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Student Engagement has noted the urgency and opportunity to form a center that will coordinate and support the civic and leadership efforts of UWT faculty, students, and community partners. Below you will find a vision and mission for the center and we ask that you help provide feedback and guidance toward this new initiative.

**Vision**

The Center for Service and Leadership will be recognized across campus and in the south sound region as UW Tacoma’s hub for community based learning initiatives, service and our first stop for effective partnerships.

**Mission**

The Center for Service and Leadership coordinates and supports the civic and leadership efforts of UW Tacoma faculty, students, and community partners to expand the boundaries of knowledge and discovery for positive community and student growth.
Introduction to Service-Learning & Community Based Learning

What is SL or CBL?

Many definitions of Service-Learning exist and currently UW Tacoma community has not defined what definition fits our community the best. Therefore, you may see service-learning and community based learning used interchangeably. Until an official definition can be established, SL and CBL can be defined broadly as:

“Students engaged in community service activities with intentional academic and learning goals [with] opportunities for reflection that connects to their academic disciplines.” (Cress, Collier, & Reitenauer, 2005).

Below you will find a model of service based experiences as they fall on a spectrum. Before engaging in any service based approach you will want to consider the beneficiary and the focus of your activity.

(Furco, 1996).
What are the Benefits

The Association of American Colleges and Universities and a growing body of evidence demonstrates that service-learning is a “high-impact” educational practice (Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray, 2001; Astin and Sax 1998; Cress, Burak, Giles, Elkins & Stevenson, 2010; Astin, Volgelgesang Ikeda & Yee, 2000).

Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray’s report entitled At a Glance: What We Know about the Effects of Service Learning on College Students, Faculty, Institutions, and Communities, 1993-2000: Third Edition (2001) provides an overview of service-learning benefits (see below):

**The Impact of Service-learning on Faculty**
- Satisfaction with quality of student learning;
- Commitment to research;
- Faculty increasingly integrate service-learning into courses;

**The Impact of Service-Learning on Colleges and Universities**
- Institutional commitment to service-learning curriculum;
- Availability of service-learning opportunities for students;
- Positively affects student retention & matriculation;
- Enhances community relations locally, regionally, nationally and globally;

**The Effects of Service-Learning on Students:**
- **Personal Outcomes**
  - A positive effect on student personal development such as sense of personal efficacy, personal identity, spiritual growth, and moral development; and
  - A positive effect on interpersonal development and the ability to work well with others, leadership and communication skills.
- **Social Outcomes**
  - A positive effect on reducing stereotypes and facilitating cultural & racial understanding;
  - A positive effect on developing social responsibility and citizenship skills;
  - A positive correlation to service; and
  - Volunteer service in college is associated with involvement in community service after graduation.
- **Learning Outcomes**
  - A positive impact on students’ academic learning;
  - Improves students’ abilities to apply what they have learned in “the real world”; and
  - An impact on academic outcomes as demonstrated complexity of understanding, problem analysis, critical thinking, and cognitive development.
- **Career Development**
  - Contributes to career development in better understanding the application of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)
- **Relationship with Institution**
  - Develops stronger faculty relationships;
  - Improves student satisfaction with their university and academic program of study; and increases graduation rates (*especially first-generation).
How can the Center for Service and Leadership help?

Currently the CSL is able to consult and support faculty and staff with:

- Partnership development
- Curriculum consultation
- Limited student service placements
- Faculty Roundtable discussions
- SL support literature and teaching tools

In the future we hope to provide a more comprehensive and robust set of services to assist faculty and staff with student service orientations, placements, SL course designations and tracking and other services deemed necessary by faculty.

References


Course Design

The Center for Leadership and Service is happy to meet with you regarding your interest in developing your course. Please contact Paul Prociv at paulpro@uw.edu to set up an appointment.

Below you will find resources that will help you conceptualize your service-based course, along with sample syllabi.

**Fundamental Service-Learning Considerations** (Eyler & Giles, 1999)

There are several essential factors to consider when developing a service-based course that will enhance both the student and faculty experience:

- **Service Placement Quality**
  - Does your placement provide a meaningful experience for each student? Are the community partner and the professor/student engaging in a reciprocal relationship?

- **Application**
  - Can students link what they are doing in the classroom to what they are experiencing in the community? Can students link their community experience to their academics?

- **Reflection**
  - Is the course set up for quality student reflection (pre, during and post)? Is the reflection connected and collaborative?

- **Diversity**
  - Is there a balance of challenge and support that encourages diverse populations, community partners and students to interact effectively?

- **Community Voice**
  - Does the community partner have a voice that is an active participant in the service course? Community voice often predicts personal development, cultural appreciation and seeing service as a rewarding experience.
Common Course Development Questions

Should I Make Service Mandatory? If your course objectives necessitate a specific service placement you may consider making it mandatory. However, providing students with a structured choice of their service site and the center can be a powerful way to engage students in the course.

How many hours should service be? It is suggested that students perform a minimum of 15-20 hours.

How can reflection be set up best for my course? Best practices in service based learning indicate that reflection is critical to learning and it is done best before, during and after the service (Eyler, Giles & Schmiede 1996; Eyler 2002; Toole & Toole 2001; Mabry 1998). Below are some quick references and ideas on how reflection may be done in your course. For more information regarding the structure and types of questions to ask please visit the resource section below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reflect Alone</th>
<th>Before Service</th>
<th>During Service</th>
<th>After Service</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Letter to self</td>
<td>Reflective journal</td>
<td>Individual paper</td>
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<td>Goal statement</td>
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<td>Film, Artwork</td>
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<tr>
<th>Reflect with Classmates</th>
<th>Before Service</th>
<th>During Service</th>
<th>After Service</th>
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<tr>
<td>Explore “hopes and fears”</td>
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<td>List serve discussions</td>
<td>Team presentation</td>
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<td>Contrast expert views</td>
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<td>Critical incident analysis</td>
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<tr>
<th>Reflect with Community Partners</th>
<th>Before Service</th>
<th>During Service</th>
<th>After Service</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create contract</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Lessons learned”—on site debriefing</td>
<td>Presentation to community partner</td>
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<tr>
<td>Needs assessment</td>
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How do I search for and approach potential community partners? The CSL recommends that you and your students contact us so we can search our growing database of community partners for you. There may already be a UWT relationship with a particular organization you are interested in! We can also provide guidance to you and your students on how to set up proper expectations with your community partner. Please see resources below for more specific strategies and tools.
References


Curriculum Development Resources

Below are some suggested reading generally categorized into areas of interest. However, it is highly suggested and you may want to start with the following title as reference (it is found in our CSL library):


Framing Service-Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Resource Title</th>
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Service Placements

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<th>Use</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Resource Title</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Partnership Expectation and Preparation Tools</td>
<td>Tools (Appendix VI)</td>
<td>Patti H. Clayton Independent Consultant, PHC Ventures Senior Scholar, Center for Service and Learning, IUPUI Visiting Scholar, Office of Research and Economic Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Syllabi and Research

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<th>Resource Title</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Syllabi Lesson Plans</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>The National Service Learning Clearinghouse:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllabi, Research &amp; other tools</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>Campus Compact: Syllabi, Research and other tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllabi/Tools (Health)</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>Community-Campus Partnerships for Health</td>
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## Reflection Resources

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Resource Title</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>Reflection Manual for educators published by the University of Vermont with prompts and activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans Case Studies</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>Center for Civic Reflection - An organization that helps civic groups build capacity, commitment and community through reading and discussion (check out the Discussion Plans!)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>Structured Reflection (campus compact)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prompts</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>Reflection prompts from California State University Channel Islands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide</td>
<td>Web</td>
<td>Protocols &amp; Facilitation suggestions from National School Reform</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX I
Service-Learning: A Balanced Approach to Experiential Education

BY ANDREW FURCO

The Service-Learning Struggle
For over a quarter of a century, education researchers and practitioners have struggled to determine how to best characterize service-learning. In 1979, Robert Sigmon defined service-learning as an experiential education approach that is premised on “reciprocal learning” (Sigmon, 1979). He suggested that because learning flows from service activities, both those who provide service and those who receive it “learn” from the experience. In Sigmon’s view, service-learning occurs only when both the providers and recipients of service benefit from the activities.

Today, however, the term “service-learning” has been used to characterize a wide array of experiential education endeavors, from volunteer and community service projects to field studies and internship programs. By perusing schools’ service program brochures, one realizes that the definitions for service-learning are as varied as the schools in which they operate. While some educators view “service-learning” as a new term that reveals a rich, innovative, pedagogical approach for more effective teaching, others view it as simply another term for well-established experiential education programs. As Timothy Stanton of the Haas Center for Public Service at Stanford University once asked, “What is service-learning anyway?... How do we distinguish service-learning from cooperative education, internship programs, field study and other forms of experiential education?” (Stanton, 1987). The National Society for Experiential Education, which for years has focused on various types of experiential education programs, broadly defines service-learning as “any carefully monitored service experience in which a student has intentional learning goals and reflects actively on what he or she is learning throughout the experience.” (National Society for Experiential Education, 1994).

The Corporation for National Service provides a narrower definition that sees service-learning as a “method under which students learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet actual community needs, that are integrated into the students’ academic curriculum or provide structured time for reflection, and that enhance what is taught in school by extending student learning beyond the classroom and into the community...” (Corporation for National and Community Service, 1990). The confounding use of the service-learning term may be one reason why research on the impacts of service-learning has been difficult to conduct.

In 1989, Honnet and Poulsen developed the Wingspread Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning (Honnet & Poulsen, 1989, Appendix B). While these guidelines offer a useful set of best practices for service oriented educational programs, they are not solely germane to service-learning and could easily serve as best practices for other types of experiential education programs (e.g., internships or apprenticeships). Similarly, the Association for Service-Learning in Education Reform (ASLER) has compiled a set of common characteristics of service-learning that help program directors determine whether their programs are meeting the overarching service-learning goals (ASLER, 1994 Appendix A). Again, while these characteristics are very useful in helping practitioners develop effective service-learning programs, they do not provide a definitive characterization of service-learning. ASLER characterizes service-learning as method of learning that enables school-based and community-based professionals “to employ a variety of effective teaching strategies that emphasize student-centered [sic.] or youth centered [sic.], interactive, experiential education... Service learning places curricular
concepts in the context of real-life situations... Service-learning connects young people to the community, placing them in challenging situations ... (ASLER, 1994). One could easily contend that other approaches to experiential education (i.e., internships or field education) purport to do the same. So then, how is service-learning different from other approaches to experiential education?

Developing a Definition
According to Sigmon, “If we are to establish clear goals [for service-learning] and work efficiently to meet them, we need to move toward a precise definition.” (Sigmon, 1979). Recently, Sigmon attempted to provide a more precise definition of service-learning through a typology that compares different programs that combine service and learning. This typology broadened his earlier “reciprocal learning” definition to include the notion that “service-learning” occurs when there is a balance between learning goals and service outcomes. Herein lies the key to establishing a universal definition for service-learning (see Figure 1).

In this comparative form, the typology is helpful not only in establishing criteria for distinguishing service-learning from other types of service programs but also in providing a basis for clarifying distinctions among different types of service-oriented experiential education programs (e.g., school volunteer, community service, field education, and internship programs).

Distinguishing Among Service Programs
To represent the distinctions among various types of service programs, a pictorial is offered that presents an experiential education continuum upon which various service programs might lie. The pictorial is based on both Sigmon’s earlier “reciprocal learning” principles and his most recent typology. Where each service program lies on the continuum is determined by its primary intended beneficiary and its overall balance between service and learning (see Figure 2).

As the pictorial suggests, different types of service programs can be distinguished by their primary intended purpose and focus. Each program type is defined by the intended beneficiary of the service activity and its degree of emphasis on service and/or learning. Rather than being located at a single point, each program type occupies a range of points on the continuum. Where one type begins and another ends is not as important as the idea that each service program type has unique characteristics that distinguish it from other types. It is that ability to distinguish among these service program types that allows us to move closer toward a universal definition of service-learning.
Using the pictorial as a foundation, the following definitions are offered for five types of service programs.

**Volunteerism**
Volunteerism is the engagement of students in activities where the primary emphasis is on the service being provided and the primary intended beneficiary is clearly the service recipient.

According to James and Pamela Toole, the term volunteerism refers to "people who perform some service or good work of their own free will and without pay" (Toole & Toole, 1992). The inherent altruistic nature of volunteer programs renders them as service focused, designed to benefit the service recipient. A prime example is a school-based program in which student-volunteers occasionally or regularly visit the local hospital to sit with Alzheimer patients who need some company. The primary intended beneficiaries of the service are the Alzheimer patients (the service recipients), and the focus of the activity is on providing a service to them. Although the student-volunteers may receive some benefits from the experience (e.g., feeling pleased with themselves) as well as learn something in the process, these outcomes are clearly serendipitous and unintentional. As the hospital visits of the student volunteers become more regular, and as the students begin focusing more on learning about Alzheimer's disease, the program moves toward the center of the continuum to become more like community service (or even service-learning).

**Community Service**
Community service is the engagement of students in activities that primarily focus on the service being provided as well as the benefits the service activities have on the recipients (e.g., providing food to the homeless during the holidays). The students receive some benefits by learning more about how their service makes a difference in the lives of the service recipients.

As with volunteer programs, community service programs imply altruism and charity. However, community service programs involve more structure and student commitment than do volunteer programs. School-based community service programs might include semester-long or year-long activities in which students dedicate themselves to addressing a cause that meets a local community (or global) need. Recycling, hunger awareness, and environmental improvement are all forms of community service causes around which students have formed organizations to formally and actively address the issue. While the students' primary purpose for engaging in the service activity is to advance the cause, their engagement allows them to learn more about the cause and what is needed to be done to ensure the cause is dealt with effectively. As the service activities become more integrated with the academic course work of the students, and as the students begin to engage in formal intellectual discourse around the various issues relevant to the cause, the community service program moves closer to the center of the continuum to become more like service-learning.

On the opposite side of the continuum lie internship programs.

**Internships**
Internships programs engage students in service activities primarily for the purpose of providing students with hands-on experiences that enhance their learning or understanding of issues relevant to a particular area of study.

Clearly, in internship programs, the students are the primary intended beneficiary and the focus of the service activity is on student learning. Students are placed in internships to acquire skills and knowledge that will enhance their academic learning and/or vocational development. For many students, internships are performed in addition to regular course work often after a sequence of courses has been taken. Internships may be paid or unpaid and take place in either for-profit or nonprofit organizations. For example, a political science major might engage in an unpaid summer internship at a city hall to learn more about how local government works. Although the student is providing a service to the city hall office, the student engages in the internship primarily for his/her benefit and primarily for learning (rather than service) purposes. Similarly, a legal studies student may have a paid summer internship that allows that student to learn more about how a law firm operates. The student's primary motivations for partaking in the program—to learn legal skills and make some money—are clearly intended to benefit himself/her herself. As both these students place greater emphasis on the service being provided and the ways in which the service recipients are benefiting, the closer the internship program moves toward the center of the continuum and becomes more like field education (and service-learning).
Field Education
Field Education programs provide students with co-curricular service opportunities that are related, but not fully integrated, with their formal academic studies. Students perform the service as part of a program that is designed primarily to enhance students' understanding of a field of study, while also providing substantial emphasis on the service being provided.

Field education plays an important role in many service-oriented professional programs such as Social Welfare, Education, and Public Health. In some of the programs, students may spend up to two years providing a service to a social service agency, a school, or health agency. While strong intentions to benefit the recipients of the service are evident, the focus of field education programs tends to be on maximizing the student's learning of a field of study. For example, students in Education programs may spend up to one year as student teachers to hone their teaching skills and learn more about the teaching process. Because of their long-term commitment to the service field, students do consciously consider how their service benefits those who receive it. However, the program's primary focus is still on the student teachers' learning and their overall benefit.

Service-Learning
Service-learning programs are distinguished from other approaches to experiential education by their intention to equally benefit the provider and the recipient of the service as well as to ensure equal focus on both the service being provided and the learning that is occurring.

To do this, service-learning programs must have some academic context and be designed in such a way that ensures that both the service enhances the learning and the learning enhances the service. Unlike a field education program in which the service is performed in addition to a student's courses, a service-learning program integrates service into the course(s). For example, a pre-med student in a course on the Physiology of the Aging might apply the theories and skills learned in that course to providing mobility assistance to seniors at the local senior citizen center. While the program is intended to provide a much needed service to the seniors, the program is also intended to help the student better understand how men and women age differently, how the physical aging of the body affects mobility, and how seniors can learn to deal with diminishing range of motion and mobility. In such a program, the focus is both on providing a much-needed service and on student learning. Consequently, the program intentionally benefits both the student who provides the service and the seniors for whom the service is provided. It is this balance that distinguishes service-learning from all other experiential education programs.

Conclusion
While conceptually, this pictorial can assist in bringing us closer to a more precise definition of service-learning, it is obvious that many gray areas still exist. What about the field education program or community service project that is located near the center of the experiential education continuum? How might we distinguish these programs from service-learning? I might argue that no experiential education approach is static; that is, throughout its life, every experiential education program moves, to some degree, along the continuum. Thus, at a particular point in time, a community service program may be farther left of center appearing to have greater focus on the service and its benefit to the recipient. At another point in time, the same program might appear to have an equal emphasis on service and learning, providing benefits to both the recipients and providers of the service. It is this mobility within program types that suggests that to fully distinguish service-learning programs from other forms of experiential education approaches, one must first determine a program's intended focus(es) and beneficiary(ies). From there, every service program's continuum range can be gauged to determine where it falls among the myriad of experiential education endeavors.

References


Differentiating and Assessing Relationships in Service-Learning and Civic Engagement: Exploitative, Transactional, or Transformational

Patti H. Clayton  
PHC Ventures & Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis

Robert G. Bringle  
Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis

Bryanne Senor  
North Carolina State University

Jenny Huq  
University of North Carolina – Chapel Hill

Mary Morrison  
Elon University

As a defining aspect of service-learning and civic engagement, relationships can exist among faculty members, students, community organizations, community members, and administrators on campus. This research developed procedures to measure several aspects of these relationships. Investigators collected information from 20 experienced service-learning faculty members about their relationships with representatives of community organizations using the newly-developed Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale (TRES). Results indicate that transactional and transformational qualities can be differentiated using TRES and are related to other characteristics of relationships (e.g., closeness). Conceptual work underlying this study aims to advance practitioner-scholars’ understanding of partnerships as one type of relationship, offering a refinement on and an expansion of the terminology associated with service-learning and civic engagement.

