in the economic progress and
> cultural development of the nation (p.3).

Will the arguments presented on behalf of service-

learning motivate faculty to adopt such methods? According to

Cross (1990),

> The problem, according to research on faculty
> motivation, is that extrinsic rewards that
> administrators and policy makers depend on are
> not very effective in changing faculty
> behavior. Most faculty members work hard and

> put in long hours without any supervision or
> work rules. Motivation in these autonomous
> situations is far more complex, it appears,
> than the simple reward/punishment views that
> prevail in determining incentives. (p.16)

Although no other studies have yet been undertaken to directly address the relationship between faculty motivation and service-learning, general theories of motivation and research focused on faculty motivation can be used to assess the likelihood that faculty will respond to the call for integrating service and academic study.

In this chapter, the three primary dimensions of the Motivation-Hygiene Theory developed by Frederick Herzberg will be linked to corresponding studies of faculty motivation in higher education. Such studies enable us to identify the conditions under which faculty might consider or reject involvement in service-learning.

The Motivation-Hygiene Theory of Frederick Hersberg:
A Conceptual Framework for Understanding Faculty Motivation

The Motivation-Hygiene theory of Frederick Herzberg (1959) is based on three assumptions:

1. Man can only be understood in the context of his culture.

2. Man's role in that culture is determined, to a large extent, by the myths provided by the dominant social institutions of his day.

3. Both physical and psychological conditions must be considered in determining motivation and job satisfaction. Physical needs are fulfilled by external

rewards while psychological needs can only be fulfilled through intrinsic motivators.

Although the original theory emerged from the work of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) in industrial psychology, the approach has been utilized by a considerable number of subsequent studies of faculty motivation; i.e., Austin and Gamson (1983), Bess, (1982), Bowen and Schuster, (1986), Deci and Ryan (1982), Csikszentmihalyi (1982), Eble and McKeachie (1985), Hall and Bazerman (1982), Mowday (1982), and McKeachie (1982).

The following sections will examine each of Herzberg's three assumptions about human behavior -- culture, role, and satisfaction/dissatisfaction -- in conjunction with the corresponding studies of higher education which relate to academic culture, faculty role, and faculty motivation/satisfaction. These dimensions of academic life influence the choices faculty make about the content and structure of their courses, including their willingness to incorporate service-learning into their teaching methods.

Herzberg on the Influence of Culture

Herzberg believed that man's self-definition is shaped by the cultural myths of the period in which he lived. These cultural myths, used to explain human nature, are defined and supported by the dominant institutions of the era. As an example, Herzberg asserts that the Church, the dominant institution throughout much of Western history, was supplanted by the industrial firm in modern society. Man's perception of

the nature and purpose of life was radically altered by that transition: the quest for salvation gave way to the quest for organizational efficiency. It is especially important to note that Herzberg's theory requires a replacement myth if change is to occur. Thus, if a change in the dominant myth is desired, an equally compelling myth must be developed in its place.

Herzberg's emphasis on the role of culture in the interpretation of human behavior is especially relevant for this study of faculty perceptions because scholars in higher education have recently focused attention on the various dimensions of educational institutions known as "academic culture."

ACADEMIC CULTURE

As the dominant institutions of academic culture today, colleges and universities foster cultural myths within the higher education. The following section identifies the dominant myths of academic culture and assesses their impact on faculty involvement in service-learning.

In her work on academic culture, Austin (1992) defines "culture" as the way in which groups of people construct meaning. Because the core functions of the University revolve around knowledge -- the generation, transmission, and interpretation of knowledge (Elman and Smock, 1985; Lynton and Elman, 1987) -- much of the meaning in academic life is rooted in what it means to know, and by extension, what it means to

teach and to learn. Some scholars of academic culture assert that learning and knowledge, process and content, are at the core of the academic enterprise (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule, 1986; Palmer, 1987). According to Bowen and Schuster (1986), "The ideal academic community from the point of view of faculty is a college or university in which the three values -- pursuit of learning, academic freedom, and collegiality -- are strongly held and defended" (p.54).

Scholars experience and interpret the central values of academe through two sub-cultures: that of the academic discipline and that of the local culture on one's home institution (Bess, 1982; Biglan, 1973; Katz and Henry, 1988). The work of Becher (1984, 1987) has been especially helpful in identifying disciplinary sub-cultures that define knowing, teaching, and learning in different ways. These definitions affect the ways in which faculty construct their academic roles. Becher identifies four general disciplinary cultures: hard-pure, soft-pure, hard-applied, and soft-applied. This research reveals that disciplines which focus on a "contextual imperative" (i.e., have clear, identifiable problems with discrete solutions) tend to work in research teams, along shorter research time-lines, and with more frequent publication. In contrast, those disciplines which focus on "contextual association" (considering more ambiguous research questions) are generally marked by more individual research, across a longer timeline, resulting in fewer publications.

As might be anticipated, the effects of these

disciplinary orientations is not limited solely to the faculty

role. As Katz and Henry (1988) observe,

> We found a strong correlation between the
> modes of thinking of faculty and the student
> majors in a given discipline. If different
> modes of thinking are linked to different
> disciplines, and these modes are partial, in
> the sense that thinking in one discipline may
> emphasize and highlight modes of thinking that
> in another discipline are de-emphasized and
> perhaps even actively discouraged, then it is
> important to be aware of how these differences
> are being presented to students. (p.154)

Berdahl (1990) extends the understanding faculty roles by

explaining that faculty hold dual citizenship -- within the

academic disciplines (with the various dimensions described

above) and within the institution. Drawing on the work of

other researchers (Clark, 1987; Peterson and Associates,

1986), Austin (1990) includes among the components of

institutional culture the, "institutional mission and purpose,

its size, complexity, age and location, the way in which

authority is conceived and structured, the organization of

work (especially teaching and inquiry), the curricular

structure and academic standards, student and faculty

characteristics, and the physical environment" (p.13). In

relating campus culture to service initiatives, Alexander

Astin (1990) found that "... once the size and type of

institution is taken into account, those institutions that are

more selective are perceived by their faculty as having a

lower level of commitment to promoting student involvement in

community service" (p.11). Furthermore, Astin reminds us that

"both types of institutions -- public four-year colleges and

especially public universities -- tend to be perceived by their faculties [as] having a low commitment to student involvement in community service, whereas faculty in the private four-year colleges report a much higher priority being given to involving students in community service. The private universities have an average level of commitment" (p.11).

The dual roles faculty members hold, as citizens of the discipline and of the institution, lead Austin (1992) to caution that, "Understanding the nature of faculty cultures requires recognition that the values and commitments of these cultures sometimes conflict" (p.28) and that there may be overlap among similar disciplines or between similar institutions.

In a critique of academic culture, Parker Palmer labels the dominant method for the pursuit of knowledge in academe "objectivism" (1987, p.22), and describes it as having three primary beliefs: (1) the world is objective -- it can be held at a distance, separate from the scholar who may then observe its natural and social phenomena; (2) the world is analytic -- it can be segmented or dissected into distinct parts which can be extracted for further examination; and (3) the world is experimental -- its distinct parts can be manipulated, observed, recorded in isolation, and then replaced without disruption to the entity as a whole. To demonstrate this point, Palmer utilizes the work of Arthur Levine in When Dreams and Heros Died (1979). In interviewing students about their hopes for the future, Levine discovered a curious

juxtaposition: students believed that the nation and the world were, in general, decaying. Yet their own personal aspirations and prospects remained quite high. Palmer refers to this dichotomy as "trained schizophrenia" because students are taught that the world is something apart from themselves - something "out there."

Using a variety of other labels, other scholars have joined Palmer in critiquing the dominant assumptions of the scholarly culture and, as described in Chapter 2, have called for new models of understanding teaching and learning (B. Clark, 1987; E. Clark, 1988; Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1970; Harkavy, 1991; Harrison and Hopkins, 1967; Katz and Henry, 1988; Kennedy, 1991; Mabey, 1992). These scholars assert that an objective framework is not consistent with the experiences of life which are more holistic, complex, and interconnected. The supposed "objectivity" of scholarly research has also been called into question by a number of feminist and multi-cultural scholars (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule; Freire, 1970, 1973; Rice, 1986). Lynton and Elman (1987) call for a new approach to the knowledge functions because of the increasing need for the interpretation and dissemination of knowledge. The authors maintain that such tasks will be every bit as intellectually challenging as former conceptions of academic responsibilities. Developing faculty to meet these challenges will require exposing and promoting the expanded opportunities in applied settings and shifting the value and reward systems. Eastman (1989) maintains that scholarship and

service are responsive to different environments. Scholarship is knowledge-based and responds to an internal norm while service responds to the broader public. This juxtaposition requires a different orientation to faculty life: "To serve society effectively, a faculty must be organized in a way which is not only different from, but incompatible with, the organizational arrangements which facilitate scholarship" (Eastman, 1989, p.283).

To date, higher education has coped with this fragmentation by creating professional schools and institutes which focus on societal problems while attempting to maintain a "pure" orientation within the academic disciplines and departments. While this division of responsibility may have allowed the academy to avoid the difficulty raised by Eastman, it may also have created a different dilemma. According to Austin and Gamson (1983),

> The collegial structure has become so fractured in many institutions that it can do nothing more than provide the backdrop for departmental competition over scarce resources. One result is that decisions normally reserved for the collegial structure are made in the bureaucratic structure. This shift in power away from faculty toward administrations is probably the most important change that has occurred in higher education in recent years. It may move the culture of colleges and universities away from normative to more utilitarian values. And it is undoubtedly affecting the way academic workers experience these institutions and their work. (p.15)

Barber (1989) maintains that there have been two basic responses to these critiques of academic culture. The first

calls for a "Refurbished Ivory Tower" which espouses the traditional paradigm in its most pristine form. The second is the "University of Service" model which is predicated on the need for relevance and tends to teach for vocationalism. While speaking consistently on behalf of service-learning and civic education, Barber asserts that neither model is sufficient to form a base for a new academic culture. While the traditional model has been proven inadequate, "Education as vocationalism in service to society becomes a matter of socialization rather than scrutiny, of spelling out consequences rather than probing premises, of answering society's questions rather than questioning society's answers" (p.66).

Those who espouse service-learning for the purpose of teaching citizenship call for "a renewal of civic community within the academy" (Schultz, 1990, p.13) which transforms higher education into a more democratic enterprise (Barber, 1989, 1991; Berdahl, 1990; Boyte, 1992; Harriger and Ford, 1989). According to Agria (1990, p.18), "The gap between a traditional curriculum with a disciplinary classroom, laboratory, and library orientation, and associated teaching methodologies, and curriculum and teaching/learning styles appropriate to service and leadership preparation is, or appears to be, so wide that resistance to change is very high." Agria has attempted to bridge this gap by the development of an epistemological model which integrates theory, application, and reflection with the knowledge-based

functions of assimilation, integration, and reinforcement. No doubt service-learning advocates will continue to rely on the critiques of traditional epistemological and pedagogical methods which emerge from experiential, holistic, or libertarian educational philosophers.

The various assumptions scholars have identified in academic culture affect the way in which faculty members understand their role in the University. The next section sketches the examples provided by Herzberg to describe how cultural myths are used to define one's role in life. Drawing from the work of Rice (1991) and other academic scholars, some of the prevailing assumptions about the faculty role are subsequently discussed.

Herzberg on the Role of Man

Herzberg uses the Biblical stories of Adam and Abraham as examples of powerful myths which define the nature of man's existence and his role in life. Herzberg does not try to use these two myths to explain human nature, _per se_; indeed, he acknowledges that other myths may also be used to describe human life. Rather, Herzberg uses the Adam and Abraham stories to demonstrate the powerful effect cultural myths have on man's interpretation of the value and purpose of life. If one puts faith primarily in the Adam myth, the story of a man who fell from grace, humanity is doomed. If one believes in the potential of Abraham, the faithful man who received God's blessing, the world is full of infinite possibilities.

Herzberg asserts that it was in the best interest of the

Church, as the dominant institution of early Western civilization, to promote the interpretations generated by these myths which emphasized man's relationship to God. When the Protestant Reformation, the Renaissance, and later, the Industrial Revolution wrought dramatic cultural shifts, these myths were replaced and a "new" man emerged: "the organizational man," whose values were compatible with the new dominant institution -- industry.

Herzberg comments that these transitions between myth systems were neither easy nor instantaneous:

> Every revolution has caused radical revisions in the power structure of society. New myth systems are born when the old dogmas hurt people too much. A problem that the leaders of revolutionary movements must face is how to win the people away from the standards of an outdated value system and encourage them to give allegiance to a new order, an order that will better serve the current organizational needs of the revolutionary leadership. (p.24)

THE FACULTY ROLE IN THE ACADEMIC CULTURE

The faculty role as it is commonly perceived today can be traced to the expansionist period enjoyed by higher education from 1955 through 1970. During this period certain beliefs emerged to characterize faculty life. These beliefs, following Herzberg's work, have been described by Austin (1990) as "supreme fictions" and by Rice (1991) as "dominant fictions." Among the most powerful of these beliefs is "the notion that the purpose of higher education and the work of

the professor is to pursue, discover, create, produce, disseminate and transmit truth, knowledge, and understanding" (Austin, 1990, p.25).

Rice (1986) identifies six additional fictions about faculty life which developed during the expansionist period. These are:

1. Research is the central focus of faculty effort
2. Quality is defined by peer review and professional autonomy
3. Knowledge should be pursued for its own sake and organized along disciplinary lines
4. Reputations are built through national and international professional affiliations
5. The distinctive task of the scholar is the pursuit of cognitive truth or cognitive rationality
6. Professional rewards and mobility increase in proportion to the degree of specialization. (p. 14)

If these assumptions were universally held within the academy, support for initiatives such as service-learning would be virtually non-existent since such efforts run contrary to all six assertions. However, both Rice and Austin assert that these fictions distort the reality of faculty life in several ways, and studies by a variety of scholars have urged the consideration of a new understanding which is more consistent with faculty experience.

Of particular concern to Rice and several other researchers in higher education is the myth that research is the foremost interest of the professorate. Rice asserts that, "Research was never the central professional endeavor or the focus of academic life, as is assumed in the prevailing model" (p.16). Several studies indicate that faculty, regardless of

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institutional type, devote more time to instruction than to any of the other major tasks (Austin and Gamson, 1983, Boyer, 1990; Ladd and Lipset, 1975; Warren, 1982).

With regard to the second myth, that quality is defined by self and peer assessment, Rice cites research on tenure decisions, the growing consumer orientation of students, and the expanding authority exercised by campus administrators to demonstrate that peer review is no longer the predominant determinant of faculty success.

In opposing the myth that scholars pursue knowledge objectively and altruistically, Rice calls attention to shifts occurring within the academy which have heightened the value of knowledge which is economically useful and applicable to social problems. Furthermore, Rice highlights the many scholars who have sought political, social, or disciplinary influence through their work. One example of faculty concern for social influence can be found in a nationwide study of political science and sociology professors conducted by the University of Virginia Center for Survey Research. It was discovered that:

> [T]he large majority of professors surveyed endorsed a curriculum that would encourage students both to engage conceptually and to participate actively in political life and civic affairs. ...[however] respondents who teach at large research universities were less supportive of the goals of civic education than their counterparts at small colleges. Second, the study reported that many respondents were dissatisfied with the role their institutions were playing in the education of students for leadership and life in general. (Hamner, p.20)

Rice uses the work of developmental theorists to undercut the myth that rewards can only be gained through increased specialization. Instead, he asserts that successful faculty may excel through their disciplinary contributions, through their work within the university (teaching, governance and program development), through their involvement beyond academe, or through some combination of these endeavors.

Because the majority of today's scholars grew up during the expansionist era of higher education, they may have subconsciously adopted the myth that professional achievement is closely tied to research and specialization. If so, they may be reluctant to invest too much energy in service commitments. To cultivate a replacement myth regarding scholarly success, would require that faculty question their existing beliefs, confront discrepancies between beliefs and outcomes, and experiment (successfully) with new approaches. Bowen and Schuster (1986) indicate that younger faculty members, not yet secure in tenured slots, may shy away from risks or controversies in their teaching and their research. This reluctance to undertake tasks which are beyond the commonly accepted definitions of faculty activity may account for the fact that involvement in service appears to increase over the years as faculty become more confident in fulfilling their teaching and research responsibilities (Baldwin and Blackburn, 1981; Boyer, 1990).

Summary

Thus, although the period of extensive governmental and societal investment of the 1950's and 1960's was relatively short-lived and unique in the history of American education, its impact on academic culture and faculty role perception has been dramatic. Rice argues that the residual myths or fictions, while still powerful in the imagery they provide within the academy, no longer adequately describe today's campus: "The structural conditions have changed but the social fiction that defines success in the profession remains intact" (Rice, 1986, p. 16). Thus, faculty who wish to attempt new models of teaching may feel caught between the image of what a professor ought to do or ought to be seen doing versus the desire to construct new ways, more connected ways of approaching teaching and learning. Service-learning can provide a mechanism for connecting faculty with the larger society and for enhancing societal perceptions of academic productivity but the pioneers who attempt such pedagogical innovations may feel caught between the accepted methodologies and the excitement of moving beyond the established paradigms.

According to Lynton and Elman (1987) "the professorate contains a substantial fraction of individuals who can anticipate another decade or more of active service. Thus, to expand the mission of the university, the most immediate need

is to help this group, as well as their younger colleagues, to adapt to an expanding task" (p. 136). Universities, functioning as the dominant social institutions for faculty, will determine the role and the corresponding myths which will achieve their purposes. As they do so, it will be useful to consider the third assumption of Herzberg's work, his Theory of Motivation and Hygiene, which has been most often replicated in other settings, sometimes without reference to his beliefs about the importance or myths and culture. The next section provides an outline of the basic elements of Motivation-Hygiene Theory, followed by a review of the relevant literature in higher education.

Herzberg on Motivation

The data for the development of Motivation-Hygiene Theory was derived from Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's 1959 study of 200 professionals in Pittsburgh's industrial sector. Each participant was asked to describe a particularly positive work experience and, conversely, a particularly negative work experience. The coded responses led to a classification system the researchers labeled as "dissatisfiers" or "satisfiers" (p.72).

Herzberg related these two dimensions to the description of human nature described above: dissatisfiers serve to eliminate the pain or discomfort feared by man in the plane of his animal/physical existence; satisfiers contribute to the psychological growth required by his cognitive existence. Dissatisfiers describe man's relations to the context or environment in which the job is done. Satisfiers describe man's relationship to the work itself.

Because "dissatisfier factors essentially describe the environment and serve primarily to prevent job dissatisfaction, while having little effect on positive job attitudes, they have been named hygiene factors or maintenance factors" (p.74). The term "satisfier" can be interchanged for "motivator" since later findings from the same study indicate that these conditions can effectively spur the worker to greater or improved performance.

Herzberg's assertion that these factors operate on separate planes is critical to the understanding of the

theory.   The removal of dissatisfiers may make one less

dissatisfied: it   does   not   make   one   more   satisfied.

Conversely, the loss of satisfiers/motivators may make one

less   motivated   but   it   will   not   necessarily   make   one

dissatisfied, although it may increase the sensitivity to

unsatisfactory conditions.   As might be expected, hygiene

drives (focused on external gratification) are cyclical and

short term: fulfillment of a physical need subsides and the

need   resurfaces,   once   again   creating   a   situation   of

dissatisfaction.   Herzberg (1966) describes the distinctions

between the two classifications:

> It is clear why the hygiene factors fail to
> provide for positive satisfactions: they do
> not possess the characteristics necessary for
> giving an individual a sense of growth.   To
> feel that one has grown depends on achievement
> in tasks that have meaning to the individual,
> and since the hygiene factors do not relate to
> the task,   they are powerless to give such
> meaning   to   the   individual.   Growth   is
> dependent   on   some   achievements,   but
> achievement requires a task.   The motivators
> are task factors and thus are necessary for
> growth;   they   provide   the   psychological
> stimulation by which the individual can be
> activated toward his self-realization needs.
> (p.78)

In the original Pittsburgh study, five factors emerged as

strong   determinants   of   job   satisfaction: achievement,

recognition, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself.

Subsequent   studies   added   "possibility   of   growth"   as   a

motivating factor.   Herzberg and associates believed that

responsibility,   advancement,   and   the   nature   of   the   work

itself, were the factors which accounted for long-term lasting

changes in behavior. In similar studies conducted by other researchers, achievement, recognition, and responsibility emerged consistently while the factors related to "the work itself" showed a possibility for interpretation as either a satisfier or dissatisfier.

Five major dissatisfiers -- maintenance items -- were also identified in the Pittsburgh study: company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. Later studies added the factors of status, job security, and effect on personal life to the dissatisfier roster.

Individuals might be disposed toward motivation responses based on their constitution, learned responses or the dynamics of the situation: "How frequent and how challenging the growth opportunities must be [to motivate the individual] will depend on the level of ability...of the individual, and secondly, on his tolerance for delayed success" (Herzberg, 1966, p.82). Herzberg also asserts that "the lack of 'motivators' in jobs will increase the sensitivity of employees to real or imagined bad job hygiene" (p.80). Thus, while motivators and hygiene factors operate on distinct planes, they are not entirely mutually exclusive. The challenge for organizations seeking optimal levels of performance is to strike the appropriate balance between the two dimensions.

While the Motivation-Hygiene theory was based on industrial research, it has been extensively used to explain

faculty motivation in higher education. The following section explores this literature and its implications for service-learning.

FACULTY MOTIVATION

Herzberg asserted that motivated workers serve as role models for other workers, enhancing the group's level of commitment to the task at hand. This commitment by motivated individuals will contribute to the long term effectiveness and productivity of the organization (Herzberg, 1966). In a University setting, long-term effect is especially significant when one considers the transmission of knowledge as a core function of the academy. Universities are expected to transmit not only esoteric or technological information, but a love of learning. The following two quotations from Csikszentmihalyi (1982, p. 15-16; p. 18) frame the relationship between teaching, learning and motivation:

> Higher education succeeds or fails in terms of motivation, not cognitive transfer of information. ...Thus, an effective professor is one who is intrinsically motivated to learn, because it is he or she who will have the best chance to educate others (pp.15-16).

> The product of teaching is an intrinsically motivated learner. A teacher has done his or her job when the students enjoy learning and look upon the activity as an end in itself, rather than as a means to an external goal -- a grade, a diploma, a job (p.18).

Although studies of faculty motivation have only been undertaken in the last twenty years, researchers have determined that, consistent with Herzberg's theories, faculty

are intrinsically motivated. Conversely, a number of external factors related to faculty dissatisfaction have been identified.

As might be expected according to Herzberg's theory, faculty satisfaction depends more on the intrinsic characteristics of the work than on external motivators:

> In the value system of faculty people, the intrinsic rewards are of deep concern and the commitment to work for its own sake is immense. (Bowen and Schuster, 1986, p.113)

> Intrinsic rewards are perceived as pleasurable psychological states. (Bess, 1982, p.99)

> Intrinsic motivation is based on the innate need to be competent and self-determining. (Deci and Ryan, 1982, p.28)

Studies conducted by Hackman and Oldham (1973), Austin and Gamson (1983), and Eble and McKeachie (1985) on the intrinsic motivation of faculty reveal three over-arching conditions which enhance satisfaction: (1) perceived control over their work, (2) perceived meaningfulness and purpose in their work, and (3) a strong knowledge of the results of their work. These three conditions can be used to assess faculty involvement in service-learning.

Motivation and Control. A primary condition for faculty satisfaction is the perception of their responsibility for the outcomes of their efforts. Faculty want to feel in control of their work environment and value the freedom and autonomy that is characteristic of academic life. As Bess (1982) points out, this cherished freedom affords faculty a perspective not available to other professionals in the institution: "Faculty

govern themselves through peer control and collegial norm enforcement while staff units commonly are structured bureaucratically and hierarchically" (Bess in Austin and Gamson, p.13). Teaching, in particular, affords faculty considerable freedom and autonomy because professors are usually able to determine the content and method of their courses (Deci and Ryan, 1982). Although Bowen and Schuster (1986) found some evidence that faculty autonomy may recently have declined in the areas of faculty appointments, increased emphasis on evaluation, and the administrative influence in the curriculum, "no one suggested that the faculty member's traditional freedom in the classroom had been infringed upon in any direct way" (p.145).

