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Improving High School Service-Learning to Increase Long-Term Impact on Volunteerism

Tracey Boldemann Tatkin
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Walden University

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2015

Abstract

Improving High School Service-Learning to Increase Long-Term Impact on

Volunteerism

by

Tracey Boldemann-Tatkin

MA, Indiana University, 2008

MPA, Walden University, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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Walden University

November 2015

Abstract

Passage of the Kennedy Serve America Act in 2009 led to wide support for service-learning programs in high schools. The effectiveness of these programs on future volunteerism in college, however, has not been established. In the absence of research clarifying the variables that might influence programming effectiveness, it is difficult to design and adapt such programs to increase their impact. This study explored how high school service-learning programs could be improved to encourage greater student participation and to motivate continued volunteerism in college. A multiple case study methodology was used that included face-to-face interviews with 7 teachers and service-learning coordinators from private, public, and faith-based high schools in the Los Angeles area. Also, phone interviews were conducted with 6 experts in the field of service-learning who were identified in a review of the literature. Interview data were coded based on findings from the service-learning literature. Data analysis included a comparison of the 3 types of schools as well as identification of strategies for effective service learning in high schools, areas of improvement, and obstacles that may be encountered while implementing improvements. Each of the schools integrated only some of the identified practices, which included increasing student reflection, giving students a stronger voice in the program, and tying service-learning with standardized test outcomes. Recommendations from this study provide high school administrators and service-learning teachers with ideas and tools to enhance their programming. Thus, the results of this study can be used to improve the likelihood that high school students will have high-quality service-learning experiences and continue volunteering in college.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Problem Statement	1
Background	2
Nature of the Study	6
Purpose.....	7
Research Questions.....	7
Framework	8
Operational Definitions.....	10
Assumptions, Limitations, Scope, and Delimitations	11
Significance of the Study	12
Summary.....	14
Chapter 2: Literature Review	17
History of Service-Learning	18
Early Background in the United States	18
Philosophical Underpinnings	19
Building Momentum in the Late 20th Century.....	21
Recent Service-Learning Statistics	22
Models of Service-Learning Programs	25
Categories of Models	25
Specific Models	27
Evaluation of Service-Learning Programs.....	29

Effectiveness of Service-Learning Projects	29
Factors Associated with Program Effectiveness.....	31
Areas of Needed Improvement in High School Service-Learning	38
Summary.....	43
Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology	46
Research Questions.....	46
Research Design and Approach	47
Role of the Researcher	48
Setting and Sample	48
Sample Selection.....	49
Eligibility Criteria	50
Data Collection and Instrumentation	51
Instrumentation	51
Interview Procedures	51
Data Analysis	52
Ethical Procedures	53
Summary.....	55
Chapter 4.....	56
Setting.....	57
Demographics	58
Key Expert Informants.....	58
Case Study School Informants.....	60
Data Collection	63

Data Analysis	64
Evidence of Trustworthiness.....	65
Results.....	66
The Current State of Service-Learning Programming	66
Service-Learning in Public, Private, and Faith-based Schools	72
Strategies for Effective Service-Learning in High School	82
Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Encourage Student Participation	88
Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Motivate Volunteerism in College	97
Summary	104
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations	106
Interpretation of the Findings.....	106
Current State of Service-Learning in High Schools	106
Comparison of Service-Learning in Three Types of High Schools.....	108
The Most Important Strategies for Effective Service-Learning in High Schools....	112
Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Better Motivate Students to Participate and to Foster Greater Satisfaction.....	114
Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Better Motivate Continued Volunteerism in College	116
Implications for Social Change.....	117
Limitations to the Study.....	118
Recommendations for Action	118

Recommendations for Further Study	119
Conclusion	119
References.....	122
Appendix A: Instruments	135
Appendix B: Consent Forms.....	139
Appendix C: Interview Data	143
Appendix D: Expert Important Strategies for Effective Service-Learning	145

List of Tables

Table 1 Comparison of Service-Learning Models Used..... 75

Table 2 Effective Strategies for Service-Learning..... 88

Table 3 How Service-Learning Can Be Improved to Better Encourage Student
Participation 96

Table 4 Obstacles to Improving Service-Learning to Better Encourage Student
Participation 97

Table 5 How Service-Learning Can Be Improved to Better Motivate Volunteerism in
College 103

Table 6 Obstacles to Improving Service-Learning to Better Motivate Volunteerism in
College 103

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Currently, many high schools in the United States require students to participate in voluntary community service (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2011). For example, in some high schools students can visit a community nonprofit agency on a regular basis to perform a service role or be involved in a research project associated with a nonprofit agency. In other schools, they can create a product in class that can be used by a nonprofit agency and then donate it to that agency, or take material they have learned in class and create a presentation that they then deliver within the community to educate others. In other schools, students can execute an event such as a fundraiser that has community-wide impact (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007). Putnam (2000a) found that high levels of volunteerism led to strong communities. Continued volunteerism by high school graduates is thought to have the potential to make a positive social impact on the communities in which these graduates live (Conrad & Hedin, 1991; Ohn & Wade, 2009). However, whether service-learning programs actually have an impact on rates of volunteerism after students graduate has not been investigated and is not known (Jones, Segar, & Gasiorski, 2008). In this study, I contribute to the body of knowledge by examining the effectiveness of three current high school programs and by interviewing key experts in the field about how to improve service-learning programming so it can increase student participation and motivate students to volunteer in college.

Problem Statement

Service-learning has been identified as a key contributor to civic engagement and community participation (Eyler & Giles, 1999, 2013; Furco & Root, 2010; Hart, Donnelly, Youniss, & Atkins, 2007; Raskoff & Sundeen, 1999). Moreover, relevant

administrative policy decisions at the federal level have been based on the belief that service-learning contributes to youth civic engagement. For example, passage of the Serve America Act in 2009 increased funding for service-learning programming in public schools (Nesbit & Brudney, 2010). Despite widely held support for service-learning as a valued policy, it is not clear whether this type of program contributes to volunteerism and civic engagement after participating students graduate from high school. If such programs do have a positive impact on continued volunteerism, the extent and specific nature of their contribution is not known. In the absence of the variables that might influence the effectiveness of service-learning programs, it is impossible to design and adapt such programs to increase their impact. I addressed these problems by conducting case study interviews at three high schools that have a formalized service-learning program and by developing evidence-based recommendations for program improvement.

Background

Historically, a central aspect of U.S. civic life has involved the presence of volunteer societies or groups formed around a common interest or goal. De Tocqueville (1831/1997) reported many observations about the U.S. prison system and the desire of many U.S. citizens to form social associations. De Tocqueville noted,

I met with several kinds of associations in America of which I confess I had no previous notion; and I have often admired the extreme skill with which the inhabitants of the United States succeed in proposing a common object for the exertions of a great many men and in inducing them voluntarily to pursue it. (p. 83)

According to de Tocqueville, the tendency to form voluntary associations was integrated into the fiber of U.S. life and could be considered a distinctly U.S. trait. De Tocqueville stated, “Wherever at the head of some new undertaking you see the government in France, or a man of rank in England, in the United States you will be sure to find an association” (p. 83).

This historical U.S. trait has come into question in recent decades. Putnam (2000a) studied participation in social organizations. Although Putnam believed that U.S. citizens were “a generous people” (2000a, p. 118), Putnam reported observing a marked decline of social capital in U.S. civic life over the past 50 years. Putnam theorized that this decline was reflected in the decreased numbers of bowling leagues in the country. According to Putnam, U.S. citizens were interacting less than they did previously, thus spending less time forming associations. Putnam (2000b) attributed the decline of social capital to the dying off of an older generation of U.S. citizens who were exceptionally civic-minded, leaving in their place the less civic-minded generation of baby boomers. In addition, Putnam proposed that other factors contributing to the decline included two-career families, urban sprawl, and television.

Noting the current level of apathy in U.S. civic life, Putnam initiated the Better Together program to revitalize U.S. social capital and civic virtue. The Kennedy Serve America Act was a similar effort in the public sector designed to bring back the U.S. spirit of civic engagement that impressed de Tocqueville in 1831. Senator Edward Kennedy was a champion of different versions of the Serve America Act, one of which (S.3487) died in committee in 2008; passage of the bill (S.277) occurred prior to Kennedy’s death in August 2009.

Promotion of volunteer engagement lies at the foundation of the Kennedy Serve America Act, which aims to increase government funding for existing volunteer programs, while establishing new programs (Nesbit & Brudney, 2010). The Act includes funding for expanded AmeriCorps programs, expands the Senior Companion and Foster Grandparent programs, and creates the Innovative Service-Learning program. Additionally, the Act authorizes a Volunteer Generation Fund to award grants that help states and nonprofits strengthen the volunteer infrastructure.

Service-learning programs have been shown to enhance motivation, empathy, civic skills, problem solving, personal development, communication adaptability and competence, and appreciation of diversity (Deeley, 2010; Eyler & Giles, 1999, 2013; Levesque-Bristol, Knapp, & Fisher, 2010; McClam, Diambra, Burton, Fuss, & Fudge, 2008; Sass & Coll, 2015; Wilson, 2011; Zaff & Lerner, 2010) and to build social capital (D'Agostino, 2010). Birdwell, Scott, and Horley (2013) cited evidence suggesting that service-learning is more successful than class-based learning for teaching citizenship skills. Flanagan, Kim, Collura, and Kopish (2014) found that adolescents engaged only in community service built greater social capital than peers engaged only in other extracurricular activities.

At the secondary school level, service-learning and community service have been shown to reduce the academic achievement gap between low-income and higher income students (Scales, Roehlkepartain, Neal, Kielsmeier, & Benson, 2006). Billig, Root, and Jesse (2005) summarized the following benefits of service-learning for participating high school students: increased civic-related knowledge, civic-related skills, civic attitudes, social behavior, and social capital. Young men who participated in high school service

were 29% more likely to graduate college on time than young men who did not (Davila & Mora, 2007). Participation in voluntary service, whether required or not, increased social capital in high school (Flanagan et al., 2014) and voting and volunteerism in high school and college (Zaff & Lerner, 2010). In an investigation into the long-term effects of volunteering, Astin, Sax, and Avalos (1999) found that high school students who volunteered frequently during high school were twice as likely to volunteer 9 years later even if they volunteered only a small amount of time while in college.

Despite the preponderance of evidence suggesting the beneficial outcomes of service-learning, some researchers have pointed to weaknesses in service-learning programs. Leary (1995) found that participation in service-learning did not result in an increased commitment toward civic responsibility, moral development, and intellectual development in college students any more than did traditional lecture-based and assignment completion classroom instruction, although students who participated had an increased involvement with the overall learning process, as well as a sense of connection to people and issues outside their individual environment. While college students appear to have positive attitudes toward community service, their attitudes toward service-learning courses may be less positive (McCarthy & Tucker, 1995). Colleges have been inconsistent with respect to implementing service-learning programs because of the heavy demands placed on faculty and institutional resources (Eyler & Giles, 1999) and because educators fear they do not have the time, methods, or resources required (Berle, 2006). These studies indicate the importance of research that teases out the factors that lead to positive or negative outcomes of service-learning projects so that the structure and methods they employ can be improved.

Researchers investigating service-learning programming for U.S. youth have identified various factors that contribute to successful programming (Borden & Serido, 2009; Hart et al., 2007; Jones et al., 2008). These include a reflective aspect to the volunteer service, the encouragement of youth input into the service, and targeting meaningful experiences. Although researchers have conducted quantitative and qualitative studies on different college student populations, I focused on current service-learning programs at three high schools in the Los Angeles area. I interviewed six key informants who are key experts in the service-learning and student volunteer field. Given the current increase in funding for volunteerism programming, this study helps fill the gap in extant literature.

Nature of the Study

I employed a qualitative multiple case study methodology including data gathering during site visits and from key experts in the field. I conducted three case studies of high schools that have formalized service-learning programs. I used a private school, a public school, and a faith-based school. I interviewed representatives at each site to obtain information about the successes and failures of their programs.

The collected data included levels of high school volunteerism, whether volunteerism was integrated into classroom assignments, whether volunteerism was organized, and whether volunteerism was episodic or consistent. The data also included whether volunteerism was required for graduation, whether volunteerism was meaningful, and patterns related to the gender of participants. The data also included issues specific to school type (private, public, and faith based). Additional data included

what the representatives believed could improve the student experience, as well as factors they thought could make the volunteer experience more likely to be continued in college.

Additional in-depth data were collected from interviews with six key informants who are regarded as experts in the field. The focus of these interviews was on the experts' recommendations for improving service-learning programs, anticipated obstacles to implementing improvements, and strategies for overcoming such obstacles. Based on the data collected, I developed a series of recommendations that could be adopted by service-learning programs at private schools, public schools, and faith-based schools.

Purpose

The passage of the Kennedy Serve America Act in 2009 provided government funding for service-learning programs in public high schools. Money is being allocated for these programs, yet their long-term effectiveness remains uncertain. This research adds to the body of knowledge regarding the potential social impact of high school volunteer programming, and builds on current ideas of what contributes to effective and meaningful youth volunteer programming. Interviews with key expert informants addressed current effective and meaningful practices in service-learning as well as what could be added to make the experience better. Recommendations from this study provide service-learning practitioners with ideas and tools to enhance their programming.

Research Questions

RQ#1: What is the current state of service-learning programming at the high school level, with respect to the kinds of models (including evaluation practices) used?

RQ#2: How do the three types of schools (public, private, faith based) compare with respect to (a) models of service-learning used, (b) level of student participation, and (c) need for improvement in service-learning programming?

RQ#3: What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools?

RQ#4: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate students to participate and to foster greater satisfaction?

RQ#5: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate continued volunteerism in college?

Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was based on four theorists: Thomas Hobbes, Alexis de Tocqueville, John Dewey, and Robert Putnam. These theorists lived in different times, yet each articulated ideas that provide context for this study.

Hobbes (1651) proposed a modern version of social contract theory. Hobbes's theory focused on the political aspect of a citizen's life and on the belief that political authority and social obligations lie with the individual, not with the government. Hobbes proposed that life is a state of nature, not a condition of government, and that individuals are created equal and free. According to Hobbes's social contract theory, individuals are motivated to pursue their own self-interests, and everything they do is driven by their personal goals. Society comprises the interdependence of individuals interacting in pursuit of power and status. Hobbes noted that individuals have a social obligation to give back to the society that protects them, an obligation that stems from the care they received as infants.

As stated earlier, de Tocqueville visited the United States in 1831 to study the prison system and proposed that people form associations to address the problems and issues facing their society. De Tocqueville considered the desire to form voluntary associations a distinctly U.S. trait. The theory that people in this country form voluntary associations to address society's problems and issues helps provide the context and framework for this study.

Dewey (1916) took the position that true learning in schools is only possible when traditional education is paired with experiential learning. He noted that experiential education allows students to integrate what they are learning by using more than one sense. For example, students who learn experientially use more than simply their auditory sense to hear the teacher's instruction. Dewey spoke about "the discovery of the connection of things" (p. 78) and advocated for the incorporation of experiential and reflective learning within the educational system to better prepare young people to serve in their communities. He envisioned "a society in which every person shall be occupied in something which makes the lives of others better worth living" (p. 173). Rocheleau (2004) noted, "Dewey's understanding of the nature of knowledge and society and his corresponding philosophy of education provide theoretical roots for service-learning" (p. 4). Service-learning and civic engagement were central to Dewey's theory of education and his notions of educational reform.