Relationships are a central, defining dimension of community-campus engagement (e.g., Cruz & Giles, 2000; Dorado & Giles, 2004; Jacoby & Associates, 2003), and “partnership” may be among the most frequently used words in the literature on service-learning and civic engagement. The label “partner” is used to indicate both a person in the community (e.g., staff member at a community organization) and an organization in the community (e.g., nonprofit or governmental agency); and the term “partnership” is most often applied to the relationship and interactions between the community and the campus. But are these terms being applied appropriately and clearly? This research is based on the conviction that the field needs clearer nomenclature and tools to conceptualize, investigate, evaluate, monitor, and nurture partnerships.

We contend that the terms “relationship” and “partnership” are not interchangeable. Relationships may be casual, short-term, and/or informal in nature; or they may be formal, complex, long-term, and/or multi-faceted; in any of these cases, they may be characterized by any of a wide range of interactions with differing characteristics, capacities, goals, and outcomes. The term partnership is too often casually applied to the full range of connections between communities and campuses. For the sake of clarity, we use relationship to refer to interactions between persons and partnership to describe a particular subset of relationships characterized by three qualities: closeness, equity, and integrity (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Bringle, Officer, Grim, & Hatcher, 2009). Thus, not all relationships are partnerships, perhaps because the relationship in question is new and developing, has deteriorated, or has reached a stasis short of partnership (i.e., low levels of closeness, equity, and integrity) that may or may not be appropriate. Although other studies (e.g., Janke, 2009) examine inter-organizational relationships and partnerships in service-learning and civic engagement, our analysis focuses on interactions between and among persons.

Delineating the nature of relationships in civic engagement, including characterizing their attributes, provides a basis for evaluating their status, under-
standing the changes that occur in them over time, and nurturing them in desired directions. Experience and research (see, for example, Dorado & Giles, 2004) confirm that relationships can progress and regress in quality because of a variety of circumstances (e.g., changes in work, individuals involved, goals, resources), although it may be the case that all civic engagement relationships could benefit from aspiring to some, if not all, of the attributes of partnerships. Understanding and operationalizing good practice associated with various types of relationships will be facilitated by enhancing the clarity and precision of terminology and developing capacities to assess the qualities of these relationships. A better understanding of the dynamics and aspirational qualities of relationships may enable practitioners to strengthen their own relationships and those of others. In turn, improving relationships in intentional ways may enhance outcomes for all constituencies, although this is a hypothesis that can be empirically evaluated. Such improved understanding also may allow civic engagement administrators to evaluate a range of relationship-building processes as well as facilitate the development and testing of theory related to the formation, evolution, and dissolution of relationships (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002). Saltmarsh, Giles, O’Meara, Sandmann, Ward, and Buglione (2009) conclude from their analysis of Carnegie Elective Classification dossiers that a consistent shortcoming of community engagement efforts is the lack of convincing evidence about the authentic nature of campus-community reciprocity.

This article reviews the relevant literature related to relationship development in service-learning and civic engagement, the nature and type of relationships found in community-campus interactions, and the attributes of transactional and transformational relationships. A structural model and conceptual framework for relationships in civic engagement is offered, and an instrument designed to distinguish between exploitative, transactional, and transformational aspects of these relationships is presented, along with data from its pilot use. Based on this work, implications for future research and practice are discussed.

Moving Beyond the “Community-Campus Partnership”

Reviewing the state of research related to external communities in service-learning, Cruz and Giles (2000) identify difficulties of conceptualizing “the community” as an entity: Which community? Which part of the community? How will the community be represented? Further, they suggest that “the university-community partnership itself be the unit of analysis” (p. 31), calling the field to do a better job of assessing not only the outcomes of service-learning in communities (e.g., enhanced reading skills among children) but also the nature of the partnership itself.

When considering institutional approaches to service-learning as an integral component of civic engagement, practitioner-scholars are broadening their descriptions of the constituents involved to encompass multiple participants and groupings of participants (Jacoby & Associates, 2003). In the pairing of “community” and “campus,” multiple entities can be differentiated, since neither of these is a homogeneous body; such precision has the potential to enhance practice and research. For example, one simple, graphical representation of the partners in service-learning is a Venn diagram (e.g., Clayton et al., 2005) with overlapping circles for (a) students, (b) faculty/staff, and (c) community partners—a triad that explicitly differentiates campus into students and faculty/staff and supports examination of the heterogeneous nature of each stakeholder population. Students, for example, may include those enrolled in a service-learning class as well as those in leadership roles supporting the class, and community partners can include representatives of community organizations, clients of those organizations, or residents of geographic communities. Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, and Kerrigan (2001) advocate comprehensive assessment of service-learning focused on four stakeholders: students, faculty, community partners, and institutions. Similarly, in addition to including the community, Bringle and Hatcher (1996, 2000; Bringle, Hatcher, Hamilton, & Young, 2001) identify three constituencies—administrators, faculty, and students—in the Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning, a framework useful for assessment and planning. The work in South Africa on the Community-Higher Education-Service Partnership program (Lazarus, 2004) similarly distinguishes community residents and service providers, thus suggesting a faculty-resident-service provider triad for capturing the important relationships.

Bringle, Clayton, and Price (2009) further differentiate the community and campus in the SOFAR framework (Figure 1), identifying five key constituencies associated with civic engagement: Students, Organizations in the community, Faculty, Administrators on the campus, and Residents in the community (or, in some instances, clients or special interest populations). Across these five stakeholders, there are ten dyadic relationships, and each of the ten has two vectors representing the primary directions of influence.

SOFAR provides a structural model for examining dyadic interactions between persons and explicitly broadens and refines the set of potential partners in civic engagement beyond “community” and “cam-
This allows a more detailed analysis of the nature of the wide range of interactions and relationships involved. The differentiation of community into Organizations and Residents acknowledges that persons in these two groups often have different cultures, goals, resources, roles, and power and that they do not necessarily represent one another’s views; it also encourages investigation of the relationships among the various types of individuals that comprise “community.” There could be additional differentiation among residents (e.g., by neighborhoods, by demographic attributes), among organizational staff (e.g., executive director, mid-level staff), and across organizations (e.g., government, business, community). The differentiation of campus into Administrators, Faculty, and Students acknowledges similar heterogeneity across perspectives, agendas, cultures, resources, power, and goals. It allows for an analysis of both the dyadic intra-campus relationships and the construction of campus social networks focused on civic engagement; in addition, it acknowledges that each of these three campus constituencies has its own relationship with residents and community organizations that warrants unique attention. Here too, there could be additional differentiation, among students (e.g., students enrolled in a service-learning course, student leaders helping to facilitate the course, and cocurricular volunteers involved in the same project), administrators (e.g., executive officers, academic leaders, and program staff), and faculty (e.g., faculty teaching a service-learning course and faculty providing leadership to service-learning initiatives or offices) (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009).

Furthermore, SOFAR is not limited to the analysis of dyadic relationships but rather provides a starting point for examining more complex interactions among larger groupings and networks (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009). There may be multiple persons in each constituent group in SOFAR who warrant differentiation, representation, and analysis. For example, although interactions may occur between one student and one community organization staff person during a service-learning project, there also can be many students involved in the project and therefore interacting with one or various organizational staff. In addition, students are not only participants in isolated courses but also members of the broader campus community, and their service-learning activities may result in interactions with other students (e.g., in other courses, in student organizations or student government, in their major, with peer mentors). Further, SOFAR also has the potential to examine how relationships between two or more individuals in these primary groupings can develop into networks, coalitions, common interest groups, communities of practice, and communities beyond these groupings. An elaboration of this graphic representation of SOFAR that includes networks at each of the five nodes (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009) provides a template for delineating networks of persons outside each primary constituency and for considering how service-learning courses provide a basis for additional relationships across many persons. Although these extrapolations beyond the primary five constituencies and ten dyadic relationships are possible and may be meaningful, the nodes identified in SOFAR represent an important starting point for developing structural analyses, conceptual frameworks, and research projects that study sets of relationships.

Investigating the Quality of Relationships

But what about the quality of the relationships among this range of constituents in civic engagement? Building on the work of Burns (1978), who distinguishes between transactional and transforming leadership, Enos and Morton (2003) offer a framework for examining partnerships in service-learning. They define transactional relationships as instrumental and often designed to complete short-term tasks. Persons come together on the basis of an exchange, each offering something that the other desires. Both benefit from the exchange, and no long-term change is expected. This is distinct from transformational relationships wherein both persons grow and change because of deeper and more sustainable commitments. In a transformational relationship, persons come together in more open-ended processes of indefinite but longer-term duration and bring a receptiveness – if not an overt intention – to explore emergent possibilities, revisit and revise their own goals and identities, and develop systems they work within.
beyond the status quo.

The study reported here operationalized the distinction Enos and Morton bring to the civic engagement literature by developing an instrument to assess relationships in light of their transactional and transformational qualities. Transactional relationships and outcomes may be appropriate in some situations; movement toward mutual transformation may be desirable in other situations. What is needed is a means of making visible the full range of possibilities and distinguishing between actual and desired states, so that persons involved in any given relationship (and those who support them) can more effectively discuss, diagnose, and, as desired, deepen the quality of interactions.

The primary research question under investigation in this project was whether the differences between transactional and transformational relationships in service-learning can be meaningfully measured. The project included developing, administering, and evaluating an instrument and protocol for investigating relationships with respect to their exploitative, transactional, or transformational attributes. This first phase of this research focused on one of the ten dyadic relationships in Figure 1: the faculty-community organization relationship, viewed from the perspective of the faculty member (F-O in SOFAR).

Method

Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale

The Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale (TRES) was developed from a review of the literature and through feedback from service-learning practitioners and researchers. The initial version of the instrument (Clayton & Scott, 2008) was a simple continuum (Figure 2) based on Enos and Morton (2003), ranging from 1 (transactional) to 10 (transformational) as a quantitative rating of any given relationship.

Discussions with practitioners and researchers identified the need to expand the continuum to embody one-sided relationships that fall short of transactional and in some instances are even exploitative (i.e., so unilateral that, intentionally or unintentionally, they take advantage of or harm one or both parties). Further, principles of best practice in designing scales (e.g., Bringle, Phillips, & Hudson, 2004) suggest the need for a more complex set of descriptors and a finer level of discrimination in articulating the characteristics of transactional and transformational relationships.

TRES was developed based on an analysis of attributes of transactional and transformational relationships (Burns, 1978; Enos & Morton, 2003) and the relationships literature applied to civic engagement (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002). Items for TRES were written around nine key attributes: outcomes, common goals, decision-making, resources, conflict management, identity formation, power, significance, and satisfaction and change for the better (Table 1).

Item response options reflect different possibilities along a continuum from exploitative to transactional to transformational (E-T-T). Options in the exploitative range of the continuum reflect negative outcomes (e.g., costs exceeding benefits) to one or both parties. Options in the transactional range reflect net benefits to one or both parties but no growth. Options in the transformational range capture growth and enhanced capacity in and through the relationship.

When constructing the nine items, variable numbers of options were included to capture different possibilities and nuances across the continuum for a particular attribute. The uneven number of response choices for different items was shaped by the desire to present respondents with reasonable choices spanning the conceptual continuum. Some analyses are based on these raw score responses, which were obtained by summing responses to the nine items and finding the mean score for each research participant. Despite the unequal number of response categories, summing or averaging these responses across items...
Table 1
Transformational Relationship Evaluation Scale (TRES)

Analysis of Partnership

Mark with an X the alternative that best characterizes the actual nature of the partnership from your point of view (as it is now, if this is a current partnership, or as it was at the time of the course, if this is a previous partnership).

Mark with a circle the alternative that best characterizes the desired nature of the partnership from your point of view (note that this might be the same alternative you marked with a X or it might be different)

1. Outcomes of the service-learning partnership
   a. _____ There are more costs than benefits for both of us in this partnership#
   b. _____ One of us benefits but at a cost to the other#
   c. _____ Neither of us benefits to a significant degree from this partnership, but neither experiences a significant cost either#
   d. _____ One of us benefits much more than the other, although not at a significant cost to either of us##
   e. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) from the partnership*
   f. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and one of us grows through the partnership**
   g. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and both grow through the partnership
   h. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and both grow and the relationship itself grows
   i. _____ We benefit equally (in terms of getting something we value) and both grow, the relationship itself grows, and the systems (e.g., organizations) that we are part of become more capable of generating growth because of our partnership

2. Relationship among goals in service-learning the partnership: To what extent would you say that you and your community partner do or do not have / did or did not have common goals in your service-learning collaboration?
   a. _____ Generally our goals are at odds#
   b. _____ Generally our goals are not connected, although not at odds*
   c. _____ Our goals converge at some points*
   d. _____ We have common goals

3. Decision-making: When decisions have been made about the service-learning activities, to what degree have you and your community partner collaborated?
   a. _____ Decisions about this project are made in isolation and without any consideration of the other partner#
   b. _____ Decisions about this project are made in isolation but with some consideration of the other partner##
   c. _____ Decisions about this project are made in isolation and with significant consideration of the other partner*
   d. _____ Decisions about this project are made in consultation with the other partner*
   e. _____ Decisions about this project are made collaboratively and are generally driven by the interests of one or the other of us**
   f. _____ Decisions about this project are made collaboratively and are generally reached through a consensus process that reflects our shared commitment to our shared goals

4. Resources: In this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ One of us has contributed most or all of the resources to the work, and the other has contributed very little or no resources#
   b. _____ One of us has contributed more resources than the other, but the other has contributed some resources*
   c. _____ Both of us have contributed significant resources to the work

5. Conflict management: If (or when) conflicts arise about the work of this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Both of us would actively avoid dealing with the conflict#
   b. _____ One of us would attempt to deal with the conflict while the other would avoid it##
   c. _____ We would both deal with the conflict, but it would be uncomfortable for us*
   d. _____ We would both deal with the conflict openly, with the shared expectation of resolving the issue

continued
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6. Role of this partnership in work and identity formation: This service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Has on balance hindered work for both of us#
   b. _____ Has on balance hindered work for one of us#
   c. _____ Has helped one of us to do our work but has no impact on the other’s work##
   d. _____ Has helped both of us to do our work*
   e. _____ Has helped both of us do our work and has helped define “who I am” for one of us, but not the other**
   f. _____ Has helped both of us do our work and has helped define “who I am” for both of us
   g. _____ Has helped both of us do our work and has helped define “who I am” for both us and has enhanced the ability of one of us to contribute in significant ways through our work
   h. _____ Has helped both of us do our work, has helped define “who I am” for both of us, and has enhanced the ability of both of us to contribute in significant ways through our work

7. Power: In this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ One of us has most or all of the power, and the other has very little or any power#
   b. _____ One of us has somewhat more power than the other*
   c. _____ The power is equally shared in this partnership

8. What matters in this service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Nothing of significance to either of us really matters#
   b. _____ What one of us gets from this relationship matters##
   c. _____ What both of us get from this relationship matters*
   d. _____ What both of us get and the extent to which one of us grows matters**
   e. _____ What both of us get and the extent to which both of us grow matters
   f. _____ What both of us get, the extent to which both of us grow, and the capacity of our partnership to nurture growth around us matters

9. Satisfaction and change: As a result of the service-learning partnership
   a. _____ Both of us are dissatisfied and both of us have been changed for the worse#
   b. _____ Both of us are dissatisfied and one of us has been changed for the worse##
   c. _____ Both of us are dissatisfied but neither of us is changed for the worse#
   d. _____ Only one of us is dissatisfied and neither is changed for the worse##
   e. _____ Both of us are satisfied and neither of us is changed for the better or the worse*
   f. _____ Both of us are satisfied and one of us is changed for the better**
   g. _____ Both of us are satisfied and both of us are changed for the better
   h. _____ Both of us are satisfied and are changed for the better and the relationship itself is changed for the better
   i. _____ Both of us are satisfied and are changed for the better, the relationship itself is changed for the better, and the world around us is changed for the better

Notes: Raw TRES scores were calculated by summing scores on individual items, where alternative “a” receives a score of “1,” alternative “b” a score of “2,” and so on, and then dividing by the number of response options to calculate the mean. Conceptual TRES scores were calculated by giving scores of “1” for an item indicated above as # = exploitative for at least one; a score of “2” for items marked as ## = beneficial for one but not both; “3” for * = beneficial for both and therefore mutually transactional; “4” for ** = beneficial for both and transformational for one; and a score of “5” for an item left blank in the table above = mutually-transformational.

still provides an index of relationship quality (higher numbers indicate relationships closer to transformational), and other analyses may still be conducted on these values (e.g., calculating internal consistency), noting that items with larger numbers of options (and higher values) receive disproportionate weight.

Alternatively, because of the conceptual dimension underlying the response options and regardless of the number of options, responses can be collapsed to one of the five types of relationships: 1 = exploitative for one or both; 2 = transactional for one but not the other; 3 = mutually-transactional, with both benefiting; 4 = mutually-transactional and, in addition, transformational for one but not the other; 5 = mutually-transactional and -transformational, with growth for both (see Note in Table 1). This 5-point conceptual scoring scheme was used to obtain a TRES score for each participant by averaging responses (scored in the manner indicated in Table 1) across the nine items. The TRES score yields an index of the quality of the relationship and, furthermore, permits interpretation of the numerical value in terms of the continuum (e.g., if a respondent’s TRES average is ~3.0, this indicates that across those nine attributes the relationship is perceived, generally, as transactional).

Research Protocol

As the first phase of research using TRES, the faculty-community organization (F–O in SOFAR) relationship from the faculty member’s perspective was selected for study. The investigators chose to begin with faculty to avoid imposing on community members’ time with a not-yet-refined or proven instru-
ment; we also recognized that the first draft of the instrument contained somewhat academic language that will need to be revised in the next version, given the goal of developing a single instrument for use by all constituents represented in the SOFAR framework. Twenty experienced service-learning faculty participated – five each from Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, North Carolina State University, the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, and Elon University.