When one considers the nature of service-learning, issues of autonomy and control become apparent. Although little evidence exists to suggest administrative interference with faculty who choose to integrate service and academic study, effective service activities almost always require collaboration with an outside agency. Conflicts about the service agenda in the course may diminish the instructor's sense of control. Czikszentimihalyi (1982) cautions that "efforts to improve teaching which result in a professor's attributing to an outside agency control over his or her action will lead to the exact opposite outcome from the one intended (that is, to inefficient education due to a loss of a professor's intrinsic motivation" (p.16). Furthermore, as indicated in the discussion on active learning in Chapter Two,

students are more likely to vary in their approach to the service experience, thereby requiring faculty to teach in response to student needs rather than according to a pre-set syllabus.

Studies of the academic career path reveal an additional dimension to the priority faculty place on professional autonomy. Boyer (1990) reports that faculty under the age of 40 feel strain from the expectations to publish, teach and serve on committees. It is therefore understandable that research shows, "Faculty members appear to get more involved in service activities as they become more comfortable with their teaching responsibilities and less pressured by demands for scholarship" (Baldwin and Blackburn, 1981 in Austin and Gamson, p.22).

Research by Cross (1990) revealed several patterns in faculty perceptions by age. For example, faculty over 56 are interested in a "kinder, gentler nation" and hold as their essential teaching goals academic honesty, respect for others, and a lifelong love of learning. On the other hand, faculty under 36 are more concerned about developing analytic skills, problem solving skills, demonstrable creativity. These shifts in faculty priorities may be related to what Seymor Sarason calls the "one life -- one career" phenomenon. That is, because academics, much like clergy, choose their profession for a lifetime, they may feel the need for periodic adjustments to their focus in order to maintain an interest in their work.

In comparing survey responses by gender, Cross (1990) found that women faculty tend to emphasize the development of a sense of personal responsibility, respect for others of difference backgrounds, listening skills, and the ability to work collaboratively. In their research on faculty development, Eble and McKeachie (1985) found that, "For the most part, the responses of male and female respondents were strikingly similar" (p.170). In the same study by Eble and McKeachie, the greatest gender differences appeared among assistant professors, the women favoring teaching and the men favoring research.

Faculty choices with regard to service-learning also appear to be related to the scholarly career path. Because service initiatives may present more risks for success or failure and may also lead to fewer scholarly publications within an academic discipline, younger faculty may be more reluctant to undertake such endeavors. In the study of Michigan State University (MSU) faculty conducted by Arthur (1991) faculty who had been at MSU 11-15 years indicated the highest level of service involvement.

Arthur's research also revealed that faculty and staff involvement at MSU seemed more closely tied to the individual's perceptions of the importance of service than to institutional patterns or practices. This finding dovetails with the second factor identified with faculty motivation, the quality of the work experience itself.

Motivation and A Sense of Meaning. The second dominant condition for faculty satisfaction is the perception that their work has meaning and purpose. This feeling may be reinforced by the ability to engage in stimulating intellectual exchanges and positive relationships with colleagues, to see the long-range view of projects, and to have an adequate variety in the types of skills put to use.

Assessments about the meaning and purpose of faculty work are inextricably linked to the values cherished by each instructor. According to Bowen and Schuster (1986), "In the value system of faculty people, the intrinsic rewards are of deep concern and the commitment to work for its own sake is immense" (p.113). For some, service-learning may provide an opportunity to act on personal values while fulfilling professional responsibilities. Astin's analysis of involvement in service indicates that: "values seem to be at the root of much of what happens in the area of volunteerism, whether these be the values of the students, the faculty, or the institution. Simply to promote volunteerism among students is itself an expression of our values" (Astin, 1990, p.20).

Some faculty may perceive that service-learning enhances the meaning and purpose of the teaching experience. By combining their pedagogical and service interests, faculty may feel that their work assumes greater efficacy, enabling them to really make a difference in the lives of their students and the life of the community. The belief that service-learning

is a worthwhile enterprise may be reinforced by student enthusiasm for such projects. As indicated in the Chapter Two, student interest in service-learning is very strong and growing. Student appreciation for faculty who are willing to undertake the challenges of community service may reinforce faculty interest. Similarly, administrative support and the availability of funding from outside sources may spur interest from faculty colleagues, further expanding the network of those utilizing service as a teaching strategy.

Motivation and a Knowledge of Results. The third dimension of faculty motivation is the knowledge of the results of faculty efforts. This condition depends upon the ability to receive feedback which supports one's self-esteem and feeling of competence. Such feedback often emerges from satisfying relationships with students and colleagues.

McKeachie (1982) highlights the importance of feedback and action by observing that, "Research evidence indicates that when one encounters a discrepancy between one's self-theory and other evidence, there is motivation to do something" (1982, p.11). However, such challenging feedback must be experienced in moderation for too great an attack on self-confidence triggers discouragement. Not surprisingly, Dec and Ryan (1982) found that

> success and positive feedback lead to greater intrinsic motivation; whereas failure and negative feedback lead to decreased intrinsic motivation...Success experiences and positive feedback increase people's perceived competence at an activity, thereby increasing their intrinsic motivation. Failure

experiences and negative feedback decrease
perceived competence, thereby decreasing
intrinsic motivation (p.29).

Thus it is important to distinguish between feedback that
is intended to stimulate growth and that which is used to
threaten or manipulate. McKeachie (1982) found that
"Individuals who become anxious under the threat of evaluation
are likely to be less creative, more rigid, less effective in
solving problems, and to display more superficial, less
effective methods of learning and processing evaluation"
(p.10). The inability to integrate feedback effectively may
result in faculty who become "stuck" in a career rut.
According to Austin and Gamson, "The stuck are likely to take
few risks, look to peer groups or outside the organization for
personal attachments to protect their self-esteem and express
dissatisfaction through griping and resistance to change"
(p.24).

If feedback is channeled more productively, mature
faculty may demonstrate an increased sense of institutional
loyalty. As their connection to the campus and surrounding
community deepens, faculty may cease to regard their current
position as merely a rung in the professional ladder and begin
to invest their energies in improving the home campus (Austin
and Gamson, 1983). Attempts to assess the real motivation of
faculty for becoming involved in service-learning will need to
distinguish between those who may use community service as a
means for avoiding research because they are "stuck" versus
those who integrate service as a means for enhancing their

overall faculty performance.

When considering faculty involvement in service-learning, one might suspect that the desire for positive feedback would lead faculty to choose "safe" problems that can be brought to closure in an article or lecture rather than tackling long-standing community or social problems which are unlikely to reach full resolution. Furthermore, as stated in Chapter Two, experiential pedagogies have not yet gained full acceptance in the academy which means that faculty who adopt service-learning strategies may hear their colleagues questioning such teaching methods.

Those who have recognized the importance of feedback in promoting faculty satisfaction have called attention to the reward structure in academic life. Professional and social recognition appear to be pivotal factors for faculty, sometimes increasing, sometimes decreasing intrinsic motivation (Austin and Gamson, 1983). Successful reward mechanisms appear to be tied to specific achievements which reinforce feelings of success or competence. Rewards that are not tied to intrinsic values may be counterproductive because they meet only the short-term, physical needs identified by Herzberg. Hence, the organization is continually forced to "up the ante" to maintain the feeling of esteem (McKeachie, 1982; Cammann, 1982). Deci and Ryan (1982) cite various studies which indicate that "monetary rewards, good player awards, food rewards, threats of punishment, surveillance, explicit competition and external evaluation of performance

can all decrease intrinsic motivation" (p. 28). Mowday (1982) asserts that such rewards replace internal controls with external drivers:

> When rewards imply a high skill level or reflect competence at a task (in other words, convey positive information about the individual), they may be less likely to threaten intrinsic motivation than when the purpose of the rewards is primarily to control behavior (Mowday, 1982, p.69).

Student reaction to faculty performance is yet another contributing factor to the faculty's sense of self-competency and self-efficacy (McKeachie, 1982 and Bess 1982). For example, "to the degree we can help faculty members become more aware of student reactions and provide mechanisms such as student ratings to give faculty members a sense of student opinions which are useful for course improvement and for judging students' interest and motivation, we can contribute to a faculty member's increased sense that specific teaching efforts are paying off" (McKeachie, 1982, p.11). Austin and Gamson (1983) concluded that "The opportunity to work with students is also a very important source of satisfaction" (p.41).

Summary

The findings presented above reveal that the task for those who wish to motivate faculty toward better teaching, including teaching with a service component, "is to create conditions where faculty see teaching as an opportunity for effort and achievement, as a channel for productivity, and as an avenue for experiencing meaningfulness and responsibility"

(Bess, 1982, p.106). This challenge is not likely to be met by any single uniform approach to faculty incentives. In the book, <u>Scholarship Reconsidered</u> Ernest Boyer (1990) asserts:

> What we propose, in short, is that faculty expectations and related evaluation not only be <u>broadened</u> but that they be <u>individualized</u> and <u>continuous</u> as well. If faculty are to build on their strengths and contribute constructively to the institutions where they work, evaluation criteria must be tailored to personal talents, as well as campus needs. And it is especially important, we believe, that the criteria used reflect changing patterns of personal and professional growth across a lifetime. Once again, <u>diversity</u>, not uniformity is the key (pp.50-51).

Following Boyer's advice would require that effective instructional methods be validated through institutionalization: "The question of the <u>institutionalization</u> of the procedures of a new pedagogy is important. Our experience has shown that the combination of strong administrative support and the participation of imaginative, respected, and institutionally secure faculty leaders is optimal" (Katz and Henry, 1988,p. 5).

The three primary conditions for faculty satisfaction presented in the preceding pages -- autonomy and control, meaning and purpose, and supportive feedback -- can be used as a litmus test for efforts in service-learning. Without these conditions, the satisfaction of faculty who incorporate service and academic study is likely to be significantly diminished.

The final section of this chapter examines the research

on the factors which are most likely to cause faculty dissatisfaction and the implications of these findings for service-learning.

Elements of Faculty Dissatisfaction

As predicted by Herzberg's theory, external factors account for much of the dissatisfaction expressed by faculty. Studies by Gmelch, Wike and Lovrich (1986) revealed five causes of faculty stress: reward and recognition; time constraints; department influence; professional identity (including one's reputation as a scholar); and student interaction.

While stress cannot always be linked to dissatisfaction, other researchers have identified similar elements as dissatisfiers in academic life. For some faculty, the pressure to accomplish a wide range of many discrete tasks adds the greatest strain (Austin and Gamson, 1983). Others are concerned about the decreasing compensation provided for faculty in tight economic times (Austin and Gamson, 1983; Bowen and Schuster, 1986; McKeachie, 1982). Still others worry about the shift in decision making from faculty to administrative control and a more pronounced emphasis on evaluation and outcomes (McKeachie, 1982). Poor administrative leadership and a perceived lack of administrative support also contribute to dissatisfaction (Austin and Gamson, 1983).

The high degree of professional autonomy exhibited by the faculty may indicate that eliminating dissatisfiers may be

more important than creating motivators since faculty are likely to reject attempts to manipulate their behavior (Deci and Ryan, 1982). Lieberman and Connolly (1992) recommend that institutions seeking to promote service-learning should provide release time or financial support for such efforts; provide training on methods for combining education and action; assist faculty in identifying community needs compatible with their scholarly interests; and provide administrative support for coordinating the various tasks associated with service assignments.

Summary

The literature reviewed in Chapter Two described the programmatic and the philosophical dimensions of service-learning. Faculty are likely to find that, as a program model, service-learning will require more time, more attention to details, and the coordination of many people and tasks -- all factors which are identified as dissatisfiers in the motivational literature. Although faculty may find satisfaction in facing the various intellectual and ethical challenges associated with service-learning, their satisfaction may be tempered by the realization that the outcomes of service activities are less easily controlled and that outcomes of their efforts are more difficult to identify than the outcomes measured by traditional teaching methods.

The literature indicates that the philosophical dimension of service-learning has largely centered around the interest of the academy, the nation or the society. While some schools

have chosen to mandate such programs, the literature on faculty motivation would lead one to believe that mandating service courses will run contrary to the faculty's desire to control their work, especially their teaching, and might, therefore, undermine rather than prompt faculty involvement. The praise service-learning receives as a tool for institutional advancement, for national security, or for societal welfare, revolves around a host of external factors -- factors extrinsic to what the faculty see as their primary purpose.

If external factors appear to be of secondary importance, does the literature reveal insight into the primary focus of the faculty and which might serve as common ground for efforts in service-learning? Indeed, the literature indicates that the intrinsic motivation of the faculty is rooted in their responsibilities as teachers.

According to Austin and Gamson (1983): "[I]t is clear that the great majority of faculty members express a preference for teaching"(p.20). In identifying learning as the "single unifying process," "the chief stock-n-trade" of the professorate, Bowen and Schuster (1986) provide the clue for the intersection between service-learning faculty involvement. An examination of the existing literature on service-learning offers one dimension that intersects with the literature on faculty motivation -- the learning in service-learning. In Chapter Two, evidence was presented which documents that service-learning offers unique opportunities

for faculty who wish to enhance their teaching and their students' learning, in terms of both specific, measurable skills and broad philosophical dimensions.

However, the review of the literature on academic culture, faculty role, faculty motivation, satisfaction and dissatisfaction would seem to pose some challenges to those who wish to undertake such efforts.

In designing the research component of this study, a range of possible motivations was considered. For example, it is possible that faculty motivation with regard to service will mirror the findings in the literature on the motivations of volunteers, showing prior involvement and altruism as intrinsic motivations for faculty participation. However, because no studies have yet been conducted to verify such similarities, this study will treat such a relationship as only one possible source of faculty interest. The study will also examine the factors outlined as primary considerations of faculty motivation. Do faculty engaged in service-learning maintain a sense of control in such endeavors? Do they believe that their work has meaning and purpose? Do they derive a sense of achievement from the outcomes of their efforts? Respondents were also asked to identify factors which posed a barrier to their efforts in service-learning, allowing us to examine the sources of dissatisfaction that might inhibit such initiatives. Chapter 4 will next provide a list of these questions and will outline the methodology used to collect and analyze the data.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Primary Research Questions

This study was designed to address three central questions:

1. What are the arguments and incentives offered by the advocates of service-learning in attempting to motivate faculty involvement in service-learning?

2. What are the motivations, satisfactions and dissatisfactions of the faculty who have utilized service-learning strategies in their courses?

3. Are the arguments advanced in support of service-learning consistent with the motivational factors identified by faculty who are teaching service-learning courses?

Answering these three questions first required a review of the existing literature on the incentives offered in support of service-learning (Chapter Two) and a review of the incentives and disincentives of faculty to engage in service-learning (Chapter 3). The next stage of the research required the identification of faculty who utilize service-learning; and the collection of data regarding the motivations, satisfactions, and dissatisfactions of those faculty members.

This chapter will outline the specific research

questions, derived from the literature, which were subsequently incorporated into the faculty survey instrument. It will also describe the methods used for data collection and data analysis, and discuss the limitations of the study.

General Approach

The Use of a Quantitative Approach. The initial intent of the researcher was to use qualitative methods to understand and describe the motivations of faculty engaged in service-learning. However, the dearth of information on faculty participation in service initiatives posed an immediate problem: Since no one knew the number of service courses and/or service-learning faculty in any given institution, much less at the state-wide level, identifying appropriate subjects for interviews or observation would have relied purely on guess-work or hearsay. The need for baseline, quantifiable data about the nature and extent of faculty involvement in service-learning quickly became evident. Therefore, a quantitative approach was adopted for this study.

A preliminary survey of all Michigan colleges and universities was conducted in order to identify appropriate faculty for the study. Subsequently, a questionnaire was designed to address the theoretical issues identified for this study. It was distributed to faculty who were identified as having incorporated service into their academic courses.

The responses to this questionnaire yielded extensive data about the practices and perceptions of faculty who utilize service-learning. Most of the data are categorical or

ordinal in nature, but, in a few instances, interval descriptors were obtained. The statistical techniques used to describe the data have been selected to best answer the research questions and to correspond to the type of data provided. In addition to frequency distributions, an analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether responses to a series of items varied significantly from each other. When appropriate, paired t-tests were subsequently used to determine if the mean scores of particular items differed significantly from each other (Borg and Gall, p.427). The Chi-square test, a nonparametric statistical test, was used to determine if a relationship between two sets of responses existed. In cases where the chi-square indicated a relationship, tables are provided to explain the nature of the association. Unless otherwise indicated, all relationships have been calculated at the .05 level of significance.

Setting and Scope of the Study. This study focused on faculty members in Michigan colleges and universities. The decision to utilize Michigan was based on the location of the researcher and was also based on the financial and administrative support received for this project from the Michigan Campus Compact (MCC), a coalition of colleges and universities dedicated to encouraging a spirit of service on Michigan campuses. The Curriculum Development Committee of MCC authorized and funded the data collection.

Target institutions were those listed for Michigan in the 1993 Higher Education Directory (pp.163-173). A preliminary

survey of the 88 major colleges and universities listed in the directory was conducted in January of 1993 (Appendix A, Item 1). Personalized letters were sent to presidents, academic administrators, and service-coordinators, asking their assistance in identifying faculty who were utilizing service as a component of an academic course (Appendix A, Item 2).

Twenty-six (26) institutions, 14 of which were members of MCC, responded to this initial mailing (Appendix A, Item 3). This yielded a total of 250 faculty names which would comprise the population for the faculty survey.

Design of the Survey Instrument. Questions for inclusion in the survey were derived from the literature reviews on service-learning and faculty motivation. A copy of the survey instrument is provided in Appendix A, Item 4.

The specific research questions are described in the following section. They correspond to the major topic areas addressed in the literature reviews in Chapter 2 and 3.

The research questions have been organized in six major categories:

(1)   The Service Dimension of Faculty Involvement
(2)   The Learning Dimension of Faculty Involvement
(3)   Service-Learning within the Academic Culture
(4)   Service-Learning within the Faculty Role
(5)   The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning:
       (a) Responsibility, Freedom and Control
       (b) Meaningfulness and Purpose in the Work Experience
       (c) Results, Relationships, Feedback and Rewards
(6)   Barriers to Faculty Involvement: Dissatisfiers in Service-Learning

For each category, the corresponding citation in the literature review is provided for ease of reference.

Likewise, for each research question, the number of the relevant survey question is provided in parentheses. The seven-page survey included not only questions related to faculty motivation but also to the characteristics of service-learning courses.

Prior to distribution, a pilot-test of the survey instrument was conducted with six faculty members representing four institutional types (private, public, community, and research institutions). Their responses were used to further refine the instrument. Although the survey instrument included questions on course design and composition, only responses related to the questions on faculty motivation and involvement in service-learning are reported in this study.

Research Questions

The Service Dimension of Faculty Involvement. The service-learning literature reviewed in Chapter 2 describes the nature of volunteerism and outlines the arguments used to support service-learning. This literature suggests that faculty may be motivated to become involved in service-learning for the following reasons: (a) they have previously been involved in service activities (p.30); (b) they hold altruistic ideals (p.33-34); (c) they are encouraged to do so by administrators (p.36-37); (d) they believe service-learning will their own institution or higher education in general (p.42); (e) they believe service-learning will enhance civic involvement (p.45); (f) they believe service-learning will enrich the society (p.49). These hypotheses lead to the formulation of

the following research questions:

1. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify prior and/or current involvement as a strong motivator for their efforts? (Q. 40, 41, 42, 43, 44)

2. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify altruistic ideals as a strong motivator for their efforts? (Q. 46, 47, 48)

3. Do faculty who utilized service-learning derive support or encouragement from administrators? (Q. 31, 32, 33)

4. Do faculty who utilized service-learning believe their efforts contribute to advancement of their institution? (Q. 37-H, 37-O, 62).

5. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify civic education and civic involvement as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 49, 50)

6. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify social values such as developing moral character, fostering community, and enhancing multi-cultural understanding as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 51, 53, 55)

The Learning Dimension of Faculty Involvement in Service-Learning. As noted in Chapter Two, the learning derived from a service experience has been recognized by several pedagogical traditions (p.50). These traditions share a commitment to the value of experience, critical-thinking, connectedness, and life-long learning. Given that faculty have almost exclusive control over the curriculum and that

most faculty see teaching as their primary responsibility, it was appropriate to ask a series of questions about the extent to which faculty chose to utilize service-learning as a pedagogical tool:

7. Do faculty who utilized service-learning express a strong commitment to the teaching function? (Q. 37-L)

8. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify pedagogical concerns as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 56, 57, 58, 59, 61)

9. Do faculty who utilized service-learning believe that it should be incorporated into the curriculum as a graduation requirement? (Q. 37-R)

10. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify pedagogical difficulties with regard to such efforts? (Q. 70-H, 70-P)

Service-Learning Within the Academic Culture. Herzberg maintained that understanding motivation is dependent upon the understanding of the dominant culture of the individual (p.76). Educational researchers have identified two major components of academic life: the disciplinary culture and the institutional culture. Faculty who choose to incorporate service-learning do so in the context of an academic discipline and within the constraints of their college or university. Therefore, the following research questions are appropriate:

11. What is the relationship between academic discipline and

faculty participation in service-learning? (Q. 37-D, 37-K, 76)

12. What is the relationship between institutional culture and faculty participation in service-learning? (Q. 1, 2, 29, 37-A, 37-B, 37-C, 37-E, 37-F, 37-Q)

Service-Learning Within the Faculty Role. Faculty orient their professional roles around factors such as: the priority given to teaching or research, the importance of peer review, the desire to influence events, and the achievement of academic rewards and recognition (p.83). Considering these dimensions of the faculty role with regard to service-learning leads to the following research questions:

13. Is service-learning perceived as a component of scholarly research? (Q. 37-K, 69)

14. Do faculty who utilized service-learning believe that it is considered positively in promotion/tenure decisions? (Q. 37-Q)

The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning: Responsibility, Freedom and Control. Herzberg maintains that motivators (satisfiers) contribute to psychological growth. Research on faculty reveals a strong intrinsic orientation with three important dimensions. The first of these centers on the faculty perception that they control their work and the work product. Academic freedom and autonomy are cherished (p.95). This freedom has been linked to the gender, and

academic rank -- aspects of the faculty career which affect one's ability to control one's own agenda (p.96). Research questions regarding this dimension of faculty motivation thus include:

15. Were faculty who utilized service-learning required to do so? (Q. 63, 64)

16. Were faculty who utilized service-learning free to develop the course(s) as they felt was appropriate? (Q. 28, 37-G, 70-B)

17. What is the relationship between gender and involvement in service-learning? (Q. 72)

18. What is the relationship between academic rank and involvement in service-learning? (Q. 71)

The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning: Meaningfulness and Purpose in the Work Experience.

The second dimension of the intrinsic motivation of faculty relates to the sense of meaningfulness and purpose gained from their work (p.98). Research questions related to the meaningfulness of service-learning for the faculty include:

19. Do faculty who utilized service-learning gain a sense of purpose and achievement from their efforts? (Q. 21, 22, 37-M, 37-P)

The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning: Results, Feedback and Quality Relationships. The third

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dimension of faculty motivation rests upon a knowledge of results of their work. Often faculty perceptions in this area depend upon the feedback they receive from others and the quality of their informal relationships with colleagues and with students (p.99). Research questions related to this dimension of faculty motivation thus include:

20. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify student relationships as a strong motivator for their efforts? (Q. 45)

21. Do faculty who utilized service-learning receive rewards or recognition for their efforts? (Q. 36)

22. What are the perceptions of faculty who utilize service-learning with regard to the support they received from faculty colleagues, students and the community, for their efforts? (Q. 30, 34, 35, 37-H, 37-J,)

Barriers to Faculty Involvement: Dissatisfiers in Service-Learning. Herzberg maintains that factors from the external environment may contribute to a sense of dissatisfaction with the work experience (p.105). For faculty, dissatisfaction can arise from perceptions of inadequate compensation or resources, discouraging administrative policies, lack of support, and the dispersal of energy across numerous tasks. Research questions related to faculty dissatisfaction in service-learning would include:

23. Do faculty who utilize service-learning perceive that adequate compensation and support are given to such

efforts? (Q. 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 70-E, 70-L)

24. Do faculty who utilized service-learning perceive administrative policies as a barrier to their efforts? (Q. 70-I)

25. Do faculty who utilized service-learning perceive a lack of support for their efforts (Q. 70-F, 70-N)

26. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify issues of time and task as barriers to their efforts? (Q. 37-I, 70-C, 70-J, 70-O)

27. Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify pedagogical concerns to be barriers to service-learning (Q. 70G, 70-O)

Data Collection

In April of 1993 the survey instrument was mailed to the 250 faculty previously identified on each campus. Each person received four enclosures: (1) the survey (Appendix A, Item 4); (2) a personalized letter explaining the nature and purpose of the survey (Appendix A, Item 5); (3) a return postcard which indicated a willingness to participate in the faculty network, follow-up studies, or to receive a copy of the survey results (Appendix A, Item 6); and (4) a postage-paid return envelope.