Robert Putnam presented the theory that civic engagement builds social capital, which in turn builds community. Putnam noted the decline in social capital, which he addressed both in *Bowling Alone* (2000a) and through his Better Together program. Putnam stressed the importance of building civic engagement in light of the decline in

bowling league participation. Volunteerism through civic engagement is one of the ways Putnam (2000b) proposed to reignite civic vitality.

Each of these theorists contributed to the conceptual framework for this study. Hobbes (1651) noted the obligation to help others that individuals develop as a result of the life-giving and lifesaving care they received as infants. De Tocqueville (1831) identified the need to form associations to address societal problems as a distinctly U.S. phenomenon. Dewey (1916) thought education should incorporate experiential and reflective aspects of learning to develop citizens who are capable of functioning in a truly democratic society. Putnam (2000a) believed that increased civic engagement can reignite civic vitality. In his own way, each of these theorists presented a case that can be cited in support of increased government funding for service-learning programs in U.S. schools.

Operational Definitions

The operational definitions used in this study are as follows.

Charity: the voluntary action of giving money and/or help.

Civic engagement: the construct of citizenship aimed at social change (Rowan-Kenyon, Soldner, & Inkelas, 2007).

Civic learning: historical, political, and civic knowledge gathered from both academic and community sources (Saltmarch, 2005).

Civics: the study of structures and processes of government and the obligation of citizenship (Saltmarsh, 2011).

Civil society: the social institutions that operate outside the public and private sector, otherwise known as state and market institutions. *Civil society* is often used

interchangeably with terms such as *voluntary sector*, *nongovernmental agencies*, *nonprofit sector*, and *independent sector* (Salamon, Sokolowski, & Anheier, 2000).

Service-learning: distinguished from volunteerism in that it includes volunteerism as well as an academic reflective aspect (Einfeld & Collins, 2008).

Social capital: the way an individual makes his or her life more productive through social ties (Putnam, 2000a).

Volunteer: a person who voluntarily accomplishes a service or duty without receiving pay for those activities (Kiltz, 2010).

Volunteerism: work done out of free will, without compensation, and without focus on the educational value of the experience (Waterman, 2013).

Assumptions, Limitations, Scope, and Delimitations

I assumed that service-learning programs have, or have the potential to have, a positive impact on participants with respect to influencing their level of volunteerism following graduation from high school. In the absence of a full-scale evaluation of the effectiveness of high school service-learning programs, I assumed that such programs could benefit from improved curricula that would increase their impact. Furthermore, I assumed the survey participants responded truthfully. I assumed the key expert informants fully participated in the study, that they were highly knowledgeable about the effectiveness of the service-learning programs in schools, and that they had some familiarity with students' volunteerism after graduation.

Limitations included the fact that I looked at only three schools located in the Los Angeles area. The generalizability of findings is limited to schools with similar characteristics. It is also limited by the focus of research question #5, which focuses on

volunteerism in college, rather than on any form of volunteerism after high school. Moreover, because I did not study high school students or high school graduates directly, any conclusions about the behaviors or attitudes of these populations can be inferential only.

The scope of the research included an assessment of the ways to improve service-learning programs in high schools so that these programs could encourage higher levels of student participation and so that graduates could receive greater encouragement to engage in volunteerism after graduation. The scope included examining these issues within three types of school settings (private, public, and faith based).

The delimitations of this study included using high schools on the West Coast due to time and financial limitations. The interview questions were not pilot tested prior to use, and the data collected was limited by virtue of self-report. Additionally, I was not concerned with whether the service-learning participation in the case study schools was mandatory or voluntary.

Significance of the Study

The passage of the Kennedy Serve America Act resulted in government funding to implement and expand service-learning programs in U.S. middle and high schools. I contribute to the body of knowledge by examining the strengths and weaknesses of high school service-learning programs in terms of their potential to inspire participants to continue the practice of volunteerism after graduation. In addition, this study aligns with Goal 2 of the Corporation for National and Community Service's (2011) *Strategic Plan 2011-2015*, which strives to "strengthen national service so that participants engaged in CNCS-supported programs consistently find satisfaction, meaning and opportunity" (p.

17). This strategic plan was adopted because of the expanded service program the Kennedy Serve America Act supports.

Interviewing key expert informants in the field provided integrated knowledge about how to improve the experience and efficacy of service-learning and volunteerism within the school system. I drew upon experts from various areas of youth volunteerism, such as lower and higher education service-learning and volunteerism, as well as government programming. I went beyond an integration of current best practices and knowledge in the field by investigating what these six key expert informants believed would improve the experience and efficacy of service-learning and volunteerism within the school system, while including the input from representatives of three high schools with formalized service-learning programs.

In the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD), service-learning must be incorporated at the high school level (LAUSD Service-Learning Advisory Committee, 2004). Thus, the results of this study can be used by teachers and administrators to guide future planning. Similarly, the results can be used by other schools nationwide. Currently, many organizations offer information about service-learning and volunteerism that can be useful to schools. Specialized organizations such as National Service Learning Clearinghouse and the National Youth Leadership Council offer focused research and information for kindergarten through Grade 12, while Center for Service and Learning on the Indiana University / Purdue University, Indianapolis campus offers research, tools, and information about higher education. CNCS provides research and information about a broad range of service and service opportunities. Although each of these organizations is a valuable resource, I expanded the knowledge these groups

provided by integrating school representatives' feedback and input from key experts in the field.

Some existing service-learning models may fall short of their potential to effect social change, and instead merely reinforce students' good feelings or at worst perpetuate unjust social structures (Mitchell, 2008). These shortcomings can be attributed in part to the inadequacy of the evaluation process, which does not include a feedback loop that program administrators can use to continually improve service-learning offerings. Mitchell (2008) and others have called for service-learning models that incorporate social change as an integral part of the program. I focused on specific ways to revamp service-learning programs so they can have more profound and lasting effects on students and can result in the level of social change intended by their developers.

Summary

I examined how high school service-learning programs could be improved to better encourage high levels of student participation and to better motivate continued volunteerism in college. I considered how the specific needs for improvement of high school service-learning programs may differ for private schools, public schools, and faith-based schools. Service-learning has been identified as a key contributor to civic engagement and community participation (Eyler & Giles, 1999, 2013; Hart, et al., 2007; Raskoff & Sundeen, 1999). Moreover, relevant administrative policy decisions at the federal level have been based on the belief that service-learning contributes to youth civic engagement. For example, passage of the Serve America Act in 2009 significantly increased funding for service-learning programming in public schools (Nesbit & Brudney, 2010).

Despite widely held support for service-learning as a valued policy, the extent to which this type of program contributes to volunteerism and civic engagement after participating students graduate from high school is not known. In the absence of a summative evaluation of the effectiveness of service-learning programs, it is difficult to design and adapt such programs to increase their impact. I addressed this issue by conducting case study interviews at three high schools with formalized service-learning programs and by developing evidence-based recommendations for program improvement.

The work of theorists such as Hobbes (1651), de Tocqueville (1831), Dewey (1916), and Putnam (2000a, 2000b) highlights the need to have effective and engaging service-learning programs in U.S. schools to foster social contracts and build social capital, while supporting experiential educational opportunities. I used case studies and key expert informant interviews to compile data that characterized current high school service-learning programs and to develop a set of recommended ways to improve these programs. With the passage of the Kennedy Serve America Act of 2009, increased government funds have been allocated to high school service-learning programs. This study contributes to the long-term effectiveness of these programs.

In Chapter 2, I review the relevant literature on this aspect of service-learning. In the initial portion of the chapter, I explore the history of volunteerism and service-learning in the United States, which is followed by reviews of literature pertaining to service-learning statistics, models of service-learning programs, evaluation of service-learning programs, and factors associated with service-learning effective programming; I conclude with a review of literature exploring areas of improvement and issues relating to

sustainability of the service-learning movement. In Chapter 3, I restate the problem prior to explaining the methodology of the study, which included both case studies and key expert interviews. The types of participants for the case study and key expert interviews are identified. In Chapter 4, I present the results of the analyses of data from both sets of interviews. Results are presented for each of the five research questions. In Chapter 5, I summarize the main findings from the study and report the implications of these findings with respect to each of the research questions. I also offer recommendations for actions that can be taken by school administrators and teachers based on the findings in this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter I document the relevant literature in the area of service-learning. I focused on literature obtained from Academic Search Complete, ProQuest, ERIC, Google Scholar, and EBSCOhost, using a variety of search terms including *service-learning*, *youth volunteerism*, *experiential learning*, *social capital*, *civic engagement*, and *community service*. Additional resources were acquired through dedicated service-learning sites such as National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, CNCS, and the Michigan Journal of Community Service.

I explore the history of service-learning and volunteerism in the United States, thus providing a background to the study. I review literature pertaining to service-learning statistics, models of service-learning programs, evaluation of service-learning programs, and factors associated with effective service-learning programming. I conclude with a review of literature exploring areas of needed improvement in high school service-learning programs, including issues related to the sustainability of the service-learning movement. Notably, I identified no recent studies that directly explored the relationship between high school service-learning and continued college volunteerism. Additionally, I identified no recent studies that compared the service-learning programs of public, private, and faith-based high schools. Eyster (2002) drew a similar conclusion a decade ago: “There has not been much longitudinal research to determine if the predicted increases in community engagement will occur in adults who have experienced service-learning in school and college, but the few relevant studies that have been done are encouraging” (p. 531). For this reason, I included literature focused on service-learning

programs in the college setting, and examined the implications of those studies for service-learning at the high school level.

History of Service-Learning

Volunteerism can be traced back to ancient times. Perhaps the earliest record is of Seneca, who penned *On Benefits* (2011) in 56 CE with the purpose of instructing humanity about how to give and receive benefits appropriately. Seneca explored gratitude in the experience of both the giver and the receiver. Modern-day service-learning is based on principles of charity and volunteerism expounded by Seneca, but includes the more complex processes of classroom learning and reflection. Although service-learning is a global phenomenon, I focus on developments in the United States in this literature review.

Early Background in the United States

In the United States, volunteerism dates to the 18th century and the work of Benjamin Franklin, who established the first volunteer fire department, among many other civic-minded accomplishments. In 1749, Franklin wrote a manifesto entitled *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pensilvania*, in which he set down the educational principles that became the operating basis for the University of Pennsylvania, which he founded two years later and which became the first university in the country. Franklin specified that the school would not only produce traditionally educated individuals, but also students dedicated to civic involvement. He intended that these students be prepared to serve as community leaders at the local, state, and national levels (Harkavy & Hartley, 2010). Similarly, trustees at the Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College stated a century later, in 1873, that they intended to educate men not just

academically “but as men, fitted by education and attainments for the greater usefulness and higher duties of citizenship” (p. 419).

Philosophical Underpinnings

The educational philosophy of John Dewey (1916, 1938) laid the groundwork for service-learning in the 20th century. Dewey described a pedagogy in which preparing to be engaged in the process of democracy was an integral aspect of academic learning. Whereas the previous standard for classroom teaching relied on traditional teacher and blackboard instruction, Dewey (1916) introduced a more unified concept that involved linking classroom learning with related experience. Dewey (1938) stated, “The fundamental unity of the newer philosophy is found in the idea that there is an intimate and necessary relation between the processes of actual experience and education” (p. 20). A related component of Dewey’s approach was for students to reflect upon what they had learned during their active classroom experience.

Miettinen (2000) examined Dewey’s model of reflective thought and action, and broke it into five steps and intended outcomes. The first step is to identify a habit or situation that is ineffective or otherwise problematic. The second step is to think about and define the specific problem. The third step is to study the conditions and formulate a working hypothesis. The fourth step is to apply reasoning. The fifth step is to test the hypothesis, with the intention of coming up with an action solution (Miettinen, 2000, p. 65). These five steps describe the classroom process that has become the foundation for service-learning.

Although the concept of linking volunteerism and classroom learning was put into practice early during the 20th century, the term *service-learning* was not coined until the

1960s. Educators Robert Sigmon and William Ramsey first used the term in reference to the Manpower Development Internship Program in 1967 in Atlanta (Berman, 2006). Sigmon and Ramsey noted the term service-learning referred to the value-added component of doing classroom work while contributing to the community (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999). Although this term has since been used to describe a variety of different programs, educators and researchers generally accept the following definition: “Active participation, thoughtfully organized experiences, focus on community needs and school/community coordination, academic curriculum integration, structured time for reflection, opportunities for application of skills and knowledge extended learning opportunities, and development of a sense of caring for others” (Bhaerman, Cordell, & Gomez, 1998, p. 4).

Broadly speaking, service-learning can be considered part of civics education. During the early 20th century, civics education focused on the assimilation of immigrant populations; in the 1960s, disenchantment with this perspective led to the widespread elimination of civics classroom instruction (Quigley, 1999). This trend was not reversed until the 1980s, when interest in action research, community building, and participatory democracy spurred educators to revive civic learning in the schools. According to Saltmarsh (2011), service-learning was adopted during this time as “a pedagogy that would allow faculty across the disciplines to teach the content knowledge of their courses more effectively” (p. 30). However, after conducting a review of syllabi of service-learning courses, Saltmarsh noted that even the most exemplary models of service-learning typically emphasized “the technical aspects of a discipline, almost to the exclusion of its civic dimensions” (p. 30). From the perspective of its critics, service-

learning needed to be more academically grounded if it were to effectively advance the goals of civic education (Sheffield, 2005).

Building Momentum in the Late 20th Century

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, service-learning and volunteer programs gained momentum at the national level through increased funding and leadership support. The 1985 founding of Campus Compact—a coalition of university and college administrators dedicated to engaging college students in service and service-learning—revitalized public and community service on U.S. campuses. At its founding, Campus Compact involved three institutions; by 2009, it encompassed approximately one quarter of all U.S. campuses (Harkavy & Hartley, 2010). This effort was notable because it advanced service-learning from “individual pioneer efforts to a more institutionalized” process (Stanton et al., 1999, p. 6). In 1993, President Bill Clinton established CNCS to coordinate and oversee programs designed to provide citizens with opportunities to connect and give back to their communities. The Learn and Serve America program, which funded school service-learning programs, was part of CNCS operations from 1994 through 2011.

Putnam (2000a) built on the 1916 writings of Progressive Era reformer Hanifan, who used the concept of *social capital* to express the greater value of cohesive group engagement, as opposed to individual engagement, for a community. Putnam argued that the loss of social capital in recent decades had led to a loss of connectedness and trustworthiness in U.S. society. He cited the influence of a variety of factors, including the increased number of televisions, the decline of two-parent families, and the decrease in church attendance. In 2000, Putnam organized Better Together, an initiative of

Harvard University, with the intent of rebuilding social capital, reducing civil apathy, and increasing civic engagement through volunteerism programming (Putnam & Feldstein, 2003).

In 2009, the Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act was passed and subsequently brought increased funding for service-learning programs to U.S. public schools. Although forms of service-learning had been introduced into classrooms during the prior two decades, after President George H. W. Bush created a commission to oversee and monitor service-learning in the classroom, passage of the Kennedy Serve America Act greatly expanded the in-school programs. This recent policy change inspired the selection of this topic for this research.