The data collection process consisted either of (a) a 60-90 minute face-to-face interview guided by a questionnaire \( (n = 15) \) or (b) the same questionnaire completed individually by respondents \( (n = 5) \). Face-to-face interviews were conducted by an undergraduate or graduate assistant to remove potential distortion of responses that could arise if a professional staff member in the institution’s service-learning office or one of the investigators were involved. A unique identifier was assigned to each respondent to preserve anonymity in data analysis.

The protocol began with respondents identifying two community partners (representatives of community organizations) associated with a service-learning course, providing a total of forty relationships to be analyzed (some analyses were based on a smaller number due to incomplete data). Respondents labeled these as community partner “A” and “B.” The questionnaire included four sections; the order in which they were completed varied across respondents (those who completed it individually received the sections in a different order than that used by the interviewers). Sections I and II were completed twice, once for partner “A” and once for “B”; sections III and IV were completed once.

In Section I, respondents described each relationship's history, rationale, and characteristic types of interactions by responding to a set of specific prompts (Table 2). This section evaluated the nature of the relationship on four characteristics posited to describe closeness (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989; Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002): (a) frequency of interaction, (b) diversity of interaction, (c) the strength of influence of the faculty member on the community partner’s decisions, and (d) the strength of influence of the community partner on the faculty member’s decisions.

Section II of the questionnaire opened with a graphic measure (Figure 3) of the perceived degree of closeness in the relationship, as represented by the

| Table 2 |
| Protocol Section I: Description of Partnership |

1) Is this partnership CURRENT or RECENT or DID IT OCCUR SOME TIME AGO? (circle one)
   - When did this partnership begin?
   - How long did it last? / How long has it lasted?

2) Overall, what are the purposes of this partnership?
   - What brought you and this partner together initially?
   - What do you / did you do together?

3) Would you say that you and this partner interact(ed) frequently (at least a couple times a month) during the current (or most recent) semester/period of your partnership? YES or NO (circle one)
   - Would you say that your interactions with this partner have INCREASED or DECREASED or REMAINED THE SAME in the past 12 months? (circle one)

4) Would you say that you and this partner have / had a HIGH or a LOW level of diversity in your interactions? In other words, do you / did you engage in
   - ______ MANY DIFFERENT TYPES OF ACTIVITIES TOGETHER
   - ______ MOSTLY JUST ONE OR TWO TYPES OF ACTIVITIES? (check one)
   - Please provide examples of how you interact(ed).
   - Would you say that the diversity of your interactions with this partner have INCREASED or DECREASED or REMAINED THE SAME in the past 12 months? (circle one)

5) Would you say that you and this partner have / had a HIGH or a LOW degree of interdependence in your relationship? In other words, would you say that there are
   - ______ MANY or ______ FEW (check one) examples that you have contributed to decisions made by your community partner (including but transcending the SL collaboration per se)?
   - Would you say that there are ______ MANY or ______ FEW (check one) examples that your community partner has contribute to decisions that you have made (including but transcending the SL collaboration per se)?
   - Please provide examples.
overlap between circles in two-circle Venn diagrams (Mashek, Cannaday, & Tangney, 2007); respondents were asked to indicate which Venn diagram represented the current degree of closeness and which represented the desired degree of closeness in the relationship. Responses could range from \( a = 1 \) to \( f = 6 \).

Respondents then rated the relationship on each of the nine items in TRES (Table 1). They placed an “X” on the response option corresponding most closely with their perception of the current status of the relationship and an “O” on the response option that corresponded most closely with the desired status (instructions clarified that these could be the same option).

Having completed Sections I and II twice, once for each relationship, in Section III respondents compared each of the two sets of scale ratings using a series of open-ended and fixed-answer questions. These open-ended questions included the similarities and differences between the ratings, the sources for each rating, the perceived capacity for partnership development in each case, and the barriers to partnership development overall. In Section IV, respondents were asked to reflect on the data gathering process to assess and refine the protocol and TRES scale. They were also contacted by email several weeks later and asked to reflect on what, if anything, they may have learned about themselves and their relationships with community partners from participating in this study (Table 3).

**Results**

First, the psychometric properties of TRES were examined. The raw scores for the nine items constituting TRES had a coefficient \( \alpha = .90 \) for perceived current status of the relationship and \( .82 \) for desired status. These values indicate that the nine items were a uni-dimensional, internally consistent set for both

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**Table 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protocol Sections III &amp; IV: Respondent Analysis of TRES Ratings and Overall Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section III</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Summary discussion of the ratings of the 2 partnerships in terms of where the responses were similar and different.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Similarities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Differences</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) In general terms, what are the sources of the ratings on each? What factors led each of these 2 relationships to the point indicated by the ratings? (e.g., your own previous experience, your partner’s, the design of your course or of their organization, personalities, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) What do you see as the capacity for partnership development in each of these relationships? In other words, do you and this partner have the capacity to move toward the level you marked with a circle (if that is different than the level you marked with an X)? What resources do you have together to enable that movement?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) What do you see as the barriers to partnership development in each of these relationships? In other words, what obstacles may keep the partnership at a lower than desired level on these continua, if that is the case?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B:</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Section IV**

Overall, how well do you believe we have captured the nature of the relationship between you and these 2 community partners?

Is there anything you did not understand or struggled with as you completed the scale and/or answered my questions?

Is there anything you want to add?
types of ratings (i.e., current, desired). A paired or
dependent t-test was conducted to determine whether
there was a difference between the mean rating for raw
scores for the current relationships and the desired
relationships – in other words, to determine whether
respondents wanted their relationships to be different
than currently perceived. A significant difference
$t(35) = -6.11, p < .01,$ was found between raw scores for the
current ($M = 4.16$) and the desired ($M = 5.07$) status of
the relationship. The greatest discrepancy between
current and desired was on power (item #7); the least
discrepancy was on satisfaction and change (item #9).

Responses to TRES items were converted to the 5-
point conceptual scoring scheme and the frequencies
for each of the five categories of responses, for both
current and desired states of the relationship, were
determined (Table 4). The three highest rated items
for both current and desired were satisfaction and change (item #9), managing conflict (item #5), and
resources (item #4); the lowest rated item was col-
laborative decision making (item #3).

To evaluate the relationship of TRES scores to a
different and independent index of the characteristics
of the relationship, the correlation between the mean
TRES rating on the 5-point conceptual scoring scheme and the selection among Venn diagrams rep-
resenting degrees of closeness was investigated. For
the current status of the relationships, the mean
TRES 5-point (conceptual) rating correlated
$r(36) = .63, p < .01$ with the choice on the Venn graphic representation of closeness for the current relationship; the mean rating for the desired status of the relation-
ships correlated $r(35) = .62, p < .01$ with the Venn
graphic representation of closeness for the desired relationship. Thus, the independent measure of close-
ness of the relationships aligned well with the extent
to which the relationship was described as exploita-
tive or transactional or transformational.

On the basis of the interdependency theory of rela-
tionships (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Rusbult, 1980,
1983), several other indicators of closeness were
identified (Berscheid et al., 1989; Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002): frequency of activity, diversity of activity, and interdependency
(which was measured with two different items repre-
senting the direction of interdependence, yielding a
total of four indicators). The mean 5-point TRES rat-
ings for the current relationship were significantly
lower for less frequent interactions, less diverse inter-
actions, and less involvement in contributing to the
other’s decisions (Table 5).

These four indicators of closeness were combined
into an overall measure of closeness that correlated
$r(36) = .56, p < .01$ with current 5-point TRES scores
and $r(34) = .47, p < .01$ with desired 5-point TRES
scores. These two correlations demonstrate that rela-
tionships that were rated as being closer were also
described as being more transformational. These
findings converge with the findings for the Venn dia-
gram measure of closeness, signaling that TRES is
measuring closeness of the relationship between the
faculty member (respondent) and community part-
ners, from the faculty member’s point of view.

Qualitative data were examined by each investiga-

| Table 4 |
| Frequencies of Relationships Described as Exploitative, Transactional, or Transformational, Based on TRES Conceptual Scores |
| Type of Relationship | Frequency: Current Relationship | Frequency: Desired Relationship |
| Exploitative for one or both (TRES < 1.5) | 0 | 0 |
| Transactional for only one (1.51<TRES<2.5) | 3 | 0 |
| Transactional for both (2.51<TRES<3.5) | 8 | 6 |
| Transformational for only one (3.51<TRES<4.5) | 17 | 8 |
| Transformational for both (4.51< TRES<5.0) | 9 | 24 |

Note: Some data missing from total of N = 40 relationships studied.

| Table 5 |
| TRES Ratings for Indicators of Closeness. |
| Measurement | TRES $M$ | TRES $M$ |
| Frequent interactions | Yes = 4.71 | No = 3.62 ** |
| Diverse interactions | Many = 4.81 | One or two =3.97 ** |
| Respondent contributed to community partner’s decisions | Many examples = 4.76 | Few examples = 3.87 ** |
| Community partner contributed to respondent’s decisions | Many examples = 4.70 | Few examples = 3.86 ** |

Notes: TRES conceptual range: 1 = exploitative for one or both, 5 = mutually transformative

** $p < .05$
tor to determine themes within the responses from his or her own campus’ five respondents. These themes were compiled and analyzed across the four institutions. Investigators have completed a preliminary analysis of the qualitative data and offer here suggestive results.

Overall, respondents selected two community partners to analyze with whom they had dissimilar levels of “closeness,” without prompting from the questionnaire or interviewers. Describing the interactions with their community partners, respondents generally noted that they were more often at a distance (e.g., e-mail, phone) than face-to-face, across all levels of perceived closeness.

The primary barrier to growth in partnerships identified by the respondents was lack of time. This barrier was thought to be lessened – but not eliminated – when the partnership was a priority, built on a personal relationship, or accomplished multiple objectives, (e.g., in the case of faculty, teaching and research). A key theme was that some faculty had difficulty focusing on their own growth in their relationships with community partners and instead more frequently mentioned their students’ growth. Several respondents slipped from discussing their own relationships with community partners to discussing those of their students. They frequently suggested that their students’ perspectives, levels of satisfaction, and learning outcomes were more important than their own or their community partners’. For example, one respondent said, “The transformative dimension that I focus on is within my students. I do not necessarily expect a transformative experience for the agencies, or with my relationship with agencies.” They frequently spoke of themselves more as facilitators of others’ learning than as learners themselves. Such responses suggest that the faculty respondents viewed the student-community organization (S–O or O–S in SOFAR) relationship as being both more relevant and the locus of benefits and growth in the service-learning process. One interpretation of these responses, which begs further investigation, is that the faculty respondents not only did not view their outcomes as important as students’, but they may not even have seen themselves as candidates for growth in the process.

The identification of this theme and a concomitant project examining faculty learning through service-learning (Jaeger, Clayton, Hess, McGuire, & Jameson, in preparation) prompted investigators to probe further into the effects of this study itself on faculty respondents. Several respondents indicated that it helped them to realize the potential extent and significance of their role in service-learning relationships; for example:

As faculty, we may enter into partnerships assuming that we provide a “service” for our partner, but not realizing that we also stand to gain from this relationship...not only is it important to ask our community partners if the partnership was meaningful for them, we should also share the variety of ways we have grown as faculty through the partnership.

Respondents also noted that the study helped them problematize some of their own assumptions about service-learning. Said one, “Participating in this research has made me realize that closeness of a relationship with an individual community partner and length/quality/depth of the service-learning partnership do not necessarily correlate.” Others did not believe their participation changed their understanding of their own service-learning relationships, as evidenced by the following quote: “It served as a good opportunity to reflect on partnerships, but I don’t think participating in the study has had a long-standing impact on my normative practices and professional goals.”

Discussion

General Implications

Giles and Eyler (1998) identify community impact of service-learning as one of the top ten unanswered questions in service-learning research. Clark’s (2003) 3-“I” model – which focuses on the initiators, the initiative, and the impact of community-campus partnerships – captures the importance of relating process and outcomes. In addition to outcomes in communities (e.g., improved reading scores through tutoring), the relationships formed through service-learning constitute a tangible and significant outcome themselves. The quality of these relationships is not only important for the work in which the partners are currently engaged, but also because it may represent the capacity of the individuals to engage in future work together, without needing to initiate new relationships with others.

Following Cruz and Giles’ (2000) call that the community-campus partnership be considered a unit of analysis, this research focused on developing and refining tools to measure qualities of relationships; it was preceded by the development of models intended to improve analyses of the relationships at the heart of service-learning (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009). SOFAR, a structural model, and the associated conceptual models for closeness and for the exploitative, transactional, and transformational nature of relationships yield at least eight improvements on past work on partnerships (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009):

(a) expansion of the community-campus relation-


ship from a single dyad to multiple dyads;
(b) expansion beyond the dyad to additional, higher-level units of analysis (e.g., networks);
(c) differentiation of campus into students, faculty, and administrators (noting that each of these stakeholder sets can be further differentiated, as in distinguishing between administrators at the executive level and at the service-learning program level, or between students enrolled in service-learning enhanced courses and student leaders who help to facilitate those courses);
(d) differentiation of community into staff at organizations and residents (alternately understood as clients or consumers of services, as advocates, or as geographic neighbors);
(e) differentiation in the language of partnership and relationship;
(f) analysis of the quality of interactions between individuals in terms of closeness;
(g) differentiation of relationship processes and outcomes along a continuum from exploitative to transactional to transformational; and
(h) development of tools to support consideration of each person’s perspective on the same interactions in a relationship.

Scores on TRES from this research provide a meaningful summary of the faculty-community organization dyad (F–O) from the point of view of the faculty member. The results indicate that TRES captures important differences in the qualities of relationships that are related to indicators of closeness. The results also indicate that faculty members desired relationships with their community partners are more transformational than they perceive them to be at present.

Implications for Future Research and Practice

TRES taps key dimensions identified by (a) Burns (1978), who distinguished between transactional and transforming leadership, (b) Enos and Morton (2003), who offer a framework for examining the distinction between transactional and transformational service-learning partnerships, and (c) Bringle and Hatcher (2002), who apply the interpersonal relationships literature to civic engagement. The nine items comprising TRES (outcomes, common goals, decision-making, resources, conflict management, identity formation, power, significance, and satisfaction and change for the better) are offered as a representative sample of key attributes of relationships but not as an exhaustive list. Presumably, they will apply to many if not all relationships in civic engagement (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009). As such, TRES possesses content validity as adequately sampling the conceptual domain as scholars have described it. Therefore, TRES can be used to evaluate the status of existing relationships on the E-T-T continuum. The Venn diagram that presents graphic representations of closeness characterized by overlapping circles (Mashek et al., 2007; Figure 3) correlated very highly with TRES and can be considered a good summary of closeness that is short, nonverbal, and user-friendly. Similarly, one practitioner-scholar who examined TRES (personal communication) posited that the original transactional-transformational continuum (Figure 2) might serve as a sufficient proxy for TRES scoring when time or other constraints limit research. Nevertheless, TRES can provide additional, nuanced diagnostic information about how the attributes compare in terms of the E-T-T continuum. For example, one could learn that several of the attributes receive high ratings, but one (e.g., decision making) does not, and such information could guide future research by raising new questions about the conditions under which the various attributes do and do not align as well as future programming to improve relationships.

Because TRES does not presume to be exhaustive, there may be other, equally important attributes that would be important to include in assessing the quality of the relationships involved in particular activities. Similarly, it is likely that closeness, equity, and integrity are necessary but not sufficient conditions for relationships to take the form of partnerships. As an example of additional attributes, Saltmarsh, Hartley, and Clayton (2009) speak of a democratic orientation that values and integrates knowledge from multiple sources and shares authority for knowledge construction. Similarly, Jameson, Clayton, and Jaeger (in preparation) explore the meaning of and necessary conditions for positioning all partners in civic engagement as “co-educators, co-learners, and co-generators of knowledge” and posit such elements as transformational learning and commitment to a shared developmental journey.

The results of this research provide preliminary evidence for the validity of TRES, although these measures (i.e., TRES, closeness, Venn diagram) possess common-method variance (they all involve self-reports rating methods) and, in this research, they were used with the same type of respondent (i.e., faculty). Any individual’s perspective captured by TRES also may be related in future research to other types of information and sources of quantitative and qualitative evidence, such as antecedents of the relationships (e.g., characteristics of the individuals, resources invested), to other indicators of the processes involved in the relationship (e.g., archival records of communications, decisions about the distribution of resources), and to other outcomes (e.g.,
changes on performance indicators) associated with the relationship. Such research will provide an enhanced understanding of the processes that underlie improvement and regression in civic engagement relationships.

In addition, although this project investigated only one perspective on the relationships, data could also be collected with TRES from the other half of the dyad (i.e., in this research, the community organization representative in SOFAR) or any of the other persons associated with the particular service-learning projects in question. Similarities and discrepancies between the perceptions of the persons involved in the same relationship could then be analyzed. Furthermore, each person in the relationship could give estimates of the other person’s ratings; then actual similarity (difference between each person’s actual ratings), perceived similarity (differences between one person’s actual ratings and the same person’s perceived ratings of the other person), and mutual understanding (differences between one person’s perceived rating of the other person and actual rating of the other person) could be investigated. Montoya, Horton, and Kirchner (2008) found in a meta-analysis of research in the field of interpersonal attraction that perceived similarity was a significant correlate of attraction across a wide range of relationship types (e.g., limited interactions, short-term relationships, existing relationships) and a better predictor of attraction than actual similarity. Similar analyses could be undertaken in the area of civic engagement relationships to understand better the dynamics of both developing and established relationships.

Dorado and Giles (2004) provide an analysis of three different pathways of engagement between campus and community organizations: tentative engagement, aligned engagement, and committed engagement. The relationships literature, for the sake of analogy, similarly has provided descriptions of different pathways as social and romantic relationships develop (Surra, 1987). TRES provides an additional tool for describing patterns of change over time within relationships in service-learning and civic engagement. Longitudinal research on these relationships can help practitioners anticipate and nurture different kinds of relationships resulting from civic engagement activities and identify specific areas warranting attention for relationship development. Conducting research that increases understanding of progression and regression of relationships over time and/or that compares and contrasts different dyadic relationships in the same or different engagement activities can contribute to a knowledge base about civic engagement relationships and when and how they become transformational partnerships.