Confidentiality of the responses was assured for all respondents and only the primary researcher could link the coded data to the respondent. Approval for this study was granted by the Michigan State University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects under the heading of Study #93-065.

A postcard reminder was sent to prospective respondents ten days after the initial mailing. A second mailing to those who had not yet responded was sent in May, 1993.

Presidents and service-coordinators were sent a letter (Appendix A, Item 7) alerting them to the distribution of the survey.

Data Analysis

Each item on the questionnaire was coded by the researcher and the corresponding response was assigned a numerical value. The coded values were entered into an ASCII file and subsequently analyzed by using the Minitab statistical software package.

Limitations of the Study

Although the baseline data gathered in this study has provided useful information on the practices and priorities of faculty who utilize service-learning in Michigan, several limitations must be recognized in the interpretation of this data. As Conrad and Hedin (1987) discovered:

> The analysis of community service programs presents unique problems to researchers, problems that go beyond the usual assortment of methodological snares. The fundamental difficulty is that service is not a single, easily identifiable activity like taking notes at a lecture. (p.746)

These methodological issues may be categorized as problems of definition, problems of emphasis and motivation, problems of perspective, and problems of context. Each of these categories is discussed in the following section.

Problems of Definition. This study adopted the most widely used definition of service-learning, the definition endorsed by the two major national organizations (NSEE and Campus Compact) which support such endeavors:

> Service-learning represents a particular form
> of experiential education, one that emphasizes
> for students the accomplishment of tasks which
> meet human needs in combination with conscious
> educational growth.

Yet the problem of defining service-learning posed a major difficulty from the outset of the study.

It should be remembered that virtually no information regarding the number or names of faculty engaged in service-learning was available when this study began. Although staff and members of the Curriculum Development Committee of the Michigan Campus Compact could identify a handful of individuals who had applied for mini-grants to support service-learning, it was impossible to tell whether that number represented the total number of Michigan faculty engaged in service-learning or a relatively small fraction of the whole.

Therefore, the first step in conducting this research was to identify possible subjects. Contact was made with service-learning coordinators, academic affairs officers, and presidents at each institution throughout the state. In some cases, staff members were able to readily identify faculty engaged in these efforts, but, for the most part, their responses made it clear that service-coordinators could not

identify, with certainty, who was engaged in service-learning nor could they identify the courses which included a service component. For example, one institution, which does not have an office for service-learning, provided the names of faculty teaching courses with a clinical component, identifying 66 of the 250 faculty included in the study. In contrast, a much larger institution, which has an established clearinghouse for service-learning which works with faculty, identified 17 individuals whose courses were more service than clinical in their orientation.

The researcher made the determination that, given the lack of information of faculty involved in service-learning, it was better to include all those identified as subjects for the study, even though there was some expectation that this decision would yield a larger N for the total population and, possibly, a lower response rate.[1]

A total of 163 responses were received, 130 which were usable for purposes of this study. Of the total 163 responses, 18 were from individuals who explained why they were returning the survey uncompleted. As indicated in Appendix A, Item 8, most felt that their courses did not fit the definition of service-learning.

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[1]To account for the possibility that a large response rate from one institution might have skewed the data, the statistical analyses described in Chapter 5 were conducted twice: once with the large cohort from the institution which provided 66 names, and once without. No significant difference emerged between these two statistical analyses. We may therefore conclude that the survey results were not skewed by the inclusion of that institution.

The final response rate of 52 percent is consistent with other faculty studies. In their work on faculty development, Eble and McKeachie (1985, pp.164,186) found "50 to 70 percent returns usual in the study of faculty members" and "typical return rates for studies of this type are less than 60 percent."

More important than the technical difficulties surrounding the identification of subjects, is the recognition of a disjuncture between the activities of faculty and the awareness of staff. Because faculty determine the content and structure of their courses without great fanfare and publicity, it may not be surprising that staff are unaware of the variety of ways service is already being incorporated into the curriculum. A common refrain among service practitioners is, "We need to get more faculty involved in service-learning." Yet the difficulty in identifying subjects for this research would lead one to wonder if the refrain would be more accurately phrased, "We are not sure how many faculty are incorporating service into their courses, but we believe more of them ought to do it."

Problems of Emphasis and Motivation. Faculty motivation with regard to service-learning is the focal point of this study. In fact, whether a faculty member even uses the label of "service-learning" appears to hinge on the faculty member's motivation for teaching such a course. Consider, for example, these comments made by two respondents in teacher education:

Respondent 1: I'm not sure my course qualifies

for your survey. An on-going historical problem with courses concerned with the diagnosis/ correction of reading problems involves emphasis -- (teacher training vs. service to the community). While a strong service component exists in my course the over-riding emphasis is upon <u>training</u>.

Respondent 2: As I look at the problems of society, especially children, I can't help but think about the power of service-learning. If conceptualized correctly it gives one (the learner) the power over learning and to some degree problem solution. It could give students a reason to stay in school. It should be a point of <u>meaning</u> for participants. As a type of experiential learning pedagogy, it is a powerful model. However, it requires the teacher to <u>re-conceptualize her/his role</u> and in fact the <u>function of formal schooling</u>.

The same contrast in perspectives emerged from two respondents

-- from the same institution! -- in nursing:

Respondent 1: Nursing courses always have a service-learning component (clinical practice)...

Respondent 2: I have a very difficult time relating to your term "service." I don't view nursing clinicals associated with one's course as a service component ...

These comments illustrate a definitional difficulty which

defies simple solution. Even if the definition were precise

and the course syllabi identical (as might be the case with

the nursing clinicals), differences would still exist between

the perspectives of the faculty members because some are

motivated by a clinical orientation and others are motivated

by a desire to incorporate service. These differences in

interpretation affect whether a faculty member would include

himself/herself in the cadre of faculty who utilize service-

learning.

Problems of Perspective. This study focuses only on faculty who have incorporated service in academic study. The central question remains, "What are the motivations, satisfactions and dissatisfactions of the faculty who have utilized service-learning strategies in their courses?". Thus, this study does not reveal if these satisfactions and dissatisfactions would be different among faculty who do not incorporate service into their courses. Nor is it possible to determine with certainty why 87 faculty did not respond to the survey.

Because the data on faculty involvement in this area is so limited and the interest is great, some may try to interpret the findings of this study as "factors which would encourage faculty participation in service-learning." The study was not designed to provide such information. Furthermore, although those data do provide patterns of faculty involvement in service-learning, one must bear in mind the caution that correlation does not equal causation.

Problems of Context. This survey was long (7 pages or 183 bits of data per survey) yet it was impossible to incorporate every question that might have been instructive. The existing literature was used as base for designing the questionnaire, so gaps in the literature on faculty motivation are likely to result in gaps in the survey. For example, the literature on faculty life does not reveal a relationship between motivation and the undergraduate training of the faculty (small school vs. large school, academic discipline),

and a corresponding gap could be noted in the survey. Furthermore, the survey focuses on faculty perceptions regarding service-learning and does not equate these perceptions to any objective measurement. That is, faculty may respond affirmatively to Q. 37-M ("The activities of this course met -- or partially met -- a community need") but there is no corresponding data which documents that such a need existed or that it was actually met.

Yet another consideration related to perspective is that faculty were asked to identify the factors which initially motivated them to incorporate service in their classes. Yet the results of the survey show that many respondents have been using service-learning for at least four terms. Their responses may now actually be based on their subsequent experiences with service-learning, in reflection, rather than their initial motivations.

Despite these limitations, the survey responses provide a wealth of information regarding the motivations and experiences of faculty who have attempted to integrate service and academic study. While the study does not answer all questions we might have about faculty involvement in service-learning, it has provided new and useful data which can be used as a base for further investigations. The next chapter will present the results of the survey, according to the specific research questions previously listed.

Chapter 5

Data Analysis

Introduction

Who utilizes service-learning in their courses in Michigan? How do they describe their experiences with this method? Are they inclined to continue and/or expand their involvement in the future? To answer these questions, this chapter analyzes the responses to the survey of Michigan faculty who utilized service-learning in their courses in 1992. In the first section, the basic demographic data describing the respondents are presented according to institutional type, professional orientation, and personal characteristics. In the second section, data are provided for answering questions about faculty satisfaction and motivation. These results are organized according to the major research questions presented in Chapter 4:

(1) The service dimensions of faculty involvement
(2) The learning dimension of faculty involvement
(3) Service-learning within the academic culture
(4) Service-learning within the faculty role
(5) The intrinsic motivation and the satisfiers of faculty in service-learning
(6) Barriers to faculty involvement: dissatisfiers in service-learning.

Demographic Information

Institutional Profile. The preliminary survey which invited participation in the study was distributed to 88 major colleges and universities in Michigan. A total of 23 institutions provided names and addresses of faculty for the faculty survey. Of these institutions, eight were small, private, liberal arts colleges; six were mid-size public universities; 3 were research universities; 3 were community colleges; 2 were law schools; and one was a theological seminary. Appendix B, Table 1, provides a listing of participating institutions, the number of possible respondents identified, and the number of faculty who responded. Of the 23 responding institutions, 14 were members of the Michigan Campus Compact (MCC); 9 were not.

Professional Profile of Respondents. The twenty-three institutions described above provided names and/or titles for 250 faculty members. Surveys were sent to all 250 individuals identified. A total of 163 (65.2%) surveys were returned, 130 of which yielded quantifiable results for the purpose of this study. Because not every respondent answered every question, the "n" may differ from question to question.

This response rate is compatible with the findings of Eble and McKeachie (1985) who found "50 to 70 percent returns usual in the study of faculty members" (p.164). They further report that "... typical return rates [on surveys of faculty perceptions] are less than 60 percent" (p.186). However, it

is worth noting that despite the length of survey, all respondents completed the form in some way; i.e., they may have skipped certain questions but no one simply started and did not finish the survey.

Of the 33 faculty who returned their surveys but who were not included in the survey, 20 indicated, by phone or letter, that they believed they had been mis-identified, i.e., they did not utilize service-learning in their courses. (See Limitations of the Study in Chapter Four for a further discussion of non-respondents.)

In addition to the cover letter and survey, each faculty member received a return postcard. The postcard provided options for further involvement in the study: participating in the faculty network being formed through the Michigan Campus Compact; participating in follow-up interviews; or receiving a follow-up report of the study when completed. Sixty-nine faculty indicated that they were willing to participate in the MCC faculty network. Sixty-six faculty indicated a willingness to participate in follow-up interviews, and eighty-two requested the results of the study. Twenty-five provided course syllabi, course descriptions, or related articles with the survey response.

Respondents were almost evenly divided between four-year public institutions (47.2%) and four-year private institutions (46.4%) (which included the law schools and theological seminary), with the remainder (6.4%) coming from two-year public institutions. Respondents represented 44 disciplinary

areas, with the highest concentration (23%) in education-related fields; see Appendix B, Table 2.

Service-learning faculty were relatively well-established in their institutions. More than a quarter were full professors and 41.4% were tenured. Most respondents (74.2%) had been teaching (at some level) for ten or more years. Nearly all respondents (98.4%) held a graduate degree and the majority (58.3%) held the Ph.D.

There was evidence of a relatively strong commitment to the integration of service and academic study over time. Fewer than 10% of the respondents reported having utilized service-learning only once; a substantial majority (63%) indicated that they had utilized service-learning in their course four or more times.

Personal Profile of Respondents. Consistent with the general demographic profile of faculty (Bowen and Schuster, 1985), a majority of the faculty identified in this study are male (53.5%) and the vast majority (88.8%) are white. Most (79.7%) are over the age of 40. As might be expected, a chi-square analysis revealed a relationship between gender and three other demographic features: age, academic degree, and academic rank, as shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3:

Table 1: Gender x Age (N=127)

Gender	Age: Under 30	Age: 30-40	Age: 41-50	Age: 51 +	Total
Males	0.8% (1)	3.9% (5)	22.8% (29)	26.0% (33)	54.3% (69)
Females	0% (0)	15.0% (19)	18.9% (24)	11.8% (15)	45.7% (58)

Table 2: Gender x Academic Degree (N=127)

Gender	Ph.D.	J.D.	ED.D.	M.A. or M.S.	Other	Total
Males	45.4% (45)	1.6% (2)	4.7% (6)	12.6% (16)	0% (0)	54.3% (69)
Females	22.8% (29)	2.4% (3)	0.8% (1)	18.1% (23)	1.6% (2)	45.7% (58)

Table 3: Gender x Academic Rank (N=127)

Academic Rank	Males	Females	Total
Academic Staff	1.6% (2)	0% (0)	1.6% (2)
Instructor	1.6% (2)	8.7% (11)	10.2% (13)
Assistant Prof.: Tenure Track	7.1% (9)	13.4% (17)	20.4% (26)
Assistant Prof.: Non-Tenure Track	3.1% (4)	3.1% (4)	6.2% (8)
Associate Prof.: Tenured	11.0% (14)	7.1% (9)	18.1% (23)
Associate Prof: Tenure Track/Not Tenured	2.4% (3)	0.8% (1)	3.1% (4)
Associate Prof.: Non-tenure Track	0% (0)	2.4% (3)	2.4% (3)
Full Prof: Tenured	17.3% (22)	5.5% (7)	22.8% (29)
Full Prof.: Tenure-track/ Not Tenured	7.9% (10)	1.6% (2)	9.4% (12)
Full Prof.: Non-tenure Track	0.8% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Other	0.8% (1)	3.9% (5)	4.7% (6)
Total	53.5% (68)	46.5% (59)	100% (127)

As illustrated by Tables 1 -- 3, male respondents were older, held more advanced academic degrees, and held higher academic rank than female respondents.

General Responses: Faculty Satisfaction and Motivation

Taken in their totality, two dominant conclusions can be drawn from the survey responses: (1) The majority of faculty respondents were satisfied with their experience in service-learning, and (2) There were significant differences with regard to motivations among the faculty who chose to use service-learning.   While these two findings do not, by themselves, address the specific research questions set forth in Chapter Four, they do provide a context for understanding related responses.   Therefore, before analyzing particular subsets of the data, it will be useful to examine the general responses   regarding   satisfaction   and   motivation. **Satisfaction.** As previously noted, most respondents indicated that they had used service-learning in their course four or more times.   Based on this response, one would expect that most respondents would indicate a high degree of satisfaction with their service initiatives.   In fact, this was the case. Over 96% of respondents (96.1%) reported that they were "very satisfied" or "satisfied" with the overall effectiveness of the course.   Not surprisingly, a chi-square analysis revealed a   statistical   correlation   between   the   satisfaction   of respondents   and   their   intention   to   continue   the   use   of service-learning.   Ninety-two percent (92.2%) of respondents planned   to   retain   a   service   component   in   their   course;

slightly over half (50.2%) intend to expand service activities into other courses.

A significant correlation also existed between the high degree of satisfaction among respondents and their perceptions of support and recognition. (See Appendix B, Table 3 for the chi-square values). In general, the higher the perception of the support received for service-learning from faculty colleagues, the President, the students and the community, the greater was the respondent's degree of satisfaction with service-learning.

The relationship between satisfaction and the recognition received for service-learning is described in Table 4:

Table 4: Sources of Recognition x Satisfaction with the Overall Effectiveness of the Course. (VS=Very Satisfied; S= Satisfied; U= Uncertain; D= Dissatisfied; VD= Very Dissatisfied.) N = 113

Statement	VS	S	U	D	VD
No recognition received for service-learning	20.4% (23)	22.1% (25)	1.8% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Received recognition from students	23.9% (27)	9.7% (11)	0% 0	1.8% (1)	4.9% (2)
Received recognition from faculty	17.7% (20)	4.4% (5)	0% (0)	0.9% (1)	0.9% (1)
Received recognition from state/national organization	11.5% (13)	0.9% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Received recognition from community agency	17.7% (20)	2.7% (3)	0% (0)	0.9% (1)	0.9% (1)

Although Table 4 shows that recognition is related to satisfaction, the relationship is not strong; e.g, 42.5% of the respondents who indicated that they received no recognition for service-learning, nonetheless indicated that they were very satisfied or satisfied with the course. It is

important to note that no statistical correlation was found between the satisfaction reported by faculty respondents and the degree of recognition by administrators.

Given the high overall rate of satisfaction, one might assume that the responses of those who were satisfied (or very satisfied) would be identical to those of the total population. However, the chi-square analysis revealed five items for which the responses of those who were satisfied or very satisfied indicated stronger agreement than the responses of the total population (Q. 37, H, K, N, O, P). First, those who were satisfied were more likely to see service-learning as a component of their scholarly research. In fact, 81.6% of those who had produced scholarly work or who were in the process of producing work through their service-learning ventures were very satisfied or satisfied with their courses. Second, satisfied respondents were more certain that student had gained professional skills through participation in this course. Third, faculty who were satisfied felt more strongly that they had been able to develop a good working relationship with the community agency involved and that the image and reputations of the institution had been enhanced by their efforts. Finally, those who were satisfied with their service-learning experience were more likely to report that their goals for the course had been achieved. As stated in Chapter Three, faculty motivation is closely tied to the faculty's sense of meaning and purpose. Each of the five items presented above provides an example of the faculty's

perception that their efforts had significance with specific, identifiable results.

Motivation. The survey questionnaire listed 24 factors which had been identified as possible motivations for adopting service-learning techniques (Questions 40-64). Respondents were asked to use a Likert scale to indicate the degree to which each factor influenced or motivated them to incorporate a service component in their coursework. Table 5 presents the results for Items 40 -- 64.[2]

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[2]An analysis-of-variance test indicated that significant differences did exist in the strength of the responses, based on a comparison of the means There were no significant outliers. A figure illustrating the anova result with corresponding influence items is presented in Table 4 of Appendix B. A visual examination of the figure shows that the desire to enhance the relevance of course material and other pedagogical items have the strongest mean scores. Because the Omnibus F Score was 23.04, with a p-value of 0, it was possible to advance the comparison of items by use of the paired T-test. Table 5 of Appendix B provides the T-score, the p-value (at the .05 level), and the degrees of freedom, for each comparison that showed statistical significance. The null hypothesis for the test was that the mean scores would be equal. (Note, smaller means indicate stronger response averages. A numerical score of 1 corresponds to responses in the "strongly influenced my decision" category; 2 to "moderately influenced my decision"; 3 to "little influence in my decision"; 4 to "no influence"; and 5 to "not applicable to my experience").

Table 5: Factors Influencing the Use of Service in the Course. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SI=Strongly Influenced; MI=Moderately Influenced; LI=Little Influence; NI=No Influence; NA=Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1 = Strongly Influenced; 4 = No Influence.

Statement	SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	Mean
40. I am currently involved in community organization(s) and/or in community service. N=125	40.8% (51)	30.4% (38)	12.0% (15)	9.6% (12)	7.2% (9)	2.12
41. In my youth service was an important aspect of my family life. N=125	24.8% (31)	28.0% (35)	20.0% (25)	18.4% (23)	8.8% (11)	2.58
42. Today, service is an important aspect of my family life. N=122	23.0% (28)	45.1% (55)	15.6% (19)	10.7% (13)	0.8% (7)	2.31
43. I was involved in service during high school. N=124	21.8% (27)	23.4% (29)	17.7% (22)	25.0% (31)	12.1% (15)	2.82
44. I was involved in service during college. N=124	23.4% (29)	29.8% (37)	13.7% (17)	21.0% (26)	12.1% (15)	2.69
45. I enjoy working with students in co-curricular settings. N=124	50.0% (62)	33.1% (41)	7.3% (9)	6.5% (8)	3.2% (4)	1.79
46. Service is an important component of my personal faith. N=124	45.2% (56)	29.0% (36)	7.3% (9)	80.6% (10)	10.5% (13)	2.10
47. Service enables me to effect social change. N=125	48.8% (61)	28.8% (36)	14.4% (18)	1.6% (2)	6.4% (8)	1.88
48. Service-learning is a way of helping people in need. N=125	57.6% (72)	22.4% (28)	12.0% (15)	3.2% (4)	4.8% (6)	1.75
49. Service-learning is a valuable tool for civic education. N=125	52.8% (66)	26.4% (33)	9.6% (12)	5.6% (7)	5.6% (7)	1.85
50. Service-learning promotes civic involvement. N=124	49.2% (61)	29.8% (37)	10.5% (13)	4.8% (6)	5.7% (7)	1.88
51. Service-learning develops the moral character of students. N=125	48.8% (61)	29.6% (37)	12.0% (15)	4.8% (6)	4.8% (6)	1.87
52. Service-learning prepares students for employment. N=126	60.3% (76)	21.4% (27)	9.5% (12)	6.4% (8)	2.4% (3)	1.69
53. Service-learning fosters a sense of community. N=121	55.4% (67)	28.1% (34)	9.1% (11)	3.3% (4)	4.1% (5)	1.73
54. Service-learning helps students develop a meaningful philosophy of life. N=125	55.2% (69)	29.6% (37)	8.0% (10)	2.4% (3)	4.8% (6)	1.72
55. Service-learning promotes multi-cultural understanding. N=124	57.3% (71)	26.6% (33)	8.9% (11)	2.4% (3)	4.8% (6)	1.71

Table 5 (Continued): Factors Influencing the Use of Service in the Course. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SI=Strongly Influenced; MI=Moderately Influenced; LI=Little Influence; NI=No Influence; NA=Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1 = Strongly Influenced; 4 = No Influence.

Statement	SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	Mean
56. Service-learning is an effective way to present disciplinary content material. N=125	58.4% (73)	28.0% (35)	9.6% (12)	2.4% (3)	1.6% (2)	1.61
57. Service-learning teaches critical thinking. N=125	55.2% (69)	26.4% (33)	12.8% (16)	3.2% (4)	2.4% (3)	1.71
58. Service-learning encourages self-directed learning. N = 125	60.8% (76)	30.4% (38)	5.6% (7)	0.8% (1)	2.4% (3)	1.54
59. Service-learning brings greater relevance to course material. N = 125	76.8% (96)	19.2% (24)	1.6% (2)	0.8% (1)	1.6% (2)	1.31
60. Service-learning provides professional (or pre-professional training). N = 126	61.9% (78)	16.7% (21)	11.1% (14)	7.9% (10)	2.4% (3)	1.72
61. Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education. N = 126	66.7% (84)	23.8% (30)	4.8% (6)	3.2% (4)	1.6% (2)	1.49
62. Service-learning improves student satisfaction with education. N = 125	61.6% (77)	24.8% (31)	7.2% (9)	4.0% (5)	2.4% (3)	1.61
63. Service-learning is a departmental requirement for this course. N = 125	36.0% (45)	6.4% (8)	9.6% (12)	23.2% (29)	24.8% (31)	2.94
64. I was required to teach this course as a part of my teaching load. N = 125	28.0% (35)	8.8% (11)	9.6% (12)	25.6% (32)	2.4% (3)	3.19

The Relationship between Satisfaction and Motivation.

For 10 of the 24 items in Table 5, there was a significant relationship between faculty satisfaction and the motivation of faculty to incorporate service into their courses. The items which were related to over-all satisfaction are presented in Table 6 for respondents who indicated that they were "very satisfied" or "satisfied" with their courses. The first column indicates the level of influence of each item for respondents who were very satisfied with their service-learning efforts. The second column indicates the level of influence of each item for respondents for respondents who were satisfied with their service-learning efforts. The third column provides a comparison of these scores with the level of influence accorded that item by all respondents.

Overall, Table 6 illustrates that those who were very satisfied with their service-learning endeavors reported that they were more strongly influenced by their current involvement in service than did respondents who were merely satisfied or than did respondents at large.