Recent Service-Learning Statistics

CNCS is the leading government source for information and statistics on service-learning and volunteerism. In this review I focused on four reports by CNCS, published in 2006, 2008, 2012, and 2014, respectively. In 2006, CNCS collaborated with the U.S. Census Bureau and the nonprofit coalition Independent Sector to conduct the Youth Volunteering and Civic Engagement Survey. These researchers surveyed more than 3,000 middle and high school students ages 12 to 18. Fewer than half (38%) of these students reported having participated in service-learning, which was defined as a school-based activity (Spring, Grimm, & Dietz, 2006). The researchers also compared those who had participated with those who had not and found that participating in school-based service increased volunteerism. Although 59% of those who had participated in a school service program volunteered outside that program during the subsequent year, only 48% of those who had not participated in a school program volunteered during the subsequent year.

Spring et al. (2006) identified three characteristics of a high-quality school-based service-learning program. These included planning the service activity, participating in the activity itself, and reflecting on what occurred. Only 10% of students in the study experienced all three high-quality elements. Students who participated in a school-based service program in which all three high-quality elements were present were more than twice as likely as those in programs without the high-quality elements to report a positive impact on themselves. These students with three high-quality elements were 40% more likely to volunteer in the coming year and report that they could make a difference in their communities. Additionally, these students were more likely to take a significant interest in politics and current events. These possibilities were not reported in high percentages by students in programs in which three high-quality elements were not present.

Spring et al. (2006) looked at other factors that influenced students' participation in volunteer activities. One factor was the type of school. Private faith-based schools had the highest participation rate (60%) followed by secular private schools (48%) and public schools (36%). Another factor Spring et al. looked at was grade point average (GPA). The higher the student's GPA, the more likely that youth was to volunteer. With respect to family income, students from low-income families were less likely than students from more affluent homes to participate in school-based service and service-learning courses. Additionally, the researchers identified family history of volunteerism as a factor influencing students' participation in school-based service. Students who had families or siblings who volunteered were more likely than students from non-volunteering families

to participate in school-based service, even when only one high-quality element was present.

Subsequent research by CNCS (Spring et al., 2008) reported that while students at 86% of high schools and 68% of K–12 schools participated in service activities in their community, service-learning opportunities were only available at 35% of high schools and 24% of K–12 schools. This represented a notable decrease in prevalence compared with data collected a decade earlier. Spring et al. cited three reasons for the decline: lack of time due to other curriculum demands, lack of funding and resources, and lack of supervisory personnel. Of the schools that did offer service-learning programming, 96% reported students' participation had remained at the same level or increased over a 5-year period.

Spring et al. (2008) also reported that although the gap between low-income schools and more affluent schools had decreased significantly over the previous decade, only 20% of schools in low-income areas offered service-learning programming, while 27% of more affluent schools offered service-learning activities to their students. Almost three-quarters (74%) of schools had no full-time or part-time service-learning coordinators, and 66% of principals reported their district did not provide training or professional development activities to support service-learning programming. The researchers concluded that when teachers and schools operate service-learning activities without a coordinator or technical support person, students and teachers have a less meaningful experience, and the intended nonprofit recipient is negatively affected, as well.

The most recent data from CNCS (2012, 2014) showed that the number of individuals volunteering remained strong, with one-quarter of all people in this country participating in some form of organized volunteerism in 2013. Although these reports did not focus on service-learning in schools, parents with school-age children were found to volunteer at significantly higher rates than adults of a comparable age who did not have children. Moreover, more than 40% of parents surveyed volunteered at either a school or youth service organization, and 90% reported feeling confidence in their schools (CNCS, 2012). The volunteer rate of college students was found to be almost twice that of individuals who did not attend college (CNCS, 2014). Overall, these findings suggest an important and increasing role for schools in promoting the value of service-learning.

Models of Service-Learning Programs

Categories of Models

A wide variety of approaches to service-learning have been developed, and researchers have used many different categorization systems to differentiate how service-learning can be presented in the classroom setting. There appear to be almost as many methods of characterization as there are researchers, and thus no clear-cut model stands out. According to Davidson, Jimenez, Onifade, and Hankins (2010), “While there is little doubt that ‘service-learning’ is becoming more popular, the scientific basis for advocating the impact of such models is less robust” (p. 443). Bohat and Goodrich (2007) listed six primary models that have been applied at the high school level: the placement model, project model, product model, presentation model, presentation plus model, and event model. In the placement model, students visit a community nonprofit agency or service location on a regular basis to perform a service role. In the project model,

students are involved in a research or other type of project associated with a nonprofit agency. In the product model, students create a product in class that can be used by a nonprofit agency and then donate it to that agency. In the presentation model, students take material they have learned in class and create a presentation that they then deliver within the community to educate others. In the presentation plus model, the presentation is given at a conference or fair. In the event model, students plan and execute an event such as a fundraiser that has community-wide impact.

At the college level, Heffernan (2001) listed six different models: the discipline-based model, problem-based model, capstone course model, service internship model, community-based action research model, and directed study model. While the terms are different and the students' level of education is different, some similarities are noticeable between this list and Bohat and Goodrich's (2007). For example, the internship model corresponds to the placement model, and the action research model corresponds to the project model.

Other categorization systems emerge from researchers working at a local or regional level. For example, Swanson (2000) listed six basic models of service-learning that were implemented with high schools in Chicago and Philadelphia. All six models rely on a partnership between the school and a community service organization. The single course model involves one course offered within the school that includes a service-learning project as part of the curriculum. The single discipline model involves integration of service-learning within one academic discipline, whereby teachers in that discipline include service-learning in their various courses. The multi-discipline model features large-scale community projects that involve coordination between two or more

teachers in different disciplines, whereby students might work on one aspect of the project in a math class, another aspect in English class, and yet another in social studies class. The fourth model is elective courses, in which students can choose to participate during school hours. The fifth model is a service-learning club, in which students elect to participate after school hours. The sixth model is individual projects, which students design and execute under the supervision of a faculty mentor.

In another example, Florida Campus Compact (2009) listed four types of service-learning: (a) direct service-learning, whereby students offer face-to-face help to individuals in the community (e.g., tutoring, oral histories, peer mediation); (b) indirect service-learning, whereby students engage in projects that help the community rather than specific individuals (e.g., construction, restoration, clothing drives); (c) advocacy service-learning, whereby students engage in projects that promote awareness or action on public interest issues (e.g., safety, environment, violence, disaster preparedness); and (d) research service-learning, whereby students conduct surveys, evaluations, or experiments related to local issues.

Specific Models

One specific model of service-learning that has been widely adopted is the PARE model developed by the University of Maryland (1999). The PARE acronym stands for preparation, action, reflection, and evaluation, and thus derives its philosophical basis from Dewey (Miettinen, 2000). During the first phase of the model, preparation, students gather information and select an issue as the focus of their project. They determine their specific goals and objectives, and receive any necessary training. During the second phase of action, students execute the project, which can be a one-time event or ongoing

effort, and which can involve either direct or indirect contact with the community. In the reflection phase, students examine how they felt while engaging in action and think about the social consequences and implication of the action. Finally, in the evaluation phase, students assess the impact of their action and determine whether the project was successful in meeting its goals (Loyola University Maryland, 2009).

Another model is the faith-based service-learning program. TELEM, Jewish Youth Making a Difference, is a program that has been operating in the Greater Boston area since 2005. Its mission is to engage Jewish youth through pairing Jewish learning and values with meaningful, sustained community service to produce youth who embrace social justice and are engaged citizens who advocate for a just society. The program assembles teen leadership teams and provides them with mentoring and leadership training. The teens are then encouraged to select issues to act upon by planning and implementing action programs; working within the community; and following up with evaluation, learning opportunities, and future action plans.

Nadich (2012) described one such undertaking in which TELEM youth identified an opportunity to meet with urban Black teenagers on Martin Luther King Day. The two groups of teenagers partnered to try to restore state funding for youth jobs. The partnership was successful both in restoring state funding and in giving the youths a chance to learn from and about each other. However, this particular project did not include a Jewish aspect. Because the youths themselves defined the project, it was up to them whether or not to explicitly include a Jewish framework.

Evaluation of Service-Learning Programs

The extant evaluation literature includes both large-scale studies that focused on meta-analyses of multiple service-learning programs and also evaluation studies focused on single programs. Together, this body of research suggests that service-learning projects have been effective in achieving their aims. An additional set of studies focus on explaining why these programs have achieved success and on identifying the specific factors associated with program effectiveness, as well as areas of needed improvement for these programs.

Effectiveness of Service-Learning Projects

Two decades ago, Conrad and Hedin (1991) reviewed the state of evaluation with respect to service-learning programs and concluded that “the case for community service as a legitimate educational practice receives provisional support from quantitative, quasiexperimental studies and even more consistent affirmation from the reports and testimony of participants and practitioners” (p. 749). A decade later, Billig (2000, 2002) reviewed research on service-learning for K-12 schools and said that while the prevalence of these programs had increased significantly, to the point where they existed in every U.S. state, evidence of their success lagged behind. According to Billig, at that time, “research in the field of service-learning has not caught up with the passion that educators feel for it” (2000, p. 660).

Billig’s (2000) review of the literature noted “a body of evidence that is building to support the field” (p. 660), but also pointed to the limitations of existing research. Limitations included the scarcity of controlled outcome studies, the scarcity of longitudinal studies, over-reliance on self-report, and lack of hypothesis testing. Despite

these drawbacks, Billig enumerated several areas in which the literature supported a positive impact by K–12 service-learning programs. These included a positive impact on students' personal development, fostering students' sense of civic and social responsibility and citizenship skills, promoting the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills, and helping students to be more realistic about their careers' aspirations. Positive effects were also reported in terms of increased mutual respect between teachers and students. Notably, Billig did not report negative outcomes from her review of the literature. However, she qualified the findings by stating the positive effects were “not sufficient to produce robust student outcomes” (p. 662).

Ohn and Wade (2009) examined different service-learning projects to explore how elementary and middle school students applied academic knowledge and problem-solving skills to group-inquiry service-learning in 11 projects that were part of the national CiviConnection program. Using a multiple-case study design, the researchers evaluated the ability of programs to effectively incorporate the following elements: (a) identify the issues and define the problem, (b) study the issues in depth, (c) develop action plans while using decision-making methods, and (d) use personal reflection to develop personal knowledge (p. 200). Citing the guidelines for effective service-learning projects offered by the Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform (1993), Ohn and Wade found that while the service-learning projects they studied were generally effective in providing services of value to individuals in the community, they were not effective with respect to increasing students' academic knowledge, developing students' ability to reflect, and bolstering students' problem-solving skills. They concluded,

If community service-learning is well planned to incorporate content knowledge and certain modes of disciplinary investigation in social problem-solving processes, not only can we get students excited about learning, but we can also help them obtain and apply academic skills and knowledge. (p. 207)

A meta-analysis of the impact of service-learning by Conway, Amel, and Gerwien (2009) looked at different types of outcomes, educational levels, and program elements associated with effective service-learning programs. Citizenship outcomes included participatory citizenship (e.g., volunteerism) and were distinct from academic, personal, and social outcomes. The researchers reported that although service-learning produced change in terms of citizenship outcomes (i.e., including volunteerism), this change was less than what was seen for the other types of outcomes. The largest number of studies in this analysis was at the K–12 level, and the researchers reported that findings generalized across educational levels. From this, it can be inferred that high school service-learning programs are only minimally successful in motivating volunteerism in high school graduates.

Factors Associated with Program Effectiveness

A review of the evaluation literature revealed various characteristics associated with program effectiveness in the service-learning arena. These factors included (a) placement strategies, (b) in-class discussion, (c) reflection activities, (d) student autonomy and voice, (e) meaningfulness of work and of tasks, (f) relationship with community partners, (g) feedback from agency, (h) service duration, (i) teacher preparation, (j) educational goals, (k) evaluation, and (l) balance of academic content and social problem-solving processes.

Using data from two national research projects comparing models of service-learning, Eyler and Giles (1999) identified program characteristics that produced high-quality service-learning programs. These characteristics included (a) students do meaningful work, (b) students have important responsibilities, (c) students have varied and challenging tasks, (d) students work directly with community partners, (e) students receive support and feedback from agency staff, and (f) the service continues over a sustained period (pp. 190–191). Forming community partnerships between groups that have not previously worked together increases the chance of program success (Nandan, 2010). Keen and Hall (2009) found in a longitudinal study in the college setting that dialogue was critical to program success: “The core experience of service is not the service itself but the sustained dialogue across boundaries of perceived difference that happens during service and in reflection along the way” (p. 77).

A review of the literature by Dymond, Renzaglia, and Chun (2007, 2008) examined 62 articles in an attempt to identify the most effective components of service-learning programs at the high school level. The literature included program evaluations as well as general discussion and program description articles. The researchers identified 12 elements or descriptors mentioned in the articles to characterize service-learning projects. The elements cited most frequently as associated with success were (a) student participation, (b) action, and (c) reflection. The elements cited least frequently as associated with success were (a) student assessment and program evaluation and (b) celebration (2008, p. 37). Of particular interest are those articles reporting on program evaluations. The meta data suggest that students whose service-learning was part of a curriculum had more positive outcomes in terms of engagement and feelings of

satisfaction than did students whose service-learning was not part of a curriculum. Only two studies in this review focused on the role of reflection within service-learning, and the results were mixed.

A follow-up study conducted by Dymond, Chun, Kim, and Renzaglia (2013) surveyed coordinators of high school service-learning programs. The responses were used to identify barriers to a successful program. The results generally supported earlier research (Dymond et al., 2007, 2008), but the top three elements for successful programs were (a) teacher participation, (b) authentic context, and (c) student participation; the elements cited least frequently remained as (a) student assessment and evaluation and (b) celebration (Dymond et al., 2013, p. 6). Research with K–12 teachers reinforces the importance of teachers' participation, especially the strength and nature of their motivation to initiate and carry out service-learning projects (Krebs, 2008).

According to Billig (2000), the following program characteristics were critical to quantifiable and sustained positive outcomes:

A high degree of *student responsibility* for the service, a high degree of *student autonomy* (students empowered to make decisions, solve problems, and so forth), a high degree of *student choice* (both in the selection of service to be performed and in the planning and the evaluation of the activity), a high degree of *direct contact* with the service recipient (who receives service of some duration, not short-term, one-shot service), and high-quality *reflection activities* (reflection that connects the experience with content, skills, and values). (p. 662)

In a subsequent review, Billig et al. (2005) teased out both positive and negative effects of specific service-learning quality elements with respect to student outcomes. For

example, maximizing student voice had a positive effect on civic knowledge but a negative effect on subject matter enjoyment. Student reflection had a positive effect on school attachment, civic knowledge and skills, and civic engagement, but a negative effect on valuing school and enjoying math and science (p. 2).

Harris, Jones, and Coultts (2010) developed and implemented a program in Melbourne, Australia, that placed college students in a service organization. Their approach represented a shift from prioritizing the students' experience to focusing on the reciprocal benefit between the host organization and the student. Student work placements require staff planning and supervision time, as well as use of the facilities. Harris et al. noted that despite this potential resource drain, many service organizations remain committed to student placements within their organizations. Harris et al. found that the program was most effective when the students developed their own support groups, became actively involved, and were given greater responsibilities. The researchers found that having six to eight students placed with an organization at a time was more effective than placing a single student because it supported the use of staff time and the small group support experience.