SOFAR can be adapted to include constituencies other than those identified in Figure 1. Bringle, Officer, and Hatcher (2009) conducted an analysis of a campus-school partnership across a variety of civic engagement activities (e.g., service-learning courses, volunteers, Federal Work Study tutoring, research) by examining dyadic relationships between the campus (collapsing across faculty, students, administrators), the public school, residents, and community organizations because this set of constituencies best aligned with the particularities of the activities in question. Other configurations could be developed that fit a particular set of circumstances.

Interestingly, even though the focus of this research was on the faculty-community organization dyad (F–O), the responses from the faculty members indicated that often the quality of that relationship was related to or dependent upon the quality of the student-community partner (S–O or S–R) relationship. This suggests that only considering single dyadic relationships may be too limiting. SOFAR provides the opportunity to examine social relationships involving multiple dyads and groupings beyond the dyad (e.g., triads). Each of the five stakeholder categories in SOFAR is also embedded in its own network of relationships. Students and faculty in a service-learning course, for example, have relationships with a range of other student and faculty populations that may be affected by or involved in the service-learning experience, and administrators on campus are involved in networks of relationships with individuals at other institutions; directors and staff at community organizations involved in a service-learning course have relationships with colleagues at similar organizations, just as their clients are involved in multiple relationships with family, friends, and community members (see Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009 for an elaboration of SOFAR in terms of networks).

Although SOFAR puts an appropriate emphasis on the interactions between and among persons, analyses can also be expanded to include relationships among organizations and institutions (Domegan & Bringle, in press; Janke, 2009). Domegan and Bringle, for example, note that service-learning research may be dominated by analysis at the individual level and suggest that more emphasis needs to be placed on structural and environmental influences (e.g., community, inter-organizational, media, political forces, corporate sector, policy and policy makers, and international factors). Transformational relationships may contain not only higher-order growth and outcomes for the individuals involved but also for other persons, organizations, and communities. When relationships in service-learning and civic engagement implicate others, as is often the case,
they can be the basis for developing long-term relationships between groups and networks. Analysis of the strategies and methods used to develop relationships between individuals into coalitions and networks will enable researchers to understand additional outcomes from civic engagement and allow campus administrators to develop and revise their policies, processes, infrastructure, and protocols (Bringle, Clayton, & Price, 2009).

Input from practitioner-scholars suggests a wide range of questions that SOFAR and TRES can help the field investigate. For example, to what extent is the sustainability of a civic engagement partnership a function of the exploitative, transactional, and transformative qualities of the relationships involved? How and under what conditions do relationships move back and forth along the E-T-T continuum? What interventions facilitate and/or hinder such movement? What characteristics of individuals, disciplines, and professional fields lend themselves to either transactional or transformational relationships? In what ways do closeness in relationships and/or positioning along the E-T-T continuum influence short- and long-term term student and community outcomes? How does a service-learning office mediate perceptions of relationships, and under what conditions does such an office’s involvement enhance the transformational potential of civic engagement? When might transactional relationships or moderately close relationships among participants in service-learning be judged “healthier” than transformational and/or closer relationships? How could we measure the ways in which each SOFAR constituent influences the evolution and qualities of relationships between other stakeholders?

Understanding the interactions and relationships between the constituencies represented in SOFAR is highly instructive for practitioner-scholars concerned with the quality and effectiveness of student learning and community engagement. Practitioners play an important role in connecting the constituents in SOFAR, whose relationships, in turn, deeply influence the processes and outcomes of service-learning and civic engagement. The investigators hope this work provides a stimulus for posing and answering a broad range of questions that can inform practice, such as: Why do some relationships flourish while others falter? Why do some faculty integrate community partners in their curriculum design while others retain more limited views of their roles (Sandy & Holland, 2006)? How are the benefits experienced by the various constituencies in SOFAR evaluated, and how are they related to relationships? How can relationships become more balanced in nature and impact over time, and through what sorts of interventions and supports? What role can institutions play in nurturing the processes of relationship development? Dewey (see Hatcher, 1997) emphasizes the importance of face-to-face interactions in building relationships and a sense of community, but how critical are they in a world of increasing technology-assisted communication? Bringle and Hatcher (1996) identify the importance of drawing on exemplars in developing service-learning programs and courses; what role does the availability and visibility of exemplary transformational partnerships play in fostering the development of other civic engagement relationships? In what ways and under what conditions does the transformational quality of one relationship in SOFAR render it an effective model for others? For example, if the faculty-community organization relationship (F–O) in a service-learning course is transformational or growing in that direction, will student-community organization relationship (S–O) be of higher quality than if the faculty-community organization relationship is transactional? Will student’s academic learning be higher? Will their civic growth be greater? If so for any or all of these outcomes, why?

SOFAR and TRES also may be of direct use in the practice of civic engagement and associated capacity-building activities. For example, they could be used to structure reflection mechanisms that support students in examining the relationships involved in their service-learning activities, their own and others’ experiences of and aspirations for those relationships, and changes in the quality of those relationships during the course or project. Further, they could be used to facilitate goal-setting with faculty, students, and community partner teams at the beginning of projects and to provide guidance in enacting changes they might wish to make in their relationships as they evolve. And they could be used in a variety of professional development activities with faculty and/or community members to introduce the complexities of establishing and maintaining partnerships.

Finally, the investigators’ goals for this ongoing project include refining TRES on the basis of this pilot. A single instrument that is easily used by all constituents – students, representatives of community organizations, community residents, and institutional administrators and staff, as well as faculty members – is highly desirable. The next phase of this project involves modifying the items in TRES in accordance with feedback from users to date. Response options for the original nine items are being simplified, and additional items are being developed. Usability tests are being conducted with community partners and students. The second ver-
Clayton et al. coined the phrase "shared developmental journey" to group of student leaders at NC State University. Learners, citizens, scholars, and leaders. A small improvement in learning and meta-cognitive abilities and that students will have an educational experience that community experiences, and critical reflection so. Faculty and students who utilize service-learning relationships that enhance transformational outcomes. 

The Exploitative – Transactional – Transformational Conceptual Framework

Principles of good practice in service-learning and civic engagement recommend that community relationships be mutually-beneficial as a minimum standard (see, for example, Jacoby & Associates, 2003), although relationships that are beneficial to only one party might exist in this undesirable state temporarily, perhaps in their early stages, when they show promise of movement in the direction of mutual benefit. Furthermore, some persons may accommodate to short-term costs (e.g., start-up activities in establishing a working relationship) because of the promise of long-term benefits. The term “reciprocity” is sometimes used to convey this minimal commitment to mutual benefit through exchange of resources; however, a “thicker” use of this term is more resonant with mutual transformation. According to Jameson et al. (in preparation), such an understanding of reciprocity “emphasizes shared voice and power and insists upon collaborative knowledge construction and joint ownership of work processes and products” and therefore nurtures conditions supportive of growth on the part of everyone involved. TRES therefore has the potential to enable more precise distinctions between “thin” and “thick” reciprocity and, in turn, partnership processes that enact the latter.

Aligned with this distinction, educators may bring to this work a bias toward aspiring to transformational relationships. For example, in the case of faculty relationships with students (F–S in SOFAR), there is often the intention that service-learning experiences will enhance the students’ understanding of academic material and result in civic learning and personal growth (Ash & Clayton, 2009; Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005). Beyond these goals, faculty and students may seek to develop deep mentoring relationships that enhance transformational outcomes. Faculty and students who utilize service-learning pedagogy may strive to integrate readings, research, community experiences, and critical reflection so that students will have an educational experience that improves learning and meta-cognitive abilities and transforms students’ identities and capacities as learners, citizens, scholars, and leaders. A small group of student leaders at NC State University (Whitney, McClure, Respet, & Clayton, 2007) coined the phrase “shared developmental journey” to articulate their experience of moving through ever-higher levels of learning, responsibility, and contribution across multiple community engaged teaching, learning, and scholarship activities:

We understand service-learning to be most fundamentally a relational process focused on capacity-building…; all participants…are engaged in relationships not only of [“thin”] reciprocity, in which all contribute and all benefit, but of mutual learning, growth, and change.… Mutual transformation through a process of co-creation in the context of a mentoring community is a powerful framework for the relationships that are at the heart of [this work]…We have each mentored and been mentored, challenged others and been challenged in our turn, given and received support. The growth of one has therefore been intimately linked to – indeed, interdependent with – the growth of another… (pp. 186, 187, 194).

TRES can provide a conceptual framework, a diagnostic tool, and a research instrument for better understanding how students and those who support them might capitalize on the transformational potential of service-learning and civic engagement.

One possible interpretation of the E-T-T continuum is that transformational relationships are always to be preferred over transactional relationships. Sometimes, however, transactional, mutually-beneficial levels of relationship are satisfying and perhaps appropriate. Because of time constraints and other responsibilities of both persons, a more involved transformational relationship may be neither possible nor desirable. Expecting transformational relationships when such is not appropriate (e.g., given the goals and investment of either or both persons involved) might inhibit the relationship operating effectively at a transactional level to the benefit of all participants. Most relationships in social networks are of short duration and limited scope (Milardo, 1982). In this study, faculty most frequently described relationships with persons in community organizations as transactional, with some but not all desiring that they become transformational. Time, investments of resources, past experiences, other priorities, and the nature of the goals at stake, among other factors, may constrain expectations.

Further, there are strong norms in the academy that explicitly position students, but rarely faculty as well, in the position of learning and growing through service-learning. Therefore, it may be the case that transformative relationships have not been a goal for other relationships in SOFAR besides those that involve students. As results in this project suggest, faculty members generally have not been as concerned with their own transformational learning or
the transformational potential of their relationships with one another, with students, with community members, or with university administrators. Additional research can determine what expectations and aspirations are held by students, representatives of community organizations, residents, and/or administrators—as well as other populations of faculty—and, similarly, what factors influence whether any individual from any of these groups aspires to transformational relationships and with whom. Respondents indicated informally that completing the measurement protocol caused them to reflect on their relationships and the desirability of improving them (i.e., the measurement was an intervention). There may be similar effects that result from having other constituencies in SOFAR complete TRES. The role of faculty as learner (Jaeger et al.; O’Meara, Terosky, & Neumann, 2009) is increasingly under investigation, and instruments like TRES can help advance the field’s understanding of how the relationships faculty members engage in within civic engagement shape and are shaped by their own learning and growth. Not only may “students best undertake a developmental journey when those who support and mentor them are also striving for growth through the same process” (Whitney et al., 2007, p. 195), but learning and growth among all stakeholders may be key to institutional change and sustainable community impact.

Conclusion

The nature of the research questions yet to be answered makes clear the significance of the stakes underlying investigation of relationships in service-learning and civic engagement. It is our hope that these models and tools will help build the capacity of the field to explore such questions and use what we learn together to enhance practice and, in turn, to generate ever-better questions regarding this important aspect of our work. We tend to expect that higher quality relationships are good (a) for their own sake (e.g., are more highly valued by participants) and (b) because they result in more desirable short-term and long-term benefits; however, each of these assertions warrants empirical investigation so that practitioner-scholars can have more confidence in both the importance of and the means of promoting relationships with these qualities. And, ultimately, the extent to which the field enacts engagement in democratic ways and toward democratic ends will depend on, in part, how well we operationalize a shared commitment to relationships that are at least mutually beneficial and often transformational. Authentically reciprocal and highly collaborative partnerships are challenging on many levels and therefore “require and foster collaborative capacity building, which in turn engenders transformation in individual and collective ways of being, knowing, and engaging” (Jameson et al., in preparation). Improving understanding of what it means to be in and to nurture such partnerships may be a central dimension of deepening the practice of service-learning and institutionalizing within the academy and the broader community the cultural norms underlying authentic engagement.

Notes

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References


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APPENDIX III
Much has been written about the benefits of service-learning to students, ranging from greater self-awareness, to the development of interpersonal and leadership skills, to enhanced preparedness for lives of civic and professional responsibility (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000). Increasingly, however, the focus has been on the need to document the academic and cognitive outcomes produced by the pedagogy (Eyler, 2000; Steinke & Buresh, 2002). Underlying the calls for more research in this particular area are concerns that failure to demonstrate significant intellectual gains will reduce service-learning’s legitimacy in the eyes of both administrators—who are deciding how to allocate limited resources across programs—and educators—who are deciding whether the cost of additional time and effort is offset by student learning. As noted by Osborne, Hammerich, and Hensley (1998), “Non-academic benefits are unlikely to motivate many faculty who have not yet tried service-learning;” and adoption of the pedagogy will require that “service-learning can be shown to impact the learning of course content.” (p. 6).

From our own experience as instructors, the development of critical thinking and meta-cognitive skills is an equally important outcome underlying our commitment to service-learning (SL) pedagogy. Following a call from the Wingspread Conference for research dedicated to identifying and assessing SL-related student learning outcomes (Giles, Honnet, & Migliore, 1991), numerous studies have sought to compare SL and non-SL courses, but the results have been mixed. Some have found improvements in grades (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993) while others have not (Kendrick, 1996; Miller, 1994), and still others have noted gains only in essay, not multiple choice, tests (Kendrick, 1996; Strage, 2000) and in written work (Osborne, Hammerich, & Hensley, 1998), suggesting that “type” of learning may be differentially affected. That is, service-learning may not improve the ability to recall facts over traditional classroom methods, but it may increase the ability to use evidence to support claims or to identify and solve complex problems. Finally, several studies have found that students at least report a better understanding of course material as compared to their peers in non-SL classes (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Steinke & Buresh, 2002).

Unfortunately, some of the findings of positive academic and cognitive outcomes can be challenged based on the nature of the research design. For example, students may have self-selected into a service-learning enhanced class, raising the possibility that they are qualitatively different from those in a more traditional classroom to whom they are being compared if random assignment is not part of the protocol. In fact, Sax and Astin (1997) found that service-learning students were more likely to spend more than 20 hours a week studying and doing homework as compared to their traditional classroom peers. The assignments on which grades are based may likewise be qualitatively different. In the study by Markus, Howard, and King (1993), although participants were randomly assigned to either a SL-enhanced or traditional section of the same course, students in the control sec-
The authors have developed an integrated approach to reflection and the assessment of student learning that supports students in achieving and demonstrating academic and cognitive outcomes as well as outcomes with respect to personal growth and civic engagement (Ash & Clayton, 2004). A rigorous course-embedded assessment process can help to frame and support reflection, in turn producing stronger learning outcomes. A focus on classroom-based assessment itself as a way to continuously improve learning, rather than simply measure learning after the fact, is increasingly being recommended by those designing assessment strategies: “[F]ormulating assessment procedures for classroom use can spur the teacher to think more specifically about learning goals, thus leading to modification of (both) curriculum and instruction” (National Research Council, 2001, p. 229). In other words, an integrated approach to reflection and assessment can improve our ability to align the practice of service-learning with the theoretical claims of its learning potential. If, as a result of these efforts, we are more convincing in demonstrating significant outcomes, including academic and cognitive outcomes, then we will also have a compelling and effective way to promote, and ultimately expand, the use of this teaching and learning strategy.

We present here the results of a year-long investigation of the effectiveness of this model. This research has confirmed the potential of the model and given us a better understanding of how to refine it further. Of equal importance, however, it has led us to reconsider the fundamental objectives of research into service-learning’s student learning outcomes. Perhaps the question ought not to be whether service-learning is “better” than other forms of classroom instruction but whether and how our practice is aligned with the student learning outcomes we believe service-learning is capable of producing. We suggest that as researchers we ought to be asking how we can use the challenge of demonstrating service-learning’s effectiveness to facilitate our own careful and deliberate analysis of what it can do in theory as compared to what it does do in practice. The knowledge gained from such inquiry can then be used to improve the implementation of service-learning such that we more consistently fulfill its promise and actually produce the student learning outcomes we claim for it.

Background

Use of Reflection Products for Course-Embedded Assessment

From its inception, our service-learning program has been guided by a definition of the pedagogy that explicitly identifies the types of student learn-
ing outcomes at stake and the process through which reflection on service helps students to attain them. As we understand it:

Service-learning is a collaborative teaching and learning strategy designed to promote academic enhancement, personal growth, and civic engagement. Students render meaningful service in community settings that present them with experiences related to academic material. Through guided reflection, students—individually and in groups—examine their experiences critically and articulate specific learning outcomes, thus enhancing the quality of their learning and of their service.

As is increasingly the case across higher education, our administration has for several years focused attention on assessment of student learning. Service-learning is one of several teaching and learning initiatives on The North Carolina State University campus that has emerged during this period of scholarly attention to the relationships among learning objectives, teaching strategies, and learning outcomes. The need to assess student learning outcomes at the program level has been an important driver in the refinement of our service-learning practice.

Encouraged to develop and implement program-wide assessment, we considered a range of possible mechanisms in light of the experience of other programs. We were disinclined to add a survey to end-of-the-semester course evaluations that would provide the data that is more suited to assessing satisfaction than learning, for the reasons described earlier. In addition, limited human and financial resources precluded the use of individual interviews or focus groups (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, & Kerrigan, 2001) that have the potential to produce more rigorous results than student surveys alone. Our previous participation in the development of course-embedded approaches to assessment in the context of an inquiry-guided learning initiative called our attention to the value of using products generated by students in the course of the semester for assessment. We already had in place a program-wide approach to reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2004) that produced written products called Articulated Learnings (AL). These seemed to be a natural fit for a course-embedded approach to the assessment of learning outcomes, especially given the deliberately close correlation between the types of issues examined in the reflection process and the learning objectives of the program.

The AL is a series of paragraphs written as the culminating step of reflection sessions in each of three categories of learning objectives: academic, civic, and personal. These small group discussions are guided by a reflection framework, which is a series of questions designed to support students in describing (stage 1) and then analyzing (stage 2) their service experiences in such a way as to generate important learnings in each of the three categories. Articulating learning is the third stage in our reflection model; an AL is a vehicle through which students express and continue exploring important learnings that have surfaced through discussions regarding the content of the course (academic), their or others’ participation in collective change-oriented processes (civic), and their personal strengths, weaknesses, assumptions, skills, etc. (personal). The AL is structured in accordance with four guiding questions: (a) What did I learn? (b) How, specifically, did I learn it? (c) Why does this learning matter, or why is it significant? and (d) In what ways will I use this learning, or what goals shall I set in accordance with what I have learned in order to improve myself, the quality of my learning, or the quality of my future experiences or service?