Table 6: Motivation and Satisfaction
(1=Strongly Influenced; 4 = No influence)

Statement	Very Satisfied/ Mean Score	Satisfied/Mean Score	Mean Score: All Responses
Current Involvement in Service	1.87	2.33	2.09
Service important in youth	2.36	2.71	2.53
High school involvement	2.62	2.92	2.78
Enjoy working with students in co-curricular settings	1.60	1.92	1.74
Important aspect of faith	2.04	1.96	2.08
A way of helping people	1.59	1.83	1.71
Prepares students for employment	1.44	2.00	1.67
Provides professional training	1.47	1.88	1.65
Experiential Education	1.34	1.58	1.45
Improves Student Satisfaction	1.33	1.81	1.56

Table 6 indicates that faculty who were very satisfied with their efforts in service-learning had been more strongly influenced by intrinsic and pedagogical concerns than they had been by their own prior involvement in service. For example, faculty who were very satisfied with their efforts in service-learning indicated that they were somewhat to strongly influenced (mean score = 1.33) by the desire to improve student satisfaction with the course while their prior involvement in service during high school was only of moderate to little influence (mean score = 2.62) in their decision to incorporate service into their teaching. Furthermore, this table illustrates that these factors were of greater influence for those who were very satisfied than they were for the

respondents as a whole.[3]

Summary

The data presented in Tables 1 - Table 6 demonstrate that almost all of the faculty identified for this study have shown a commitment to service-learning through their prior and continued involvement. They are satisfied with their experience in service-learning and intend to continue to integrate service and study. Furthermore, the data also indicate there were a variety of different factors which have influenced faculty to utilize service-learning. Finally, the data show that a significant statistical relationship exists between the factors which motivate faculty to adopt service-learning and their subsequent satisfaction with their experience. With an understanding of these general results, we can examine the respondents' experiences in terms of the specific research questions presented in Chapter Four.

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[3]The only exception to the pattern of the relationship between satisfaction and motivation is found in the item relating to service as a dimension of personal faith. Respondents who were very satisfied with their experience were less motivated by faith than by respondents who were only satisfied.

Survey Responses to the Research Questions

The following six sections organize the data according to the major research questions outlined in Chapter 4. As outlined previously, the major categories considered were: (1) the focus on service in service-learning, (2) pedagogical supports for service-learning, (3) the place of service-learning within the academic culture, (4) the relationship between service-learning and the faculty role, (5) the intrinsic motivation and the satisfaction of faculty in service-learning and (6) the barriers to faculty involvement.

(1) The Service Dimension of Faculty Involvement: Prior Involvement and Altruistic Motivation

Because the service dimension serves as the backdrop for questions regarding faculty motivation, survey questions were designed to determine if faculty motivation to engage in service-learning would be similar to the motivations identified in the literature on volunteers. Questions were also included which addressed the major themes advanced by advocates of service-learning: its benefits for the campus, for the nation and for society.

Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify prior and/or current involvement as a strong motivator for their efforts? Questions 40-44 involve prior and/or current involvement in service-learning. The results are presented in Table 7:

Table 7: Influence Factors related to prior or current involvement in service. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SI = Strongly Influenced; MI = Moderately Influenced; LI = Little Influence; NI = No Influence; NA = Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1 = Strongly Influenced; 4 = No Influence.

Statement	SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	Mean
40. I am currently involved in community organization(s) and/or in community service. N=125	40.8% (51)	30.4% (38)	12.0% (15)	9.6% (12)	7.2% (9)	2.12
41. In my youth service was an important aspect of my family life. N=125	24.8% (31)	28.0% (35)	20.0% (25)	18.4% (23)	8.8% (11)	2.58
42. Today, service is an important aspect of my family life. N=122	23.0% (28)	45.1% (55)	15.6% (19)	10.7% (13)	0.8% (7)	2.31
43. I was involved in service during high school. N=124	21.8% (27)	23.4% (29)	17.7% (22)	25.0% (31)	12.1% (15)	2.82
44. I was involved in service during college. N=124	23.4% (29)	29.8% (37)	13.7% (17)	21.0% (26)	12.1% (15)	2.69

An Anova test and subsequent paired t-tests were used to compare the strength of these responses to other motivational items, Q.45-64. Results revealed that significant differences exist between the motivational items which focused on involvement in service activities and other influences. For example, although the literature on student volunteers cites prior involvement as a strong motivational force for college service activities, the results of the paired t-tests demonstrate that current involvement (through an organization or through one's family) is of greater influence than prior involvement in youth, high school, or college. Furthermore, although faculty indicate that service involvement influenced their decision to utilize service-learning, it was of less importance than the factors discussed in the following section. In fact, the only items of less influence to faculty

than prior involvement in service were those related to departmental or teaching load requirements (Q. 63-64).

Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify altruistic ideals as a strong motivator for their efforts? Because the literature on student volunteers indicated a strong altruistic tendency, it was necessary to elicit responses from faculty regarding their own altruistic motivations. Survey questions 46, 47, and 48 addressed the altruistic dimensions of service -- faith, social change, and helping others. As shown in the Table 8, altruism did emerge as a stronger motivator than prior involvement in youth, high school, or college.

Table 8: Influence factors related to altruistic motivation. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SI = Strongly Influenced; MI = Moderately Influenced; LI = Little Influence; NI = No Influence; NA = Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1 = Strongly Influenced; 4 = No Influenced.

Statement	SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	Mean
46. Service is an important component of my personal faith. N=124	45.2% (56)	29.0% (36)	7.3% (9)	80.6% (10)	10.5% (13)	2.10
47. Service enables me to effect social change. N=125	48.8% (61)	28.8% (36)	14.4% (18)	1.6% (2)	6.4% (8)	1.88
48. Service-learning is a way of helping people in need. N=125	57.6% (72)	22.4% (28)	12.0% (15)	3.2% (4)	4.8% (6)	1.75

Among the altruistic factors, service for social change or as a means of helping others proved more influential than prior involvement, current involvement, or service as a component of personal faith. All items related to altruistic motivations were stronger than departmental or course load requirements.

The Service Dimension of Faculty Involvement:
Arguments on Behalf of Service-Learning

As demonstrated in the literature review, advocates of service-learning frequently focus on the benefits that community service and service-learning can bring to the academy, to the nation, and to society. The following responses focus on these endorsements and on the support given by administrators for service-learning efforts.

Do faculty perceive service-learning as a means to institutional advancement? Although endorsements for service-learning may include greater credibility and/or prestige for the institution, respondents did not seem convinced that this was the case. Only 20.2% strongly or moderately agreed that the institution gains support from service-learning efforts (Q. 37-O). However, it should be remembered that a relationship did exist between faculty satisfaction and the perception that the institution benefitted from service-learning activities. Furthermore, if one believes that enhancing student satisfaction is beneficial to the institution or to higher education as a whole, it should be noted that 86.4% of respondents identified this as a strong or moderate influence in their decision to incorporate service in their course.

Do faculty who utilize service-learning derive support/encouragement from administrators? Because service-learning is often portrayed in the literature as an administrative initiative, faculty were asked to assess the level of support they received from three administrative levels: the department chair, the dean/provost, and the president. As indicated in Table 9, although most respondents strongly or moderately agreed that they had received support from the administration, this support declined as the rank of the administrator rose.

Table 9: Administrative Support for Service-Learning. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SA=Strongly Agree; MA=Moderately Agree; N=Neutral; SD=Strongly Disagree; NA=Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1=Strongly Agree; 5=Strongly Disagree.

Statement	SA	MA	N	MD	SD	NA	Mean
31. My department chair supports my efforts in service-learning. N = 128	56.3% (72)	21.1% (27)	10.9% (14)	5.5% (7)	3.1% (4)	3.1% (4)	1.88
32. My dean/provost supports my efforts in service-learning. N = 128	46.9% (60)	25.0% (32)	17.2% (22)	4.7% (6)	3.9% (5)	2.4% (3)	2.01
33. The President of the institution supports my efforts in service-learning. N = 127	41.7% (53)	24.4% (31)	22.8% (29)	6.3% (8)	0% (0)	4.7% (6)	2.13

Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify civic education and civic involvement as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 49, 50). Promoting good citizenship and civic leadership are goals often cited by advocates of service-learning. As shown in Table 10, the majority of respondents indicated that they were indeed influenced by such arguments.

Table 10: Influence factors related to civic values. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SI = Strongly Influenced; MI = Moderately Influenced; LI = Little Influence; NI = No Influence; NA = Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influence)

Statement	SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	Mean
49. Service-learning is a valuable tool for civic education. N=125	52.8% (66)	26.4% (33)	9.6% (12)	5.6% (7)	5.6% (7)	1.85
50. Service-learning promotes civic involvement. N=124	49.2% (61)	29.8% (37)	10.5% (13)	4.8% (6)	5.7% (7)	1.88

These factors were stronger motivators than prior involvement (Q. 41-44) and than departmental or teaching load requirements (Q. 63-64). However, as will be shown below, they were not as strong as pedagogical factors.

Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify social values such as developing moral character, fostering community, and enhancing multi-cultural understanding as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 51,53,55) Like the results for civic involvement, items related to societal issues were influential in a majority of responses, as shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Influence factors related to societal values. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SI = Strongly Influenced; MI = Moderately Influenced; LI = Little Influence; NI = No Influence; NA = Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influence).

Statement	SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	Mean
51. Service-learning develops the moral character of students. N=125	48.8% (61)	29.6% (37)	12.0% (15)	4.8% (6)	4.8% (6)	1.87
53. Service-learning fosters a sense of community. N=121	55.4% (67)	28.1% (34)	9.1% (11)	3.3% (4)	4.1% (5)	1.73
55. Service-learning promotes multi-cultural understanding. N=124	57.3% (71)	26.6% (33)	8.9% (11)	2.4% (3)	4.8% (6)	1.71

Although these concerns eclipsed those prior/current involvement in service and departmental requirements, they were not as strong as pedagogical components.

(2) The Learning Dimension and Faculty Involvement in Service-learning

Although the literature directly related to service-learning has a strong service orientation, it is conceivable that some faculty utilize service-learning as a teaching technique within a broader pedagogical framework such as experiential or holistic education. The following responses provide insights into the relationship between service-learning and teaching philosophies.

Do faculty who utilize service-learning express a strong commitment to the teaching function? (Q. 37-L) Faculty respondents indicated strong investment in their teaching responsibilities. Almost 83% ranked teaching as their most important professional responsibility. There was a significant relationship between the priority placed on teaching and the institutional type. On a Likert scale in

which 1 = Strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree, respondents from four-year public institutions provided a mean score of 1.94 on this question; those from four-year private institutions, a 1.40; and those from two-year public a 2.00. This indicates that among the survey respondents, faculty at four-year private institutions place the highest priority on teaching.

Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify pedagogical concerns as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 56-59, 61) Pedagogical concerns (conveying disciplinary content, teaching critical thinking, encouraging self-directed learning, enhancing the relevance of course material, and utilizing experiential education) were the most influential items of the 24 options presented to the faculty in this survey, as indicated in Table 12:

Table 12: Influence factors related to teaching. Frequency Distribution and Mean Score Response. (SI = Strongly Influenced; MI = Moderately Influenced; LI = Little Influence; NI = No Influence; NA = Not Applicable. Mean Score: 1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influence).

Statement	SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	Mean
56. Service-learning is an effective way to present disciplinary content material. N=125	58.4% (73)	28.0% (35)	9.6% (12)	2.4% (3)	1.6% (2)	1.61
57. Service-learning teaches critical thinking. N=125	55.2% (69)	26.4% (33)	12.8% (16)	3.2% (4)	2.4% (3)	1.71
58. Service-learning encourages self-directed learning. N = 125	60.8% (76)	30.4% (38)	5.6% (7)	0.8% (1)	2.4% (3)	1.54
59. Service-learning brings greater relevance to course material. N = 125	76.8% (96)	19.2% (24)	1.6% (2)	0.8% (1)	1.6% (2)	1.31
61. Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education. N = 126	66.7% (84)	23.8% (30)	4.8% (6)	3.2% (4)	1.6% (2)	1.49

Results of the Anova calculations on these items reveal the respondents' belief that: "Service-learning brings greater relevance to course material" (Q. 59) and "Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education," (Q. 61) were of significantly greater influence on the decision to adopt service-learning that any of the 22 other items on the survey.

Do faculty who utilise service-learning identify preparation for employment and values clarification as strong motivators for their efforts? Almost all respondents (93%) strongly or moderately agreed that students gained professional skills through their work in the service-learning course. Furthermore, items related to employment and the development of values were clearly of concern to many faculty:

t-test scores revealed that preparation for employment, developing a meaningful philosophy of life, promoting multicultural understanding, and providing pre-professional training (Q. 52, 54, 55, 60), were significantly higher motivators than prior/current involvement in service and altruistic motivations (Q. 40-46). Similarly, each of these items showed a significantly stronger influence than departmental or teaching load requirements (Q. 63-64). Only the items on enhancing course relevance and incorporating experiential learning techniques yielded stronger responses than these items on preparation for employment.

Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify pedagogical difficulties with regard to such efforts? Although the connection between teaching and service appears to be very strong, respondents report that such efforts are not without difficulties. Pedagogical difficulties rank high among the items which make service-learning more difficult than traditional teaching methods. Over 40 percent (41.0%) of respondents indicated that it was more difficulty to adjust for differing levels of student readiness in service-learning courses, while more than a third (34.2%) reported challenges in evaluating student work (Q. 70-H and 70-P).

Do faculty who utilize service-learning believe that it should be incorporated into the curriculum as a graduation requirement? A strong majority of faculty respondents (67.4%) strongly or moderately agreed that service-learning should be required for graduation. Respondents from four-year public

institutions were more likely to say that service should be required for graduation (mean score: 1.91) than theircolleagues at four-year private institutions (mean score: 2.12). Respondents from four-year institutions were more likely to support a service-learning graduation requirement than respondents from two year institutions (Mean score 2.12).

(3) Service-learning Within the Academic Culture

Austin and Gamson (1983) indicate that academic culture is related to the dual citizenship faculty members hold as members of an academic discipline and as members of their institution. The responses below first describe the relationship between faculty participation in service-learning and academic discipline, and then between faculty involvement and several aspects of the institutional setting.

What is the relationship between academic discipline and faculty participation in service-learning? As indicated in the Table 13, service-learning is occurring in a wide variety of academic disciplines (Q. 76).

Table 13: Academic Disciplines of Respondents N = 128

Department	n	%	Department	n	%
Agricultural Economics	1	0.08	Interior Design	1	0.78
American Studies	1	0.78	Management/ Marketing/ Computer Info.	1	0.78
American Literature	1	0.78	Mathematics	1	0.78
Anthropology	1	0.78	Music/Theater	2	1.56
Behavioral Science	1	0.78	Nursing	9	7.03
Biology	1	0.78	Natural Resources	1	0.78
Business/Management	4	3.13	Nutrition	1	0.78
Communication	4	3.13	Occupational Therapy	1	0.78
Computer Science	1	0.78	Physical Therapy	1	0.78
Counseling	4	3.13	Political Science	3	2.34
Criminal Justice	1	0.78	Psychology	11	8.59
Deaf Education/ Interpreter Training	1	0.78	Plant Physiology	1	0.78
Economics	1	0.78	Law	5	3.91
Ecology	1	0.78	Recreation	1	0.78
Education	26	20.31	Reading/ Language Arts	3	2.34
English	7	5.47	Religion	5	3.91
Exercise Science	2	1.56	Rhetoric	1	0.78
Fisheries Biology	1	0.78	Science	1	0.78
French African Literature	1	0.78	Social Work	3	2.34
Geology	1	0.78	Family/Child Ecology	1	0.78
Health	1	0.78	Social Science	3	2.34
History	2	1.56	Sociology	5	3.91
Home Economics	1	0.78	Spanish	2	1.56
Journalism	1	0.78	Student Development	1	0.78

Eighty percent of respondents strongly or moderately agreed that their work in service-learning contributes to their academic discipline/field (Q 37-D).

To determine if there was a relationship between the general type of discipline and continued use of service-learning, the discrete academic disciplines in Table 13 were collapsed into 6 major categories: Arts and Humanities; Business; Education; Hard Sciences; Health Professions; and Social Sciences. The chi-square analysis did not indicate any relationship between these disciplinary categories and the likelihood that respondents would continue or expand their use of service-learning.

However, a relationship did emerge in the comparison between these disciplinary categories and the rate of publication/performance connected to service-learning, as illustrated in Table 14.

Table 14: Academic Discipline x Publications/Performances/Exhibits. Raw scores; Row percents; Column Percents.

Disciplinary Type	Publications	No Publications	Work in Progress	Totals
Arts/Humanities n = Row Percent Column Percent	2 12.5% 5.0%	8 50.0% 11.8%	6 37.5% 42.9%	16 100% 13.1%
Business n = Row Percent Column Percent	1 14.3% 2.5%	6 85.7% 8.8%	0	7 100% 5.7%
Education n = Row Percent Column Percent	15 50.0% 37.5%	14 46.7% 20.6%	1 3.3% 7.1%	30 100% 24.6%
Hard Sciences n = Row Percent Column Percent	1 12.5% 2.5%	6 75.0% 8.8%	1 5.9% 7.1%	17 100.0% 13.9%
Health Professions n = Row Percent Column Percent	6 35.3% 15.0%	10 58.8% 14.7%	1 5.9% 7.1%	17 100 13.9%
Social Sciences n = Row Percent Column Percent	12 30.8% 30.0%	22 56.4% 32.4%	5 12.8% 35.7%	39 100.0% 4.1%
Total n = Row Percent Column Percent	40 32.8% 100%	68 55.7% 100%	14 11.5% 100%	122 100 100

As illustrated above, respondents in education, health-related careers, and the social sciences were more likely to produce publications or exhibits as a result of their work in service-learning than were respondents in the arts, business or the hard sciences.

There was evidence of a relationship between disciplinary type and the motivation for engaging in service-learning. Of the 24 items presented, six showed such a relationship, as seen in Table 15. The mean scores, indicating the strength of

the influence of each item (1 = strongly influenced: 4 = no influence), are presented according to the responses for each academic cluster.

Table 15: Academic Discipline x Motivation for Involvement. Mean Scores: 1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influence.

Item	A&H Mean	Business Mean	Education Mean	Hard Sci. Mean	Health Sci. Mean	Soc. Sci. Mean
High school involvement	2.1	3.3	2.9	4.0	2.8	3.1
Enjoy students in co-curricular settings	1.7	2.3	1.8	2.3	1.6	1.8
Effect social change	1.5	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.3	1.9
A way of helping people	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.4	2.0	1.6
Departmental requirements	3.3	2.7	2.8	3.9	1.6	3.4
Part of teaching load	2.8	3.4	3.0	3.1	2.5	3.6

These scores appear to reflect a stronger altruistic orientation among faculty in the Arts and Humanities and the Social Sciences. Compared to their colleagues in other disciplines, faculty in the health sciences indicate a stronger emphasis on departmental requirements and teaching loads. This, of course, may be traced to the strong clinical foundations of the health sciences.

What is the relationship between institutional culture and faculty participation in service-learning? In addition to their affiliation with an academic discipline, faculty are

also members of an academic institution. Two dimensions of institutional culture affecting service-learning were examined. The first is related to institutional type; the second to the institution's affiliation with the Michigan Campus Compact (MCC). These two dimensions are related to each other as illustrated in the table below:

Table 16: Institutional Type x MCC Affiliation.

	MCC	Non-MCC	Total
Public Four-year n = Row Percent Column Percent	27 46.6% 34.2%	31 53.5% 86.1%	58 100% 50.4%
Private Four-year n = Row Percent Column Percent	45 90.0% 57.0%	5 10.0% 13.9%	50 100% 43.5%
Two-year Public n = Row Percent Column Percent	7 100% 08.9%	0	7 100% 6.1%

As Table 16 shows, MCC-affiliated schools tend to be private four-year institutions while the non-MCC schools tend to be public, four-year institutions. This relationship should be kept in mind when reviewing the various comparisons between affiliation and involvement in service-learning discussed below.

Service-Learning and Institutional Type. With regard to institutional type, there was a significant relationship between institutional type and two of the demographic variables: academic degree and academic rank. Faculty at public four-year institutions were more likely to hold the Ph.D. while their colleagues at private institutions were more

likely to hold the Masters degree. Within academic rank, the four year institutions showed faculty across all academic levels, in tenure and non-tenured positions; the two-year institutions showed respondents primarily in staff, instructor, or assistant professor slots.

The intention to continue service-learning was also related to institutional type: 25.0% of the respondents at two-year public institutions reported that they were uncertain about or would not continue their efforts in service-learning. In contrast, only 7.0% of respondents at either four-year public or four-year private institutions reported the same reluctance. With regard to publications, exhibits or performances, it was not surprising to discover that respondents at four-year public institutions reported a higher rate of such productivity than their colleagues at four-year private or two-year public institutions.

The motivation of faculty who became involved in service-learning differed by institutional type on eight of the twenty-four items presented in the questionnaire, as illustrated in Table 17 below. (Once again, a score of 1 equals "strongly influenced" while a score of four equals "no influence".

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Table 17: Faculty Motivation x Institution Type. Mean Scores: 1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influence.

Statement/Item	4 yr. public	4 yr. private	2 yr. public	All
College involvement	3.0	2.4	2.9	2.7
Component of faith life	2.4	1.9	2.0	2.1
A way of helping others	1.9	1.6	2.0	1.8
Promotes multi-cultural awareness	1.8	1.5	2.1	1.7
Effective presentation of disciplinary content	1.4	1.7	2.1	1.6
Greater relevance to course material	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.3
Improves student satisfaction	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.6
Required for teaching load	3.0	3.2	4.5	3.2

Faculty perceptions regarding the priorities of the college or university also differed according to institutional type as evidenced in Table 18.

Table 18: Faculty Opinions and Institutional Type. Mean Scores: 1=Strongly Agree; 5=Strongly Disagree

Statement	4 year Public	4 year Private	2 year Public	Totals
This institution places a high priority on student involvement in service	2.8	1.8	3.4	2.4
This institution places a high priority on faculty research	1.5	2.7	4.8	2.3
This institution places a high priority on faculty/student involvement	2.5	1.5	3.4	2.1
Work in service-learning is valued by the institution	2.7	1.9	2.8	2.3
The institution gains support from service-learning efforts	1.8	1.6	2.9	1.8
Service-learning is considered positively in promotion/tenure decisions	3.8	3.1	4.3	3.5

Consistent with the literature regarding institutional dimension of academic culture, 4 year private institutions place a higher priority of student service and are more likely to consider faculty involvement in such activities in promotion and tenure decisions. In contrast, 4 year public institutions place a higher priority on research and accord such activities less weight in determining faculty advancement.

MCC Affiliation and Institutional Culture. Membership in the MCC is a Presidential decision and the Executive Committee of the MCC is comprised primarily of the presidents of the member campuses. Furthermore, membership dues are based on overall enrollment, with invoices sent to the attention of the president. This organizational structure would lead one to believe that member institutions have made a commitment, at least at the higher administrative levels, to incorporating service and academic study. If such a commitment has been made, one might expect that the institutional culture of such institutions is more hospitable to service initiatives.

As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, a total of 23 institutions provided names and addresses of faculty for the faculty survey. Of these institutions, 14 were members of the Michigan Campus Compact (MCC), which indicates some degree of institutional investment in service-learning. It has already been demonstrated that MCC affiliation at the time of this study was significantly weighted toward four-year private institutions. Of the 126 respondents who identified

their institution, 75 (59.52%) were from Compact member institutions.

Chi-square analyses revealed significant correlations, both positive and negative, between membership in Michigan Campus Compact on the following dimensions: the overall satisfaction with the course; institutional support for service-learning; recognition for service efforts; faculty opinions of service-learning; and the initial motivations of respondents for integrating service and study.

Interestingly, respondents from MCC institutions were **less** satisfied with their efforts at integrating service. Seventy percent of non-MCC respondents, but only 49% of MCC respondents, indicated that they were very satisfied with their service-learning course(s). Furthermore, the five respondents who were uncertain or dissatisfied were all from MCC member institutions.

Chi-square analysis did not reveal a significant relationship between MCC affiliation and the faculty members' intention to continue the use of service-learning. However, a significant relationship did exist between affiliation and the intention to expand the use of service-learning, as outlined in Table 19:

Table 19: MCC Affiliation x Intention to Expand Use of Service-Learning

Affiliation	Expand Use	Will Not Expand Use	Undecided
MCC Member	55.3% (42)	18.4% (14)	26.3% (20)
Non-MCC Member	37.9% (14)	35.1% (13)	27.0% (10)

These responses indicate that faculty at MCC institutions are more likely to expand the use of service learning than their counterparts at non-affiliated institutions.

Top-down support for service-learning appears to be higher at MCC institutions, as one might expect. MCC respondents were more likely to receive ready approval for their courses from curriculum committees and administrators (62.5%) than did their non-MCC counterparts (48.6%). In addition, as indicated in Table 20, MCC faculty received stronger support from their department chairs while non-MCC faculty reported stronger support from their faculty colleagues.

Table 20: MCC Affiliation and Support. Mean Scores: 1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influence.