In a study at Missouri State University, Levesque-Bristol et al. (2010) evaluated the effectiveness of service-learning as a teaching strategy. The study surveyed more than 600 university students enrolled in service-learning courses in more than 30 different disciplines. The results indicated that a positive learning environment was an important factor leading to enhanced motivation, civic skills problem solving, and appreciation of diversity over the semester. Elements contributing to a positive learning environment were the students' autonomy, sufficient in-class discussion, student's involvement in the

process, journaling, and reflection. In the classrooms where the learning environment was perceived as negative, outcomes were not achieved. An important factor for the professors was to align the goals of the course with the goals of the community service-learning partners. The study found direct student participation with the people receiving the service was essential for the effectiveness of the program. These students felt they were making a difference, had direct experiences to bring back into the classroom for reflection and classroom sharing, and felt more relatedness. Offering choices and options to the students allowed them to take ownership of the experience and feel they had a voice in the project design.

Lu and Lambright (2010) focused on the impact of service-learning projects on the development of students' professional skills. They gathered data from graduate students in the field of public administration and identified the following factors as influencing the effectiveness of service-learning effectiveness: opportunities for reflection; processing student values and goals; student ownership and leadership in the service-learning process; student demographics (e.g., age); prior voluntary experience; and work experience. However, after the researchers applied a regression analysis, they found that none of these variables were significant. Based only on ANOVA results, Lu and Lambright reported that younger students felt more strongly than did older students that their professional skills had improved as a result of working on the service project. In addition, the researchers noted the importance of providing multiple points of engagement for the students. Students involved in concurrent service projects reported higher skill development than did those involved in a single project, leading the researchers to suggest the multiple activities will reinforce skills developed in the other

projects or activities. Finally, students who felt their work groups functioned well as a team rated the project as more effective than did those whose groups were less cohesive.

A meta-analysis of 62 studies involving 11,837 students compiled by Celio, Durlak, and Dymnicki (2011) examined both benefits gained by students involved in service-learning programs, as well as contributing factors for program effectiveness. One of the criteria to be included in the meta-analysis was that each study reviewed had to have used a control group to ensure that these researchers could provide a comparison. The findings indicated significant benefits with respect to (a) attitudes toward self, (b) attitudes toward school and learning, (c) civic engagement, (d) social skills, and (e) academic achievement (p. 171). These benefits were more positive in programs that included at least one of the following recommended factors: (a) linking to curriculum, (b) student voice, (c) community involvement, and (d) reflection (p. 175) than in programs that did not follow these recommended practices. For example, having a strong student voice in the identification and development of a service-learning experience led to increased effectiveness, while having an ill-prepared student or volunteer recipient led to a less effective program. According to Morgan and Streb (2001), “It is imperative that service-learning projects involve activities where the students are given a real level of control over the project. If the students do not have a voice in the activities, they apparently do not connect with them” (p. 166).

Tailoring the service-learning program to the type of student the organizers wish to engage can make a difference in the effectiveness of the program. Zaff and Lerner (2010) identified the importance of student voice in the process of identifying the community problem, planning the solution, and having time to reflect on the experience.

This allowed the students to select a problem that was relevant to them and they were much more engaged with the service. The researchers noted the importance that teachers and administrators are aware that activities appealing to low-income or academically struggling youth may differ for activities of wealthier suburban youth, or those that are excelling academically. In the conversation regarding voluntary versus mandatory service the researchers noted that service-learning can motivate the youth in civic activity, which they may not have engaged in without the school requirement. They found the mandatory aspect of service-learning had no negative effect on the youth already disposed to volunteerism and had a positive effect on the youth population less inclined to serve. This population showed a great likelihood to engage in civic activities such as voting and civic involvement after the mandatory service.

AmeriCorps volunteerism includes an intense, long-term commitment on the part of the volunteer, who often commits to one-year full-time service. Einfeld and Collins (2008) conducted a qualitative study of nine AmeriCorps volunteers and distinguished between charity and social change (i.e., in charity, the provider remains in control of the direct service, thus not addressing the root causes of social inequality), as well as between service-learning and straight volunteerism (i.e., service-learning incorporates reflective analysis). The researchers defined service-learning as “a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development. Reflection and reciprocity are key concepts of service-learning” (p. 95). Einfeld and Collins concluded that brief service-learning formats of one week (e.g., spring break commitments) were beneficial for students, but were not as transformative

and integrative as a long-term reflective experience. During the interviews “all participants expressed a desire and commitment to continued civic engagement and upon completing their service, regardless of their motivation for charity or social change” (p. 104). The researchers attributed this commitment to the long-term service placement. They posited that the social justice component occurred when the students were provided opportunities to analyze the social problems at a systemic level; otherwise the service often resulted in a charitable experience.

Areas of Needed Improvement in High School Service-Learning

Service-learning has detractors who believe the challenge of creating successful programming may outweigh its potential benefits. For example, the notion of integrating service-learning as a mandatory classroom component has generated objections from some academicians. Egger (2008) stated outright, “Mixing community service with college students’ learning is a bad idea” (p. 183). He opined that the volunteerism in service-learning cannot be considered true community service because it is mandatory for students, who are motivated by their need to receive a passing grade. Egger also opined that service-learning exploits students’ ingrained sympathy for those less fortunate than themselves, and conveys a hidden social agenda. On the other side of the coin, Sheffield (2015) argued that community service-learning, as presently conducted in elementary, secondary, and college settings, does more to perpetuate the status quo than to challenge it because programs fail to address underlying social problems.

Others have assessed the various negative and positive factors and concluded that the current focus should be on discovering how to improve the existing models of service-learning to ensure better outcomes (Chupp & Joseph, 2010; Cruz & Giles, 2000).

Lack of preparation and proper training for the students, teachers, or the institution can produce negative experiences for one or more of the stakeholders. Even teachers who say service-learning is an important aspect of secondary school education do not necessarily implement service-learning strategies frequently (Seitsinger, 2005). Cook and Kemeny (2014) concluded that classroom preparation improves the service-learning experience. Beatty (2010) stressed the importance of the teacher's role in designing and adhering to goals and models that are aligned with the fundamental purpose of service-learning. Morin (2009) reported that college students' dissatisfaction with the service-learning they were offered through the school was due to lack of proper preparation for the tasks they were assigned. The instructors in that program also felt dissatisfaction because their goals for the students were not met. Morin concluded that careful examination of the problems that occurred during this program was essential for identification of strategies for improvement: "The goal of this study is to use the unsuccessful aspects of the service-learning course as a learning tool" (p. 43).

Ideally, high-school service-learning builds a foundation for volunteerism in subsequent years (Duckenfield, 2002). However, in one study of a freshman college service-learning course, students who arrived with high expectations about their community service had difficulty relating to the intellectual content of the course (Ross & Boyle, 2007). The researchers analyzed the factors that contributed to students' challenges and concluded, "Introductory service-learning courses may need to be reconceptualized for the increasing numbers of students who come to college with prior service experiences and strong orientations toward social action" (p. 53). Similarly, Swords and Kiely (2010) opined, "For service learning to lead to more meaningful social

change, beyond pedagogical innovation, it must be reinvented as a more robust approach including pedagogy, research, organizational learning, and community development” (p. 148). Ross and Boyle contrasted what they call “safe service” (i.e., an opportunity to “repeat what they had done successfully in high school, albeit in a new setting” [p. 61]) with “reflective service-learning.” Although this study focused only on college-level courses, it implies that if motivation for future volunteerism is to be enhanced, high-school courses also need to be reconceptualized to help students better integrate the active and reflective aspects of service-learning. Mitchell (2008) argued that while traditional service-learning models “may have no impact beyond students’ good feelings” (p. 51), and at worst can perpetuate unjust social structures, what she and others have termed critical service-learning (i.e., incorporating a social change model) is likely to have more profound and lasting results for students.

Rosing, Reed, Ferrari, and Bothne (2010) reported on 3 years of evaluation results for students completing service at DePaul University, and concluded that “analysis of student dissatisfaction as expressed in evaluations of community-based learning courses may point faculty and administrators to areas in need of improvement” (p. 480). The researchers found that the most frequent complaints revolved around lack of preparation on the part of both the nonprofits and the university. Much of the dissatisfaction was associated with the university’s insufficient efforts to find sites that would benefit from the service and adequate preparation of the students for the service. Students expressed the desire for their service to both help build their learning and contribute toward community building. More often than not, these goals were not realized, according to students’ evaluations. Rosing et al. concluded that schools implementing service-learning

need to design programs that meet the learning objectives of the classroom curriculum, satisfy the volunteering desires of the student, and serve the interests of the community and the nonprofit agency partners. They stated, “The purpose of such continuous improvement is not simply greater satisfaction among students and increased learning, but more effective university engagement in supporting underserved communities and advocacy for social change” (p. 480).

Hou and Wilder (2015) examined faculty motivation and obstacles to implementing service-learning and found that faculty at an unnamed public research university lacked the necessary reward and recognition structures despite the presence of an Office of Service-Learning. They researchers concluded that “intrinsic motivation to improve student learning and development was the most important driving force for faculty adopting [service-learning] pedagogy despite discouragement from colleagues or their departments” (para 24). Knapp, Fisher, and Levesque-Bristol (2010), who investigated the impact of service-learning on the commitment of Missouri State University students to civic engagement, social empowerment, and self-efficacy, found that a longer duration of service was related to higher levels of commitment and later civic involvement, as was student reflection. In-classroom activities had no significant impact. The types of groups and types of service the students engaged with did relate to higher reports of future civic engagement, social empowerment, and self-efficacy. Students who worked with children or teens in a direct manner had significantly higher levels of engagement than did those who worked with adults or provided indirect service. The researchers drew three lessons from the evaluation that can be used to improve service-learning programs: (a) increase the length of time students participate, (b) more

carefully select community partners, and (c) incorporate a reflective component. They also emphasized the need for defining best practices. In conclusion, they stated,

The evidence is building that as more research-informed, deliberately planned applications of service-learning occur, they will lead to stronger increases in students' civic skills and commitment to community involvement. Then, colleges and universities will better meet their obligations to students and better fulfill their social functions as institutions that help prepare tomorrow's citizens. (p. 249)

As service-learning receives increased government funding and becomes integrated into the fabric of U.S. school curricula, educators have questioned the sustainability of these programs as they exist today. Jacoby (2009) placed service-learning "squarely at the intersection of three powerful movements in higher education: the focus on active, engaged learning; the establishment and assessment of student learning outcomes; and the call for the renewal of the civic role of higher education" (p. 90). As such, establishing the sustainability of service-learning becomes an imperative.

Jacoby (2009) formulated seven questions she viewed as critical for discussion and research about service-learning: "What 'counts' as service-learning?"(p. 91) "Can we demonstrate the value of service-learning?"(p. 92) "Is service-learning accessible and appropriate for all students?" (p. 94) "Can campus-community partnerships for service-learning be reciprocal relationships among equals?" (p. 96) "Does service-learning perpetuate the status quo?"(p. 98) "Should service-learning be globalized?" (p. 99) "Should service-learning be institutionalized?" (p. 101) Jacoby posited that the practice of service-learning has not been clearly enough defined. She also questioned the wisdom of integrating service-learning into the school curriculum if that takes it out of the hands

of campus ministers, community members, student affairs professionals, and others well-versed in volunteerism. Moreover, participation in service-learning can be a financial drain for some students, especially less advantaged students who have to work to earn money or have no available transportation to and from the service sites. Jacoby noted that funds should be made available to accommodate these gaps in student resources. Overall, Jacoby expressed concern about whether service-learning as a practice is effective. Given these concerns, to move forward with sustainable service-learning, these areas of uncertainty need to be addressed.

Summary

In this review of relevant literature, I identified the main types of models used for service-learning programs at the secondary school level, including the placement model, project model, product model, presentation model, presentation plus model, and event model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007). At the college level, types of models include the discipline-based model, problem-based model, capstone course model, service internship model, community-based action research mode, and directed study model (Heffernan, 2001). No single model has been identified in the research literature as most effective at either level of education.

The evaluation literature provides evidence that service-learning programs are generally effective. Researchers have noted, among other positive outcomes, increasing students' personal development, fostering students' sense of civic and social responsibility and citizenship skills, promoting the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills, and helping students to be more realistic about their careers' aspirations (Billig, 2000). However, this body of research is characterized by a scarcity of controlled

studies and a reliance on anecdotal reports. These limitations are especially evident in research aimed at the secondary school level. In sum, while it is possible to conclude from the literature that service-learning programs are helpful to students, it is more difficult to say conclusively what programmatic features make them effective.

Using data from both meta-analyses and primary research, I attempted through this literature review to identify factors associated with program effectiveness and areas for needed improvement. Because of the relative scarcity of research on high school programs, many of my conclusions were derived from research conducted at the college level and only secondarily applied to younger populations. Factors mentioned in the literature as accounting for positive outcomes for service-learning programs include (a) placement strategies, (b) in-class discussion, (c) reflection activities, (d) student autonomy and voice, (e) meaningfulness of work and of tasks, (f) relationship with community partners, (g) feedback from agency, (h) service duration, (i) teacher preparation, (j) educational goals, (k) evaluation, and (l) balance of academic content and social problem-solving processes. Given the mixed research results pertaining to program outcomes, as well as the mixed opinions found in the literature about the value of service-learning, effort is needed to further clarify what is effective and how programs can be improved to assure effective outcomes. In line with the overarching questions raised by Jacoby (2009), these empirical questions must be answered so that service-learning programming can go beyond mere volunteerism and achieve a maximum effect within schools and communities.

This literature review informed and determined the questions I used during both the case studies and the interviews with the key experts. In Chapter 3, I restate the

problem, detail the research questions, explain the methodology of the study, and identify the types of participants for the case studies and the key experts I interviewed. In the next chapter, I also explain the method I used for gathering the data and how the data were analyzed.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

Service-learning has become increasingly well established as a valued policy at the secondary and college levels, with accumulating evidence that service-learning programs have a positive impact on a range of student characteristics (Eyler & Giles, 1999, 2013; Furco & Root, 2010; Hart et al., 2007; Raskoff & Sundeen, 1999). To this end, a variety of models for service-learning programs have emerged. Nevertheless, the ability of these various program types to motivate volunteerism and civic engagement by participating students after they graduate from high school is less clearly known. In fact, educators and researchers have repeatedly called for the strengthening of these programs so that their outcomes can be more certain, far-reaching, and long lasting (Chupp & Joseph, 2010; Cruz & Giles, 2000; Jacoby, 2009). The purpose of this study was to begin to address these issues through a qualitative, multiple case study approach that focused on how service-learning programs could be improved in terms of increasing greater student participation and motivating subsequent volunteerism.

In this chapter I outline the research questions, define the research design and approach, describe my role as the researcher, and explain the methodology I used including the sample selection, instrumentation, data collection process, and data analysis.

Research Questions

Five research questions guided this study.

RQ#1: What is the current state of service-learning programming at the high school level, with respect to the kinds of models (including evaluation practices) used?

RQ#2: How do the three types of schools (public, private, faith based) compare with respect to (a) models of service-learning used, (b) level of student participation, and (c) need for improvement in service-learning programming?

RQ#3: What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools?

RQ#4: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate students to participate and to foster greater satisfaction?

RQ#5: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate continued volunteerism in college?

Research Design and Approach

I employed a multiple case study research methodology. Data were gathered during program site visits and from key experts in the field of service-learning. This approach was selected because although a quantitative study could add to the information available regarding the effectiveness of different program components, a qualitative study allowed for a greater understanding of strategies that could be used to improve existing programs. As the literature review indicates, suggestions for improvement can be deduced from quantitative evaluation results, but this study's methodology involved a more in-depth and more nuanced analysis of the relevant educational issues and potential solutions.