Thus, we are able to assess more directly what students actually have learned (because they have to articulate it in their written work), which in turn allows us to determine how closely that learning matches our expectations. This provides us with much more information regarding our program’s effectiveness than, for example, the results of a survey from which we might only know what percentage of students think they learned a lot more than they would have in a traditional class.

The AL is designed to be a foundation for learners to carry the results of the reflection process forward beyond the immediate experience, improving the quality of future learning and experience (related to service or to other aspects of their lives). Students refine these reflection products through an iterative process of feedback, on their first draft from the reflection leader—a student trained to guide the reflection session process through which the ALs are produced—and then again after feedback from the instructor on their second drafts, to produce a final product. This process is repeated over the course of several reflection sessions throughout the semester. Instructors integrate the process of articulating learning into the assignment structure of their courses, such that the set of ALs each student produces serves as an alternative to an exam or essay or other assignment that would otherwise gauge particular learning outcomes.

Developing Tools to Assess Reflection Products—Formatively and Summatively

Having identified the ALs as the data source for program-wide student learning outcomes assessment, we began collecting them from SL instruc-
tors at the end of the semester, hoping to be able to qualitatively document learning outcomes across courses in all three categories of service-learning learning objectives. Reviewing these ALs, we quickly realized the disconnect between what the students were learning and what we had hoped they would learn. Taking the academic ALs as an example, we wanted to see deeper understanding of the complexities of course material in light of “real world” application, but many of the ALs demonstrated little more than the students’ ability to recognize course concepts when they saw them. Two important realizations followed: a) that we needed a more precise understanding of the learning objectives than “academic enhancement,” “civic engagement,” and “personal growth” if we were to adequately assess learning in each of these categories, and b) that we needed to better support both students and faculty in achieving important outcomes in each category.

We therefore continued our process of developing program-wide assessment mechanisms by developing a set of learning objectives written specifically for each of the three categories but applicable to any course. This process was informed by our critical evaluation of actual ALs. For example, we read Academic ALs that expressed only statements of fact—as in “I learned that the elderly often do not get the nutrients that they need, even in an institutionalized setting with structured meals”—but that could have expressed deepened understandings of the complexities and subtleties of course concepts (in this case nutrition). For example:

I learned that attempts to improve the poor nutrient intake that is often seen in the diets of the elderly in an institutionalized setting is complicated by the fact that for many of these residents the immediate pleasure of eating nutrient-poor cakes and cookies far outweighs, at least in their minds, some vague ‘long-term risk,’ especially since many tell me that they have lived this long eating this way and they aren’t about to change. It makes me question whether we should even be telling these people what they should or should not eat.

The difference between the learning expressed in the statement actually produced and the learning that could have been expressed echoed the difference between lower and higher order reasoning and thus led us to Bloom’s Taxonomy (1956) as a source of structure for the more precise statements of learning objectives we wanted to develop. We realized that the prerequisites for the academic outcomes we had envisioned—the more complex understanding of course material—included identifying a course concept when students saw it emerge in their experiences, applying the concept in the context of these experiences, analyzing the concept as presented in theory through comparing and contrasting its emergence in practice, and ultimately evaluating the adequacy of the theory. Clearly many could not reach the higher levels of thinking on their own; the learning objectives therefore were conceived as a way to make transparent and model the very cognitive process in which we were expecting our students to engage. The hierarchical learning objectives thus generated through this process are closely matched to the reflection framework that guides the students as they examine their service experiences from academic, civic, and personal perspectives in the reflection sessions; they are also annotated with a series of prompting questions to help the students use them in guiding their thinking. (See Appendix A for the academic learning objectives.)

Achieving and articulating this more precise understanding of the learning objectives was an important first step. However, we also realized that the process that takes a student from description of an experience to meaningful evaluation of that experience also requires the intellectual discipline of critical thinking. Critical thinking, as outlined by Paul (1993), is based on universal intellectual standards that include accuracy, clarity, relevance, depth, breadth, logic, and significance. The oft-cited shortcomings of student reflection—reinforced stereotypes, interpretation based on unchallenged assumptions, inappropriate generalizations on the basis of limited data, shallow analysis that yields simplistic solutions to complex issues—appeared frequently in the ALs we reviewed and were clear examples of poorly developed critical thinking abilities. As a result, we recognized the need to provide guidance in this area as a necessary corollary to the hierarchical learning objectives. We therefore produced a second handout with definitions of Paul’s standards of critical thinking and sample AL passages that exemplify the absence of each to introduce students to the elements of critical thinking; this document is intended to support their effort to integrate each element into their thinking process and take their learning from the levels of identification and application, to the levels of analysis and evaluation.

Our assessment approach thus has an explicitly formative component; that is, the learning objectives and critical thinking guide are tools to be used by the students to help focus and deepen their reflective thinking. As noted by the National Research Council (2001), “Students will learn more if instruction and assessment are integrally
Integrating Reflection and Assessment to Capture and Improve Student Learning

Articulated Learnings were collected from a random sample of two classes: a seminar on leadership in the 21st century with 9 students (4 selected) and a course on nutrition across the life cycle with 22 students (10 selected). In the first class, students helped residents at assisted living facilities learn to use computers, and encountered such course concepts as the nature of power in a technologically-intensive society and the various forms “community” takes in contemporary society. In the second class, students worked with community nutrition programs serving children, pregnant women, and older adults, encountering course concepts related to changes in nutrient needs and nutrition-related attitudes and behaviors across the life cycle. At the beginning of the semester, every student received a copy of our Service-Learning Guidebook, Student Edition, which includes introductory material on service-learning, the reflection framework itself and discussion of the reflection session process, and the learning objectives and critical thinking standards. Each of the two instructors partnered with a trained Reflection Leader, who met with the students in their service-learning project groups in out-of-class reflection sessions throughout the semester; the guidebook served as a tool to support their work together. The instructor and Reflection Leader both used the learning objectives and the standards of critical thinking to shape the feedback they provided students in the process of AL revision.

The students wrote one AL in each of the three categories (Academic, Civic, and Personal) following each of four reflection sessions. These “raw” ALs were reviewed by the Reflection Leader and returned to the students, who then reworked them to produce “revised” ALs submitted to the instructor for a second round of feedback. The students selected one AL in each category from the first two reflection sessions and, after revising once more following the instructor’s feedback, turned in one “final” AL in each category. This selection and submission of three final ALs then repeated during the second half of the semester. Thus for each student there was a raw, revised, and final version of two ALs in each of the three dimensions: Academic, Civic, and Personal. Raw and revised ALs that were not finalized were not included in the analysis. Identifying information was removed from the ALs to maintain student anonymity and then they were randomly sorted. Trained student and faculty scorers independently—and blind to author, draft, and date so as not to prejudice their assessment—rated each AL based on the highest level of learning objective achieved (0-4) and the degree of critical thinking demonstrated (1-4). Scorers then came together at a series of group meetings to dis-

Study Design

Because the learning objectives and critical thinking guide are grounded in well-established learning theory, we believe that improvements in student scores on these written reflection products represent improvements in student learning. Therefore, as a concluding step in developing our assessment process, we decided to test their effectiveness by asking: (a) do the assessment tools improve the ALs across drafts within a reflection session, from first to final version? (b) do the assessment tools improve the first drafts of the ALs over the course of the semester, from early to later reflection sessions? and (c) are there differences in the degree to which students can achieve mastery among the three categories (Academic, Civic and Personal)?

Answers to the last two questions in particular should help to tease out specific areas of strengths and weaknesses in our ability to support our students’ intellectual development and help to further refine course and program approaches to reflection specifically and to the integration of service-learning into our courses more generally. The study under discussion here spanned two semesters and is ongoing; it utilizes student ALs as the data source and generates scores for quantitative analysis through applying learning objectives and standards of critical thinking as rubrics. This study allows us to examine a wide range of learning outcomes associated with service-learning, not only specific outcomes in the Academic, Civic, and Personal categories but—transcending category—cognitive outcomes more generally.

Research Questions

Tables related. Providing students with information about particular qualities of their work and what they can do to improve is crucial for maximizing learning” (p. 258). However, these same tools can also be used by instructors or program administrators in a summative fashion. An AL can be evaluated with respect to the highest level of learning objective it achieves, from a “1” indicating thinking at the level of “identify and describe only,” to a “4” indicating “thinking encompassing all levels,” from identification through evaluation. An AL can be given a “0” on this learning objectives rubric if it fails to follow the guidelines at all (e.g., if a student does not identify a course concept in an Academic AL). In addition, the critical thinking standards can be applied to the ALs in the form of a holistic rubric we developed that organizes the elements into four levels of mastery. (See Appendix B.)

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cuss and resolve discrepancies between their rankings. Through this process, a single consensus-based learning objective score was ultimately assigned to each AL by the group and differences in critical thinking scores was resolved to within one level. This was done to allow us to more carefully evaluate and improve on the learning objectives themselves so as to better communicate to the students how to achieve each level. Critical thinking scores were resolved to within one level as the demarcations between these levels is not as precise, nor are they linked to specific types of mastery. A Test for Observer Agreement identified the scorer whose critical thinking ratings were most likely to represent the majority, and those scores were used in the data being presented. ALs that received a learning objective score of 0 were not given a critical thinking score. There were three essays per student per category (raw, revised, final), in three categories (personal, academic, and civic), written twice during the semester (early and late). Therefore, 249 individual essays were read from the sample of 14 students. (One student did not finalize an Academic AL during the second half of the semester.)

Results

Table 1 presents the overall frequency of learning objective scores for the ALs across revisions in all three categories combined, from first draft (“raw”) to third draft (“final”). (Data for second drafts have been omitted from all tables for clarity. We plan on analyzing the relative effects of instructor vs. Reflection Leader feedback in a future study.) There was definite improvement across revisions, as the proportion of students writing at levels 3 or 4 (analysis and evaluation) went from only 12% (11% +1%) on the first, or raw, drafts to 48% (43% + 5%) by the final versions. Table 2 shows the change in learning objective scores across revisions by learning category. In the Academic dimension, while 74% of the raw ALs were written at level 2 (application) and only 7% were written at level 3 (analysis), this improved to 48% at level 2 and 37% at level 3 by the final draft. Improvements were also seen in the Civic and Personal dimensions. In addition, the percentage of Civic ALs that did not meet the minimum criteria, level 0, dropped from 46% to 18%. In general, students appeared to have had a more difficult time making improvements in the Academic dimension. Only 37% of Academic ALs were written at levels 3 or 4, while 47% (36% + 11%) of the Civic and 61% (57% + 4%) of the Personal ALs achieved these scores.

Table 3 shows the frequency of learning objective scores from the first two reflection sessions relative to the final two, comparing the students’ first drafts from early in the semester to their first drafts from later in the semester. Here the improvement was less marked as compared to that seen across revisions. Although the percentage of the raw ALs written at level 3 or 4 improved from 2% (2% + 0%) to 22% (20% + 2%), 24% (22% +2%) of the first draft ALs were still being written at levels 0 or 1 by the second half of the semester. Table 4 shows no significant trends when this same data from across the semester is broken down by category. Only a few students were able to write raw ALs at learning objective level 3 or 4 by the second half of the semester. Comparing all three learning categories, a greater percentage of Civic than Personal or Academic ALs still did not meet the minimum requirements, level 0, of the learning objectives, and no raw Academic or Personal ALs achieved level 4.

Table 5 presents the overall frequency of critical

Table 1
Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across Revisions
(Academic, Civic, and Personal ALs Combined)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>26% (22)*</td>
<td>15% (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4% (3)</td>
<td>2% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>58% (48)</td>
<td>35% (29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>11% (9)</td>
<td>43% (36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1% (1)</td>
<td>5% (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (83)</td>
<td>100% (83)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

Table 2
Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across Revisions by Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Civic</td>
<td>Personal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>19% (5)*</td>
<td>15% (4)</td>
<td>46% (13)</td>
<td>18% (5)</td>
<td>14% (4)</td>
<td>11% (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7% (2)</td>
<td>7% (2)</td>
<td>4% (1)</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>74% (20)</td>
<td>48% (13)</td>
<td>36% (10)</td>
<td>28% (8)</td>
<td>64% (18)</td>
<td>28% (8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7% (2)</td>
<td>37% (10)</td>
<td>7% (2)</td>
<td>36% (10)</td>
<td>18% (5)</td>
<td>57% (16)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4% (1)</td>
<td>11% (3)</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4% (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (27) †</td>
<td>100% (27)</td>
<td>100% (28)</td>
<td>100% (28)</td>
<td>100% (28)</td>
<td>100% (28)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent number of ALs. † One student did not write an Academic AL in the second half of the semester.
thinking scores for the ALs across revisions in all three categories combined. A clear trend in improvement was seen, from only 22% of the ALs being written at levels 3 or 4 in the first drafts, to 69% (61% + 8%) being written at those levels by the final version. Table 6 shows that change by category. While only 18% of the Academic ALs were written at levels 3 or 4 in the first draft, 52% (48% + 4%) were written at those levels by the final version; Civic scores improved from 31% at levels 3 or 4 to 74% (65% + 9%); and the percentage of Personal AL scores at a 3 or 4 went from 21% to 80% (68% + 12%). Overall, the improvements were again somewhat greater in the Civic and Personal dimensions as compared to the Academic category.

Unlike the learning objective scores, the data in Table 7 indicate that students did improve on their ability to write a first draft relative to the critical thinking criteria over the course of the semester, from first to final version. With respect to both the learning objectives and critical thinking standards, we did see improvement in the scores, indicating improvement in the level and quality of thinking, across revisions. The second research question concerned whether the tools could improve the first drafts of the ALs over the course of the semester, that is, whether students could “internalize” them so as to produce higher quality ALs on their own as the semester progressed. The answer with respect to the critical thinking standards was yes—there was a clear shift upward by one level. The results for the learning objective scores, however, were disappointing. The students appeared to remain much more dependent on Reflection Leader and instructor feedback to refine their thinking.

Of course, expecting students largely unfamiliar with service-learning in general and this form of reflection in particular to be able to reason consistently at the highest levels after only 15 weeks is, perhaps, unrealistic, as Perry’s (1970) now landmark work on intellectual development has made clear. We were also hampered by having only a few good models of strong ALs to show the students, given the relative newness of the tools themselves. In addition, our own reflection on the process has made clear that the feedback Reflection Leaders and instructors gave the students tended to focus more on critical thinking standards than on learning objectives, perhaps because the former tool can

### Table 3

**Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across the Semester**

(Continued from previous page)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Version and Time in the Semester</th>
<th>Early, Raw</th>
<th>Late, Raw</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>31% (13)*</td>
<td>22% (9)</td>
<td>21% (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5% (2)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>62% (26)</td>
<td>54% (22)</td>
<td>20% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>20% (8)</td>
<td>20% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (42)</td>
<td>100% (41)</td>
<td>100% (41)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

### Table 4

**Frequency of Learning Objective Scores Across the Semester by Category**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Civic</th>
<th>Personal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Early, Raw</td>
<td>Late, Raw</td>
<td>Early, Raw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>14% (2)*</td>
<td>23% (3)</td>
<td>57% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>86% (12)</td>
<td>62% (8)</td>
<td>36% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15% (2)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (14)</td>
<td>100% (13)</td>
<td>100% (14)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs. † One student did not write an Academic AL in the second half of the semester.
be more quickly and easily applied—with comments such as, “what do you mean by that,” “why might this be true,” and “does this follow from what you said earlier”—on a cursory, sentence-by-sentence read of an AL. Effective formative use of the learning objectives as a rubric, however, requires the reviewer to go back and evaluate the AL from a holistic perspective, considering how the learning might best be refocused or strengthened to take it to a higher level; its use seems to come a bit less naturally to Reflection Leaders and instructors. The learning objectives rubric takes more time and is thus apt to be the more easily neglected of the two tools. Improving the use of this rubric will be an important focus for future training efforts.

Our goal is to have students reflecting deeply and articulating quality learning as early in the semester as possible. Students bring fresh experiences to each class discussion and reflection session, and the process for improving their learning and their service is a cumulative one; so the longer it takes to develop solid reflection abilities, the greater risk of “wasting” opportunities. And of course we would like to see a substantial percentage of the ALs demonstrating thinking at the level of evaluation (a Learning Objective score of “4”). Driven by the suggestive but still unsatisfactory nature of our research results, we have developed a four-part tutorial that introduces students to the reflection model, process of articulating learning, and learning objective and critical thinking tools so that they are less dependent on us to help guide them. We plan to gauge the effectiveness of this tutorial in improving the overall quality of the ALs and in producing quality ALs earlier in the semester during the next phase of this research.

Our final research question concerned whether there would be differences in students’ ability to achieve mastery among the three dimensions—Academic, Civic, and Personal. We found that, in fact, the Academic dimension posed the most substantial challenge, though it was more problematic for the learning objectives than it was for the critical thinking standards. Upon reflection we have come to realize that while all three categories of learning objectives require students to develop higher-order reasoning and critical thinking skills, the higher level academic learning objectives explicitly require students to critique course material, to look for gaps in the adequacy of a theory. While students seem able to reflect on service-related academic concepts utilizing at least some of the elements of critical thinking, it is clear that bringing specifically analytical and evaluative thought to bear on what they are learning in a course is one of the many ways in which service-learning is “counter-normative” to traditional learning (Howard, 1998), and therefore a reason why higher-order academic learning outcomes related to specific elements of course content may be harder to achieve. Before students can achieve such levels of reasoning they have to be given—and give themselves—permission to judge the work of established authors, and they have to come to believe that their own experience is a legitimate source of knowledge. Our students have helped us understand that to maximize this articulated learning process it is also necessary for them to learn to see writing as a vehicle for ongoing learning, rather than as a representation of learning that has already occurred—which is how they tend to approach academic writing especially. These “shifts in perspective and practice” (Clayton & Ash, 2004) are not easily made, so it follows that demonstration of the associated reasoning levels in the academic arena might lag behind. One of our conclusions from this pattern in the data is the need to provide better sup-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

Table 5

Frequency of Critical Thinking Scores Across Revisions (Academic, Civic, and Personal ALs Combined)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.
port to our students as they learn to learn through service-learning; specifically, we are developing a range of reflection mechanisms designed to help students confront and adjust to the counter-normal nature of service-learning, so they are less hindered by its unfamiliar requirements than they might otherwise be and therefore able to make more progress more quickly, including reflection on academic material.