Statement	MCC	Non-MCC	Total
My faculty colleagues support my efforts in service-learning	2.0	1.8	1.9
My department chair supports my efforts in service-learning	1.8	2.0	1.9

The chi-square analysis also revealed a relationship between MCC affiliation and the number of faculty reporting publications, exhibits, or performances related to their

service-learning work as illustrated in Table 21:

Table 21: MCC Affiliation x Publications, Exhibits, Performances (Q. 68)

Affiliation	Publications	No Publications	Work In Progress
MCC Member	26.9% (21)	61.5% (48)	11.5% (9)
Non-MCC Member	43.6% (6)	43.6% (17)	12.8% (5)

A higher percentage of non-MCC respondents reported that they had received released time to develop the course (51.43%) than did their MCC counterparts (37.5%). Non-MCC respondents reported a higher level of recognition than did their MCC counterparts, as evidenced Table 22:

Table 22: MCC Affiliation x Recognition
Cells contain counts/column percentages for checked responses
Each respondent could check more than one answer (i.e., each source of recognition is an independent variable)

Source of Recognition	MCC Member Institution N = 70	Non-MCC Institution N=37	Total N=107
Received no recognition	58.6% (41)	18.9% (7)	48
Recognized by students	28.6% (20)	51.4% (19)	39
Recognized by faculty colleagues	12.9% (9)	40.5% (15)	24
Recognized by state agencies	4.3% (3)	27.0% (10)	13
Recognized by administrators	12.9% (12)	27.0 (10)	19
Recognized by Community Service Agency	12.9% (9)	37.9% (14)	23

In Question 37, respondents were asked to provide their opinions on eighteen statements related to service-learning.

These items were rated on Likert scale, with 1 representing "strongly agree" and 5 representing "strongly disagree". Of the 18 items presented in Question 37, the mean scores of MCC and Non-MCC respondents showed significant differences on the following four statements:

Table 23: MCC Affiliation x Opinions About Service-Learning

Statement	Mean Score: MCC	Mean Score: Non-MCC	Mean Score: All
This institution places a high priority on student involvement in service.	2.3	2.7	2.4
This institution places a high priority on faculty research.	2.49	1.6	2.2
My faculty colleagues are interested in service-learning	2.5	2.2	2.4
Service-learning should be required for graduation	2.2	1.9	2.1

The responses presented Tables 19 - 23 suggest a pattern of contrasting cultures among the academic institutions which participated in the survey. At the time of this study, membership in the Michigan Campus Compact was dominated by four-year private colleges.[4]   In such settings, service-

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[4]The relationship between MCC affiliation and institutional type may be reflected in two ways. First, small private colleges (which are more likely to be members of MCC) are less likely to emphasize research and publication. Second, small private colleges are more likely to focus on the liberal arts while larger, public institutions are more likely to focus on applied subjects which may include a service-learning component which is more clinical in nature. One might further speculate that faculty who incorporate service as an experiential dimension of a clinical course may find that their work is more accepted, i.e., has greater academic legitimacy. Such acceptance would enhance faculty satisfaction

learning appears to be an administrative initiative which is gaining, but has not yet won, full faculty endorsement. [5]

Perhaps the most interesting of the comparisons which emerged from the Chi-square analysis with regard to MCC affiliation involved the differences which centered on initial motivation for becoming involved in service-learning. The mean scores (using a Likert scale with 1 indicating "strong influence") between respondents from MCC and Non-MCC institutions are presented below:

with their efforts.

[5]Support for this assertion is based on the fact that MCC faculty perceive a strong institutional priority for student service and also report that they received strong support from committees, academic administrators and department chairs. Non-MCC faculty perceive a lower level of institution commitment to student service but a higher degree of support and recognition from their students and faculty colleagues.

Table 24: MCC Affiliation and Faculty Initial Motivation. Mean Score:
1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influence

Motivation	Mean Score: MCC Respondents	Mean Score: Non-MCC Respondents	Mean Score: All Respondents
Current involvement in Community Service	2.0	2.4	2.1
Enjoy working with students in co-curricular settings	1.8	1.8	1.8
Service: an important component of faith life.	1.9	2.5	2.1
Service-learning: to affect social change	1.7	2.3	1.9
Service-learning: to help people in need	1.7	2.0	1.8
Service-learning: tool for civic education	1.6	2.3	1.8
Service-learning promotes civic involvement	1.6	2.4	1.9
Service-learning builds moral character	1.7	2.2	1.9
Service-learning prepares students for employment	1.8	1.5	1.7
Service-learning fosters community	1.6	2.1	1.7
Service-learning promotes multi-cultural understanding	1.6	2.1	1.8
Service-learning teaches critical thinking	1.8	1.5	1.7
Service-learning provides professional training	2.0	1.3	1.8
Service-learning: as experiential education	1.6	1.4	1.5
Service-learning is a departmental requirement	3.3	2.3	3.0
I was required to teach this as part of my teaching load	3.2	3.1	3.2

As Table 24 indicates, the faculty at MCC institutions tend to emphasize personal and altruistic motivations whereas the respondents from non-MCC institutions appear to be more strongly oriented toward the pedagogical aspects, particularly with regard to practical or experiential education.[6]

In addition to the relationship between affiliation and motivation and satisfaction, the chi-square analysis also revealed a significant relationship between affiliation and the two of the items identified as barriers to faculty involvement. Over 10% (11.5%) of the respondents from MCC institutions identified inadequate compensation as a barrier to service-learning involvement, compared to 2.6% of the non-MCC respondents. Some MCC affiliates (6.4%) also reported difficulty in gaining student support for their efforts whereas none of the non-MCC affiliates reported a similar concern.

The findings presented thus far have discussed the relationship between service-learning and the academic culture -- as expressed through the disciplines, through institutional type and through affiliation with the Michigan Campus Compact, a service-oriented coalition. We now turn to the second dimension of the conceptual framework outlined in Chapter Three, faculty role.

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[6] This result is consistent with the responses presented in Table 19 regarding disciplinary orientation. MCC institutions are more likely to be private, church-related institutions whose missions may encourage an orientation to altruistic service whereas non-MCC institutions may utilize service-learning in more clinical settings, therefore emphasizing its pedagogical dimensions.

(4) Service-learning Within the Faculty Role

The literature on faculty motivation indicates that faculty construct their professional roles within the context of the academic culture. The nature of the role is often determined by the perceived emphasis given to research or teaching, with service often relegated to a lower status in professional priorities. The following responses provide some insights into the way in which respondents perceive their faculty role.

Is service-learning perceived as a component of scholarly research? Although 80% of respondents believed that service-learning contributed to their academic discipline, respondents were more evenly divided about the outcomes of their service-learning endeavors as measured in traditional scholarly terms. While 62.5% strongly or moderately agreed that service-learning contributes to their scholarly research, only 45.7% reported that their work in service-learning had actually led to any publications, exhibits, or performances either completed or in progress.

The chi-square analysis revealed that responses to questions about faculty role were related to institutional type, as presented in Table 25 below:

Table 25: Institutional Type x Opinions about the Faculty Role (Mean Scores: 1 = strongly agree; 5 = strongly disagree)

Statement	4 year Public	4 year Private	2 year Public	Totals
Teaching is my most important professional responsibility	2.0	1.4	2.0	1.7
Service-learning contributes to my scholarly research	2.4	2.5	4.1	2.6

Do faculty who utilized service-learning believe that it is considered positively in promotion/tenure decisions? Interestingly, the plurality of faculty were neutral in their opinions about the role of service-learning. About one-third (33.1%) indicated that they felt service-learning would not be considered positively in tenure decisions. Only 20.2% strongly or moderately believed it would be an asset in the tenure promotion process.

What is the relationship between gender and involvement in service-learning? Educational research has shown that men and women approach their scholarly careers with different expectations and report differing experiences in fulfilling their responsibilities. The chi-square analysis did reveal a relationship between gender and faculty motivation on 10 of the 24 motivational items listed. Table 26 provides the mean scores of respondents for these items, according to gender; the lower the score, the stronger the influence.

Table 26: Gender and the Motivation for Involvement. Mean Scores: 1=Strongly Influenced; 4=No Influenced.

Statement	Mean: Men	Mean: Women	Overall Mean
In my youth service was an important aspect of my family life.	2.93	2.14	2.57
I was involved in service during high school.	3.19	2.35	2.81
I was involved in service during college.	2.94	2.34	2.67
Service-learning promotes multi-cultural understanding.	1.83	1.48	1.67
Service-learning is an effective way to present disciplinary content material.	1.74	1.46	1.61
Service-learning teaches critical thinking.	1.74	1.68	1.71
Service-learning encourages self-directed learning.	1.64	1.42	1.54
Service-learning provides pre-professional training.	1.86	1.57	1.73
Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education.	1.58	1.40	1.50
I was required to teach this course as a part of my teaching load.	3.47	2.88	3.20

In addition to the motivational items listed above, the chi-square analysis demonstrated a relationship between gender and publication: men are more likely to list a publication, exhibit, or performance as a result of their work as compared to women (40.3% men vs. 27.6% women). Women are more likely to have a work in progress (7.5% men vs. 17.2% women).

What is the relationship between academic rank and involvement in service-learning? The largest percentage of respondents (23.4%) were tenured, full professors. Nearly

three quarters (74.2%) of respondents were tenured or tenure-track. The chi-square analysis revealed that instructors and full professors felt the greatest amount of collegial support for their efforts. Only one clear relationship emerged with regard to age: Virtually all respondents under the age of 30 intend to continue to use service-learning while a slightly lower percentage (90.6% of those age 41-50; 91.5% of those 50+) report the intention to continue use.

Do faculty who utilized service-learning receive rewards or recognition for their efforts? Over 40% (44.8%) of respondents reported they had received no recognition for their efforts in service-learning. Of those who had received recognition, the majority (65.1%) identified students as the source. Recognition from faculty is ranked second (42.9%); from a community agency or group (38.1%) as third; from administrators (31.8%) as fourth; and from state, regional, or national organizations as fifth (22.2%).

The chi-square analysis revealed a relationship between gender and recognition only with regard to recognition from administrators. More than twice as many men indicated that they had received recognition from administrators (24.1% of the men) than did women (11.1% of the women).

Thus, in terms of faculty role, faculty who incorporated service and academic study were more committed to teaching than to research, regardless of their institutional affiliation. Although most reported that service-learning contributed to their academic disciplines and many (45%)

reported corresponding publications and performances, only 20% perceived that such efforts would be viewed favorably in promotion and tenure decisions. Those who had been recognized primarily cited support from students, colleagues and community agencies, with administrators ranking fourth among those who recognized such efforts.

The following section discusses the relationship between service-learning and the third dimension of the conceptual framework set forth in Chapter Three, the intrinsic motivation of faculty.

(5) The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning

As discussed in Chapter Three, research using Herzberg's theories suggests that faculty are intrinsically motivated. Researchers have identified three primary conditions which promote faculty satisfaction: a sense of responsibility, freedom, and control over their efforts; a sense that their work has meaning and purpose; and an awareness of and appreciation for the results of their efforts, including positive feedback gained through quality relationships with students and faculty colleagues. Survey items which provide insight into these dimensions of faculty satisfaction are presented in the following sections.

Responsibility, Freedom and Control

Were faculty who utilized service-learning required to do so? As indicated in Table 4, few faculty respondents were motivated to teach these courses because of external requirements. Anova tests revealed that these two items were the least significant factors in faculty decision making with regard to service-learning.

Were faculty who utilized service-learning free to develop the course(s) as they felt was appropriate? (Q. 28, 37-G, 70-B) Respondents indicated that they had freely chosen the service component: over 90 percent (90.4%) strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, "I was free to develop this course as I felt appropriate" (Q. 37G). A large percentage (90.2%: Q. 28) reported that course approval was readily given by the necessary curriculum committees and/or administrative authorities. Curricular policies were only perceived as a difficulty for 9.4% of respondents (Q70-B).

**The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning:
Meaningfulness and Purpose in the Work Experience.**

Do faculty who utilized service-learning gain a sense of purpose and achievement from their efforts? As we have seen, faculty who had chosen to integrate service and academic study reported a high degree of satisfaction with their efforts. Over 96% (96.1%) reported being very satisfied or satisfied with their efforts (Q. 21). Only one respondent who was dissatisfied provided a comment to the question, "Students have found the course is not able to count in many areas.

This needs to be worked on. It needs to be made part of a program versus an elective." Furthermore, the majority (91.4%) of respondents believed that the service undertaken did meet a community need. A slightly higher number (92.1%) felt that their goals for the course were achieved.

The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning: Results, Feedback, and Quality Relationships.

Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify student relationships as a strong motivator for their efforts? Consistent with the research on faculty which correlates motivation and student interaction, faculty in service-learning appear to have been influenced by their relationships with students. Eighty-three percent (83.1%) indicated that they were significantly or moderately influenced to use service-learning because they enjoy working with students in co-curricular settings (Q. 45). In Anova tests, this item was a significantly stronger motivator than prior or current involvement in service and than departmental or teaching load requirements. Student feedback, in the form of written evaluations or personal discussions, was the primary avenue by which instructors received feedback about the course. Since satisfaction with these courses, predicated on feedback, is reported as very high (96.1%), it can be assumed that feedback from students must be quite positive.

Faculty also relied on feedback from the community agency and the clients being served. It is interesting to note that feedback from the community service coordinator on the campus

received the lowest response rate, with only 3.8% utilizing written evaluations from these offices and only 7.8% using discussions with these offices to gain insight about their classes (Q. 20).

Do faculty who utilized service-learning receive rewards or recognition for their efforts?

As illustrated in the Table 22, many respondents reported they had received no recognition for their efforts. Of those who did report such recognition, the majority cite students as their main source of approbation.

What are the perceptions of faculty who utilized service-learning with regard to the support they received from faculty colleagues, students, and the community for their efforts?

As indicated in Table 27, faculty perceived student support for service-learning to be quite high, with 93.7% strongly or moderately agreeing that students support such efforts (Q. 34).

Table 27: Support for Service-Learning
SA = Strongly Agree; MA = Moderately Agree; N = Neutral; MD = Moderately Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree. Mean Score: 1 = Strongly Agree; 5 = Strongly Disagree.

Statement	SA	MA	N	MD	SD	NA	Mean
30. My faculty colleagues support my efforts in service-learning. N = 127	42.5% (54)	33.9% (43)	17.3% (22)	4.7% (6)	1.6% (2)	0	1.9
31. My department chair supports my efforts in service-learning. N = 128	56.3% (72)	21.1% (27)	10.9% (14)	5.5% (7)	3.1% (4)	3.1% (4)	1.9
32. My dean/provost supports my efforts in service-learning. N = 128	46.9% (60)	25.0% (32)	17.2% (22)	4.7% (6)	3.9% (5)	2.4% (3)	2.0
33. The President of the institution supports my efforts in service-learning. N = 127	41.7% (53)	24.4% (31)	22.8% (29)	6.3% (8)	0	4.7% 6	2.1
34. Students support my efforts in service-learning. N = 127	66.1% (84)	27.6% (35)	4.7% (6)	0.8% (1)	0	0.8% (1)	1.4
35. Community members support my efforts in service-learning. N = 125	64.0% (80)	23.2% (29)	9.6% (12)	0	0.8% (1)	2.4% (3)	1.6

An analysis of variance conducted on these various sources of recognition (Omnibus $F = 7.12$, DF=5, p=0) did reveal significant differences between the items. Subsequent t-tests indicated that support from students and the community was significantly stronger than support from faculty colleagues, the department chair, the dean/provost or the President.

In addition to overt support for service-learning, a majority of respondents (58.3%) indicated that faculty colleagues shared their interest in service-learning: 76% are aware of other faculty on campus who utilize service-learning.

(6) Barriers to Faculty Involvement:
Dissatisfiers in Service-Learning.

According to Herzberg, intrinsic and extrinsic factors operate on different planes with regard to worker motivation and satisfaction. Thus, faculty dissatisfaction may relate to extrinsic factors such as compensation and perks, but adjustments in these factors will not necessarily enhance satisfaction. Several survey items were designed to identify factors which might be sources of dissatisfaction for faculty who were involved in service.

Do faculty who utilized service-learning perceive that adequate compensation and support were given to such efforts? Survey results indicated that little actual monetary support was channeled to service-learning. Only 5.5% of respondents received additional compensation for teaching a course with a service component; 7.3% were allocated graduate assistant support; 9.7% were permitted released time to develop the course; and 11.2% were permitted released time to teach the course. (Q. 23, 24, 26,27). However, a large percentage of respondents (41.5%) indicated that the size of the course had been adjusted to account for the service component (Q. 25). Although not in overwhelming numbers, faculty did indicate that lack of financial support could make service-learning more difficult to implement than traditional teaching methods. Almost a quarter of respondents (24.8% identified inadequate funding to cover course costs as an issue (Q. 70E) and 10.3% indicated that inadequate compensation was a difficulty in

this method (Q. 70L).

The chi-square analysis revealed a relationship between gender and support on two items: women were more likely to identify inadequate funding for service learning (26.9% women vs. 17.5% men) and a lack of community support (6% women vs. 1.8% men) as barriers to service-learning.

Do faculty who utilized service-learning perceive administrative policies as a barrier to their efforts? Eleven percent (11.1%) of respondents identified administrative policies as a barrier to service-learning (Q. 70I); 10.3% indicated that a lack of support from superiors was a difficulty (Q. 70M). It is interesting to note that, of all the items presented for faculty opinion, the analysis of variance indicates that the item receiving the strongest <u>disagreement</u> was "Service-learning is considered positively in promotion/tenure decisions."

Do faculty who utilized service-learning identify issues of time and task as barriers to their efforts? An analysis of variance test (Omnibus F = 39.86, DF = 16, p=0) revealed five items as the most significant barriers to faculty participation in service-learning. Three of the five items were: the coordination of many people, the coordination of many tasks, and the increased time required. Seventy-one percent reported concern about the difficult of coordination many people (Q. 70C); 65.8% reported concerns about increased time demands; 47.0% reported concerns about the coordination of many tasks (Q.70J). It is not surprising that 91.5% of

respondents strongly or moderately agreed that service-learning requires more time and energy on the part of the faculty (Q.37I). These three concerns remained significant even when cross-referenced with the existence of a service-coordinator on campus. If a service-coordinator existed on the campus, it appears that the majority of faculty did not utilize that person to reduce their investment of time and energy with regard to the course.

Do faculty who utilized service-learning perceive pedagogical concerns to be barriers to service-learning?

Of the five factors identified above, the remaining two were pedagogical concerns: difficulty in adjusting to differing levels of student readiness, and difficulty in evaluating student work. Although neither item was perceived by the majority of respondents as a barrier, 41.0% indicated that adjusting to differing levels of student readiness made service-learning more difficult than traditional teaching methods; 34.2% found difficulty in evaluating student work. **Summary.** In this chapter, survey data were used to describe the personal and professional characteristics of respondents; their initial motivations for attempting service-learning; and their satisfactions and dissatisfactions with the service experience. The concept of motivation was used as a frame for organizing survey responses according to the specific research questions identified in Chapter 4. Chapter 6 will discuss these factors, examine the implications of these findings, and explore questions for further research.

Chapter 6

Discussion, Implications, and Issues for Future Study

Examining the motivation for service is not a new endeavor. Since ancient times, religious traditions have exhorted people not only to perform good deeds but to undertake such works for the _right_ reasons. Jane Addams (1910), a matriarch in the service movement, spoke earnestly of the intrinsic benefits available to service practitioners, "As more exposed to suffering and distress, thence also more alive to tenderness" (p.308). However, when service is combined with learning, as it is in _service-learning_, a struggle between priorities becomes almost immediately apparent. Should the emphasis be on _service_ or on _learning_?

In the prologue to his book, _The Call of Service_ (1993), Robert Coles uses the poignant words of a Pueblo boy to describe the tension between the idealism of service and the methodology of education. The young boy questions the motives of the VISTA volunteers who have come to work in his village school, relating, "'My dad said the VISTA people want to change the world, and the teachers just want to teach, so there's a difference.'" (p.xxv).

There is evidence of a similar "difference" in service-learning efforts on college campuses today. This dissertation

has attempted to define the critical elements of that
difference by comparing the rhetoric of service-learning with
the motivations and experiences of faculty members who have
actually incorporated service into their courses. This
chapter will synthesize the results of the study according to
the three primary research questions, discuss the related
implications, and identify questions for further research.

**1. What are the arguments and incentives
offered by the advocates of service-learning
in attempting to motivate faculty involvement
in service-learning?**

Despite the glowing praise service-learning often
receives in the popular press, the review of the literature
revealed that it has remained largely a co-curricular activity
within higher education, with the emphasis more on service
than on learning. Many students, administrators, and
politicians argue that service-learning deserves a place in
the formal curriculum because it can enhance the reputation of
academe, inculcate civic virtues, and foster cooperation in a
global village. As we conclude this study, let us compare
these arguments for service-learning with the survey results,
again using the concept of motivation as a guide.

As noted in Chapter Two (p.9), over 100 definitions of
service-learning can be found in the related literature today
(Giles, Honnet, and Migliore, 1991). Stanton (1987)
identifies the need for a clearer definition of service-
learning as fundamental to the growth of the service movement.
The definition of service-learning chosen for a course, for a

campus, or for a national effort will affect the goals of the program, the choice of activities, the selection of participants, and ultimately, the evaluation of the outcomes of the enterprise.

Although a clearer definition and common terminology could benefit the service-learning movement, the results of this study suggest that it is equally important to identify and account for the motivation of those involved. No matter how succinct a chosen definition might be, the motivations of those involved will provide the philosophical and programmatic interpretations which will set the course for service-learning.

Students, teachers, and administrators have been drawn to service-learning for various reasons; some parallel, some intersecting. The literature on volunteerism reveals that student volunteers often become involved in service-learning because of prior experience with youth service (Astin, 1989; MCC, 1990). They are often motivated by a sense of altruism, and a desire to improve society (Astin, 1989; Boyer, 1987; Edens, 1988; Fitch, 1987). For many, ego involvement, -- the desire to be included and to feel a part of some endeavor, -- offers a secondary motivation (Edens, 1988; Fitch, 1987; Independent Sector, 1990). The motivations of students focus on the _service_ dimension of service-learning.

Likewise, administrative efforts emphasize the service dimension. Administrators may advocate service-learning as a strategy for connecting the campus with local community, as

a means for engendering good will, and as a way of promoting civic values.

In contrast, the results of this study indicate that faculty perceive service as a by-product of student learning. Unlike the pattern found among student volunteers, prior and current involvement in service endeavors was not of primary influence for faculty participation. And, although many respondents believed their efforts enhanced the reputation of their institution and contributed to their communities, these achievements were of tertiary significance.

The Scripture tells us that "Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also" (Matthew, 6:21). Students, teachers, practitioners, politicians and philosophers seek different treasures from their involvement in service-learning. If we fail to make explicit the motivations, the treasures, which call us to service-learning we begin to speak past each other, fragmenting our efforts and fostering competition rather than collaboration.

To date, the service-learning literature has failed to give adequate attention to the learning dimension which is of greatest interest to participating faculty. This leads us to the second primary research question of this study.

> 2.   **What are the motivations, satisfactions, and dissatisfactions of the faculty who have utilized service-learning strategies in their courses?**

Stanton (1987) suggests that support for service-learning

can be drawn from two reform movements in higher education: one based on the desire to provide service and foster social responsibility; the second based on the desire to revitalize undergraduate education. From either perspective, service-learning is seen as means to an end. However, it is the motivation of the participants that determines which end is of greatest import: heightened service or heightened learning. The results of this study demonstrate that faculty emphasis is clearly on the latter.

Pedagogical goals (conveying disciplinary content, teaching critical thinking, encouraging self-directed learning, enhancing the relevance of course material, and utilizing experiential education) led the faculty in this study to incorporate service and academic study. In adopting service-learning, respondents were more attuned to the issues identified by educational reformers than to the issues presented by service advocates. The emphasis on pedagogy was expressed by the two items which clearly held primary significance above all others: "Service-learning brings greater relevance to course material" and "Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education." Of strong secondary importance were the factors related to student learning, factors which reinforce the faculty's commitment to the educational dimension of service-learning. These items included the preparation for employment, the development of values, and the encouragement of self-directed learning. Faculty who adopted service-learning were far more influenced

by issues of teaching and learning than they were by their own prior or current service involvements. And although civic education and social change had some influence, these factors did not have the same level of support as those involving teaching and learning.

By organizing the survey responses according to the three dimensions of Herzberg's work (culture, role, and satisfaction/dissatisfaction) identified in Chapter Three, we can gain greater insight into the satisfactions and dissatisfactions of the respondents.

Responses in the Context of Academic Culture. The review of the literature revealed that scholars interpret the academic world through their experience in a disciplinary culture and an institutional culture.