For one part of the study, I conducted three case studies of high schools with formalized service-learning programs. I used a public school, private school, and faith-based school. While each school represented an individual case study using the format recommended by Yin (2009), the three schools together represented a multiple case study

examining the issue of service-learning innovation in these high schools. According to Stake (2006), the cases within multiple-case research should share some important characteristics. I interviewed the case study representatives at each site to obtain information about the successes and failures of their programs, as well as their recommendations for improvements. These case study interviewees were also asked about anticipated obstacles to implementing improvements and about strategies for overcoming such obstacles for their specific school.

In the other part of the study, which was conducted simultaneously with the case studies, in-depth data were collected from interviews with six key expert informants who are regarded as leaders in their field. The focus of these interviews was on the key experts' recommendations for improving service-learning programs nationwide, anticipated obstacles to implementing improvements, and strategies for overcoming such obstacles.

Role of the Researcher

My role for this study was as the interviewer for the case studies and for the key expert informant interviews. Although I used schools in my community for the case studies, I did not interview any individuals with whom I had a personal relationship. The key expert informants were individuals who had published articles in the service-learning field, and were not personal acquaintances of mine. My goal was to accurately reflect the information proffered by the case studies and key expert informant interviews.

Setting and Sample

This study featured case studies of high school service-learning programs. The case studies represented three different types of high schools: public, private, and faith

based. Due to my geographical limitations as the researcher, all three high schools selected were in the Los Angeles area. In addition to the case studies, I drew on the expertise of key expert informants in the field. The setting was both local (case studies) as well as national (experts) in scope.

Sample Selection

I included a sample of 13 data sources: seven case study interviewees and six key expert informants. For the case studies, I contacted all of the local area high schools, either by phone or by visiting the school's administrative offices, to determine whether they had an organized service-learning program. I compiled a list of the schools representing each type (public, private, faith-based) that had a program. I selected three schools from this list that met the criteria and that represented the three types. I contacted either the principal or the person in charge of the service-learning program at the three selected schools to make an appointment to (a) explain the project in person, (b) offer the proposal and interview questions for review, (c) determine the availability of program representatives who met the criteria for participation in the study, and (d) inquire whether that school was willing to participate. I continued to select alternate schools from the list until three school representatives agreed to participate. In addition to the service-learning school representative, I interviewed up to two more representatives (e.g., principal, assistant principal, teacher) at each school who were considered to be well versed in the school's service-learning program. Priority was given to schools that had three representatives to interview.

I identified six key experts in the field of service-learning. A list of potential experts was compiled during the literature review, and I contacted these individuals

through a mailed letter or email, whichever seemed more appropriate for that individual. I explained the nature and purpose of the study and the proposed 30-40 minute interview. I obtained a sample that included one expert on high school service-learning, one expert on college service-learning, one expert on service-learning in the government sector, and two experts who had a broad knowledge of the field (i.e., had worked in two or more of these areas).

Eligibility Criteria

The three schools included in the case studies were selected based on the following criteria:

- has a formalized service-learning program that has been in place for a minimum of one year;
- is either a public, private, or faith-based school;
- is willing to participate as expressed by the school's administrator.

The individuals interviewed as representatives of the case study schools were selected based on the following criteria:

- is currently involved in running a high school service-learning program, or is well versed in the running of the service-learning program;
- is knowledgeable about current trends in either high school and/or college service-learning programs.

The six key expert informants interviewed were selected based on the following criteria:

- has a minimum of 10 years of involvement in service-learning at the high school level, college level, or with government programs;

- is knowledgeable about current trends in either high school and/or college service-learning programs;
- has published on the subject of service-learning in a peer-reviewed journal, book, or government publication.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

The data collection for this study primarily involved structured, in-depth interviews. In addition, I solicited relevant supplementary documentation from the case study participants.

Instrumentation

I employed a focused interview format structured with open-ended questions, as outlined by Yin (2009). Many of the questions included prompts to allow me to obtain more detailed information. Two sets of interview questions, with some common and some different questions for the two subsamples, were developed to reflect the central themes that emerged from the review of literature relevant to improvement needs in service-learning programs (Appendix A).

Interview Procedures

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with the representatives from the selected case study schools. I contacted these case study interviewees by phone or email to arrange to visit at a time and place convenient to both of us. The optimal location was the school site because any service-learning records most likely were located there, but I was willing to visit the place considered most convenient by the interviewee. The interviewees received the informed consent form (Appendix B) and the interview questions (Appendix A) in advance to allow time to reflect on their answers.

The goal of the interview was to obtain the most thorough and relevant information regarding the school's service-learning program and to elicit the interviewee's expert opinion about how to improve the service-learning experience. I used a recording device and took handwritten notes during the interview. The interviews were approximately one hour in length, and took place in a quiet, private location.

The key expert informants were contacted via phone or email to schedule an interview. These interviews were conducted on the phone because this was most convenient given my geographic limitations as the researcher. These interviews were approximately 30 -40 minutes in length. The key expert informants received the informed consent form (Appendix B) and the interview questions (Appendix A) in advance to allow time to reflect on their answers. All participants in the study received and were asked to sign informed consent forms (Appendix B).

Data Analysis

I used both an open and a directed approach when analyzing the data. I transcribed all interview data verbatim, using software to facilitate the process. I also logged supplemental information obtained from the case study interviewees.

I compiled an open, descriptive analysis of the case study data, drawing upon quotations by the respective case study representatives, as recommended by Saldana (2013). I emphasized points of comparison between the three types of schools (public, private, faith based) based on data from the interviews. When analyzing key expert informant data, I emphasized important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools, areas of needed improvement, and obstacles informants predicted would be encountered while implementing these improvements. I also developed a directed system

of coding categories based on the service-learning literature, which reflected components of a successful service-learning program. The coding categories included the following:

- placement strategies;
- in-class discussion;
- reflection activities;
- student autonomy and voice;
- meaningfulness of work and of tasks;
- relationship with community partners;
- feedback from agency;
- service duration;
- teacher preparation;
- educational goals;
- evaluation;
- balance of academic content and social problem-solving processes.

Keeping a code book and using analytic memos allowed me to confidently defend the coding process.

Ethical Procedures

In conducting this study, I made sure that procedures necessary for the ethical conduct of qualitative research involving human subjects were observed throughout. All interviewees were informed in advance that their responses would be confidential. They were made aware that they could stop the interview at any time. They were also invited to review the transcripts of their responses. In addition, I offered to present the results of the

study at the participating schools upon its completion. These practices not only served to safeguard participants, but also offered potential benefits with respect to their professional development in the area of service-learning; although this study did not constitute participatory action research (PAR), it was congruent with the recommended ethical practices of PAR (see, for example, MacDonald, 2012).

When treating the data, I followed procedures designed to model trustworthiness, as defined by Guba (1981) and Guba and Lincoln (1994). According to Morrow (2005), “*credibility* in qualitative research is said to correspond to *internal validity* in quantitative approaches, *transferability* to *external validity* or *generalizability*, *dependability* to *reliability*, and *confirmability* to *objectivity*” (pp. 251–252). These constructs have been widely accepted in educational research (Shenton, 2003).

With respect to credibility, the data in the present study were analyzed using a coding system based on findings from the literature review. This was in alignment with guidelines for establishing credibility: “The specific procedures employed, such as the line of questioning pursued in the data gathering sessions and the methods of data analysis, should be derived, where possible, from those that have been successfully utilized in previous comparable projects” (Shenton, 2004, p. 64). Credibility was also fostered by the inclusion of both case study interviewees and a second subsample of key expert informants. This allowed for triangulation of results to determine where the findings converged and where they differed. The sample of case study schools included public, private, and faith-based institutions, thereby increasing credibility as well as transferability of the findings to different types of service-learning settings.

The transferability of the present study was further promoted by an interview format that allowed for the collection of data that could be used to develop “thick description” and “thick interpretation” (Ponterotto, 2006, p. 542). These rich descriptive findings not only included participants’ understandings and actions related to service-learning, but also took into account the context, thereby enhancing both transferability and credibility.

The methods used in the study were ones that other researchers could readily adopt and replicate in additional settings, thus fostering dependability. The findings were consistent and could be repeated. Finally, confirmability was enhanced by the triangulation of different data sources (the literature review as well as case study interviewees and key expert informants). In addition, strategies for reflexivity included extensive notes I took throughout the process to document any methodological issues, any biases I might bring, and my decision-making process. The confirmability could have been increased by the inclusion of additional researchers; however, the scale of the project and the nature of dissertation research precluded that.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I restated the problem and the purpose of the study, reintroduced the research questions, and explained the research design and methodology. I identified my role as researcher and described the sample selection process and the eligibility criteria for both the case study interviewees and the key expert informants. I included a description of the instrumentation and interview process. I concluded with an overview of the data analysis process, including the categories for coding.

Chapter 4

In this study, I conducted case studies of three high school service-learning programs as well as interviews with six informants who are experts in the field of service-learning. When collecting data, I focused on describing the state of service-learning in three types of schools: public, private, and faith based. The data revealed perceptions of informants regarding how high school service-learning programs could be improved to more effectively encourage student participation and motivate continued volunteerism in college. I addressed five research questions:

RQ#1: What is the current state of service-learning programming at the high school level, with respect to the kinds of models (including evaluation practices) used?

RQ#2: How do the three types of schools (public, private, faith based) compare with respect to (a) models of service-learning used, (b) level of student participation, and (c) need for improvement in service-learning programming?

RQ#3: What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools?

RQ#4: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate students to participate and to foster greater satisfaction?

RQ#5: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate continued volunteerism in college?

In Chapter 1, I introduced the study by providing an overview of service-learning, the purpose of the study, and the conceptual framework. In Chapter 2, I presented a review of the relevant literature beginning with a history of volunteerism and service-learning in the United States. I also focused on current research pertaining to service-

learning statistics, models of service-learning programs, and evaluation of service-learning programs. In addition, I reviewed factors associated with service-learning effective programming, areas of needed improvement, and issues related to sustainability of the service-learning movement. In Chapter 3, I described the methodology of the study, which included case studies and key expert interviews. The results of the study are presented in Chapter 4, which begins with a description of relevant participant demographics. In the additional sections, I present the data gathered for each of the study's five research questions.

Setting

The case studies included three different types of high schools: public, private, and faith based. All three high schools selected were in the Los Angeles area. In addition to the case studies, I drew on the expertise of six key expert informants in the field. The setting was local (case studies) as well as national (experts) in scope.

I invited eight key experts to participate in the research. Six agreed to participate in the study. Four of these key expert informants were male and two were female. One key expert declined to participate because she did not meet the criteria. Another key expert declined due to time restraints.

I approached 19 potential case study schools. Invitations were sent to one faith-based school, seven public schools, and 11 private schools. The contact persons at three schools agreed to have their schools participate. The contact person at the first faith-based school I invited agreed to participate. However, the challenge was in securing participation from the public and private high schools. Many requests were made to public and private schools to secure those two case study participant schools. The contact

persons at the public schools gave two main reasons for declining to participate. Some did not feel they had a robust enough service-learning program, and others felt the staff would not have time to be interviewed. In addition, others failed to contact me after the first conversation confirming the existence of their school's service-learning program. The reasons the contact persons at the private schools declined included not feeling they had a robust enough service-learning program, and feeling parents would not be happy with them participating in the research. Other contact persons at private schools declined because they thought upper management would not want to participate. Some contact persons at the private schools did not give a reason for declining to participate.

Demographics

Two groups of participants were involved in this study: key expert informants and case study school informants. The demographics of these two groups are described in the sections that follow.

Key Expert Informants

The six key experts I interviewed had all been part of the service-learning movement since the early 1990s when President Clinton introduced the CNCS and its programming. Most of those interviewed were involved at the university level exclusively during the early 1990s.

The first key expert informant started a public service program at an East Coast university in 1992, directly as a result of the Clinton-instigated AmeriCorp program. This expert has authored books and articles on service-learning. She reported that the field has become more sophisticated in its understanding of and practicing of critical reflection and

reciprocity with community partners. This expert is currently exploring unresolved questions about the future of service-learning.

The second key expert informant attended a service-learning course in the early 1980s. He became directly involved in the field after he took a position as executive director of a center for service and learning at a Midwestern university. This expert has authored books and articles on service-learning. He believes the establishment of the CNCS was a huge stimulus for the growth of service-learning. He stated that the early pioneers considered service-learning to be a very student-oriented, democratically oriented, community-oriented, and process-oriented pedagogy.

The third key expert informant became involved in service-learning as a faculty member at a Northeastern university. As a researcher there, he explored various pedagogical approaches to teach U.S. history course content more effectively, and service-learning caught his attention. Eventually, this expert ended up running the service-learning program at the university. He reported that universities created the infrastructure on campuses to support community engagement, and that the study of community engagement and service-learning moved over time from being housed within student affairs to being housed within academic affairs.

The fourth key expert informant began his career as a teacher and then became a vice principal in a school where the principal decided to implement a community service program. He saw transformative learning by the students that was not achieved by traditional classroom instruction alone. In the early 1990s, this expert began his doctoral studies at a West Coast university and chose service-learning in kindergarten through

Grade 12 as the focus of his dissertation. When this West Coast university was identified as a site for service-learning, this expert was asked to head the program.

The fifth key expert informant first experienced service-learning when she was part of a Campus Compact university. She later joined the faculty of a center for service-learning at a Midwestern university and currently serves as the executive director. This expert also serves as a professor on that campus. She has co-authored books and written many articles on service-learning. She reported that the shift toward stricter standards for learning outcomes in recent years has given K–12 teachers less flexibility to incorporate service-learning into their curricula, whereas universities do not have these same restrictions based on requisite testing standards.

The sixth key expert informant was part of a group that evaluated the first generation of federally funded service-learning programs. These programs were part of the Serve America K–12 programming. His group ran a 3-year evaluation that looked at a sample of approximately one dozen sites around the country. This expert has had a long career working with the different iterations of Serve America, Serve and Learn, AmeriCorps, and other service programs of the CNCS. His experience is mostly in middle and high school settings.

Case Study School Informants

The case study informants all had a leadership role with the service-learning program at their school. The director of the service-learning program at each school was my primary informant. Almost all of the other informants were school staff who were actively involved with the program. One exception was a staff member who was

interviewed because he had run the program before the current director of the service-learning program took over.

Faith-based school informants. At the faith-based school, I was able to interview the director of the program, the former director of the program, and a biology teacher who has been active with the program for many years. The school has fewer than 450 students.

The current director of the service-learning program has been in that position for 10 years, and oversaw the transition from a required 20-hour annual community service program to an active grade-level service-learning program. Prior to becoming the director, he co-led the 20-hour community service program and was one of the school's religion teachers.

The former director of the community service program was also a religion teacher. He is now an athletic coach in the sports program. This former director provided insight on the value of the two different types of programs.

The biology teacher has served as a mentor for the program in its different forms. She has been teaching environmental biology in the 10th grade and serves as a chaperone/educator for that grade level. This teacher uses service-learning to reinforce academic learning and considers it important for students to make the connection between classroom learning and real-world service.

Private school informants. At the private school, I interviewed the director of student life, as well as the director of the lower school (Grades 2–5) and middle school (Grades 6–8). At this school, high school is Grades 9–12. I selected these two informants because this school houses Grades 2–12 on one campus, and the service-learning

program is complementary at the different grade-level schools. The school has fewer than 150 students.