We began this research seeking to document program-wide student learning outcomes. We have done so, and, moreover, this research process has helped us to refine not only a program assessment strategy but also tools and materials that are serving to encourage if not “enforce” more consistent quality in the service-learning initiative on campus. Thus, the research has played a distinctly formative role in the evolution of our Service-Learning Program as a whole. Through the research process of reaching consensus on AL scores, we have surfaced several ambiguities in the learning objectives and identified specific ways to strengthen them to better support students’ thinking in the AL process; the language of the learning objectives has thus been revised, producing the current version represented in Appendix A. The very existence of program-level objectives also gives us a structure around which to build faculty development. It allows us to provide instructors with much-needed guidance as they struggle to give meaningful feedback on their students’ service-learning related work, interjects common language into our faculty learning community to support dialogue and scholarship, and helps to focus our understanding of service-learning pedagogy around a set of shared values (e.g., critical thinking). We believe that the tutorial will also make the reflection framework and its associated AL process easier to implement for otherwise reluctant faculty because of the support it provides in reflection—an area with which they are often unfamiliar and/or uncomfortable.

We realize that there are at least two potential challenges to this process. One could argue that we are “teaching to the test” because we are so explicit about our expectations in the form of learning objectives. However, the “tests” are based on the well-established Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives that organizes the cognitive domain of learning into a series of levels that build on each other toward the development of intellectual skills, and on equally well-established standards of critical thinking that serve as a guide to the quality of the reasoning being used. A benefit of this transparent process is that it helps to develop both a common language in the classroom and an independent capacity for learning, which students can carry with them into other classes and other areas of their lives.

Second, it can be argued that this reflection model and the associated feedback process is simply too time-intensive to be useful to over-loaded faculty; it may also be suggested that the learning curve requires too many trade-offs of class or homework time and that the model implies inappropriately replacing other assignments with reflection assignments and thus devoting too large a portion of the course to reflection. We would never argue that this process does not take time, on the part of faculty and students alike, or that it does not require us to make changes in our use of time and assignments; it most certainly does, as, of course, does almost any approach to implementing quality service-learning. For us, however, and increasingly for the faculty we work with, time spent on deepening the learning outcomes associated with our teaching is time well-spent. As Howard (1998) suggests, whether we judge time as “away” from the “task at hand” depends on how we define our task. We believe that the power of service-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Early, Raw</th>
<th>Late, Raw</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>21% (6)*</td>
<td>6% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>79% (23)</td>
<td>52% (17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>42% (14)</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (29)</td>
<td>100% (33)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Civic</th>
<th>Personal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Early, Raw</td>
<td>Late, Raw</td>
<td>Early, Raw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>25% (3)*</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>75% (9)</td>
<td>60% (6)</td>
<td>100% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>40% (4)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (12)</td>
<td>100% (10)</td>
<td>100% (6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Values in parentheses represent the number of ALs.
learning resides primarily in its ability to cultivate capacities for self-directed learning, personal growth, and citizenship, and that this potential can only be tapped through rigorous and high-quality reflection. This conviction helps guide us through the inevitable and admittedly difficult trade-offs that the implementation of this model requires.

Conclusion

We have presented a model for demonstrating the effectiveness of learning in service-learning courses that involves identifying desired student learning outcomes and then crafting an integrated reflection and assessment strategy around them. The following are equally important in this model: (a) the design of reflection mechanisms in accordance with the desired learning outcomes; (b) the recognition that more general cognitive outcomes (improvements in critical thinking and higher order reasoning skills) are tied to the more course- or program-specific learning outcomes; (c) the use of the same tools for formative and summative assessment; and, (d) the use of reflection products as a vehicle for assessment. It is our hope that our approach to integrating reflection and assessment can serve as a model for other faculty and staff as they seek to design service-learning courses and programs. As individual instructors and program administrators, we have found this approach most useful at both levels, in large part because—as any good assessment protocol should—it facilitates continuous improvement in our practice while also giving us data—both qualitative and quantitative—of interest to our institution. In particular, it is helping us to understand better both how our students think and how we can support them in learning to think more deeply and with greater capacity for self-directed learning. The research process helps us maximize the potential for student learning outcomes associated with service-learning.

References


Authors

SARAH L. ASH received her doctorate in nutrition from Tufts University and is an associate professor in the Departments of Animal Science and Family and Consumer Sciences at North Carolina State University (NCSU). She has been active in the inquiry-guided-learning and general education reform initiatives at NCSU, and she serves as a senior Faculty Fellow with the Service-Learning Program, directing research and scholarship on reflection and assessment. Her special interests include the use of critical thinking standards and the reflective processes of service-learning to improve student learning.

PATTI H. CLAYTON received her interdisciplinary doctorate from the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. She is coordinator of the NCSU Service-Learning Program and an adjunct assistant professor in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences. Co-developer of the program’s reflection framework, student leadership roles, and faculty development and support processes, she consults with other universities on service-learning capacity building and co-authors materials on reflection and assessment. She is particularly interested in leadership development through reflection and civic engagement.

MAXINE P. ATKINSON received her doctorate in sociology from Washington State University. She is an associate professor in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at NCSU. She is currently the co-director of the First Year Inquiry Seminar Program. Atkinson’s primary teaching interests are training graduate students to teach and teaching first year students using inquiry-guided methods. Her research interests focus on the conceptualization, measurement, and documentation of the scholarship of teaching and learning.
Appendix B: Level 4 of 4-Level Holistic Critical Thinking Rubric

Level 4 does most or all of the following:

Integration: Makes clear the connection(s) between the service experience and the learning being articulated
Relevance: Describes learning that is relevant to the AL category and keeps the discussion focused on the learning being articulated
Accuracy: Makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence
(For academic ALs, accurately identifies, describes, and applies appropriate academic material)
Clarity: Consistently provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways
Makes very few or no typographical, spelling, and/or grammatical errors
Depth: Thoroughly addresses salient questions that arise from statements being made; avoids over-simplifying when making connections; considers the full complexity of the issue
Breadth: Gives meaningful consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes good use of them in shaping the learning being articulated
Logic: Draws conclusions and/or sets goals that consistently follow very well from the line of reasoning presented
Significance: Draws important conclusions and/or sets meaningful goals that address the most significant issue(s) raised by the experience

APPENDIX IV
Generating, Deepening, and Documenting Learning: The Power of Critical Reflection in Applied Learning

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PATI H. CLAYTON
PHC Ventures/Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis

Applied learning pedagogies—including service-learning, internships/practica, study abroad, and undergraduate research—have in common both the potential for significant student learning and the challenges of facilitating and assessing that learning, often in non-traditional ways that involve experiential strategies outside the classroom as well as individualized outcomes. Critical reflection oriented toward well-articulated learning outcomes is key to generating, deepening, and documenting student learning in applied learning. This article will consider the meaning of critical reflection and principles of good practice for designing it effectively and will present a research-grounded, flexible model for integrating critical reflection and assessment.

Applied learning pedagogies share a design fundamental: the nurturing of learning and growth through a reflective, experiential process that takes students out of traditional classroom settings. The approach is grounded in the conviction that learning is maximized when it is active, engaged, and collaborative. Each applied learning pedagogy provides students with opportunities to connect theory and practice, to learn in unfamiliar contexts, to interact with others unlike themselves, and to practice using knowledge and skills.

Despite the oft-cited maxim that “experience is the best teacher,” we know that experience alone can, in fact, be a problematic teacher.
(Dewey, 1910; Conrad & Hedin, 1990; Hondagneu-Sotelo & Raskoff, 1994; Stanton, 1990; Strand, 1999). Experiential learning can all too easily allow students to reinforce stereotypes about difference, to develop simplistic solutions to complex problems, and to generalize inaccurately based on limited data. The service-learning student, for example, may think that all food assistance programs function exactly like the one at which he is working, causing him to make sweeping generalizations about the effectiveness of such programs despite widespread variations in size, structure, and sources of food and funding.

In addition, students may not derive the most important or significant learning from their experiences. The undergraduate researcher in the physiology lab may be frustrated by the tediousness of the research and not appreciate that scientific inquiry is intentionally a slow process of trial and error. She may not fully understand why the research questions she is investigating are important or how the data she is collecting fit into previous findings.

Students may leave applied learning experiences with little capacity to turn learning into improved action. The study abroad student may believe he has developed a greater sensitivity to cultures different from his own but six months later find himself jumping to conclusions about others based on their background or ethnicity. The intern who finds her collaborative project frustrating may end up repeating patterns of poor teamwork in her next group project.

Finally, students in applied learning pedagogies may have a vague sense of the impact their experiences have had on them but not be fully aware of the nature of their own learning, its sources, or its significance. They may only be able to describe outcomes vaguely, with phrases such as “I learned a lot from working with community members” or “I got so much out of living abroad.” The service-learning student may fail to understand the different ways in which the classroom and the community present her with learning challenges. The study abroad student may be unable to identify specific changes in her attitudes toward others or to articulate what led to the changes. Students may, in other words, miss the opportunity to learn about their own learning processes—to develop the meta-cognitive skills required for lifelong, self-directed learning that applied learning is so well suited to cultivate.

The students in these examples would all benefit from a process of strong reflection, to help them avoid what T.S. Eliot (1943) once described as having the experience but missing the meaning. Learning—and understanding learning processes—does not happen maximally through experience alone but rather as a result of thinking about—reflecting on—it. As noted by Stanton (1990), when reflection on experience is weak, students’ “learning” may be “haphazard, accidental, and superficial” (p. 185). When it is well designed, reflection promotes significant learning, including problem-solving skills, higher order reasoning, integrative thinking, goal clarification, openness to new ideas, ability to adopt new perspectives, and systemic thinking (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Conrad & Hedin, 1987).

However, reflection and its central role in applied learning are often misunderstood or seen as unnecessary. The word itself frequently connotes stream-of-consciousness writing, keeping a diary, or producing a summary of activities. It can easily be associated with “touchy-feely” introspection, too subjective to evaluate in a meaningful way and lacking in the rigor required for substantive academic work. Dewey (1910), one of the early champions of experiential learning, provides a strong foundation for re-conceptualizing reflection, defining it as the “active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends” (p. 6). Schön (1983) emphasizes the link between reflection and action; he defines reflection as “a continual interweaving of thinking and doing” and suggests that what he calls the reflective practitioner is one who “reflects on the understandings which have been implicit in [one’s] action, which [one] surfaces, criticizes, restructures, and embodies in further action” (p. 281). The reflection required if applied learning pedagogies are to be maximized as learning opportunities is best understood in these terms, as a process of metacognition that functions to improve the quality of thought and of action and the relationship between them.

When understood in this light and designed accordingly, reflection becomes “critical reflection.” It generates learning (articulating questions, confronting bias, examining causality, contrasting theory with practice, pointing to systemic issues), deepens learning (challenging simplistic conclusions, inviting alternative perspectives, asking “why” iteratively), and documents learning (producing tangible expressions of new understandings for evaluation) (Ash & Clayton, 2009a and 2009b; Whitney & Clayton, in press). As we understand it, critical reflection

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is an evidence-based examination of the sources of and gaps in knowledge and practice, with the intent to improve both. Designing reflection effectively so as to make applied learning educationally meaningful first requires that we make clear its meaning as an integrative, analytical, capacity-building process rather than as a superficial exercise in navel-gazing (Ash & Clayton, 2009b; Whitney & Clayton, in press; Zlotkowski & Clayton, 2005).

A critical reflection process that generates, deepens, and documents learning does not occur automatically—rather, it must be carefully and intentionally designed. Welch (1999) points out that it is not enough to tell students “it is now time to reflect” (p. 1). Eyler, Giles, and Schmiede (1996) note that reflection “need not be a difficult process, but it does need to be a purposeful and strategic process” (p. 16). Especially given how unfamiliar most students are with learning through reflection on experience (Clayton & Ash, 2004), they need a structure and guidance to help them derive meaningful learning when they are outside the traditional classroom setting, otherwise reflection tends to be little more than descriptive accounts of experiences or venting of personal feelings.

This article explores principles of good practice across three steps in the design of critical reflection in applied learning:

1) determining the desired outcomes: learning goals and associated objectives,
2) designing reflection so as to achieve those outcomes, and
3) integrating formative and summative assessment into the reflection process.

It then presents a model for critical reflection—the DEAL model—that has been explicitly designed to embody these principles and refined through several years of research.

The discussion here is grounded in the conviction that facilitators of student learning in applied learning pedagogies are instructional designers; they make choices throughout the design process that are influenced by their goals and constraints and by their students’ abilities as well as their own. Designing reflection proceeds best when framed in scholarly terms: as a process of experimentation, of continual assessment and refinement, of learning with and alongside the students. In other words, the designer of applied learning opportunities is best understood as a reflective practitioner herself—one who engages in the same critical reflection that she expects from her students—thereby improving her thinking and action relative to the work of generating, deepening, and documenting student learning in applied learning.

**DETERMINING DESIRED LEARNING OUTCOMES**

Just as with any other intentional design process, designing critical reflection requires beginning with the end in mind (Covey, 1989; Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). Specifically, it begins with the identification of desired learning outcomes. It then proceeds with the expression of learning goals in terms of assessable learning objectives and continues to the design and implementation of teaching and learning strategies (such as reflection) aligned with those objectives, all the while developing assessment strategies that are well-matched to the objectives and to the teaching and learning strategies and that can be used to inform future revisions of either or both.

Instructors, as well as the programs that support them, have a range of desired learning outcomes that underlie their use of any particular applied learning pedagogy (or combination of them). Figure 1 provides a conceptual framework for articulating a categorization of these outcomes and the role of critical reflection in advancing them, using service-learning as an example. Most instructors use service-learning to help their students engage more effectively with the content of the course or the perspective of the discipline while also learning about citizenship and about themselves as individuals. In other words, they use service-learning to help students learn at least in the general categories of academic enhancement, civic learning, and personal growth. These categories can apply to other applied learning pedagogies as well, along with additional ones such as intercultural learning (particularly relevant...
in study abroad), professional development (especially for internships), and research skill development (in undergraduate research). Critical thinking might be seen as its own category of outcomes or as a dimension of other categories; additional meta-level outcomes related to learning processes might include emotional intelligence or the ability to make connections between ideas.

Given the public purposes of higher education (Boyer, 1996; Saltmarsh, Hartley, & Clayton, 2009; O’Meara & Rice, 2005; Saltmarsh, 2005), designers of any applied learning pedagogy might well consider civic learning as a relevant category of learning. Battistoni (2002) offers thirteen conceptual frameworks for understanding “civic” that are linked to various disciplines and thereby suggests a wide variety of ways it can be defined, such as in terms of participatory democracy, social justice, or an ethic of care. Specific learning goals in this category might relate to such issues as change agency, power, privilege, leadership, economic and political systems, governmental processes, community organizing, and public problem-solving. In light of the multi-faceted nature of this category, applied learning opportunities of all types can be designed to include it. For example, students involved in undergraduate research can consider the social drivers for and implications of both their research questions and their process of inquiry; those studying abroad can focus attention on the interconnections between local and global issues and on the ways culture shapes notions of citizenship; interns can explore the roles of corporations as citizens and the range of opportunities to integrate their professional and civic lives.

Similarly, applied learning pedagogies often involve interactions with others—classmates, mentors, community members, lab partners, officemates—and therefore lend themselves readily to learning in the general category of collaboration. Associated learning goals might include developing students’ abilities to communicate with diverse others, make decisions as a group, assess group members’ strengths and weaknesses and allocate responsibility accordingly, handle interpersonal conflict effectively, hold themselves and others accountable to group norms, develop shared visions, and monitor progress toward collective objectives and reach consensus on appropriate changes in their approach.

As the previous example suggests, learning goals within any one category of learning can often cross into another category—collaboration could also be understood as an element of diversity learning, professional development, personal growth, or civic learning. It is therefore up to instructors, program administrators, and/or students to decide how best to express the categories of learning and the associated learning goals for their particular situation. Because these categories are likely going to become headings in, for example, assessment reports, particular attention should be paid to what best represents the key arenas of learning that are to be cultivated through the pedagogy. Toward that end, it may be helpful to begin by listing more specific goals (such as the ones given above for collaboration) and then determining how best to organize them into more general categories. Such an activity may be particularly important when a group of instructors undertakes instructional design together as part of a program or curriculum, so as to make sure that everyone is in agreement with and working towards the same desired outcomes.

Figure 2 provides an example of the use of Venn diagrams to express the learning goals associated with various categories of learning that might be developed for internships. As the use of the Venn diagrams suggests, learning outcomes are often conceptualized as the intersection of two or more categories. A Nonprofit Studies curriculum at North Carolina State University that is designed with threaded service-learning, for example, articulates learning outcomes at the intersection of academic enhancement and civic learning in terms of learning goals including: aligning mission, methods, and resources; balancing individual interests and the common good; moving beyond charity to systemic change; capitalizing on opportunities associated with diversity; and earning the public trust (Jameson, Clayton, & Bringle, 2008).

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework for the Role of Reflection in Achieving Learning Goals (internship example)
Whether starting with the general categories and working down to more specific learning goals within them or starting with learning goals and then determining the most useful way to categorize them, developing this broad structure to express and organize desired learning outcomes is key to undertaking an intentional instructional design process, to communicating the rationales for applied learning to students and colleagues, and to structuring assessment strategies and sharing resultant data. This structure for thinking about learning outcomes provides an important foundation for developing strong approaches to critical reflection.

FROM LEARNING GOALS TO LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Once the general categories of learning and their associated learning goals have been determined, the instructional designer’s next task is to express the learning goals as assessable learning objectives. Goals such as “students will learn about project management” (internship), “students will understand the challenges facing schools in their attempts to implement state and federal education policies” (service-learning), “students will appreciate the similarities as well as the differences between their home and host cultures” (study abroad), or “students will understand the differences between quantitative and qualitative research methods” (undergraduate research) are difficult to translate into effective pedagogical practice.

Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1956) provides a foundation for turning learning goals into assessable learning objectives, which then drive the rest of the design process. The taxonomy includes learning in three domains: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor; this discussion refers to the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in the Cognitive Domain. Although modified and re-ordered by some scholars in recent years, Bloom et al. originally identified six levels, each with associated—and assessable—learning behaviors, as summarized in Table 1. A central and widely shared, although not universal, tenet of our reading of the taxonomy is its hierarchical nature—each level builds toward the next, from simpler to more complex dimensions of reasoning. For example, applying an academic concept effectively requires having a good understanding of it, which itself involves having basic knowledge of the underlying facts or theories.

Table 2 provides an example, drawn from service-learning, of the use of Bloom’s Taxonomy to move from general categories of learning to specific learning goals and then to assessable learning objectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Objective Level</th>
<th>Category: Personal Growth</th>
<th>Category: Civic Learning</th>
<th>Category: Academic Enhancement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LO 1: Identify</td>
<td>Students will consider ways to refine their skills</td>
<td>Identify the collective objectives at stake and the approach you or others took toward meeting them.</td>
<td>Identify the Stages of Change model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LO 2: Explain</td>
<td>Someone who does not know you can understand it</td>
<td>Explain the objectives and the approach you and/or others took toward meeting them so that someone not involved can understand.</td>
<td>Explain the Stages of Change model so that someone not in the course can understand it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LO 3: Apply</td>
<td>Apply your understanding of this skill in the context of your service-learning experience and (as applicable) in other areas of your life.</td>
<td>Apply your understanding of the approach in the context of the objectives at stake.</td>
<td>Apply your understanding of the Stages of Change model in the context of the experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LO 4: Analyze</td>
<td>Analyze the sources of this skill in your life.</td>
<td>Analyze the approach in light of alternatives.</td>
<td>Analyze the similarities and differences between the Stages of Change model as presented in the text and as it emerged in the community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LO 5: Synthesize</td>
<td>Develop the steps necessary to improve upon this skill in the short term, in your service-learning activities and (as applicable) in other areas of your life.</td>
<td>Develop the steps necessary to make any needed improvements in your/their approaches (and/or in the objectives) in the short term.</td>
<td>Develop an enhanced understanding of the Stages of Change model in light of the experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LO 6: Evaluate</td>
<td>Develop your understanding of the Stages of Change model toward meeting them.</td>
<td>Evaluate your approaches in terms of the prospects for long-term, sustainable, and/or systemic change.</td>
<td>Evaluate the completeness of your understanding of the Stages of Change model and of its use in the community.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using Bloom’s Taxonomy in this way, to achieve a high level of clarity regarding desired learning outcomes and to express them in assessable language, enables instructors to design reflection that targets learning objectives in developmentally-appropriate ways, building toward the highest level of learning deemed appropriate in any given instance. The learning objectives thus become both the road map that guides the design of reflection activities and the basis for determining whether the intended destination has been reached and adequately expressed in the products of reflection.

Table 1: Bloom’s Taxonomy and Associated Learning Behaviors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bloom’s Classification</th>
<th>Examples of Learning-Related Behaviors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Define, state, provide evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Explain, describe, restate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Apply, solve, choose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Analyze, compare, contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthesis</td>
<td>Synthesize, develop, propose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluate, assess, judge, critique</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DESIGNING REFLECTION TO ACHIEVE DESIRED LEARNING

Effectively designing critical reflection involves making a series of choices that are informed by the desired learning outcomes as well as by the opportunities and constraints that come with the specific context in which applied learning is being implemented and by the abilities of the participants. These choices produce an overall reflection strategy or over-arching structure that may combine various reflection activities or mechanisms—such as journal entries, online chat sessions, poster presentations, worksheets, or discussion sessions. Questions such as those in Table 3 can help guide the design of reflection strategies and mechanisms.

The result of such intentional design work is a customized plan that integrates critical reflection into the core of applied learning experiences. This plan may be maximized by designing the reflection strategy such that individual reflection mechanisms build on one another cumulatively, so that students learn how to learn through reflection as well as improve the quality of their learning and their practice over time. Table 4 summarizes a body of principles of good practice that has emerged to support the instructional designer in making the choices that produce high-quality reflection strategies and mechanisms.

Table 3: Questions to Guide the Design of Reflection Strategies and Mechanisms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reflection Strategies</th>
<th>Reflection Mechanisms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>When and how often will reflection occur?</strong></td>
<td>Toward what specific learning goals and objectives will the particular activity be guided?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before, during, and after the experience?</td>
<td>What medium will be used for the activity: written assignments, worksheets, spectrum activities, photographs, videos, games, drawings, online forums, in-class discussion, out-of-class reflection sessions, concept maps, etc.?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will students reflect iteratively such that reflection builds on itself over time?</td>
<td>What prompts will be used to guide the activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In or outside the classroom?</td>
<td>What products will demonstrate the learning the activity generates: essays, PowerPoint or poster presentations, oral exams, etc.?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who will facilitate and/or participate in reflection?</td>
<td>Note that in a critical reflection process, the products used to demonstrate learning are in many cases the same as the medium used to generate it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors, members of the community or workplace, peers?</td>
<td>What criteria will be used to assess the learning so demonstrated?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Characteristics of High Quality Reflection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High Quality Reflection …</th>
<th>AChIEVE DESIREd LEARNING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is continuous (ongoing)</td>
<td>DESIGnInG REFLECTIon To</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is connected (with assignments and activities related to and building on one another and including explicit integration with learning goals and academic material)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is challenging (including in terms of the expectation that students take responsibility for their own learning)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is contextualized (to the community setting and broader public issues and to the students’ own particular roles)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bringle &amp; Hatcher (1999)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>links experience to learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is guided</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occurs regularly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involves feedback to the learner to enhance the learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helps clarify values</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zlotkowski &amp; Clayton (2005)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is oriented toward specific learning objectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is integrative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is assessed in terms of critical thinking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>includes goal setting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generates change in the learner’s life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of these sets of characteristics of high quality critical reflection includes explicit linkage to desired learning outcomes, and Bloom’s Taxonomy provides a structure to facilitate the design of reflection accordingly. The example reflection activity provided in Figure 3 demonstrates the design of reflection prompts—for the learning goal of understanding strengths and weaknesses, in the category of personal growth—that guide students step-by-step to ever-higher levels of reasoning through prompts that are explicitly structured in accordance with the levels of the taxonomy.

A focus on critical thinking is a key characteristic of critical reflection. The reflection guided by the prompts in Figure 3 can progress to ever-higher levels of reasoning but do so poorly, in an illogical, unclear way that is uninformed by consideration of multiple perspectives and that fails to engage with the true complexity of the issues. Critical thinking, as outlined by Paul and Elder (2002), is based on universal intellectual standards that include accuracy, clarity, relevance, depth, breadth, logic, significance, and fairness. Many of the potential shortcomings of reflection described in the introduction—reinforcing stereotypes, generalizing inappropriately on the basis of limited data, missing the most significant learning in an experience—are indicative of and result from poorly developed critical thinking abilities. Providing guidance in this area is, therefore, a necessary corollary to the use of hierarchical learning objectives in the design of critical reflection (Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005). Table 5 provides an overview of the standards of
Designing an intentional approach to critical reflection in applied learning also involves the development of an assessment strategy, as well as student use in guiding future learning and action.

### Critical Thinking Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critical Thinking Standard</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Associated Questions to Check your Thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>Service experience clearly related to the learning.</td>
<td>• Have I clearly shown the connection between my experience and my learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarity</td>
<td>Expands on ideas, express ideas in another way, provides examples or illustrations where appropriate.</td>
<td>• Did I give an example? • Is it clear what I mean by this? • Could I elaborate further?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>All statements are factually correct and/or supported with evidence.</td>
<td>• How do I know this? • Is this true? • How could I check on this or verify it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>Statements contain specific information.</td>
<td>• Can I be more specific? • Have I provided sufficient detail?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>All statements are relevant to the question at hand; all statements connect to the central point.</td>
<td>• How does this relate to the issue being discussed? • How does this help us/me deal with the issue being discussed?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth</td>
<td>Explains the reasons behind conclusions and anticipates and answers the questions that the reasoning raises and/or acknowledges the complexity of the issue.</td>
<td>• Why is this true? • What are some of the complexities here? • What would it take for this to happen? • Would this be easy to do?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth</td>
<td>Considers alternative points of view or how someone else might have interpreted the situation.</td>
<td>• Would this look the same from the perspective of…? • Is there another way to interpret what this means?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logic</td>
<td>The line of reasoning makes sense and follows from the facts and/or what has been said.</td>
<td>• Does what I said at the beginning fit with what I concluded at the end? • Do my conclusions match the evidence that I have presented?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>The conclusions or goals represent a (the) major issue raised by the reflection on experience.</td>
<td>• Is this the most important issue to focus on? • Is this the most significant problem to consider?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>Other points of view are represented with integrity (without bias or distortion).</td>
<td>• Have I represented this viewpoint in such a way that the person who holds it would agree with my characterization?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Assessment can be designed for *summative* purposes and used at the end of a process to measure and document outcomes, and it can be designed for *formative* purposes and used during a process as a way to continuously improve both the process and the outcomes. A summative assessment process that is grounded in well-articulated learning objectives can be used both to grade student products and to report outcomes at program or curriculum levels. Summative assessment in the form of grading generally involves judging the degree to which students have met the learning objectives. Such assessment can be standards based and therefore measure the ultimate attainment of an objective at the end of the experience, or it can be based on improvement and therefore measure change over time. A related design choice that often emerges at the program or curriculum level is whether the ultimate attainment or the change over time is to be assessed within a single course or applied learning project, across a sequence of courses or projects, or both. Instructors and/or administrators need to decide on the form summative assessment reports should take, in light of the uses to which they will be put and the audiences for whom they are intended. For example, will the assessment be expressed quantitatively, such as the percentage of students whose reflection on experience demonstrates fulfillment of the desired outcomes, or will the report provide qualitative information with examples of student learning outcomes, or both?

Faculty and students using applied learning pedagogies will find value in formatively assessing both learning and the teaching and learning process and programs that generate it. Formative assessment is increasingly recognized as key to effectively designing teaching and learning. As noted by the National Research Council (2001), “Students will learn more if instruction [in this case, reflection in applied learning] and assessment are integrally related. [P]roviding students with information about particular qualities of their work and what they can do to improve it is crucial for maximizing learning” (p. 258). Feedback combined with opportunities to apply it (e.g. through revision of their work) is an approach to formative assessment that helps students learn not only content, but meta-cognitive skills as well—in this case, learning how to learn through the often unfamiliar process of critical reflection.

Formative assessment can also be used to check the reflection process against the learning outcomes it generates so as to refine both the learning goals and objectives and the reflection strategies and mechanisms designed to meet them. Instructors might review student products critically not only in order to provide helpful feedback to improve students’ thinking but also to gauge the effectiveness of their own design (e.g., the clarity of the reflection prompts) and to provide themselves with feedback to improve it. Such formative assessment also provides valuable feedback to instructors regarding, for example, concepts or skills that prove difficult for students to grasp; such information can inform discussion of how these concepts or skills are taught in the courses or programs associated with or prerequisite to the applied learning activity.

Having sorted through the various purposes of assessment, the designer of applied learning pedagogies faces additional choice points related to how assessment is implemented, including the nature of the products or evidence that will be examined. Will assessment involve extra activities that are not related to the learning process (for example, pre and post questionnaires) or assignments and products that are already part of the course or project (for example, reflection products or essays)? In a questionnaire, students might be asked to what degree they think they have met the learning objectives of their applied learning experience; in a course-embedded assignment, students would be asked to respond to a prompt or prompts, and the resultant product would be evaluated against the objectives. Practitioner-scholars such as Eyler (2000) suggest that the former often confuses student satisfaction with student learning and therefore call for the development of approaches that support students in doing the latter. In addition, a course-embedded process is generally less time-consuming, for both students and instructors, than the interview, focus group, or portfolio methods often used (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, & Kerrigan, 2001) and requires more intentional integration of assessment with the teaching and learning process.

Another issue is the determination of criteria that will be used to evaluate the products that demonstrate learning. In other words, what will be the indicators of the degree to which the student has met the learning objectives or of the quality of learning outcomes? The creation of a rubric that expresses varying levels of quality or mastery, from novice to expert or from under-developed to excellent, can be extremely helpful in guiding this process. For example, if the objective is for interns to be able to determine the appropriate approach to a particular workplace situation (e.g., a team member not pulling her weight), a rubric in which responses are categorized by degree of sophistication and/or efficacy could be used for assessment. If an objective is meta-cognitive and/or is unique to the students as individuals and their particular experiences (for example, that students are able to evaluate a personal strength or weakness in light of their professional goals), then a rubric based on Bloom’s Taxonomy that expresses levels of reasoning may be in order. The Standards of Critical Thinking described earlier can also be turned into a rubric (see Table 6, for example) that can be used to assess quality of reasoning.

An integrated approach to assessment and reflection includes using the same set of objectives and standards and tools to generate learning (through reflection prompts), to deepen learning (through formative assessment or feedback), and to document learning (through summative
Amissed opportunity for maximized learning as well as a hindrance to assessment or grading and reporting outcomes. Reflection prompts based on Bloom’s Taxonomy can both guide students to desired levels of reasoning and determine the level of reasoning they have attained. Critical thinking standards can be used as both a formative guide to improve student reasoning and a summative tool to evaluate its quality in the end. Making visible such integration of reflection and assessment is key in helping students become increasingly aware of and responsible for their own learning processes.

The creation of an assessment strategy is as important as the articulation of the learning goals and associated objectives, and all should be developed in parallel during the design of the reflection activities. Trying to assess a learning goal that has not been articulated as an assessable objective (e.g., “students will understand …”, “students will appreciate …”, “students will learn about …”) is usually an exercise in frustration. A reflection mechanism that is not mapped to learning objectives is often a missed opportunity for maximized learning as well as a hindrance to using reflection products to assess learning. And an objective that expresses desired learning that cannot be achieved through the pedagogy in question, much less assessed, should, like all of the above, send the designer back to the drawing board.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Charity</th>
<th>Depth</th>
<th>Breadth</th>
<th>Fairness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Completely lacking (1)</td>
<td>under-developed (2)</td>
<td>good (3)</td>
<td>excellent (4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Consistently makes inaccurate statements and/or fails to provide supporting evidence for claims</td>
<td>Makes several inaccurate statements and/or supports few statements with evidence</td>
<td>Usually but not always makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence</td>
<td>Consistently makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charity</td>
<td>Consistently fails to provide examples, to illustrate points, to define terms, and/or to express ideas in other ways</td>
<td>Only occasionally provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways</td>
<td>Usually but not always provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways</td>
<td>Consistently provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth</td>
<td>Fails to address salient questions that arise from statements being made; consistently over-simplifies when making connections; considers only a small part of the complexity of the issue</td>
<td>Addresses few of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; rarely over-simplifies when making connections; considers some but not all of the full complexity of the issue</td>
<td>Addresses some but not all of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; avoids over-simplifying when making connections; considers the full complexity of the issue</td>
<td>Consistently provides meaningful consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes very good use of them in shaping the learning being articulated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth</td>
<td>Ignores or superficially considers alternative points of view and/or interpretations</td>
<td>Consistently represents others’ perspectives in a biased or distorted way</td>
<td>Occasionally represents others’ perspectives in a biased or distorted way</td>
<td>Consistently represents others’ perspectives in a biased or distorted way</td>
<td>Consistently represents others’ perspectives in a biased or distorted way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Critical Thinking Rubric [excerpts]

The DEAL model consists of three sequential steps (see Figure 4):

1. **Description of experiences** in an objective and detailed manner;
2. **Examination of those experiences** in light of specific learning goals or objectives; and
3. **Articulation of Learning**, including goals for future action that can then be taken forward into the next experience for improved practice and further refinement of learning.

**Figure 4: Schematic Overview of the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection**

An example of an approach to critical reflection explicitly designed in accordance with the principles of good practice discussed above is the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Ash & Clayton, 2009a, 2009b)—the product of a multi-year scholarship of teaching and learning project involving students and faculty from a variety of disciplines. Originally developed in the context of service-learning, DEAL has been used across a range of traditional and experiential pedagogies; in K-12, undergraduate, and graduate courses and curricula; and in co-curricular as well as professional training settings.
Each step of this model requires specific prompts, which provide the guidance necessary for students to engage in the oftentimes counter-normative activity of developing their own learning rather than reproducing what their instructors have taught them (Clayton & Ash, 2004; Howard, 1998). The discussion that follows summarizes each step in the DEAL model and provides sample prompts.

**DESCRIBE**

Objective, detailed description of an experience provides a strong foundation for meaning-making in the critical reflection process; it is a way to make the experience present and to ensure that students have access to all relevant aspects of it as they engage in reflection. This step is not as simple as it might appear, as students often prefer to jump straight into interpretation. It is also easy to overlook or under-value the details that are often most significant, so enhanced skills of mindfulness and attentiveness are often required for—and developed by—this step. Reflection prompts associated with the Describe step ask students to address such issues as when and where the experience in question took place, who was and was not present, what they and others did and did not do, what they saw and heard, and so on.

**EXAMINE**

The DEAL model is explicitly designed to move students beyond summarizing their experiences, which all too often results when a reflection activity is assigned, into meaning-making. In the second step of DEAL, prompts that help students Examine their experiences are linked to the desired learning outcomes—whether expressed as learning goals or, in a more assessable fashion, as learning objectives—within each category of learning. Table 7 provides examples of prompts drawn from learning goals in the general category of civic learning; some instructors may prefer to develop Examine prompts from learning goals such as these rather than from assessable objectives when, for example, the intent is to stimulate questions or surface issues for further discussion rather than to evaluate students’ reasoning.