Disciplinary Culture. In this study, disciplinary cultures did not seem to affect the likelihood that respondents would continue and/or expand their use of service-learning. However, disciplinary orientation was related to the concept of motivation. Respondents in the Arts and Humanities and those in the Social Sciences seemed to hold stronger altruistic beliefs than their colleagues in other disciplines.

Respondents in education, health-related, and social science disciplines were more likely to have published or exhibited work stemming from their involvement in service-learning, a fact which is inconsistent with the typology of academic disciplines developed by Becher (1984, 1987)(see

Chapter Three, p. 77). According to Becher, education and the social sciences have a "contextual association" and, generally, a lower publication rate. Further research would be needed to explore this comparison more fully, but one could speculate that service-learning provides and entre into research settings for scholars in these disciplines.

Institutional Culture. In the context of institutional culture, respondents at four-year private and public colleges showed a greater likelihood to continue and/or expand their involvement in service-learning than did their colleagues at two-year public institutions. Consistent with the findings of Astin (1990), faculty at private four-year institutions reported that their institutions placed a high priority on student involvement in service. In this study, this perception may also be linked to the higher representation of private four-year schools in the Michigan Campus Compact, a consortium which requires an institutional commitment to service from the institution's president.

If we treat the affiliation with the Michigan Campus Compact (MCC) as a dimension of institutional culture, we see that responses from member schools differed significantly from responses of non-member schools on the following items: faculty motivation, faculty satisfaction, and institutional support.

Respondents at MCC institutions tended to emphasize personal and altruistic motivations whereas their colleagues at non-MCC institutions appeared more strongly drawn to the

practical or experiential aspects of service-learning. Although it cannot be proved by the statistical analysis for this study, one might speculate that the non-MCC institutions have a somewhat stronger clinical orientation in their service-learning efforts.

Because MCC requires a Presidential commitment to community service, one might expect that the institutional culture of member institutions would be more hospitable to service initiatives and thus increase faculty satisfaction with such efforts. However, MCC respondents appeared less satisfied with their efforts in service-learning than did their non-MCC counterparts. To add an additional complexity, MCC respondents were somewhat more likely to expand their use of service-learning. Thus, although only 49% of MCC respondents indicated that they were very satisfied with their efforts; 53% of MCC respondents indicated that they intend to expand the use of service. Several factors could explain these findings: perhaps faculty at MCC institutions have a stronger commitment to and therefore higher expectations of service-learning; perhaps faculty on MCC campuses were motivated by altruistic concerns (as shown above) and experience more difficulty and frustration in gauging the success of their efforts; perhaps service-learning is relatively new on MCC campuses (the Compact was formed in 1988) and therefore respondents are still experimenting with the method; perhaps faculty at MCC institutions are feeling some subtle institutional pressure to make such initiatives work.

Institutional support for service-learning also appears to differ between MCC and non-MCC institutions. Top-down support, in the form of course approval, appeared to be higher at MCC institutions but support from students and from faculty colleagues appeared higher at non-MCC institutions. Non-member schools also reported more "tangible" support in the form of release-time and recognition. Correspondingly, a higher percentage of respondents from MCC institutions reported inadequate compensation as a barrier to their service-learning efforts than did their colleagues at non-MCC institutions (11.5% versus 2.6%). Do these findings imply that rhetoric may be stronger than reality at Compact institutions? Further research would be required to plumb these responses more deeply.

Responses in the Context of Faculty Role. Faculty in this study, especially those at four-year private institutions, viewed teaching as their primary professional responsibility. While most (62.5%) believed that service-learning had contributed to their scholarly research, less than half (45.7%) indicated that their work in service-learning had led to any publications, exhibits or performances. Although the ability to publish appeared to enhance the satisfaction of respondents, the lack of publication did not seem to reduce faculty satisfaction.

Research regarding faculty role has frequently indicated the need to design reward structures on campus which will encourage desired faculty behaviors (Austin, 1992; Lynton and

Elman, 1987). With this concern in mind, it is interesting to note that over 40% of respondents indicated that they have received no recognition for their work in service-learning. Furthermore, students, colleagues, and community agencies are seen as the primary source of recognition for those who have received such accolades. This finding should be of particular interest to those who wish to encourage faculty participation in two ways. First, it would seem that there is room for more acknowledgement of faculty efforts. Second, it should be noted that faculty identify students and colleagues as sources of support and recognition, with a far lower emphasis on administrative awards.

Prior research has shown that the interpretation of the faculty role is also a function of personal characteristics such as age and gender (Boyer, 1990; Cross, 1990). In this study, the majority of the faculty were tenured or tenure-track with the largest percentage being tenured, full professors. This finding appears to be consistent with the research by Boyer (1990) which indicates that faculty tend to become more involved in service as they become more comfortable in the faculty role (see Chapter Three, p. 96). With regard to gender, female respondents were more likely than male respondents to have been influenced by prior involvement in service. Consistent with the work of Cross (1990) (see Chapter Three, p. 97), female respondents were more strongly influenced by the desire to promote multi-cultural understanding. Eble and McKeachie (1985) found that

male assistant professors were more commitment to research while women were more committed to teaching. In this study, men were more likely to have published in connection with their work on service-learning although women were more likely to have a work in progress.

Responses in the Context of Faculty Motivation. Research on faculty motivation has identified three major determinants of faculty motivation and satisfaction: (1) perceived responsibility for and control over their work, (2) perceived meaningfulness and purpose in their work, and (3) a strong knowledge of the results of their efforts. As described in the following paragraphs, these three conditions were also reflected in the responses of faculty in this study.

Responsibility, Autonomy and Control. Respondents consistently reported that they were not pressured to incorporate service because of institutional or departmental requirements. Furthermore, they were free to design and develop the course as they deemed appropriate.

Meaningfulness and purpose in the work. As indicated in the discussion of faculty role, for the respondents in this study, "work" equals teaching. Respondents were very satisfied with their efforts, believed that their goals for the course had been realized, and that the service undertaken had met a genuine community need.

A knowledge of the results of their efforts. Given that the respondents in this study see themselves primarily as teachers, it is not surprising that they were strongly

influenced by their relationships with students. A high percentage (83.1%) indicated that they enjoyed working with students in co-curricular settings. Student feedback, in the form of written evaluations or informal conversations, was responsible for the high rate of faculty satisfaction. Over 93% of the faculty reported that students supported their efforts.

Perceived support for service-learning declines as the administrative rank rises. Although over 93% of respondents report that students support their efforts, only 66.1% perceive such support from the President of the institution.

When considering the role of feedback in enhancing faculty involvement, it is interesting to note that only 11.6% of respondents sought the advice or evaluation of community service coordinators to gain insight about their classes.

Responses and Faculty Dissatisfaction. The research on faculty motivation suggests that the coordination of many tasks and/or many people can pose a significant impediment to faculty morale. The same observation holds true for this study. Of the five items identified as the most significant barriers to faculty involvement in service-learning, three were related to the coordination of many people, the coordination of many tasks, and the increased time required by such endeavors. These responses trigger a consideration of a larger question: what is the relationship between faculty engaged in service-learning and the service coordinators. As indicated in Chapter Four, this study was initially hindered

by the inability of service-coordinators to identify the faculty who were engaged in service-learning on their campuses. Survey responses reflect a corresponding lack of awareness or connection. Approximately one quarter (26.2%) of the faculty respondents reported that no service coordinator existed on their campus. However even among those who were aware of a service coordinator on their campus(74.8%), nearly half (47.9%) reported that they did not use the service-coordinator to design, implement, monitor or evaluate their course. Less than 12% of respondents indicated that they turned to service-coordinators for feedback. It would appear that faculty are reluctant to utilize service coordinators despite the fact that such staff members might be able to reduce the faculty's work load in administrative tasks.

The remaining two barriers identified by respondents were pedagogical in nature and replicate the difficulties identified in other forms of experiential education: difficulty in adjusting to differing levels of student readiness and difficulty in evaluating student work.

The results of this survey have enabled us to identify the factors which influenced faculty to incorporate service and academic study, the dimensions of academic culture and professional role which affect their involvement, and the conditions which relate to their satisfaction and dissatisfaction with such initiatives. The information presented above can now be applied to address the third research question of this dissertation:

3.   Are the arguments advanced in support of service-learning consistent with the motivational factors identified by faculty who are working to integrate service and academic study?

As has been shown through the preceding analysis, the responses of faculty members who participated in this study were much more consistent with the literature on faculty motivation than they were with the literature on service-learning. Although there was evidence of faculty concern for the well-being of their institutions, the nation, and our society, the faculty's primary reasons for investing in service-learning center on the intrinsic factors related to their core function: teaching and learning.

Implications

The implications of this study can be interpreted in the broad context of higher education and, of course, in the more specific area of service learning. The following pages discuss what I have learned from this study and what I believe can be useful to others.

First, in the broad context, I hope that the responses provided in this study will be taken be taken to heart by the administrators most frequently charged with implementing service-learning -- those in student affairs.

Professionally, I "grew up" in student affairs and, despite brief forays into other academic areas, it is there that my heart remains. I greatly admire those within the student affairs profession who have attempted to link the dynamic energy of our students with the critical needs in our

communities. However, I am extremely concerned about a
refrain that echoes all too frequently at student affairs
conferences and in the corresponding professional literature.
For an example let us return to Wieckowski (1992) (see Chapter
Two, p. 38 for initial citation):

> It seems likely the student development
> community understands the intrinsic value of
> service opportunities and their philosophical
> underpinnings...[However] attention needs to
> be directed to educating faculty about these
> contemporary concerns. As a group, faculty
> have been notoriously reluctant to adopt a
> more pragmatic or comprehensive philosophy
> toward their curricular and educational
> efforts. (p.208)

This quote appeared in the NASPA Journal, one of the
major journals for the profession, produced by the National
Association of Student Personnel Administrators. Its tone
probably resonated with many experienced practitioners and
served to bias new professionals as well. Those familiar with
student affairs will recognize the chorus: "If only we could
get faculty to..." The wish list varies: if only we could
get faculty to spend more time with students, to become more
involved in residence halls, to attend more student
activities, or to be more sensitive to student needs.

This study has focused on one slice of such rhetoric, the
arguments centered on encouraging the integration of service
and academic study. The results of the study provide us with
two important lessons:

1. Instead of lamenting the vast numbers of faculty members
who are not doing what administrators would have them do,

benefit might be derived from identifying the faculty who are involved and listening to their perspectives.

2.   When we speak of wanting faculty to _do_ something, we might recall that they _are doing_ something: they are teaching. And, as evidenced by faculty in this study, teaching is their number one priority.

        Second, it is my hope that the information provided in this dissertation will be useful to students and practitioners who wish to promote service-learning programs at the national, state, or campus level and to faculty who wish to share the possibilities of service-learning with their colleagues. What does this study tell us about the possibilities for integrating service in the formal curriculum? Above all, we have seen that the faculty who choose to utilize service-learning are intrinsically motivated and place their highest priorities on teaching and learning. Those who wish to encourage faculty involvement might find valuable allies in those who are working to improve teaching and undergraduate education. By offering service-learning as one useful method for expanding the relevance of course material and strengthening the bond between teachers and students, advocates would be more likely to pique the interest and foster the involvement of faculty. The connection between service-learning and pedagogy presents both a challenge and an opportunity. It is a challenge because, at least for now, funding for such initiatives is more closely linked to service than to learning. The link offers an opportunity because

faculty clearly value their relationships with students. Consequently, they may be willing to risk trying a new method like service-learning, despite its increased time commitment and inherent difficulties, to increase student satisfaction and learning.

In the context of academic culture, the study indicates that faculty satisfaction will increase with the opportunity to share one's work with supportive colleagues, on campus or through publications. Therefore, advocates might do well to spend time identifying the faculty who are utilizing service-learning, building a supportive network among those individuals, and providing outlets for the dissemination of their work. Responses to the survey suggest that "good-player" awards from administrators hold far less weight than the relationships with and the recognition gained from students, peers and community agencies. Therefore, advocates would do well to incorporate these elements into the collegiate reward structure.

Faculty in this study were very satisfied with their service-learning experience. They chose to incorporate a service component and there was little hint that any requirements had been imposed upon them. Advocates of service-learning will do well to bear this in mind in developing systems of evaluation. Because many service-learning initiatives are funded through grants, there is a growing call for accountability and measurable outcomes. Again, this poses both opportunities and challenges for

faculty involvement. Evidence of clear, demonstrable outcomes may lend needed credibility to experiential education and provide positive feedback which would encourage faculty involvement. However, if the emphasis becomes so heavily oriented to outcomes and results that faculty feel pressured to justify their efforts in statistical terms, their sense of autonomy -- and thereby their sense of satisfaction -- will be undermined.

Supporting faculty involvement in service-learning includes removing barriers to their efforts. In this regard, the gap between service coordinators and faculty is particularly troubling. While it is understandable that service coordinators could not know the contents of the syllabus for each course on campus (particularly at a large university), efforts to identify service initiatives could foster cooperation and enable coordinators to be of assistance to faculty who are willing to integrate service and study. Furthermore, the coordinator could be instrumental in building a network among faculty who utilize service-learning, thereby increasing campus-wide support for such endeavors.

Questions for Future Research

Summarizing the work of a Wingspread conference in March of 1991, Giles, Honnet, and Migliore have set forth the Research Agenda for Combining Service and Learning in the 1990s. In this piece the authors call for specific research to center around two central questions:

1)   What is the effect of service-learning on
     intellectual, moral, and citizenship
     development of participants?

2)   What is the effect of service-learning on
     the advancement of social institutions
     and democracy? (p.9)

Parks (1970) put the question more directly, "Meaning well is not enough. Let us talk about whether all this do-gooding is doing any good. Let us talk results, not intentions" (p.4). With regard to service-learning, the results are anecdotal and inconclusive.

There are those who believe (as did Tolstoy) that true moral or social reform is possible only through individual effort, not by social engineering or group efforts such as service-learning. The cynic of his day, Nathanial Hawthorne asserted that, "There is no instance in all of history of the human will and intellect having perfected any great moral reform by methods which it adapted to that end." Philosophical debates aside, current research in service-learning unfortunately fails to countermand Hawthorne's lament. Research on service-learning consistently echoes the findings of Conrad and Hedin (1991),

> In assessing the impact of service programs,
> researchers have mainly been concerned about
> the effect on the volunteer and have seldom
> taken into account what young people
> accomplish for others....While quantitative
> research yields reasonably consistent evidence
> on the positive impact of community
> service,...methodological problems stand in
> the way of establishing a clear causal
> connection. (pp.747-748)

How can we determine the effects of a program, especially

with regard to its "success" or "failure" if the initial goals and motivations have not been identified at the outset? Therefore, in assessing the effects of service-learning researchers must continue to be mindful of the link between motivations and outcomes, and be open to the possibility that effects can be deleterious as well as beneficial. When we investigate the motivations of all those connected in service-learning, -- students, teachers, administrators, community agencies, recipients, -- we begin to probe the truly difficult problems for further research. For example, current research indicates that student volunteers are generally altruistically motivated. However, if service becomes simply another course requirement, the motivation of teachers and learners may be significantly altered. According to Rutter and Newman (1989), "the performance of a socially desired service in a technically proficient way will not necessarily result in greater social responsibility, commitment or political action" (p.373). Dodge (1990) reports that such dilemmas are already at hand: "Although they applaud community service by students, some college administrators worry that institutions may be sending unmotivated students out to help others. That may do more harm than good, they say" (A30).

There is room for further consideration of the motivations of academic leaders as well. While many are, no doubt, altruistically inclined, consider Briscoe's (1988) description of the incentive for education's involvement in the PennSERVE project launched by Governor Robert Casey in the

fall of 1988:

> In Pennsylvania less than 20% of the taxpayers
> have children in the public schools. Unless
> schools make themselves of service to their
> communities in non-traditional ways, they are
> unlikely to command the support they need.
> Community service can help us move from
> begging to bargaining. (p.760)

Communities and community agencies are not oblivious to such schemes and, as documented by Harkavey and Puckett (1991), residents can be quite suspicious about the intervention of students and scholars who have no vested interest in the neighborhood but who are all too willing to impose their own vision of "improvement" upon others. Even with the most noble intentions, the short-term nature of academic assignments poses a barrier to effective service. The motivation of volunteers to "make a difference" in one term, one year, or even four years may differ dramatically from the motivation of a community leader who has come to appreciate the deep entrenchment of social problems and who is committed to long-term solutions.

The ethical dimensions of service-learning may be even more difficult to study than the search for measurable outcomes because they force us to examine the interaction between participants in a service venture. It would be useful and illuminating to adopt a systems approach, perhaps utilizing case studies, to analyze a service-learning program from a variety of perspectives. What were the initial motivations of the students, the teacher, the service

coordinator, the community leader, the recipients? What were their expectations, experiences, frustrations, satisfactions, and evaluations? Only by looking at service-learning in its totality will we gain full insight into the potential of this valuable movement in higher education and come to appreciate the admonition provided by Neusner (1988), "It is not enough simply to give: Giving must be thoughtful; it must be marked by reflection, respect for the other party, and hence humility on the part of the donor" (pp.17-18).

In conclusion, we can thus appreciate that worthwhile service requires both thought and action. Integrating service and academic study in the formal curriculum would foster the thoughtful application of well-intentioned activities to real social problems. Recognizing the legitimate interests of faculty in this educational enterprise can promote a more balanced approach to service-learning in higher education.

APPENDIX A

**Michigan Institutions Initially Invited to
Participate in the Survey**

Source: 1993 HEP Higher Education Directory

 1. Adrian College
 2. Albion College
 3. Alma College
 4. Alpena Community College
 5. Andrews University
 6. Aquinas College
 7. Baker College System
 8. Bay De Noc Community College
 9. Bay Mills Community College
10. Calvin College
11. Calvin Theological Seminary
12. Center for Creative Studies -
     College of Art and Design
13. Central Michigan University
14. Charles S. Mott Community College
15. Cleary College
16. Concordia College
17. Cranbrook Academy of Art
18. Davenport College of Business
19. Delta College
20. Detroit College of Business
21. Detroit College of Law
22. Eastern Michigan University
23. Ferris State University
24. G.M.I. Engineering and Management Institute
25. Glen Oaks Community College
26. Gogebic Community College
27. Grand Rapids Baptist College and Seminary
28. Grand Rapids Community College
29. Grand Valley State University
30. Great Lakes Christian College
31. Great Lakes Junior College of Business
32. Henry Ford Community College
33. Highland Park Community College
34. Hillsdale College
35. Hope College
36. Jackson Community College
37. Jordan College
38. Kalamazoo College
39. Kalamazoo Valley Community College
40. Kellogg Community College
41. Kendall College of Art and Design
42. Kirtland Community College
43. Lake Michigan College

**Michigan Institutions Initially Invited to
Participate in the Survey (Continued)**

44. Lake Superior State University
45. Lansing Community College
46. Lawrence Technological University
47. Lewis College of Business
48. Macomb Community College
49. Madonna University
50. Marygrove College
51. Michigan Christian College
52. Michigan State University
53. Michigan Technological University
54. Mid Michigan Community College
55. Monroe County Community College
56. Montcalm Community College
57. Muskegon Community College
58. North Central Michigan College
59. Northern Michigan University
60. Northwestern Michigan College
61. Northwood Institute
62. Oakland Community College
63. Oakland University
64. Olivet College
65. Reformed Bible College
66. Sacred Heart Major Seminary/College and Theologate
67. Saginaw Valley State University
68. St. Clair County Community College
69. Saint Mary's College
70. Schoolcraft College
71. Siena Heights College
72. Southwestern Michigan College
73. Spring Arbor College
74. Suomi College
75. Thomas M. Cooley Law School
76. University of Detroit Mercy
77. University of Michigan - Ann Arbor
78. University of Michigan - Dearborn
79. University of Michigan - Flint
80. Walsh College of Accountancy and Business Administration
81. Washtenaw Community College
82. Wayne County Community College
83. Wayne State University
84. West Shore Community College
85. Western Michigan University
86. Western Theological Seminary
87. William Tyndale College
88. Yeshiva Beth Yehuda- Yeshiva Gedolah of Greater Detroit

COMPACT

January 26, 1993

Dear

Greetings from Michigan Campus Compact! This letter comes with two purposes:

First, it gives me great pleasure to announce the creation of the Michigan Resource Services Center(MRSC) which will be housed at Michigan Campus Compact. As you may recall, funding for the MRSC was obtained through the Michigan Commission on Community Service as a part of the National Community Services Act Allocation.

Ms. Chris Hammond, an MSU doctoral student in higher education, will be collecting and organizing resource materials for the Center. Chris will provide an update on the Center's progress at the Service Coordinator's meeting on Friday, February 12th at Grand Valley State University. I know she welcomes your suggestions and looks forward to working with you.

Collecting information for the Resource Center dovetails with a primary research goal of the Compact in 1993: the development of a resource/support network of faculty who currently incorporate service-learning in their academic courses.

January 26, 1993   Page 2

This brings me to **my second purpose.** Your assistance in identifying involved faculty is a critical first step in this effort. Could you please complete the attached sheet, providing faculty names and the titles of courses on your campus which include a service-learning component? Please use the enclosed envelope to return your survey or bring it to the Service Coordinator's meeting on **February 12th.**

The information you provide will be used by the Michigan Campus Compact Curriculum Development Committee as the basis for a study of service-learning initiatives in Michigan higher education. Such a study is called for in the provisions of the second phase of the Compact's grant from the Kellogg Foundation. Faculty members will be invited to participate in the study which will focus on instructional design and methodology. Campus service coordinators will receive copies of the survey instrument, responses for your campus, and the overall results of the study. The collection of this data will be an important step toward faculty collaboration in the service-learning movement.

Your suggestions for the Resource Center and your assistance with the attached survey are greatly appreciated. I realize that we have made several requests for time, attention and information in recent months as new initiatives have begun, but I hope you trust, as I do, that the resulting information will benefit all of us, our institutions, and most importantly, our students.

I look forward to seeing you on February 12th!

Sincerely,

Julie Busch
Executive Director

cc: President
                                       MCC Faculty Representative

JB/ch
Encl.

The
Michigan
C A M P U S
COMPACT

January 26, 1993

Dear Dr.

I am pleased to provide the enclosed copies which serve to alert you to the inauguration of two new Compact initiatives.

The creation of the Michigan Resource Services Center is a product of our collaborative effort with the Michigan Community Service Commission and is funded through the National Community Service Act. The research project of the Curriculum Development Committee will provide valuable information on the status of service-learning in Michigan higher education and will also contribute to the fulfillment of the goals outlined for the W. K. Kellogg Foundation in our Phase II funding proposal.

I hope, and trust, that you share my enthusiasm for these endeavors. Because we do not yet have the name of your community service designee, could I ask you to please forward these materials to the appropriate staff member for response? As always, the staff would welcome and appreciate your comments and suggestions. I look forward to seeing you in the near future!

Sincerely,

Julie Busch

Julie Busch
Executive Director

JB/ch
Encl.

Michigan
C A M P U S
COMPACT

31 KELLOGG CENTER
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48824
(517) 353-9393

Community-Service Coordinator Survey

Integrating Service and Academic Study:
Service-Learning Courses in Michigan Higher Education

Introduction

Please use the space provided inside to list academic courses which include a service-learning component and the names of corresponding faculty. For the purpose of this study, an academic course is defined as an approved course offered for undergraduate or graduate credit between January, 1992 and January, 1993. (Please feel free to include other courses outside of this time frame if you believe them worthy of inclusion in this study.) The study adopts the NSEE definition for service-learning:

"Service-learning represents a particular form of experiential education, one that emphasizes for students the accomplishment of tasks which meet human needs in combination with conscious educational growth."

Please return your completed survey by Friday, February 12, 1993 to:

Michigan Campus Compact
31 Kellogg Center
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824

College or University Name:

_____

This survey completed by: _____

Please list all service-learning courses available at your institution from January, 1992 to January, 1993. Use additional sheets if necessary.