The primary informant at the private school has been with the school for 2.5 years. She organizes and oversees all service-learning programming at the school in her role as director of student life. She is in charge of the high school service-learning program, which has 100 students.

The secondary informant has been with the school for 3 years and has expanded the service-learning programming into both the lower school and middle school. She currently coordinates with the director of student life to have these programs support the high school service-learning programs.

Public school informants. At the public school, I interviewed the director of the service-learning program and a key teacher in the 11th-grade service-learning program. Service-learning at this school originally was housed within the Social Studies Department. The school has more than 2,700 students.

The primary informant serves as the assistant principal for the school, and the service-learning programming falls under his leadership. He has been with the school since before the establishment of the service-learning program. At that time, the school simply required student community hours for graduation.

The secondary informant is the chair of the Social Studies Department and the lead teacher for the Humanitas Academy, which is one of five small learning communities (SLC) at the school. She has been with the school for 10 years and has been actively involved with the service-learning program. The service-learning program for

her academy is named the Decade Project, and this teacher serves as lead teacher for the project, coordinating the other teachers in the Humanitas Academy.

Data Collection

My process for obtaining the engagement of the key expert informants was through email invitations. I was able to secure interviews with most of my first choices, with the exception of one who was unavailable due to a big project and one who had not been in the field for 10 years. I found each of these experts to be a rich source of information. I interviewed each of these experts over the phone and recorded the conversation for later transcription. Each interview lasted between 25 minutes and 1 hour (Appendix C).

Obtaining the engagement of the case study schools was initially done by contacting either the school official in charge of the service-learning program at the school or the school official in charge of the school itself. I did this either by telephone or in person, depending on how readily accessible the individual was.

The process of securing interviews with the school service-learning informants took 9 months. This process began with my initial contact at the first school and ended when I conducted the first interview. The seven interviews with the case study school informants were completed in 10 months. In approaching the private schools, one of the challenges encountered was that although no access to the students or student data was needed, school officials were protective of their students' privacy. Many students in these schools come from socially prominent families who wished to avoid unnecessary public exposure. A challenge encountered at the public schools was school officials who said they were too busy to participate. In addition, some public schools did not engage in true

service-learning and only had required community service hours, which made them ineligible to participate.

When I did secure the approval for participation from the contact person at a case study school, I arranged the interview appointments with the director of the service-learning program at that school. I interviewed each informant in person. Each interview was audiotaped for later transcription. Each interview lasted between 20 minutes and 1 hour (Appendix C).

Data Analysis

After the data had been collected, I transcribed all the interviews. I then printed a copy of each interview and labeled the transcript with an assigned code to keep the informant's identity confidential.

According to Bloomberg and Volpe (2012), "coding and categorizing involve the 'constant comparison' method that continues throughout the study" (p. 137). While I was listening to the interviews during transcription, I had time to repeatedly compare the data in an informal manner. The next step was to read the transcripts and formally code them.

I developed categories and key code words based on the interview questionnaires and the literature review (Appendix D). Specifically, the coding categories were driven by the questionnaire, which allowed me to look for themes and patterns (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). The key code words were based on the literature review themes and included words used in the questionnaires.

I performed the coding using hard copies of the transcripts. I separated the key expert interviews and case study interviews because the key expert informants and case study school informants had responded to different questionnaires and provided different

perspectives. I read and reread each transcript to make sure I thoroughly examined the data, as recommended by Saldana (2013, p. 58) and Bloomberg and Volpe (2012, p. 141). I highlighted key words on the transcripts. Then I compiled the data from the key experts and the case study school informants in separate documents. I created spreadsheets showing the coded data and organized these according to the questions to allow me to compare the frequency of important strategies, ways to improve, and obstacles to these improvements. I further divided the data for the case study school informants into three groups so I could compare frequencies and trends in responses for the three types of schools.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

The strategies for credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability were implemented as described in Chapter 3, including (a) use of a coding system based on findings from the literature review; (b) inclusion of both case study informants and a second subsample of key expert informants; (c) triangulation between the different sources of data; and (d) use of rich, descriptive data that took into account context. A few modifications were made to increase the study's trustworthiness. I originally intended to interview five key experts; however, with the approval of my chair, I decided to add a sixth to have a better representation of key experts with experience in high school programming. The addition of this key expert interview further strengthened the credibility of my research. I added a fifth research question to uncover strategies for effective service-learning reported during the interviews.

Results

The data from the key expert and the case study school interviews for each of the five research questions guiding this research study are presented in the following sections. Some questions were addressed by case study school informants only, while other questions were addressed by both key expert and case study school informants.

The Current State of Service-Learning Programming

Interviews with the informants from the three case study schools yielded information that addressed research question #1: What is the current state of service-learning programming at the high school level, with respect to the kinds of models (including evaluation practices) used? The data are presented here for each of the types of schools separately. The three types are compared and contrasted in the following section.

The faith-based school. The faith-based school's mission is to "heal, unify, and transform the world." The school formerly used a model whereby the students only completed annual community service hours. The school has since transitioned to both a project model and a placement model of service-learning that involves local nonprofit agencies. The director of service, who was at the school throughout this transition, described the school's reason for rejecting the old model as follows: "I found that the deadline that we had in April or May, at the end of the school year, consistently had students who didn't meet the deadline. And so, by the third year of doing it, when we had 180 students out of 450 that didn't meet the deadline, it was a great moment to kind of say, 'What are we doing?' and 'Why are we doing it?'" In addition to issues of compliance, the director cited motivation as a reason to abandon the old model: "Alfie Kohn is a homework researcher who talks about the best way to kill a student's interest in

learning is to assign it as homework. And so it felt like we were doing the same thing with respect to service. We were assigning it as homework.”

The school uses service-learning programming wherein all four grade levels have retreats and service activities that are integrated with the curriculum. *Retreats* refer to student service-learning activities that are held off campus for a day or longer. The school uses retreats as a way for one-third of the students in a particular grade level to participate in a service-learning activity while the other students in that grade level focus on another type of activity. The placement model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007) is used for the 9th, 11th, and 12th grades. The project model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007) is used for the 10th grade. Additionally, the school uses both direct service-learning and indirect service-learning models (Florida Campus Compact, 2009). For example, the 11th-grade soup serving activity in downtown Los Angeles puts students directly into contact with those they are serving, while the 10th-grade environmental service helps the community as a whole, not a specific individual. Because the service-learning in 10th grade is integrated into the biology class, the single-course model (Swanson, 2000) is used in that case.

The school works with seven nonprofits that welcome students to come in and perform a service role. During the 9th grade, students go to the L.A. Regional Food Bank, which is linked to the school’s mission of social justice. During 10th grade, students do environmental work with Heal the Bay and the Tree People; these activities are integrated with their biology coursework. The school is currently arranging for 10th graders to work with the Agoura Hills Creek Project, which would link to environmental issues covered in the biology lesson plan. The 10th-grade biology teacher at the school has been one of the most active in the service-learning programming, and her course offers a variety of

service-learning opportunities. During 11th grade, students participate in service that is linked to their U.S. history and social justice coursework. The students usually serve at soup kitchens in downtown Los Angeles. During 12th grade, students participate in service at Habitat for Humanity.

The school's placement strategy is to find community partners that can accommodate 30 to 40 students at one time and that have the potential to provide a worthwhile and rewarding experience that includes active involvement. An additional consideration in placement is to find community partners that complement the grade-level curriculum. The case study school informants indicated the class that does the most organized reflection and in-class discussion regarding service is the religion class. The biology class also does informal reflection and in-class discussion throughout the year to bring the service experience into the classroom.

The faith-based school has done a thorough faculty-wide evaluation twice since the roll out of the program 7 years ago. The first evaluation was conducted at the beginning of the first year. It focused on obtaining developmental input and buy-in from the faculty about the new program. The second evaluation was at the end of the third year, when it was evident that not all faculty were participating in and/or backing the program. These faculty-wide evaluation sessions were completed during faculty meetings and included informal discussion and feedback. In addition, the school holds annual meetings at the end of each year with the service-learning teachers and the school administration. The purpose of these meetings is to evaluate the program and discuss any needed modifications. They also include a review of seniors' end-of-year reflective

papers to evaluate how students have met service-learning goals. The director incorporates feedback from the community partners into the annual evaluation.

The faith-based school has no formal way of tracking whether its alumni continue to volunteer after they reach college.

The private school. The service-learning program at the private middle and high schools is integrated with the social-emotional curriculum. The school uses the project model, the event model, and the placement model for its service-learning (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007). The service-learning component is based in the students' advisory class, which meets two days a week. All service activities are planned and prepared in this class, and the reflection on the activities occurs in this class. The school often has speakers during assembly who are either staff at a nonprofit the school partners with or parents involved with a nonprofit partner.

The school has been in the process of fully shifting into integrated service-learning programming over the past 3 years. The school started the transition in the lower grades, then moved into the middle school, and is currently transitioning the high school. All high school students are involved in an indirect service-learning model, and some are involved with the direct service-learning model (Florida Campus Compact, 2009). The goal is to involve every student in direct service-learning (Swanson, 2000), as well. Informant #2 described the school's transition process as follows: "It's kind of also trying to figure out the balance between letting them have student-driven experiences, but also having something that's like a communal experience that everybody takes a part in."

The elementary school partners with LA Family Housing. The curriculum in the early grade levels focuses on home and family life, so this nonprofit is a good match for

the students' learning goals. Students are able to return to the same site or host the same group multiple times over the year, which is designed to enrich their learning.

The middle school has a service club as well as service involvement opportunities for those who serve on the student council. These are in addition to the advisory class service-learning. Swanson (2000) identified service-learning clubs as one of the six basic models of service-learning. Activities of the service club and the advisory class service-learning are incorporated into the Thursday school assembly, where previous service activities are reported and new service opportunities are introduced. When a speaker comes from a nonprofit, the discussion can generate ideas that result in the students planning a service activity based on that speaker's information.

Currently the school is using project, placement, and event models (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007) for the high school students. Students in Grades 9 and 10 work with Operation Gratitude, which uses both the project and event models. Students in Grade 11 work with a homeless shelter, using the placement model. Grade 12 uses both the project and placement models. Twelfth-grade students volunteer at a local preschool, where their activities include reading to the students and guiding them with their art projects. Many of the students continue with the DEAR reading program they began in middle school, which follows the placement model. Many students also participate in other types of independent service, which the school acknowledges but does not direct.

At the end of the year, the school honors the service completed by students. As part of the social-emotional curriculum goals, the school acknowledges each student's self-worth associated with service-learning experience. The director of student life and the director of the elementary and middle schools annually evaluate the program, which

helps the director of student life generate a report for the head of the school. The two case study informants share an office and are able to evaluate and adjust the program on an ongoing basis. Both reported a strong desire to have the service-learning program at the school be a success. The director of student life reported, “I feel accountable to myself for doing a good job.”

The private school does not track whether students volunteer after they graduate.

The public school. The public school has had its integrated service-learning program in place since 2004–2005, when it became required by LAUSD. In addition, the school requires students to do 20 hours of community service to graduate. Thus, the school has both community service and service-learning requirements to graduate. The school also has a special distinction sash worn at graduation by students who participate in the Humanitas Academy’s 100 hours of service program.

The school uses a variety of service-learning models for its five SLCs, or academies. For example, the Humanitas Academy uses a project model for its Decades Project, which also incorporates a blend of the single discipline and the multi-discipline models (Swanson, 2000). In the Decades Project, students take on a decade, and they divide into small groups in which they research that decade. This can include snippets of life from that decade, medical care, entertainment, family life, music, politics, civic issues, code of dress, and more. The students read a book from that decade, write a report on the decade, and complete reflection. The students then take over the school’s Chancellor Hall and create the decade. The entire school visits the exhibit, and outside community members also come to visit, as do preschool students. All the visitors have

the opportunity to learn and interact with the costumed students, hear the music of the times, and view the different exhibits depicting that decade.

Other academies within the school use the individual project model (Swanson, 2000), in which a student is supervised by a faculty mentor within that student's academy. These usually result in either a project or presentation model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007), but are not limited to those models. At this school, most of the service-learning programming takes place on campus, rather than in community placements. Reflective learning is incorporated into all service-learning programming, either through project activities, written reports, or in-class discussion. The Humanitas Academy chair reported that her SLC incorporates in-class discussion regularly.

Each of the five academies evaluates its own service-learning program, and the chairs in each academy meet with the administration to discuss the evaluation results. The assistant principal indicated that the program is also informally evaluated by the students when they complete their projects and anecdotally share their satisfaction with their teachers. The chair of Humanitas reported that program is evaluated by a team of teachers within their academy, and then she meets with administration.

The public school does not track whether students continue to volunteer after graduation.

Service-Learning in Public, Private, and Faith-based Schools

Three types of schools participated in this study, allowing for a comparison that answered Research Question #2: How do the three types of schools (public, private, faith based) compare with respect to (a) models of service-learning used, (b) level of student participation, and (c) need for improvement in service-learning programming?

While each of the three types of school used some of the same and some different models of service-learning, each school required the service-learning for graduation, and all reported varying degrees of student participation. Each school identified areas that needed improvement in the service-learning programming.

Comparison of service-learning models used. Both the faith-based school and the private school transitioned within the last 7 years from simply requiring that students complete community service hours to graduate to implementing an integrated service-learning program. The public school had a longer history using the integrated service-learning model, which it began implementing in 2004–2005. However, this school also still includes community service hours as a requirement for graduation. The faith-based school is the only case study school that requires that service-learning experiences be completed each year in order to graduate to the next grade level.

Table 1 compares the service-learning models used by the three types of schools, as well as highlights their theoretical basis. The faith-based school uses both the placement and project models (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007) in its service programming. The placement service opportunities are direct service-learning, while the projects can either be direct service-learning or indirect service-learning models (Florida Campus Compact, 2009). The single course model (Swanson, 2000) is used with the 10th-grade biology class service-learning opportunities. The service-learning organized by the administration is episodic, yet the service opportunities brought in by the students can be consistent.

The private school houses Grades 2 through 12, and the service-learning programs at the middle and high school levels use mainly a project model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007). However, placement and event models (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007) are also

incorporated at all school levels. The high school students are all involved with the indirect service-learning model (Florida Campus Compact, 2009), and most of that population participate in the direct service-learning model. The school also offers a service-learning club model (Swanson, 2000).

The service-learning program at the public school follows either the project or placement model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007), depending on the academy. The Humanitas Academy uses a multi-discipline model (Swanson, 2000), with the history and English teachers incorporating the Decades Project into their classrooms. These students also use the community-based action research model (Hefferman, 2001) with the Decades Project. The Medical Academy uses the single discipline model and the individual model (Swanson, 2000), as well as the directed study model (Hefferman, 2001) for some of its students, depending on the faculty mentor. The SLC or academy chair and lead teachers decide what type of service-learning experience would best fit their students and their curriculum.

Table 1

Comparison of Service-Learning Models Used

Type of school	Models used	Relevant citations
Faith-based	Project, placement	Bohat & Goodrich, 2007
	Direct and indirect service-learning	Florida Campus Compact, 2009
	Single course	Swanson, 2000
Private	Project, placement, event	Bohat & Goodrich, 2007
	Direct and indirect service-learning	Florida Campus Compact, 2009
	Service-learning club	Swanson, 2000
Public	Project, presentation	Bohat & Goodrich, 2007
	Single discipline, multi-discipline, individual project	Swanson, 2000
	Community-based action research, directed study	Hefferman, 2001

Comparison of levels of student participation. All of the students in all of the schools are involved in service-learning. All the faith-based school students participate in grade-level service-learning projects each year that are integrated into the school day. All the private school students participate in the grade-level service-learning, and many of these students initiate and carry out extra service during the year. The public school students participate in service-learning during 11th grade and are required to complete 20 hours of community service before graduation.