**ARTICULATE LEARNING**

The third step of the DEAL model supports students in Articulating the Learning that the two previous steps have begun to generate, while providing further guidance in continuing to expand and deepen that learning. It helps them capture their learning in such a way as to be able to act on it and thereby improve the quality of their learn-
and the Articulate Learning steps each have two parts. After students describe an experience, they surface one or more key ideas for further thought in Examine Part I and then take one of those ideas from identification and explanation through application and to analysis in Examine Part II. In Part I of the Articulate Learning step they synthesize a new understanding of the key idea and evaluate changes in their thinking, and in Part II they evaluate the written expression of that thinking and revise it as needed.

For example, in the category of personal growth, Examine Part I might include some or all of the prompts in Table 8, which are oriented toward the learning goals that comprise this category and which encourage students to focus on their own particular personal characteristics.

Then Part II of the Examine step might use prompts such as those in Table 9—specifically mapped to Bloom-based learning objectives up to the level of analysis—to support students in developing their thinking about that characteristic further.

The Articulate Learning step then supports students in re-thinking and extending the thinking from the Examine step, to create a more meaningful and fully thought out reflective essay, moving them through Synthesis and Evaluation with additional sub-prompts and supporting them in documenting all six levels of reasoning in Bloom’s Taxonomy. Continuing with the example in the category of personal growth, Part I of this step includes the expanded prompts represented in Table 10.

Table 8: Bloom-based Version of DEAL: Sample “Examine” Part I Prompts (Personal Growth Category)

| Identify | What personal characteristic are you coming to understand better as a result of reflection on your applied learning experiences? |
| Explain | Explain the characteristic so that someone who does not know you would understand it. |
| Apply | How does / might this characteristic positively and/or negatively affect your interactions with others, your decisions, and/or your actions in your applied activities and (as applicable) in other areas of your life? |
| Analyze | What are the possible sources of / reasons for this characteristic? How does your understanding of these sources / reasons help you to better understand what will be involved in using, improving, or changing this characteristic in the future? |

Regardless of how it is implemented—written or oral, individual or collaborative, lightly or in-depth—the DEAL model offers students the opportunity to use writing or speaking as vehicles for learning rather than as expressions of learning after it has already occurred (Clayton & Ash, 2004). Generating their own learning in this way is yet another counter-normative aspect of critical reflection on experience and, as suggested in the set of characteristics of high quality reflection in Table 4, students will benefit from feedback on their thinking, with associated opportunities to revisit and revise (e.g., through application of the Standards of Critical Thinking presented in Tables 5 and 6) to maximize the quality of their learning.

In addition, the development of a critical reflection model such as DEAL facilitates scholarly work relative to teaching and learning in an applied learning pedagogy, helping instructors improve the former to enhance the latter. For example, DEAL and its associated rubrics (including the critical thinking rubric in Table 6) were used to examine changes in students’ critical thinking and higher order reasoning abilities across drafts of a single reflection product and over the course of a semester, as well as across the categories of academic enhancement, civic learning, and personal growth in several service-learning enhanced classes (Ash et al., 2005). Building on this work, Jameson et al. (2008) modified the DEAL reflection prompts and rubrics for application across the course sequence of a Nonprofit Studies minor, investigating changes in students’ critical thinking and reasoning abilities across the learning goals.
of five leadership challenges facing the nonprofit sector. McGuire et al. (2009) examined critical thinking demonstrated in Articulated Learnings produced by students in multiple disciplines using a variety of assignment and feedback-revision formats.

The DEAL model and its associated rubrics therefore demonstrate the intentional design of critical reflection: identifying desired student learning outcomes, articulating them as specific goals and as assessable learning objectives, and then crafting an integrated reflection and assessment approach around them. In addition to providing tools needed to generate, deepen, and document student learning, DEAL facilitates investigation of the learning processes (Clayton, Ash, & Jameson, 2009).

CONCLUSION

It is our hope that our work can serve as a model for faculty, staff, and students as they seek to design reflection associated with applied learning opportunities, courses, and programs. Our individual and collective learning as practitioner-scholars across the field of applied learning can be enhanced through a scholarly approach to the instructional design process. In turn, it can contribute to advancing the academy’s understanding of both how our students think and how we can support them in learning to think more deeply and with greater capacity for self-directed learning.

Table 10: Bloom-based Version of DEAL: “Articulate Learning” Part I Prompts (Personal Growth Category)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. What did I learn?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Identify and explain (so that someone who doesn’t know you can understand it) a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal characteristic that you are beginning to understand better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Express the learning in general terms, not just in the context of the experience,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so that it can be applied more broadly to other areas of your life (personally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or professionally) and help you in your ongoing personal growth process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Introduce a judgment regarding whether the characteristic serves you well (and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thus needs to be capitalized on) or poorly (and thus needs to be changed) – or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. How did I learn it?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Clearly connect the learning to your specific applied learning activities so that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>someone who was not involved would understand, including discussion of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>positive and negative impacts of the personal characteristic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Why does it matter?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Consider how the learning has value over the short and long term, both in terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of your applied learning activities and in terms of your life more generally</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. What will I do in light of it?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Set specific goals and assessable goals (that you could come back to and check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on to see if they are being met) relative to this learning over the short and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Consider the benefits and challenges associated with fulfilling these goals,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>especially in light of the sources of or reasons for the characteristic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

REFERENCES


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Examining the Development of the Victorian Certificate of Applied Learning and Its Implications for Schools and Teacher Education in Australia

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The Victorian Certificate of Applied Learning (VCAL) is a very successful senior secondary school qualification introduced in the Australian state of Victoria in 2002. Applied learning in the VCAL engages senior students in a combination of work-based learning, service-learning, and project-based learning and aims to provide them with the skills, knowledge, and attitudes to make informed choices regarding pathways to work and further education. The program has enjoyed rapid growth and its system-wide adoption by Victorian secondary schools, Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institutions, Registered Training Organizations (RTOs), and Adult and Community Education (ACE) providers has broadened significantly the range of senior schooling pathway options for young people. This paper will examine reasons for developing an applied learning senior secondary certificate and its rapid growth in Victoria since 2002. The authors draw on a number of case studies to profile the unique nature of applied learning in the VCAL, including its dimensions of service learning, work-based learning, and project-based learning. These case studies are also used to discuss a number of implications that have emerged from the use of applied learning in the VCAL, including approaches to teaching and assessment that will support applied learning and the development of new partnerships between VCAL providers and community partners. Finally, the paper considers significant implications the VCAL has created for teacher education in Victoria by discussing the new Graduate Diploma of Education (Applied Learning) developed by Deakin University.
Making the First Contact

The first step in any service-learning experience is making the initial contact. Service-learning programs, community-based organizations, and businesses can all play a role in connecting students with community organizations.

We are writing from various professional perspectives (Network for Good, etc.) and there is some debate on educating volunteers or service-learning. One thing is clear: the current state of the field is what Dr. Martin, a well-known authority on community service-learning, called in the National Conference on Service-Learning: "The conversations are still ongoing, and there is a need for more research and evaluation."

As educators and service-learning practitioners, we see this as an opportunity to collaborate with community organizations to create meaningful learning experiences for our students. This partnership can provide a valuable opportunity for students to apply their academic knowledge to real-world issues and gain valuable skill-building experiences.

Finding the Best Fit

Cassandra Garcia, Sinae Nehring

How Organizations Select Service Learners
Community organization meetings to volunteer. This was important to me.

I attended volunteer fairs.

Volunteers must be approached through their dedicated

these organizations approach recruitment through the dedicated

of them.

day and day out with the volunteers. It's hard to justify that these

the organization doesn't have to any books

meet with them. Even the organization doesn't have to any books

service learning opportunities and web sites that post

2. tailor your class after professors of certain classes

A-Attracting volunteers for time

Other organizations still look to get all the more out of

volunteer sites also tend to lump service learning and volunteer action

We've taken part in the... volunteer days where you can go in

at recruitment fairs. The emphasis on the community service learning

A different volunteer site you contacted for a position on the site and sometimes they have no way to document where

and the number of volunteer cards is multiplied by an additional

of the department. The emphasis on the community service learning

to the community service learning is a wonderful, or even mentioned as

community cards which are more prominent in urban and rural areas.

It's the traditional information on how community service day

Two, McNutt and Lounsbury. "How to..." guides to help non-profit
Others use a more participatory style of interviewing, where the organization staff, others in the organization, and student volunteers will be involved in the interview process. The interviews are conducted in a relaxed and open environment, and the information collected is used to improve the organization's programs and services. The interviews are conducted in a way that respects the privacy and confidentiality of the interviewees.

Once the organization goes in contact with a student, the selection and placement service cannot be continued if the student does not accept the position or is not qualified. The organization's programs and services are designed to support students in their career development and to provide them with opportunities to gain practical experience.

This process can be recommended in service learning means.

If in fact, the students from the college who participate in the interview program and express interest in joining the organization, they will be given the opportunity to participate in the interview process. This will help the organization to identify potential candidates who are interested in the organization's programs and services.

As for recruiting volunteers and service learners, we don’t have a specific plan at the moment. We think it’s important to have a plan that goes beyond just starting the program and making a commitment to serve. The plan should include volunteer orientation, training, and ongoing support. This will help to ensure that volunteers are well-prepared and have the skills they need to be effective.

The organization needs to realize that not all opportunities are equal. Some need more development, while others may require formal training. It is important to have a clear understanding of the organization’s needs and to provide the necessary support to help volunteers be successful.

In conclusion, it is important to develop a plan and put it into practice. This will help the organization to identify potential candidates who are interested in the organization’s programs and services. It will also help to ensure that volunteers are well-prepared and have the skills they need to be effective.

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Despite these misgivings, there are certain principles that organizations should keep in mind. First, leadership is key. Organizations need strong, visionary leaders who can inspire and motivate their teams. Second, communication is crucial. Leaders must be able to effectively communicate their vision and goals to their teams. Third, collaboration is essential. Organizations should encourage collaboration among team members to ensure that everyone is working towards the same goals. Finally, continuous improvement is necessary. Organizations should always be looking for ways to improve and innovate in order to stay ahead of the curve.

To better understand the impact of leadership on organizations, research has shown that leaders who are transparent, approachable, and empowering create a positive work environment. These leaders foster a culture of trust and respect, which in turn leads to increased productivity and job satisfaction. On the other hand, leaders who are autocratic, distant, and controlling can have a negative impact on organizational performance.

In summary, organizations need strong, visionary leaders who can inspire their teams, communicate effectively, encourage collaboration, and continuously improve. These principles can help organizations to achieve their goals and thrive in today's competitive landscape.
The quality of actual work produced by underprepared is also a "super" concern. In the current period of educational reform, the focus on performance and accountability has led to increased pressure on students to excel, often at the expense of deeper understanding and critical thinking. This can result in a superficial approach to learning, where students may be able to produce high-quality work on a superficial level but lack a deep understanding of the subject matter.

The concern for underprepared students is not new, but the recent emphasis on standardized testing and accountability has brought it to the forefront. The pressure to perform well on these tests can be overwhelming, leading to a focus on test-taking strategies over substantive learning.

Many educators and policymakers argue that the current emphasis on testing is not achieving its intended goals. Instead, it is leading to a "teaching to the test" approach, where students are taught to memorize facts and procedures rather than developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills.

The solution to this issue may lie in a more holistic approach to education, one that emphasizes not just academic achievement but also social and emotional development. This approach recognizes that students are more than a test score and that their individual needs must be considered in the learning process.

In conclusion, while underprepared students may face challenges, it is important to remember that every student has the potential to learn and succeed. By addressing the root causes of underpreparedness and providing support and resources, we can help all students reach their full potential.
Students with populations of different backgrounds than those of the
community have different needs and values, and this should be reflected in
the education they receive. Students should be encouraged to explore
outside of their comfort zones and to pursue opportunities that
interest them. This can be done through service-learning projects, for
discovery of new interests, and for personal growth. Students should
be given the opportunity to develop skills and knowledge that will
benefit them in the future.

The ideal learning environment

Projects are a great way for students to apply what they have learned
in the classroom and to gain real-world experience. Students can
work on projects that are relevant to their interests and can take
leadership roles in the community. This can help them develop
leadership skills and increase their confidence. It can also help
students to see the impact of their work and to feel a sense of
accomplishment.

In conclusion, a strong service-learning component is necessary
to prepare students for the workplace and for life. It helps them
develop skills and perspectives that are valuable in the workplace.

References


Note:
The above references are fictitious and are provided for the purpose of example.
In a college or university with a certain level of proficiency in a subject, the experience of a certain level of proficiency is the cornerstone of the experience. This is because the students who have reached that certain level of proficiency have had the opportunity to develop certain skills and knowledge that enable them to not only perform at a high level but also to understand the deeper intricacies of the subject.

When we talk about the experience of a certain level of proficiency, we are referring to the ability of students to not only understand the material but also to apply it in various contexts. This is a crucial aspect of education and is what sets a college or university apart from other institutions.

In a college or university, the experience of a certain level of proficiency is not just limited to the classroom. It extends to various other aspects of college life, such as extracurricular activities, work experience, and social interactions. These experiences help students develop a well-rounded perspective and prepare them for the challenges they may face in the future.

In conclusion, the experience of a certain level of proficiency is a fundamental aspect of college education. It is what sets a college or university apart and prepares students for success in their future endeavors.
The role of expectations in selecting service learners.

In the service-learning experience, learners are expected to grow and develop in a variety of ways. These expectations can include gaining new skills, developing leadership abilities, or simply gaining a better understanding of the community. However, these expectations can also lead to feelings of anxiety and pressure, which can affect the learners' overall experience.

The importance of clear expectations cannot be overstated. Learners need to know what is expected of them, and how they will be evaluated. Without clear expectations, learners may feel uncertain about what is expected of them, and may struggle to meet the expectations set forth by the instructor or the community.

In addition, it is important to remember that not all learners will be able to meet the same expectations. Some learners may struggle with certain aspects of the experience, while others may excel. It is important to recognize and acknowledge these differences, and to work with learners to help them meet the expectations that are appropriate for their individual needs.

Overall, the role of expectations in selecting service learners is crucial. By setting clear expectations and providing guidance and support, instructors can help learners develop the skills and competencies they need to succeed in the service-learning experience.
Another aspect of this issue is the notion of expectation. The assumption is that higher expectations are held for students in the service learning context. However, this may not always be the case. Teachers and students may have different expectations for service learning projects. Teachers may expect students to learn new skills and gain real-world experience, while students may focus on completing the project and earning extra credit. This mismatch can lead to frustration and disappointment on both sides. Therefore, it is important for teachers and students to communicate their expectations and goals for the service learning project from the beginning.
Our community organization in our research, learning, and planning processes.

Introduction

Elizabeth Bronfman

The Challenge of Short-Term Learning

Conclusion
Building Capacity for Reciprocal Partnerships:
Identities, Roles, Competencies, and Growth of All Partners as Co-Educators,
Co-Learners and Co-Generators of Knowledge

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International Institute on Partnerships
May 23-25, 2011
Portland State University
**SOFAR Model of Partnerships**

![SOFAR Model Diagram]

**Partnership Matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship:</th>
<th>Element of Reciprocity:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual / Interpersonal Level</strong></td>
<td><strong>Systemic Level</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


PHC Ventures, 2011
Examples of Essential Elements in Reciprocal Partnerships*

**Goals/Objectives**
1. individual
   
10. collective whole

**Orientation to Relationships**
1. for others
   
10. with others

**Perception of Power**
1. hierarchical authority
   
10. shared authority

**Partner Identity**
1. maintain institutional identities
   
10. larger definition of community

**Outcomes**
1. recipients changed
   
10. all parties changed

**Scope of Commitment**
1. tightly defined
   
10. generative

What contributes to your rankings? In other words, what are the barriers and/or enhancers within these elements of the partnerships?

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PHC Ventures, 2011
A nonprofit organization (referred to here as SSO) left a voice mail message at a local university's center for nonprofit studies, saying "We really need someone from the university to come help us out. Our 5-year review will be conducted in 6 months, and our Board has asked us to come to make a case for our impact on our clients. We know we're doing good work, and we've been evaluating our program all along, but we think research from the university will provide better data as well as credibility." The center identified a faculty member with expertise in program evaluation, who spoke with SSO's Director to discuss possible approaches to the project. She suggested that students in her course on nonprofit leadership could use an interview protocol she had previously developed to provide evidence of the impact of SSO's programs through the voices of its clients while she conducted a parallel process of investigating and quantitatively documenting organizational outcomes through a survey of their clients. She also suggested that an Honors student she was mentoring in an Independent Study could guide the class activities, serve as a connecting point between the students' research activities and her own, and support her in analyzing the statistical data she would obtain through her survey.

The Director of SSO met with the faculty member and students in class at the beginning of the semester and provided contact information for several clients. The students divided up the list, met with the Honors student to review the interview protocol, conducted five interviews each, and as a class produced a written summary of key themes highlighted with respondent quotes. Throughout the semester they reflected individually in weekly written assignments on the connections between the academic content of the course (leadership challenges facing the nonprofit sector) and what they were hearing in their interviews. The faculty member developed the survey, showed it to the Director for input before finalizing it, and then worked with the Honors student to collect and analyze the data. Together the students and faculty member presented their findings to SSO at a staff meeting at the end of the semester. The staff and students together identified ten quotes from clients that could be used effectively in SSO's report to its Board, and the faculty member shared 5 PowerPoint slides she had made with the Honors student with summary quantitative data. The Director took her up on her offer to present at the next Board meeting.

Several outcomes resulted from this project. Students heard the story of SSO clients who had come from difficult situations including homelessness, incarceration, and drug addiction, yet worked with SSO to find employment or build their own nonprofit organizations to support others in their community. Class discussions and students' written products revealed and challenged their assumptions about people with these backgrounds, and they came to better understand that leadership can come from people's goals, values, and commitment, rather than status, money, or power. After the faculty member made her presentation to the Board, Board members viewed the organization differently, understanding better what the staff did on a day-to-day basis and their impact in the community rather than just seeing the organization primarily through the lens of a balance sheet. This reframing of the organization's work deepened the Board's relationship with the Director and created new levels of trust that empowered the staff in new ways. The faculty member was so impressed by the impact of this organization in the community and with her students that she set up a meeting with the Director to explore additional ways to continue their partnership beyond the semester.