Service Coordinator Survey

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____   Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____   Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____   Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____   Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____   Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____ Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____ Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____ Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____ Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____
Course Number: _____ Academic Department _____
Faculty Name(s) _____
Faculty Office Address: _____
Faculty Office Telephone Number:_____
Term Offered (Please circle)
Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Service-Coordinator Survey - Continued

Course Name: _____

Course Number: _____ Academic Department _____

Faculty Name(s) _____

Faculty Office Address: _____

Faculty Office Telephone Number: _____

Term Offered (Please circle)

Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Course Name: _____

Course Number: _____ Academic Department _____

Faculty Name(s) _____

Faculty Office Address: _____

Faculty Office Telephone Number: _____

Term Offered (Please circle)

Winter '92   Spring '92   Summer '92   Fall '92

Please indicate your confidence level with this information:

O   I am certain that this is a complete list of service-learning
        courses at our institution.
O   I am fairly certain that this list represents most service-
        learning programs at our institution.
O   This list contains partial information based on our awareness
        of course offerings.
O   Other. Please explain _____

_____

Other comments or suggestions for this research project:

_____

_____

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated. Please return your surveys to: Michigan Campus Compact, 31 Kellogg Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824 by February 12, 1993.

Thank you!

List of Participating Institutions, Institutional Type and
Affiliation with Michigan Campus Compact

Institution	Type	MCC/Non-MCC
Adrian	Private	MCC
Alma	Private	MCC
Andrews	Private	MCC
Aquinas	Private	MCC
Calvin	Private	MCC
Hope	Private	MCC
Madonna	Private	Non-MCC
Northwestern MI	Private	Non-MCC
Eastern MI	Public	Non-MCC
Grand Valley	Public	MCC
Northern MI	Public	MCC
Oakland	Public	Non-MCC
Western MI	Public	MCC
U of M/Flint	Public	Non-MCC
MSU	Research	MCC
U of M/Ann Arbor	Research	MCC
Wayne State	Research	MCC
Lansing C. C.	Community C.	MCC
Muskegon C.C.	Community C.	Non-MCC
Oakland C.C.	Community C.	MCC
Detroit College of Law	Legal Education	Non-MCC
Thomas M. Cooley Law School	Legal Education	Non-MCC
Calvin Theological Seminary	Seminary	Non-MCC

Michigan Campus Compact Survey: Integrating Service and Academic Study
April, 1993

Introduction

This survey is being conducted by the Curriculum Committee of the Michigan Campus Compact to obtain information about courses in Michigan higher education which include a service-learning component. Your responses will contribute to the research and resource base of the Compact and the Michigan Community Services Resource Center.

Three general research questions have guided the development of this survey:

1. What are the characteristics of courses which incorporate service-learning?
2. What institutional support is provided and/or required for the development and implementation of such courses?
3. What are the characteristics and the perceptions of faculty who teach such courses?

For the purpose of this study, an academic course is defined as an approved course offered for undergraduate or graduate credit between January, 1992 and January 1993. The study adopts the National Society of Experiential Education (NSEE) definition for service-learning:

> "Service-learning represents a particular form of experiential education, one that emphasizes for students the accomplishment of tasks which meet human needs in combination with conscious educational growth."

Because we recognize the many demands on your time and value your participation, the survey has been designed to allow **completion in less than 20 minutes.** However, we would greatly appreciate your written comments, advice you might offer to other faculty or to the Compact staff, and copies of your course materials.

Survey responses will be treated confidentially. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this study by completing and returning this questionnaire. Please use the enclosed envelope to return the survey by **Friday, May 7, 1993.** Thank you for your time and cooperation!

Chris Hammond   Julie Busch
Project Coordinator   Executive Director
Michigan Resource Service Center Michigan Campus Compact

Section 1: Characteristics of Service-Learning Courses

This section seeks to gather basic information about design of service-learning courses and their role in the curriculum. Please check the appropriate response.

1. Type of Institution: O   Four-year public   O   Two-year public
                          O   Four -year private   O   Two-year private

2. Name of Institution (Optional): _____

3. Course Title (Optional): _____

4. Academic Department in which this course was taught:_____

5. Was this course offered for academic credit?   O Yes   O No

6. Number of terms you have taught this course with a service-learning component:

   O 1   O 2   O 3   O 4+

7. Did you team teach this course with another instructor?

   O Never   O Sometimes   O Usually   O Always

8. What has been the average class size when you have taught this course with a service-learning component?
   O 1 - 10   O 11 - 20   O 21-30   O 31 - 40   O 41+

9. Approximate percentage of students by gender? ___% male   ___% female

10. How does this course fit into the curriculum? (Please check all that apply)

O   Undergraduate - lower division   O   Required for a major
O   Undergraduate - upper division   O - Elective for a major
O   Graduate   O   Required: General Education, Core or Distribution Sequence
                                          O   Elective: General Education, Core or Distribution Sequence

11. For this course, participation in service was:
    O   Required   O   Recommended   O   Suggested
    O   Offered as one assignment option   Other - Please explain:

12. Students in this course primarily fulfilled the service component by working:

    O   Individually   O   In larger groups (6+)
    O   In pairs   O   As a class activity
    O   In small groups (3 - 5)   O   Other. Please explain:

13. Many campuses have designated a faculty or staff member to coordinate community service or volunteer activities. To what extent was such a person/office used in the development/implementation of this course? (Please check all that apply)

O   No service coordinator/office exists on this campus
O   The service coordinator/office was not used for this course
O   Assisted in identifying service activities and/or service agencies
O   Assisted in arrangements of service activities and/or with service agenicies
O   Oriented (or assisted in orienting) students to service experience
O   Conducted (or assisted in conducting) experiences which helped students learn from the service experience
O   Supervised (or assisted in supervising)student participation
O   Evaluated (or assisted in supervising) student performance
O   Other. Please explain :

14. How were community service activities arranged for students? (Please check all that apply)

O   Students selected an interest area and made arrangements directly
O   Students selected an interest area. Arrangements made by ar ̄ , ̄ ̄ ̄ ̄ ̄ assistance of the campus community service coordinator.
O   Arrangements/placement was made with the help of a student-run volunteer program/network.
O   Students selected an interest area and arrangements were made by and/or with the assistance of the instructor.
O   Students were assigned to activities by staff or the campus community service coordinator/office.
O   Students were assigned to activities by the instructor.
O   Other. Please explain:

15. Which of the following best describes the setting in which service activities which occurred?

O   On-site at a community based agency or organization
O   On campus
O   At various locations in the community and/or on the campus
O   Other. Please explain:

16. Did students receive any paid compensation for the service?
    O No   O Some students did   O Most students did   O All students did
    O Other. Please explain: .

17. How were students oriented to/trained for their service responsibilities? (Please check all that apply)

O Written materials   O Video
O Instructor's class presentations   O Working with a current volunteer
O Presentations by community agency/service-provider   O No formal orientation provided.
O Other. Please explain :

18. How were students monitored or supervised as they performed their service responsibilities?
    (Please check all that apply):

O By instructor through direct observation   O By instructor through reports, logs, journals, etc.
O By campus community services coordinator   O By staff and/or the community agency coordinator
O By other volunteers   O Other. Please explain:

19. Which of the following strategies were used to help students reflect/synthesize their service experience?
    (Please check all that apply):

O Course readings   O Class discussions   O Small group discussions
O Journals or activity logs   O Written assignments   O Videos/movies with discussion
O Meetings with the instructor
O Meetings with community agency and/or the campus community service coordinator
O Other. Please explain:

20. How did you receive feedback about the course? (Please check all that apply):

O Written evaluations by students   O Written evaluations by community agency representative(s)
O Interviews/discussions with students   O Interviews/discussions with community agency reps.
O Written evaluation from campus service coordinator
O Interviews/discussions with campus service coordinator
O Informal conversations and contacts   O Other. Please explain:

21. Based on these evaluations, how satisfied are you with the over-all effectiveness of this course?

    O Very Satisfied   O Satisfied   O Uncertain   O Dissatisfied   O Very Dissatisfied
    Additional Comments:

22. Please use the space below to elaborate on any aspects of course design and/or implementation not covered by the questions in this section (Additional space is also available on the last page of the survey)

Section 2: Support for Service-Learning

The next section is designed to ascertain what kind(s) of support you have received regarding the integration of service and academic study.

Institutional/Administrative Support

23. Did you receive release time to develop this course?   O Yes   O No

24. Did you receive release time to teach this course with a service component?   O Yes   O No

25. Was the size of the class adjusted to facilitate service-learning?   O Yes   O No

26. Did you receive additional compensation for teaching a course with service-learning?   O Yes   O No

27. Were graduate assistant(s) assigned to assist with this course?   O Yes   O No

28. Was approval for this course readily give by the necessary curriculum committees
    and/or administrative authorities?   O Yes   O No
    If no, please explain:

29. Did you receive technical or financial assistance from Michigan Campus Compact in the development and/or
    implementation of this course? (Please check all that apply)

    O No O Yes
           O   Technical (Consultation, resource materials, conferences, etc.)
           O   Financial (Venture Grants, Generation Grants, etc.)

Personal Support

Please consider the personal support you feel you have received regarding your work in service-learning. (Examples of such support may include casual conversations, recognition, consultation, a willingness by others to assist with the course, etc.) Using the scale below, please check the response which best represents your feeling:

SA   Strongly Agree
MA   Moderately Agree
N   Neutral/Uncertain
MD   Moderately Disagree
SD   Strongly Disagree
NA   Not Applicable

		SA	MA	N	MD	SD	NA
30.	My faculty colleagues support my efforts in service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O
31.	My department chair supports my efforts in service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O
32.	My dean/provost supports my efforts in service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O
33.	The President of the institution supports my efforts in service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O
34.	Students support my efforts in service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O
35.	Community members support my efforts in service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O

36. You may have received awards or recognition as a result of your work in service-learning. If so, please
    indicate the source of this recognition:

    O I do not feel I have received such recognition
    O Recognized by students   O   Recognized by administrators
    O Recognized by faculty   O   Recognized by community agency/group
    O Recognized by state, regional or national organization
    O Other. Please explain:

37. Your opinions on the factors below would be useful in trying to understand some of the surrounding dynamics of integrating service and academic study. These items have been selected from other studies on related topics. Using the scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

SA   Strongly Agree
MA   Moderately Agree
N   Neutral
MD   Moderately Disagree
SD   Strongly Disagree
NA   Not Applicable

	SA	MA	N	MD	SD	NA
A. This institution places a high priority on student involvement in service	O	O	O	O	O	O
B. This institution places a high priority on faculty research	O	O	O	O	O	O
C. This institution places a high priority on faculty/student involvement	O	O	O	O	O	O
D. My work in service-learning contributes to my academic discipline/field	O	O	O	O	O	O
E. Work in service-learning is valued by the institution	O	O	O	O	O	O
F. I am aware of other faculty on campus who utilize service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O
G. I was free to develop this course as I felt appropriate	O	O	O	O	O	O
H. I was able to establish a good working relationship w/the community agency	O	O	O	O	O	O
I. Service-learning requires more time/effort by faculty	O	O	O	O	O	O
J. My faculty colleagues are interested in service-learning	O	O	O	O	O	O
K. Service-learning contributes to my scholarly research	O	O	O	O	O	O
L. Teaching is my most important professional responsibility	O	O	O	O	O	O
M. The activities of this course met (or partially met) a community need	O	O	O	O	O	O
N. Students gained professional skills through their work in this course	O	O	O	O	O	O
O. The institution gains support from service-learning efforts	O	O	O	O	O	O
P. My goals for this course were achieved	O	O	O	O	O	O
Q. Service-Learning is considered positively in promotion/tenure decisions	O	O	O	O	O	O
R. Service-Learning should be required for graduation	O	O	O	O	O	O

Other Comments:

38. Which of the following resources, if any, did you use in designing and/or teaching this course:

   O   The Wingspread Principles of Good Practice
   O   Resources from the National Society for Experiential Education
   O   Growing Hope, (National Youth Leadership Council)
   O   Resources from the Campus Partners in Learning
   O   Resources from the National Campus Compact
   O   Resources from the Michigan Campus Compact
   O   Resources from Holistic Education
   O   None of the Above
   O   Other. Please list:

39. I would be interested in receiving information and/or attending workshops on the following:

   O   Strategies for identifying local service sites
   O   Orienting volunteers to their responsibilities
   O   Monitoring volunteer activities
   O   Evaluating volunteer activities
   O   Designing effective pedagogical components for volunteer activities
   O   Other. Please explain:

Section 3:   Developing a Faculty Profile

This section is designed to gather information about faculty who teach courses with a service-learning component. Questions 41 through 66 ask you to assess the **influence/motivation** of each factor on your decision to incorporate service in your course. Question #66 asks you to identify the top three factors which influenced/motivated you. (Please note: although you may agree or disagree with various statements, we would like to know if these factors influenced/motivated your decision to incorporate service and study.)

Utilizing the scale below, please indicate **the factors that motivated/influenced you to incorporate service-learning** in your course(s).

SI   Strongly influenced my decision
MI   Moderate influence in my decision
LI   Little influence in my decision
NI   No influence
NA   Not applicable to my experience

Personal Experience/Involvement

		SI	MI	LI	NI	NA	
40.	I am currently involve in community organization(s) and/or in community service	O	O	O	O	O	
41.	In my youth, service was an important aspect of my family life	O	O	O	O	O	
42.	Today, service is an important aspect of my family life		O	O	O	O	O
43.	I was involved in service during high school	O	O	O	O	O	
44.	I was involved in service during college	O	O	O	O	O	
45.	I enjoy working with students in co-curricular settings	O	O	O	O	O	
46.	Service is an important component of my personal faith life	O	O	O	O	O	
47.	Service-learning enables me to affect social change	O	O	O	O	O	
48.	Service-learning is a way of helping people in need	O	O	O	O	O	

Service-Learning Outcomes

Advocates of service-learning believe that such involvement is beneficial to students, colleges and universities, and the nation. To what extent did the following factors **influence/motivate** your decision to incorporate service-learning into your course(s)?

		SI	MI	LI	NI	NA
49.	Service-learning is a valuable tool for civic education	O	O	O	O	O
50.	Service-learning promotes civic involvement	O	O	O	O	O
51.	Service-learning develops the moral character of students	O	O	O	O	O
52.	Service-learning prepares students for employment	O	O	O	O	O
53.	Service-learning fosters a sense of community	O	O	O	O	O
54.	Service-learning helps students develop a meaningful philosophy of life	O	O	O	O	O
55.	Service-learning promotes multi-cultural understanding	O	O	O	O	O

Service-Learning as a Teaching Strategy
(Again, to what degree did these factors influence/motivate you?)

		SI	MI	LI	NI	NA
56.	Service-learning is an effective way to present disciplinary content material?	O	O	O	O	O
57.	Service-learning teaches critical thinking	O	O	O	O	O
58.	Service-learning encourages self-directed learning	O	O	O	O	O
59.	Service-learning brings greater relevance to course material	O	O	O	O	O
60.	Service-learning provides professional (or pre-professional) training	O	O	O	O	O
61.	Service-learning is an effective form of experiential education	O	O	O	O	O
62.	Service-learning improves student satisfaction with education	O	O	O	O	O
63.	Service-learning is a departmental requirement for this course	O	O	O	O	O
64.	I was required to teach this course as a part of my teaching load	O	O	O	O	O

65.   What other factors influenced your decision to incorporate service and study?

66.   Of the items in Questions 32 - 54, please circle the **three** factors which most **strongly influenced your decision** to incorporate service into the course.

67. Do you plan to continue to use service-learning in this course?　O　Yes　O　No　O　Undecided

68. Do you plan to incorporate service into other courses?　O　Yes　O　No　O　Undecided

69. Has your work in service-learning led to any publications, exhibits, performances (for you solely or in collaboration with colleagues and/or students)?　O　Yes　O　No　O　In Process
(Contributions of such items for the Resourse Center would be welcomed!)

70. In comparison to courses taught with traditional methods, which (if any) of the following factors make using service-learning more difficult for the instructor? (Please check all that apply)

O None/No difference from traditional teaching methods

O Curricular policies

O Coordination of many people

O Lack of recognition

O Inadequate funding to cover course costs

O Lack of support from colleagues

O Lack of support from community

O Adjusting for differing levels of student readiness

O Other. Please elaborate or explain:

O Administrative policies

O Coordination of many tasks

O Uncomfortable work situations

O Inadequate compensation

O Lack of support from superiors

O Lack of support from students

O Increased time demands

O Difficulty in evaluating student work

71. Please give your academic rank:

O　Specialist

O　Academic Staff

O　Instructor

O　Assistant Professor - Tenure track

O　Assistant Professor - Non-tenure track

O　Full Professor - Tenure-track

O　Associate Professor - Tenured

O　Associate Professor - Tenure track but not tenured

O　Associate Professor - Non-tenure track

O　Full Professor - Tenured

O　Full Professor - Non-tenure track

O　None of the Above

72. Your Gender:　O　Male　O　Female

73. Your Age:　O Under 30　O 41 - 50　O 30 - 40　O 50 +

74. Your Race/Ethnicity:　O　Asian/Pacific Islander　O　Black/African American　O　Hispanic
O　Native American　O　White/Caucasian　O　Other

75. What is the highest academic degree you hold?　O Ph.D.　O JDD　O EDD　O Masters　O Other:

76. Your primary academic discipline: _____

77. Number of Years You Have Been Teaching　(At any level)　O 1-5　O 6-10　O 10+

Please use the reverse side of this page to provide any additional comments on service-learning.

Please provide your comments on service-learning in the space below. Thank You!   7

Thank you for your time and cooperation. Please use the enclosed envelopes to return this survey, the resource sheet, and any course materials you would like to share, to:

Michigan Campus Compact
Attention: Chris Hammond
31 Kellogg Center
East Lansing, MI 48824   Survey Response Date: May 7, 1993.

Michigan CAMPUS COMPACT

31 KELLOGG CENTER
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48824
(517) 353-9393

April, 1993

<Field:1> <Field:2> <Field:3>
<Field:4>
<Field:5>
<Field:6>

Dear <Field:1> <Field:3>:

On behalf of the Curriculum Development Committee of the Michigan Campus Compact, I write to ask your participation in a study of service-learning initiatives in Michigan higher education.

As you may know, Michigan Campus Compact is an action-oriented coalition of 19 colleges and universities whose mission is to create and support community service opportunities. Research conducted by the Compact contributes to our understanding of student service and facilitates the exchange of information among faculty who are teaching service-learning courses. You have been identified for participation in this study because of your course, <Field:8> - <Field:9>.

The Curriculum Development Committee provides guidance, support, and assistance to MCC on how to incorporate the ethic of volunteerism/community service into the academic arena. The committee is conducting this study in the hope that the insights of faculty engaged in experiential education will be beneficial to others who are attempting similar efforts.

In addition to completing the enclosed survey, we would very much appreciate receiving a copy of your course syllabus and any other course materials you would be willing to share. These items, and the survey results, will be available through the Michigan Resource Services Center.

A return envelope is enclosed for your convenience. We would appreciate receiving your response by Monday, May 3, 1993.

Thank you for your time and cooperation in this research effort.

Sincerely,

Julie Busch
Executive Director

JB/ch
Encl.

Michigan Resource Services Center Faculty Network

Your responses to the enclosed survey will be treated confidentially. However, we do hope that you will be willing to serve as a resource person for other faculty who are developing similar courses and encourage you to join the MRSC Faculty Network by returning this card. Please indicate your preferences for involvement below:

Name: _____

· Office Address: _____

Office Telephone: _____   Academic Department: _____

_____ I am willing to be listed as a resource person through the MRSC.

_____ I am willing to participate in a telephone or personal interview as a follow-up to this study.

_____ I would like to receive a copy of the results of this survey.

I recommend that the following individual also be contacted for inclusion in this research:

Name: _____   Office Telephone: _____

Office Address: _____

Thank You!!

19 USA

Michigan Campus Compact
31 Kellogg Center
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
(517) 353-9393

THE

Michigan

C A M P U S

COMPACT

31 KELLOGG CENTER
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48824
(517) 353-9393

April, 1993

Dear Dr.   :

Earlier this term, Michigan Campus Compact solicited referrals for a research project involving faculty who incorporate service-learning into academic courses.

I am pleased to inform you that, based on the information we received from Ms. —
— , Service-Learning Coordinator, surveys have been sent to seven faculty members at — College.

In addition to receiving the survey, each faculty member is also invited to participate in the faculty network, now forming through the Michigan Resource Services Center at Michigan Campus Compact.

We appreciate your support in facilitating and encouraging this research. While individual survey responses are confidential, a final summary of the survey results will be sent to you at the conclusion of the project.

Once again, many thanks for your continued support of service-learning. Please contact me should you have questions or wish further information.

Sincerely,

Julie A. Busch
Executive Director

cc: Survey Respondents
                Service-Learning Coordinator
JB/ch

THE
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31 KELLOGG CENTER
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
EAST LANSING MICHIGAN 48824
(5 1 7) 3 5 3 9 3 9 3

Copy for Service-Coordinators

April, 1993

Each Faculty Respondent Received the Following Personalized Letter:

On behalf of the Curriculum Development Committee of the Michigan Campus Compact, I write to ask your participation in a study of service-learning initiatives in Michigan higher education.

As you may know, Michigan Campus Compact is an action-oriented coalition of 19 colleges and universities whose mission is to create and support community service opportunities. Research conducted by the Compact contributes to our understanding of student service and facilitates the exchange of information among faculty who are teaching service-learning courses. You have been identified for participation in this study because of your couse, (Course number and title).

The Curriculum Development Committee provides guidance, support, and assistance to MCC on how to incorporate the ethic of volunteerism/community service into the academic arena. The committee is conducting this study in the hope that the insights of faculty engaged in experiential education will be beneficial to others who are attempting similar efforts.

In addition to completing the enclosed survey, we would very much appreciate receiving a copy of your course syllabus and any other course materials you would be willing to share. These items, and the survey results, will be available through the Michigan Resource Services Center.

A return envelope is enclosed for your convenience. We would appreciate receiving your response by Friday, May 7, 1993.

Thank you for your time and cooperation in this research effort.

Sincerely,

Julie Busch

Julie Busch
Executive Director

JB/ch
Encl.

Responses of Non-Participants:
Integrating Service and Academic Study

Community Service in a meal program will be required of second year nursing students enrolled in Nursing 230 beginning fall semester '93. Survey will reflect projections. (survey completed but not included in tabulation)

My apologies for not responding quickly. This survey is inappropriate for the services that I provide at L.C.C.

Our Psy 290 really does not fall into the category of a service-learning course. It's primarily used to enroll students at a Fresh/Soph level for gaining research experience with a prof. The course that does fit is Psy 496, Internships in Psych. and Dr. Pat Roehling is the current instructor/coordinator of this course. (survey not completed)

My course does not fit the service-learning definition. That's why I did not respond.

Letter from Western Michigan College of Education

At this particular time none of my courses qualify as a service-learning. I have switched my emphasis toward graduate level education courses and Humanities.

We don't have a specific course in our nursing program. community Service is a requirement as part of extra-curricular activities. (survey completed but not tabulated)

We have a rather extensive "internship" program at Adrian College, which places students in a large variety of human service and criminal justice related situations. I can not claim this as "a course" because there is no regularity of content. These are individually arranged situations. The one common thing is students need to spend 40 hours on "the job" for each credit, but they are required to keep journals, read and write in a variety of ways according to the situation, the on site supervisor and the faculty advisor. Your survey does not fit our program. Sorry.

Responses of Non-Participants:
Integrating Service and Academic Study

We do not have courses which fit this categorization (Integrating Service and Academic Study)(Western Michigan: Speech Pathology/Audiology) (did not complete survey)

I do not teach a course that incorporates community service per se. (did not complete survey)

Our clinical practicum courses are not service components. They are academic courses which happen to be offered in conjunction with a clinical (hospital) affiliate site. (did not complete survey)

Please note: I don't know why I was included in this survey as my courses do not contain a community service component, although a student would not be prohibited from proposing such a project. (Completed survey but was not included in tabulation).

Our program fits your purposes poorly, as I understand them. Sorry. (survey not completed)

Not a potential subject. Course exists on the books only.

I don't believe my courses in Reading education apply to the service-learning definition.

The definition of service-learning used here does not describe activities in courses at OU. There is a field component for study but not service. Therefore any data I supply will merely mess up your analysis.

I'm returning this because I did not teach the course during the time frame of the survey.

For years, I incorporated service-learning in my courses (two in particular) but since taking on administrative roles, I no longer teach these courses (survey not completed)

Research Questions

The Service Dimension of Faculty Involvement

1.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify prior and/or current involvement as a strong motivator for their efforts? (Q. 40, 41, 42, 43, 44)

2.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify altruistic ideals as a strong motivator for their efforts? (Q. 46, 47, 48)

3.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning derive support/encouragement from administrators? (Q. 31, 32, 33)

4.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning believe their efforts contribute to advancement of the institution? (Q. 37-H, 37-O, 62).