The director of the faith-based school noted that students there have little choice or voice about their program during the 9th and 10th grades, but they are able to select from different grade-level service-learning opportunities during 11th and 12th grade. He noted, “These grades have a choice in what’s the best fit for them. If they have liked a past experience with a community partner, they are encouraged to grab their friends and sign up for that project.” The biology teacher reported that student voice comes into play when the students start filling the needed roles for the experience. She noted, “They jump in. They take charge. They do it all. And they totally feel empowered. There’s definitely this empowerment that, that girls can do anything.”

All students in the different school levels at the private school are involved in the service-learning and some are more involved when they do extra service projects. Participation in service-learning is required for graduation and all students in the school participate, though some more than others since multiple opportunities are offered throughout the school year and these students choose to do extra service projects. The school uses a placement strategy that supports the student experience. Students at the private school—especially those in the upper grades—have a strong voice in both the selection of the service-learning activities and the community partners. Informant #1 described students’ active role in initiating a program activity: “Last year we brought in someone from Goodwill to talk to our kids and the middle school student council. And the middle school students, they inspired all the grade-level advisories to bring clothes in and donate. We brought a bin in from Goodwill. We brought a bin in and they were here for a month.” The private school was the only school for which informants explicitly

stated that service-learning at the school is not focused on educational goals, but rather on having the student body feel empowered by their ability to give.

At the public school, all students are involved in service-learning projects. The Humanitas Academy students are most deeply involved, possibly because the service-learning was previously housed in their social studies classes before the school began using SLC academies. The level of participation of the students is high because the service-learning project is integrated into the 11th-grade classes as part of the curriculum. The only students who may not be involved are those who are not going to graduate because their grades do not qualify, but this is a rare exception.

Both the public school and the private school informants reported that students' rates of participation in service-learning did not differ by gender. Neither males nor females were more or less involved in the various activities. Although some teachers expected females to be more inclined toward service-learning, informant #2 from the public case study school noted, "Boys and girls go at it at the same, like fervor. And sometimes it's the boys that impress you a little bit more! And you're kinda shocked." Gender was not an issue at the faith-based school because its enrollment is exclusively female.

The faith-based school did report that students' participation was influenced by the need to maintain congruence between community partners' and students' religious beliefs. For example, the director noted, "I need to be careful that those students may want to volunteer at a place like Planned Parenthood, that's not a place that I would be able to do with much credibility in this community. There would be a ton of blowback either from teachers or parents."

Comparison of need for improvement in service-learning programming.

Need for improvement can be considered in the context of the relative strengths and weaknesses of each school's service-learning program. Here the strengths are reported for each of the three schools, followed by their weaknesses.

The faith-based school informants noted the following program strengths:

- Students are working as a group and building community among themselves, the teachers, and the community partners, and seeing each other in a different light.
- Students are getting to see and experience places they might not go otherwise.
- The service is tied to the grade-level curriculum and there is a direct link to the academic content.
- The types of service selected directly relate to some injustice in the world and how their lives interact with that injustice, supporting their ability to potentially change it.
- The service matches the school mission.
- The service is done with the same grade-level students missing the same class and days, so the teachers can stay on course.
- Since this is an all-girl school, the girls are empowered to take a leadership role during service.

The private school informants noted that the program is becoming successful, yet it is still young. They are transitioning the high school program to reflect what they are

doing with the lower and middle grade school levels, and to increase active involvement and links to the advisory class curriculum. The following program strengths were cited:

- The program is building a school-wide community that did not exist 3 years ago, thus strengthening students' life experiences.
- The program provides each student an experience of what it is like to serve.
- The students are provided an opportunity to take action and be self-starters.
- Because the school includes many grade levels on one campus, the younger students and older students can interact.
- Many of the students are able to have direct experiences with the community partners.
- There is teacher buy-in through the advisory classes.
- The success in the middle school program has helped with the ongoing revamping of the high school program.
- Service-learning has become part of the school culture.

The public school informants reported the following strengths of service-learning at their institution, which largely focus on the benefit to the student in terms of social and cognitive growth, as well as altruism:

- Students have an avenue to do an activity that helps the community and requires them to think.
- Many students find meaningfulness with the service-learning experiences and report they feel they are performing quality tasks.
- Many students are actively engaged.

- Even though the service is required, it seems enjoyable to the students.
- The service exposes the students to something they might not normally do, while providing a safe spot to work in the community.
- The students are able to realize they can fill a community need.
- Working together collaboratively, the students step out of their “teenage self” to accomplish a large event, such as the Decades Project.
- Working in large and small groups simultaneously on the Decades Project requires executive functioning of the students.

The weaknesses reported by the three case study schools suggest ways to improve the program. Informants from the faith-based school cited the following weaknesses, which focus on lack of faculty buy-in, lack of full integration with the curriculum, lack of student initiative, and insufficient community resources or availability:

- The program does not have enough teacher buy-in, which is reflected in not enough teachers serving as chaperones and/or fully integrating service-learning into the class curriculum.
- The reflective aspects and accountability of the service-learning are not consistent in all classes.
- Using a one-size-fits-all project does not tailor to each individual experience.
- It is a challenge to find quality community partners who can accommodate 10, 15, or 40 students at a time.
- Sometimes community partners create service for students just to fill the time, which results in less meaningful experiences for all stakeholders.

- Students are not identifying and implementing the service on their own.
- The service takes the student out of the classroom for the entire day, which creates challenges for teaching on the block schedule.
- There are not enough chaperones on the projects.

Informants from the private school cited the following weaknesses, which focus on lack of resources, too many projects, and limits to student voice and level of engagement:

- Not enough balance exists between student-driven experiences and school-wide community-focused events.
- Limited resources are available with respect to staff time to facilitate all the ideas students bring to the Student Life Office for implementation.
- It is a struggle to find a balance in capturing the students', teachers', and parents' interest, while not diluting the service experience with too many offerings.
- Too many projects are offered, without a clear rationale on how each project links to the service-learning experience.
- The high school program is not strong yet in creating a service-learning culture, and there is little ownership from the students at this time.
- There are inconsistent reflection activities at the high school level.
- Often the same students volunteer to lead, which does not foster civic engagement volunteerism school wide.

- Faculty buy-in is inconsistent, and they provide inconsistent facilitation at the events.

The list of weaknesses cited by informants from the public school was shorter than the lists from the faith-based and the private schools. Only three areas of weaknesses were mentioned by public school informants, focusing on lack of resources and limits to students' voice and engagement:

- Budgetary resources are lacking for service-learning coordinator and teacher training.
- There is a weakness in the latitude students have in selecting projects, and thus inconsistency in quality and challenge for the student.
- Having the district or the faculty mentor dictate a project and having the student follow a "recipe" cause lack of ownership by the student, which can result in lack of student passion.

Strategies for Effective Service-Learning in High School

Informants were asked what they believed were the most important strategies for effective service-learning programming. This addressed research question #3: What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools? Results are reported here from the interviews with the case study schools informants, who spoke about effective strategies in their programs, and then with the key experts, who spoke about strategies in general (Table 2).

Case study schools. The informants from the faith-based school identified a number of strategies for effective service-learning for their school programming. These

included matching the school mission, the students' experience, and the community partners.

Informant #1, the director of the program, focused on the importance of having service-learning align with the school's mission of social justice, while enhancing the curriculum and the overall program. He additionally identified the importance of having a person in charge of the program who can balance the service-learning with the community service and volunteerism. That person should also be responsive to the needs of the students, parents, curriculum, and community partners. He noted, "I think one office or one person needs to be in charge of it to kind of coordinate efforts to articulate, not to split hairs, but to articulate what is volunteering versus service, versus recognizing that, particularly in high school, there are a number of places for resume, for club, for charity league."

Informant #2 focused on the importance of having service-learning be meaningful for students. An important aspect of achieving this strategy involved making sure that community partners provided genuine high-quality work opportunities that students would find meaningful. He stated, "At times, we would go to certain sites, and it was like they were trying to fill work for us. And they were desperately trying to find something for us to do because they don't quite have the need." He also noted the importance of making it an enjoyable experience for the students so they do not view service-learning as a chore.

Informant #3 described four strategies for effective service-learning in the faith-based school program. First, the community partners should be knowledgeable and well organized in supporting high-quality student experiences. Second, the curriculum and

learning outcomes should be tied to the service-learning experience. Third, she stressed the strategy of using service-learning to get students involved in the larger environment, beyond the classroom. She shared, “The four walls are just so limiting... I wish we could do it with all of the classes every year—I wish we could take one service out into the environment, and make one service an environmental service.” Finally, she noted the importance of having a well-organized person to facilitate the program.

The private school interviews described effective strategies for service-learning in their program. Informant #2 cited the importance of having meaningful service for the students, having a strong student voice, and having teacher buy-in. Informant #1 expanded the buy-in to include parents. She shared, “It’s a very different dynamic when you have teachers and students and parents driving something than when it’s administratively driven.” This informant also noted the need to have supporting infrastructure so the student-driven service can occur.

The public school informants described strategies from both the students’ and the leadership’s perspectives. Informant #1 noted the importance of making the service-learning as enjoyable as possible for students. Informant #2 cited the value of teacher buy-in so teachers understand they are doing something important, and of having a leadership team in place that is unified and collaborative. She said, “I think you have to have teacher buy-in for this. And to highlight the significance of what they’re actually doing—that it’s not a one-time-only thing, that perhaps this will spark something in these kids.”

Key experts. The experts provided a different perspective with respect to the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high school. They were not

answering about their specific program, but rather about strategies that are known through research to be effective.

Expert #1 indicated her belief that important strategies for effective service-learning in high school include connecting and integrating the service with the curriculum. She said reflection should be integrated with the service experience so students are clear that the service-learning supports the classroom learning outcomes. She explained, “By integrating it into the curriculum, I mean, of course... also using the basic principle of reflection and reciprocity, making sure that students are doing serious reflection that involves reflection prior to the service, during the service, and after the service. It’s again, after the service, the reflection is a final paper that’s tacked on, you know at the end, then it’s not serious. It’s a one-and-done and let me get that out of my way and move on!”

Expert #2 identified a number of strategies, including reflection integrated into the program, along with in-class discussion. He said service-learning should be integrated with the curriculum and linked to the learning outcomes of the class. Students should be prepared for the service and know the educational rationale for including service into classroom learning. This expert noted the importance of an improved role for teachers and administrators. He cited the value of students’ voice and role in the service-learning experience, which should be both educationally and personally meaningful for students. He stated, “I know some students just go through the motions in a course, and that’s going to happen. But when a community service component is integrated into a course and is thoughtfully connected to the material, and you can clearly see why the service component is there now, it is related—how one feeds off the other, the academic content

feeds off the community service and the community service feeds off the academic content—I think that improves the experience for students. And that’s not easily done.”

Expert #3 said the most important strategies are having extraordinary reflection integrated into the process, having quality community partners, having a strong student voice, bringing the students into leadership roles, and validating the skills students bring to the service-learning experience. This expert noted, “It’s not going to work if you have extraordinary reflection, but you don’t have good partnerships or you don’t have strong student voice. You need all of these pieces. They’re all parts of what make service-learning an engaging pedagogy.”

Expert #4 cited the importance of the students’ experience being authentic and not fabricated, having the experience be student-centered by allowing for a strong student voice, and empowering students to create solutions to make a situation better or address a specific problem. He noted the need for preparation and reflection prior to the service so students understand the issue and to fully support knowledge and skill building. He also discussed the need to balance the academic content, knowledge, and capacity with the societal issue being addressed in order create a robust service-learning experience. He shared, “There are sort of three areas of service-learning. And when one of them is missing, it tends to really not be as robust.... So, one area is obviously learning the content, right?The other is the skills and knowledge and capacity to do the service activity.” Finally, this expert noted that the program should have community partners as co-educators, co-developers, and co-producers of the service so their organizations can get maximum benefit.

Expert #5 focused on having a reflective aspect that is part of a structured learning assignment for the student. It should be designed to stress the learning objectives the instructor has for the class. This expert recommended designing a program in which students gain as much from the classroom learning as from the service. Different types of reflection should be woven into the class.

While expert #6 identified reflection as an important strategy, he identified numerous other strategies, including building the service-learning in at the district level. This entails everything from hiring, professional training and development, and a budget to technical assistance for the teachers and families. Another important strategy is making strong community connections. In addition, the program should include a strong student voice and opportunities for reflection. The service should be meaningful and engaging for students, and giving them important responsibilities and a leadership role. This expert noted, “One piece is, I think, paying attention to how do you build that kind of hands-on, engaging experience that’s meaningful?” This expert stressed implementing a sustainable service-learning program that the school can support, the need to hire a school or district service-learning coordinator, and providing funding for materials and supplies to support the projects. He shared, “The school-level policy and administrative support—and ideally, the district-level policy and administrative support—I think are critical for making this more than a one-time experience.” He also stressed the need to build community relationships so the service-learning is beneficial for all stakeholders.

Table 2

Effective Strategies for Service-Learning

Strategy	Faith-based school	Private school	Public school	Key expert
1. Service that is meaningful to students	1	1	1	--
2. Teacher buy-in	--	2	1	--
3. Reflection before, during, and after service	--	--	--	6
4. Strong student voice	--	1	--	4
5. Service connected and integrated into curriculum	1	--	--	3
6. Good community partnerships	2	--	--	2

Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Encourage Student Participation

Informants were asked how they recommended improving the program so that students were more strongly encouraged to participate. Their answers address research question #4: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate students to participate and to foster greater satisfaction? They were asked what specific strategies were important to institute to improve the program, as well as what obstacles they expected to encounter. Results are reported here first from the interviews

with the case study schools and then from the key expert interviews. Table 3 lists the recommendations given by the different groups of informants with respect to encouraging greater student participation and fostering greater satisfaction. Table 4 lists obstacles to achieving these recommendations.

Case study schools. The faith-based school informants identified various ways their program could be improved to foster higher levels of student participation and satisfaction. The school is often contacted by a nonprofit doing a special community one-time need project, and the informants indicated it would be helpful to have the school coordinate students for those types of projects and possibly offer extra credit for students who volunteer. A possible way to accomplish this would be to have these projects organized by the alumni association and involve the appropriate teacher to integrate it into the classroom.

If all the teachers had buy-in for the importance of service-learning in enhancing the curriculum and incorporating in-class reflection after the service-learning, the informants at the faith-based school thought the program would also be more appealing to students. Reflection projects could draw students in more. These range from written reflection, which includes reflecting on what is meaningful, to visual reflection projects that could be displayed around the classroom. Faith-based school informant #3 shared, “Have the teachers display those reflections, so that the kids are like, ‘That’s mine!’ You know, make it visual. You gotta go to the kids’ strengths. Those strengths, nowadays, those kids are all visual learners, they’re kinesthetic visual learners. Because they’ve been playing the video games their whole life.” According to the informants, the faith-based school’s program also could be improved by having 12th-grade students repeat their

service experiences from the 9th, 10th, and 11th grades. This would strengthen participation by reinforcing the learning that occurred from their earlier experiences. This could also allow students to feel more ownership of all their service-learning experiences over the 4 years at high school.