5.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify civic education and civic involvement as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 49, 50)

6.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify social values such as developing moral character, fostering community, and enhancing multi-cultural understanding as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 51, 53, 55)

The Learning Dimension of Faculty Involvement

7.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning express a strong commitment to the teaching function? (Q. 37-L)

8.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify pedagogical concerns as strong motivators for their efforts? (Q. 56, 57, 58, 59, 61)

9.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning believe that it should be incorporated into the curriculum as a graduation requirement? (Q. 37-R)

10.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify pedagogical difficulties with regard to such efforts? (Q. 70-H, 70-P)

Service-learning and Academic Culture

11.   What is the relationship between academic discipline and faculty participation in service-learning? (Q. 37-D, 37-K, 76)

12.   What is the relationship between institutional culture and faculty participation in service-learning? (Q. 1, 2, 29, 37-A, 37-B, 37-C, 37-E, 37-F, 37-Q)

Service-learning and the Faculty Role

13.   Is service-learning perceived as a component of scholarly research? (Q. 37-K, 69)

14.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning believe that it is considered positively in promotion/tenure decisions? (Q. 37-Q)

The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning: Responsibility, Freedom and Control.

15.   Were faculty who utilize service-learning required to do so? (Q. 63, 64)

16.   Were faculty who utilize service-learning free to develop the course(s) as they felt was appropriate? (Q. 28, 37-C, 70-B)

17.   What is the relationship between gender and involvement in service-learning? (Q. 72)

18.   What is the relationship between academic rank and involvement in service-learning? (Q. 71)

The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning: Meaningfulness and Purpose in the Work Experience.

19.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning gain a sense of purpose and achievement from their efforts? (Q. 21, 22, 37-M, 37-P)

The Intrinsic Motivation of Faculty in Service-Learning: Results, Feedback and Quality Relationships.

20.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify student relationships as a strong motivator for their efforts? (Q. 45)

21.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning receive rewards or recognition for their efforts? (Q. 36)

22.   What are the perceptions of faculty who utilize service-learning with regard to the support they receive from faculty colleagues, students and the community, for their efforts? (Q. 30, 34, 35, 37-H, 37-J,)

Barriers to Faculty Involvement: Dissatisfiers in Service-Learning.

23.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning perceive that adequate compensation and support are given to such efforts? (Q. 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 70-E, 70-L)

24.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning perceive administrative policies as a barrier to their efforts? (Q. 70-I)

25.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning perceive a lack of support for their efforts (Q. 70-F, 70-M)

26.   Do faculty who utilize service-learning identify issues of time and task as barriers to their efforts? (Q. 37-I, 70-C, 70-J, 70-O)

27.   Do faculty who utlize service-learning identify pedagogical concerns to be barriers to their efforts (Q. 70G, 70-O)

APPENDIX B

Institution	Type	MCC?	# Received	#Identified
Adrian College	Private	Yes	8	12
Albion College	Private	Yes	0	1
Alma College	Private	Yes	5	7
Alpena Community College	Public	No	0	4
Andrews University	Private	Yes	4	8
Aquinas College	Private	Yes	12	17
Calvin College	Private	Yes	10	11
Calvin Theological Seminary	Private	No	5	5
Detroit College of Law	Private	No	1	2
Eastern Michigan	Public	No	1	1
Glen Oaks Community College	Public	No	0	1
Grand Valley State	Public	Yes	3	4
Hope College	Private	Yes	6	8
Lansing Community College	Public	Yes	6	16
Madonna College	Private	No	4	6
Michigan State University	Public	Yes	10	17
Monroe Community College	Public	No	0	1
Muskegon Community College	Public	No	0	2
Northern MI	Public	Yes	3	5
Northwestern Michigan	Private	No	2	3
Oakland Community College	Public	Yes	1	7
Oakland University	Public	No	25	67
Thomas M. Cooley Law School	Private	No	4	5
University of Michigan/Ann Arbor	Public	Yes	6	10
University of Michigan/Dearborn	Public	No	0	2
University of Michigan/Flint	Public	No	3	4
Wayne State University	Public	Yes	1	2
Western Michigan University	Public	Yes	10	22
Total			130	250

Respondents by Academic Discipline/Department

Department	n	%	Department	n	%
Africana Studies	1	.79	Life Sciences	1	.79
American Thought & Language	1	.79	Management/ Marketing/Computer Info.	1	.79
Art & Design	1	.79	Mathematics	2	1.58
Behavioral Science	3	2.38	Music/Theater	2	1.58
Biological Sci.	2	1.58	Nursing	9	7.14
Business Management	2	1.58	Nutrition	1	.79
Communication	4	3.17	Occupational Therapy	1	.79
Computer Science	1	.79	Phys. Therapy	1	.79
Counseling	1	.79	Political Sc.	4	3.17
Dental Hygiene	1	.79	Psychology	7	5.55
Economics/ Business	3	2.38	Public Resource Management	1	.79
Education	29	7.14	Reading/ Language Arts	1	.79
English	6	4.76	Religion	4	3.17
Exercise Science	1	.79	Rhetoric	3	2.38
Foreign Language	2	1.58	Science	2	1.58
Geological Sci.	1	.79	Social Work	1	.79
Health	3	2.38	Social Science	3	2.38
History	1	.79	Sociology	4	3.17
Interdisciplinary	2	1.58	Spanish	1	.79
Journalism	1	.79	Student Devel.	1	.79
Justices Studies	1	.79	Family & Child Ecology	1	.79
Law	5	3.96			
Honors College	2	1.58			

**Chi-Square Relationship between Overall Satisfaction and
Items of Support, Recognition and Faculty Opinions**

Statement	Chi-Square	DF	P-value
Collegial Support	41.29	16	.001 - .0005
Presidential Support	34.16	16	.01 - .005
Student Support	20.97	16	.20 - .15
Community Support	22.03	16	.15 - .10
No Recognition Received	12.22	4	.02 - .01
Student Recognition Rec.	8.46	4	.10 - .05
Faculty Recognition Rec.	8.96	4	.10 - .05
State/National Recognition Received	7.483	4	.15 - .10
Agency Recognition	9.52	4	.05 - .025
Good Relationship with Agency	27.39	16	.15 - .10
Contributes to Scholarly Research	33.85	20	.05 - .025
Met Community Need	24.728	16	.10 - .05
Enhanced Professional Skills	51.007	20	.0005 - 0
Gained Support for Institution	35.57	20	.02 - .01
Goals Achieved	130.690	20	.0005 - 0

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Appendix B
Item 4

MTB > aovoneway c1-c25

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
FACTOR	24	727.52	30.31	23.04	0.000
ERROR	3090	4064.71	1.32		
TOTAL	3114	4792.23			

INDIVIDUAL 95 PCT CI'S FOR MEAN
BASED ON POOLED STDEV

```
 LEVEL    N    MEAN   STDEV   -----+---------+---------+---------+-
 C1      125   2.120  1.248                    (--*--)
 C2      125   2.584  1.284                        (--*--)
 C3      122   2.311  1.114                     (--*--)
 C4      124   2.823  1.350                          (--*--)
 C5      124   2.685  1.358                         (--*--)
 C6      124   1.798  1.044                (--*--)
 C7      124   2.097  1.340                   (--*--)
 C8      125   1.880  1.126                 (--*--)
 C9      125   1.752  1.097               (--*--)
 C10     125   1.848  1.157               (-*--)
 C11     124   1.879  1.138                (--*--)
 C12     125   1.872  1.107                (--*--)
 C13     126   1.690  1.039             (--*--)
 C14     121   1.727  1.041             (--*--)
 C15     125   1.720  1.044             (--*-)
 C16     124   1.710  1.057             (-*--)
 C17     125   1.608  0.879            (--*--)
 C18     125   1.712  0.974            (-*--)
 C19     125   1.536  0.838           (--*--)
 C20     125   1.312  0.700         (--*--)
 C21     126   1.722  1.093            (--*-)
 C22     126   1.492  0.856          (--*--)
 C23     125   1.608  0.958          (--*--)
 C24     125   2.944  1.657                             (--*--)
 C25     125   3.192  1.640                                (--*-)
                              -----+---------+---------+---------+-
 POOLED STDEV -     1.147      1.40      2.10      2.80      3.50
```

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 40/Question 41
T=-2.90   CI=(-.078 to -.15)   P=.0041   DF=247

Question 40/Question 43
T=-4.26   CI=(-1.03 to -.038)   P=0   DF=245

Question 40/Question 44
T=-3.42   CI=(-.89 to -.24)   P=.0007   DF=244

Question 40/Question 45
T=2.21   CI=(.03 to .609)   P=.028   DF=240

Question 40/Question 48
T=2.48   CI=(.08 to .661)   P=.014   DF=243

Question 40/Question 52
T=2.96   CI=(.14 to .715)   P=.0034   DF=240

Question 40/Question 53
T=2.68   CI=(.10 to .681)   P=.0078   DF=238

Question 40/Question 54
T=2.75   CI=(.11 to .687)   P=.0064   DF=240

Question 40/Question 55
T=2.80   CI=(.12 to .699)   P=.0055   DF-241

Question 40/Question 56
T=3.75   CI=(.24 to .781)   P=.0002   DF=222

Question 40/Question 57
T=2.88   CI=(.13 to .687)   P=.0043   DF=234

Question 40/Question 58
T=4.34   CI=(.32 to .849)   P=0   DF=216

Question 40/Question 59
T=6.31   CI=(.56 to 1.061)   P=0   DF=195

Question 40/Question 60
T=2.69   CI=(.11 to .690)   P=.0077   DF=244

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 40/Question 61
T=4.65   CI=(.36 to .894)   P=0   DF=219

Question 40/Question 62
T=3.64   CI=(.23 to .789)   P=.0003   DF=232

Question 40/Question 63
T=-4.44   CI=(-1.19 to -.46)   P=0   DF=230

Question 40/Question 64
T=-5.82   CI=(-1.44 to -.71)   P=0   DF=231

Question 41/Question 45
T=5.30   CI=(.49 to 1.078)   P=0   DF=237

Question 41/Question 46
T=2.93   CI=(.16 to .81)   P=.0037   DF=246

Question 41/Question 47
T=4.61   CI=(.40 to 1.00)   P=0   DF=243

Question 41/Question 48
T=5.51   CI=(.53 to 1.130)   P=0   DF=242

Question 41/Question 49
T=4.76   CI=(.43 to 1.04)   P=0   DF=245

Question 41/Question 50
T=4.59   CI=(.40 to 1.01)   P=0   DF=243

Question 41/Question 51
T=4.70   CI=(.41 to 1.011)   P=0   DF=242

Question 41/Question 52
T=6.06   CI=(.60 to 1.184)   P=0   DF=237

Question 41/Question 53
T=5.76   CI=(.56 to 1.150)   P=0   DF=236

Question 41/Question 54
T=5.84   CI=(.57 to 1.156)   P=0   DF=238

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 41/Question 55
T=5.87   CI=(.58 to 1.168)   P=0   DF=238

Question 41/Question 56
T=7.01   CI=(.70 to 1.250)   P=0   DF=219

Question 41/Question 57
T=6.05   CI=(.59 to 1.156)   P=0   DF=231

Question 41/Question 58
T=7.64   CI=(.78 to 1.318)   P=0   DF=213

Question 41/Question 59
T=9.72   CI=(1.01 to 1.53)   P=0   DF=191

Question 41/Question 60
T=5.72   CI=(.057 to 1.158)   P=0   DF=242

Question41/Question 61
T=7.92   CI=(.82 to 1.364)   P=0   DF=215

Question 41/Question 62
T=6.81   CI=(.69 to 1.258)   P=0   DF=229

Question 41/Question 64
T=-3.26   CI=(-.98 to -.24)   P=.0013   DF=234

Question 42/Question 43
T=-3.24   CI=(-.82 to -.20)   P=.0014   DF=236

Question42/Question 44
T=-2.36   CI=(-.69 to -.06)   P=.019   DF=236

Question 42/Question 45
T=3.73   CI=(.24 to .784)   P=.0002   DF=242

Question 42/Question 47
T=3.03   CI=(.15 to .71)   P=.0027   DF=244

Question 42/Question 48
T=3.98   CI=(.28 to .837)   P=.0001   DF=244

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 42/Question 49
T=3.21   CI=(.18 to .75)   P=.0015   DF=244

Question 42/Question 50
T=3.01   CI=(.15 to .72)   P=.0029   DF=243

Question 42/Question 51
T=3.11   CI=(.16 to .718)   P=.0021   DF=244

Question 42/Question 52
T=4.54   CI=(.35 to .891)   P=0   DF=243

Question 42/Question 53
T=4.22   CI=(.31 to .857)   P=0   DF=240

Question 42/Question 54
T=4.30   CI=(.32 to .862)   P=0   DF=243

Question 42/Question 55
T=4.34   CI=(.33 to .875)   P=0   DF=242

Question 42/Question 56
T=5.50   CI=(.45 to .955)   P=0   DF=229

Question 42/Question 57
T=4.50   CI=(.34 to .862)   P=0   DF=239

Question 42/Question 58
T=6.17   CI=(.53 to 1.023)   P=0   DF=224

Question 42/Question 59
T=8.42   CI=(.77 to 1.234)   P=0   DF=202

Question 42/Question 60
T=4.20   CI=(.31 to .865)   P=0   DF=245

Question 42/Question 61
T=6.48   CI=(.57 to 1.069)   P=0   DF=226

Question 42/Question 62
T=5.32   CI=(.44 to .964)   P=0   DF=237

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 42/Question 63
T=-3.53   CI=(-.99 to -.28)   P=.0005   DF=217

Question 42/Question 63
T=-4.95   CI=(-1.23 to -.53)   P=0   DF=218

Question 43/Question 45
T=6.68   CI=(.72 to 1.326)   P=0   DF=231

Question 43/Question 46
T=4.25   CI=(.39 to 1.06)   P=0   DF=245

Question 43/Question 47
T=5.98   CI=(.63 to 1.25)   P=0   DF=238

Question 43/Question 48
T=6.86   CI=(.76 to 1.378)   P=0   DF=236

Question 43/Question 49
T=6.11   CI=(.66 to 1.29)   P=0   DF=240

Question 43/Question 50
T=5.95   CI=(.63 to 1.26)   P=0   DF=239

Question 43/Question 51
T=6.07   CI=(.64 to 1.259)   P=0   DF=237

Question43/Question 52
T=7.42   CI=(.83 to 1.433)   P=0   DF=230

Question 43/Question 53
T=7.12   CI=(.79 to 1.398)   P=0   DF=230

Question 43/Question 54
T=7.21   CI=(.80 to 1.404)   P=0   DF=231

Question 43/Question 55
T=7.23   CI=(.81 to 1.416)   P=0   DF=232

Question 43/Question 56
T=8.41   CI=(.93 to 1.499)   P=0   DF-211

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 43/Question 57
T=7.44   CI=(.82 to 1.405)   P=0   DF=223

Question 43/Question 58
T=9.03   CI=(1.01 to 1.568)   P=O   DF=205

Question 43/Question 59
T=11.07   CI=(1.24 to 1.78)   P=0   DF=184

Question 43/Question 60
T-7.08   CI=(.79 to 1.407)   P=0   DF=236

Question 43/Question 61
T=9.29   CI=(1.05 to 1.613)   P=0   DF=207

Question 43/Question 62
T=8.18   CI=(.92 to 1.507)   P=0   DF=221

Question 44/Question 45
T=5.77   CI=(.58 to 1.190)   P=0   DF=230

Question 44/Question 46
T=3.44   CI=(.25 to .93)   P=.0007   DF=245

Question 44/Question 47
T=5.09   CI=(.49 to 1.12)   P=0   DF=238

Question 44/Question 48
T=5.96   CI=(.63 to 1.242)   P=0   DF=235

Question 44/Question 49
T=5.24   CI=(.52 to 1.15)   P=0   DF=240

Question 44/Question 50
T=5.07   CI=(.49 to 1.12)   P=0   DF=238

Question 44/Question 51
T=5.18   CI=(.50 to 1.123)   P=0   DF=236

Question 44/Question 52
T=6.50   CI=(.69 to 1.297)   P=0   DF=230

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 44/Question 53
T=6.21   CI=(.65 to 1.262)   P=0   DF=230

Question 44/Question 54
T=6.29   CI=.(.66 to 1.268)   P=0   DF=230

Question 44/Question 55
T=6.31   CI=(.67 to 1.28)   P=0   DF=232

Question 44/Question 56
T=7.43   CI=(.79 to w.364)   P=0   DF=210

Question 44/Question 57
T=6.50   CI=(.68 to 1.269)   P=0   DF=222

Question 44/Question 58
T=8.03   CI=(.87 to 1.432)   P=0   DF=204

Question 44/Question 59
T=10.02   CI=(1.10 to 1.644)   P=0   DF=183

Question 44/Question 60
T=6.17   CI=(.66 to 1.271)   P=0   DF=235

Question 44/Question 61
T=8.30   CI=(.91 to 1.477)   P=O   DF=206

Question 44/Question 62
T=7.23   CI=(.78 to 1.371)   P=0   DF=221

Question 44/Question 64
T=2.66   CI=(-.88 to -.13)   P=.0084   DF=239

Question 45/Question 58
T=2.19   CI=(.026 to .499)   P=.030   DF=235

Question 45/Question 59
T=4.31   CI=(.264 to .709)   P=0   DF=214

Question 45/Question 61
T=2.54   CI=(.068 to .544)   P=.012   DF=237

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 45/Question 63
T=-6.53   CI=(-1.491 to -.80) P=0   DF=209

Question 45/Question 64
T=-8.01   CI=(-1.737 to -1.05) P=0   DF=210

Question 46/Question 48
T=2.22   CI=(.04 to .651)   P=.027   DF=237

Question 46/Question 52
T=2.68   CI=(.11 to .705)   P=.0080   DF=231

Question 46/Question 53
T=2.41   CI=(.07 to .671)   P=.017   DF=231

Question 46/Question 54
T=2.47   CI=(.08 to .677)   P=.014   DF=232

Question 46/Question 55
T=2.53   CI=(.09 to .689)   P=.012   DF=233

Question 46/Question 56
T=3.40   CI=(.21 to .772)   P=.0008   DF=212

Question 46/Question 57
T=2.59   CI=(.09 to .678)   P=.010   DF=224

Question 46/Question 58
T=3.96   CI=(.28 to .840)   P=.00001   DF=206

Question 46/Question 59
T=5.78   CI=(.52 to 1.052)   P=0   DF=185

Question 46/Question 60
T=2.42   CI=(.07 to .68)   P=.016   DF=236

Question 46/Question 61
T=4.25   CI=(.32 to .886)   P=0   DF=208

Question 46/Question 62
T=3.31   CI=(.20 to .78)   P=.0011   DF=222

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These
responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one
question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 46/Question 64
T=-5.77   CI=(-1.47 to -.72)   P=0   DF=238

Question 47/Question 55
T=2.13   CI=(.02 to .524)   P=.034   DF=234

Question 47/Question 58
T=2.74   CI=(.10 to .591)   P=.0066   DF=229

Question 47/Question 59
T=4.79   CI=(.33 to .802)   P=0   DF=207

Question 47/Question 61
T=3.07   CI=(.14 to .637)   P=.0024   DF=231

Question 47/Question 62
T=2.06   CI=.01 to .533)   P=.041   DF=241

Question 47/Question 63
T=-5.94   CI=(-1.42 to -.71)   P=0   DF=218

Question 47/Question 64
T=-7.37   CI=(-1.66 to -.96)   P=0   DF=219

Question 48/Question 59
T=3.78   CI=(.210 to .67)   P=.0002   DF=210

Question 48/Question 61
T=2.09   CI=(.015 to .505)   P=.038   DF=234

Question 48/Question 63
T= -6.70   CI=(-1.543 to -.84)   P=0   DF=215

Question 48/Question 64
T=-8.16   CI=(-1.788 to -1.09) P=0   DF=216

Question 49/Question 58
T=2.44   CI=(.06 to .564)   P=.015   DF=225

Question 49/Question 59
T=4.43   CI=(.30 to .775)   P=0   DF=204

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These
responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one
question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 49/Question 61
T=2.77   CI=(.10 to .609)   P=.0061   DF=228

Question 49/Question 63
T=-6.06   CI=(-1.45 to 1.74)   P=0   DF=221

Question 49/Question 64
T=-7.49   CI=(-1.67 to -.96)   P=0   DF=221

Question 50/Question 56
T=2.10   CI=(.02 to .525)   P=.037   DF=231

Question 50/Question 58
T=2.71   CI=(.09 to .593)   P=.0073   DF=226

Question 50/Question 59
T=4.73   CI=(.33 to .803)   P=0   DF=204

Question 50/Question 61
T=3.04   CI=(.14 to .638)   P=.0027   DF=228

Question 50/Question 62
T=2.03   CI=(.01 to .534)   P=.043   DF=239

Question 50/Question 62
T=-5.92   CI=(-1.42 to -.71)   P=0   DF=219

Question 51/Question 56
T=2.09   CI=(.015 to .513)   P=.038   DF=235

Question 51/Question 58
T=2.71   CI=(.091 to .581)   P=.0073   DF=230

Question 51/Question 59
T=4.78   CI=(.329 to .791)   P=0   DF=209

Question 51/Question 61
T=3.04   CI=(.134 to .626)   P=.0026   DF=233

Question 51/Question 62
T=2.02   CI=(.006 to .522)   P=.045   DF=242

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 51/Question 63
T=-6.01   CI=(-1.423 to -.72) P=0   DF=216

Question 51/Question 64
T=-7.46   CI=(-1.669 to -.97) P=0   DF=217

Question 52/Question 59
T=3.39   CI=(.158 to .599)   P=.0008   DF=219

Question 52/Question 63
T=-7.17   CI=(-1.598 to -.91) P=0   DF=208

Question 52/Question 64
T=-8.66   CI=(-1.843 to -1.16) P=0   DF=209

Question 53/Question 59
T=3.66   CI=(.192 to .639)   P=.0003   DF=209

Question 53/Question 63
T=-6.92   CI=(-1.563 to -.87) P=0   DF=209

Question 53/Question 64
T=-8.39   CI=(-1.809 to -1.12) P=0   DF=210

Question 54/Question 59
T=3.63   CI=(.186 to .630)   P=.0004   DF=216

Question 54/Question 63
T=-6.99   CI=(-1.569 to -.88) P=0   DF=209

Question 54/Question 63
T=-8.47   CI=(-1.815 to -1.13)P=0   DF=210

Question 55/Question 59
T=3.50   CI=(.173 to .622)   P=.00006 DF=213

Question 55/Question 63
T=-7.01   CI=(-1.581 to -.89) P=0   DF=210

Question 55/Question 64
T=-8.47   CI=(-1.815 to -1.13)P=0   DF=210

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question56/Question 59
T=2.94   CI=(.098 to .494)   P=.0036   DF=236

Question 56/Question 63
T=-7.96   CI=(-1.667 to -1.0) P=0   DF=188

Question 56/Question 64
T=-8.48   CI=(-1.827 to -1.14) P=0   DF=212

Question 57/Question 59
T=3.73   CI=(.189 to .611)   P=.0002   DF=225

Question 57/Question 63
T=-7.17   CI=-1.571 to -.89)   P=0   DF=200

Question 57/Question 64
T=-9.52   CI=(-1.912 to -1.26) P=0   DF=189

Question 58/Question 59
T=2.29   CI=(.032 to .416)   P=.023   DF=240

Question 58/Question 63
T=-8.48   CI=(-1.74 to -1.08) P=0   DF=183

Question 58/Question 64
T=-8.68   CI=(-1.981 to -1.33) P=0   DF=184

Question 59/Question 60
T=-3.54   CI=-.638 to -.182)   P=.0005   DF=213

Question 59/Question 62
T=-2.79   CI(-.505 to -.087)   P=.0057   DF=227

Question 59/Question 63
T=-10.14   CI=(-1.95 to -1.31) P=0   DF=166

Question 59/Question 64
T=-10.05   CI=(-1.981 to -1.33) P=0   DF=184

Question 60/Question 63
T=-6.89   CI=(-1.571 to -.87) P=0   DF=214

Paired T-test Results: Significant Differences, Question 40-64. These responses indicate that there was a significantly stronger response for one question as compared to another, based on a comparison of the means.

Question 61/Question 63
T=-8.71   CI=(-1.781 to -1.12) P=0   DF=185

Question 60/Question 64
T=-11.79 CI=(-2.195 to -1.57) P=0   DF=167

Question 62/Question 63
T=-7.80   CI=(-1.674 to -1.0) P=0   DF=198

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