Informants at the faith-based school described obstacles to implementing what they considered to be needed improvements to increase student participation. Many teachers are set in their ways and in the curriculum they use. They often are pressed for time to teach the standardized curriculum, let alone add service-learning. Some teachers do not value service-learning as a teaching tool, and so might not fully support improvements to the program aimed at increasing student participation. Moreover, 12th-grade students already have a Kairos retreat and spend days with Habitat for Humanity, so it would be difficult to schedule more service-learning days.

The private school informants identified a variety of ways to foster higher levels of student participation and satisfaction. One would be to have a better balance of student-driven service-learning experiences and larger, school-wide communal events. Thus, students would have a universal experience at every grade level, while also continuing their separate, self-directed service-learning opportunities. Informants also felt the service-learning experience needs to be built more into the school-wide culture. That would improve the programming to a point where the students are excited about it, see the importance of the service, and have a satisfying experience. While the school is on the way to achieving this, informants stressed that it is not there yet. The last area for improvement cited in the interviews was the need for more consistent reflective activities, so students can discover how service-learning is meaningful for them. Having a teacher

or faculty member debrief the experience through reflection can enhance the overall student experience. Informant #1 stated, “We can improve just the briefing before they go into this service, and also debriefing them, so that there’s a reflective piece.”

The obstacles to implementing these improvements cited by the private school informants included faculty and staff time constraints. Informants expressed that it felt as if there were not enough hours in the day to accomplish all the school’s service-learning goals.

Public school informant #1 reported that students’ participation and satisfaction could be improved if all the SLCs embraced the program and developed strong and meaningful service-learning opportunities for the students. Humanitas and Medical have accomplished this, and it would help if the other three programs did the same. Another area of improvement cited by both public school informants is to have increased student participation in the program design. Students could select a project they find meaningful from a menu of project types provided by the school. Instead of just participating in the activity itself, students could be involved in the design, implementation, and completion of the project, including taking the time to reflect on the service-learning after it occurs. In addition, the program could be more meaningful to students if the teachers strengthen its academic focus.

The obstacles to implementing these improvements cited by the public school informants include the lack of district funding for programming and teacher education/training/support. According to informant #2, the school is challenged by the of lack of funding for devoted administrator and teacher time, which would provide a coordinated thread running through each grade level.

A related challenge is the need to incorporate the common core standards, which has side-tracked aspects of the service-learning programming due to budget, time, and balance priorities. Informant #1 reported that although service-learning could potentially fit well into the new standards and exams, it will take time for programs to get imbedded into the process. For this to happen, the teachers must know the standards, what they need the students to do, and the timing for all this to occur. He believes it will eventually become a more regulated form of service-learning. For now, the problem is exacerbated by the fact that teachers need to focus on the new standards and have less time for service-learning creativity. Moreover, as a result of the new standards, teachers no longer get an extra period to plan service-learning programs and to work with students on their projects during that time. Given the high rate of teacher turnover, the school is losing teachers who were trained in service-learning project coordination and who became passionate about the program when funding for service-learning training was available in the district. Informants saw a need for strategies to reduce the school's dependency on passionate teachers to motivate students.

Key experts. The experts identified a variety of ways high school service-learning can be improved to foster higher levels of student participation and satisfaction. Expert #1 suggested that service-learning programs could achieve those goals if faculty recognize that this pedagogy will help with overall learning outcomes. This can be supported by having service-learning directly related to course curriculum. She also noted if students are better prepared prior to service-learning experiences and if their voices are incorporated in the project, they will be more likely to feel satisfied with their participation. This expert also suggested service-learning be viewed as a leadership

ladder: “Students might start out by doing service at a site that’s not in direct relationship to clients. And then, as they get their feet wet in the experience, they continue to do more reflection and they understand more of the social issues that the service is addressing. Then maybe they can move on to working with the clients. I can kind of see it like a leadership ladder.” She also identified improving communication with community partners to ensure students find their tasks meaningful and to better track if the service was successful for all stakeholders.

Expert #2 also reinforced the idea of better integrating service-learning with the curriculum, rather than just requiring community service hours to graduate. This integration includes time for reflection, and tying the service activities to the learning outcomes without using a charity model. He stated, “A lot of high schools have a ‘go out and do 40 hours of service for a graduation requirement,’ or Jesuit or Catholic schools have a community service sort of requirement. And even when it’s part of a course, for example, [programs] I’ve seen have been pretty light on the major reflection, pretty light on the definition of learning outcomes, and, pretty heavy on charity models.” This expert also identified the need to have service activities that are satisfactory to the community partners, as well as to students. He recommended students develop a relationship with the community partners and have a sense of choice, even if it is just a perceived sense of choice. This enhances the social rewards for students (i.e., because they feel that friends are doing it with them), as well as increases a sense of competency for students.

Expert #3 likewise cited the integration of service-learning into the classroom. He advocated that teachers shift their mindset so they see service-learning as supportive of the knowledge needed for standardized testing. Students, in turn, will be more motivated

if they understand that service-learning is not just an extra activity. In these ways, a collaborative paradigm can be created whereby the instructor, students, and community partners work together to design the service-learning experience. This expert also noted the need to abandon the community service hour requirement: “What that becomes for students is a check-off: you need to do this in order to graduate. I don’t have a lot of sense of the students having an appreciation for why they’re doing it or that they’re learning anything from it. So one major shift would be to have more service-learning instead of service, where the students’ service requirements are tied to courses that they’re taking and tied to learning that’s happening.”

Expert #4 suggested that service-learning programs could be improved if programs incorporate a variety of service-learning approaches and if high-quality and meaningful connections are forged with community partners.

Expert #5 suggested that service-learning programs be designed to provide students with a sense of power that they can make a difference. She suggested that students be able to choose their service activities to increase their feeling of ownership. She noted, “I would recommend giving students choice, and even if that choice is between A and B rather than A, B, C, and D. I think what we know about volunteer motives is that any time a person feels like they have choice in the matter and that they are making a choice based on what they care about, it increases the likelihood of feeling like ‘I have agency in this decision.’ It’s something that I want to be a part of or I had voice and influence on what I chose to do.” This expert also recommended that the administration recognize teachers’ service-learning contributions, which could have a trickle down effect on students’ participation.

Expert #6 suggested that all service activities have a high quality to avoid a boring experience for students. A package of quality service-learning projects could be designed and available for teachers. He said, “I think that the more kinds of package pieces that are built for use in service-learning settings that we can make available, the easier it would be for teachers to adopt them and use them. I think a lot of teachers struggle by having to kind of figure this stuff out from scratch.” This expert also noted the importance of quality professional training and development for teachers. He suggested that a teacher mentorship program that pairs seasoned service-learning teachers with newer teachers could improve programming quality so that students are more motivated to participate.

The experts identified obstacles to implementing the improvements they recommended. Expert #1 noted that faculty and administration may feel service-learning activities take more time than other curriculum activities do. Experts #2, #3, #4, #5, and #6 all identified the demands of standardized testing as an obstacle to making the suggested improvements. It can be a challenge to shift teachers’ mindsets so they place as much value on service-learning projects as they do on activities designed for test preparation.

Expert #2 named as obstacles the lack of faculty training in service-learning programming and implementation, the lack of resources for faculty development, and a general lack of perceived value in civic learning. This expert noted that many teachers “didn’t understand the rationale—the educational rationale for including a community service component. And a lot of faculty have never been in a service-learning course.”

Expert #4 named as obstacles the block schedule used by many schools, which can cause a structural challenge to service-learning programs, teachers’ lack of

preparation, and poor communication to students regarding the importance and goals of service-learning. She also mentioned that many schools do not allow teachers to be innovative and make mistakes while implementing the experience. In addition, community partners do not always have the capacity to make the service-learning experience meaningful for students. Expert #6 reported lack of funding, district-level roadblocks, and a lack of coordination between service-learning projects and district procedures as obstacles to make greater student motivation and satisfaction.

Table 3

How Service-Learning Can Be Improved to Better Encourage Student Participation

Recommendation	Faith-based school	Private school	Public school	Key expert
1. Increase student reflection	2	1	--	1
2. Give students a stronger voice in the project	--	--	1	2
3. Tie service with standardized test outcomes	--	--	2	1

Table 4

Obstacles to Improving Service-Learning to Better Encourage Student Participation

Obstacle	Faith-based school	Private school	Public school	Key expert
1. Prominence of K-12 testing standards/common core curriculum	--	--	2	5
2. Faculty time restraints	--	1	1	1
3. Lack of funding	--	--	1	1
4. Teachers do not value service-learning as a teaching tool	1	--	--	1

Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Motivate Volunteerism in College

Informants were asked how they recommended improving the program so that students were more motivated to participate when they reached college. This answered research question #5: How can high school service-learning programs be improved to better motivate continued volunteerism in college? Results are reported here first from the interviews with the case study schools and then from the key expert interviews. Table 5 lists the recommendations to motivate greater volunteerism in college given by the different groups of informants. Table 6 lists obstacles to achieving these recommendations.

Case study schools. Informants at the three types of schools were asked both whether they knew if their students volunteered after they graduated, and also how the

program could be improved to motivate volunteerism in college. Informants had varying degrees of awareness about the extent to which students who graduated from their schools went on to volunteer in college. While the faith-based school does not formally track the students who volunteer after graduation, informant #2 stated with confidence that the current program “preps them for what they’re going to experience in college with community service.” Two of the informants from this school indicated that former students often visit the school and self-report that they are still volunteering and/or involved in social justice service in some way.

With respect to recommendations for improving the program of the faith-based school informant #1 pointed to the importance of student autonomy: “Their engagement was tied to their autonomy—their ability to design the process of learning, their ability to design what the assignment or the outcome of the assignment looked like.” He also recommended encouraging students to explore volunteer opportunities such as AmeriCorps, Jesuit Volunteer Corp, and the Peace Corp because exposure to these opportunities could increase the possibility of students continuing service after high school graduation. Informant #2 recommended the program be structured so students do their service as a group. He suggested that this allows them to get a sense of community, which in turn may make them more likely to volunteer once they get to college. He stated, “When they go to college, there’s going to be service organizations and service groups, and it might tie in pretty well for them heading off into college that, like, ‘When I do service, I’m doing it with other groups. It’s a community thing I’m doing. It’s not something I’m doing independently.’” Faith-based school informant #3 recommended designing programs in which students have a sense of meaningfulness and ownership in

the project as a way not only to increase involvement during high school but also to foster students' lifelong interest in volunteerism. As the biology teacher, she cited an example of having students plant trees for the Tree People. She stated, "They'd rather actually put a tree in the ground and then some day come back and be like, 'That was my tree that I've put in the ground, and it's still here!' And they feel ownership of it."

Because the student body of the private school travels from all over the Los Angeles area to attend, very few return after they graduate. According to informants from the school, this makes it more difficult to access the program's long-term effectiveness. Informants reported being unaware of the extent of graduates' volunteer activities. They also noted that the school's student body includes learning-disabled students, for whom college is not a full focus; therefore, motivating these students to volunteer in college is not relevant. Informant #2 did stress the importance of having organized service-learning that the students find meaningful and of giving students the opportunity to find their voice in the project as means to encourage lifelong volunteerism.

In the public school, the chair of the Humanitas indicated she lives in the community and often runs into students who report they are continuing to be involved with some sort of community service. Informant #1 recommended structuring projects that engage the students and that also could be done in the community after graduation, not just as a high school graduation requirement. These projects could include helping students with reading, food and clothing drives, and community environmental programming. Saturday activities with agencies in need of volunteers could also be introduced. This informant felt that these kinds of community service projects can help

achieve the goal of motivating volunteerism in college. He stressed that if students are involved with the learning and the project, they are more likely to repeat it in the future.

According to informant #2, the public school could introduce service experiences such as the Peace Corps or Teach for America to the students, and could increase the civic engagement aspect of projects. This informant recommended more service-learning experiences in the lower grades so that when students get to 11th grade, it is not their first service-learning experience. She stated, “I think that if you expose them to different varieties of service-learning, something will speak to them and make them want to continue down that path of being selfless in the community.”

Public school interviewee #1 identified an obstacle to instituting Saturday service projects, stating, “I understand that schools are resistant to do that because of the liability.” Neither the faith-based school nor the private school respondents identified obstacles to their suggested improvements

Key experts. According to the key experts, high school service-learning can be improved to increase the likelihood of continued volunteerism in college by connecting college students with high school students to do service together. Another strategy is teaching high school guidance counselors how to help students select colleges that have a service component. Yet another is ensuring that teachers recognize that motivating students to engage in service in the future as one of the goals of the service-learning program. The experts acknowledged that one obstacle to implementing ways to increase the likelihood of continued volunteerism in college is that most master’s programs do not currently incorporate service-learning and few high schools are seeking teachers who have had service-learning training.

Expert #1 recommended having college students come to high school campuses to discuss their positive service-learning experiences. She recommended high school counselors help students identify colleges that incorporate service-learning programming. She stated, “Some schools work with colleges and have kind of a cascading effect, where some college students help to...lead and organize younger students in service and reflection. So I think calling on your local college or university and say, ‘How can we work together?’ Because it’s no question that college service-learners like most the service-learning they...do... working with younger students.” The expert also recommended that service-learning teaching be included when a teacher is considered for promotions.

Expert #2 said that a key to improving future rates of service-learning is to shift from the extrinsic motivation of a class requirement to an intrinsic motivation.

Expert #3 recommended that high school faculty have a larger conversation with students regarding what it means to be a democratic citizen in the world. He stated this is not currently occurring: “[Teachers] talk to them about needing to get a job and preparing for the workforce, and the economic gain of going on to higher education. [Teachers] don’t talk to them about what it means to be educated so that you can be a productive citizen in a democracy.”

Expert #4 suggested that unless future volunteerism is a goal of the high school administration, service-learning programs will not be designed to achieve that goal.

Expert #5 recommended partnering with a college to have the high school juniors and seniors share service-learning experiences. She noted current technology makes it possible for this to be a college anywhere in the United States. Also, a school could

partner with another high school that participates in service-learning to create a larger network of shared and amplified experiences. She stated, “If they actually see that this is something that college students do, they might take, you know, more of an interest in it. Or, you know, it’s not just something they have to do and they’re unique; it actually goes on in high schools across the country, or colleges and universities across the country.” This expert recommended faculty help students understand issues from a community partner’s perspective because that might lead them toward a college major and career path that incorporate volunteerism.

Expert #6 recommended a school partner with a local college and having students do high-quality service projects as a joint venture.

The experts identified a variety of obstacles to implementing their recommendations. Expert #1 pointed out that university teaching programs do not include service-learning courses, making it difficult to expect teachers to be better prepared to foster lifelong volunteerism. Expert #5 identified the lack of administration and faculty buy-in for the service-learning programming in many schools. He also noted that funding cutbacks keep teachers from attending service-learning conferences to get this kind of professional development. This expert said that although private funding was previously available, foundations “have largely exited the field, as well. For a long time the Surdna Foundation was very supportive. The Kellogg Foundation was an immense influence and funded some major projects and then walked out.” Other challenges for partnering with colleges to encourage continued volunteerism are the different terms and calendar years, as well as the difficulty in coordination of travel.

Table 5

How Service-Learning Can Be Improved to Better Motivate Volunteerism in College

Recommendation	Faith-based school	Private school	Public school	Key expert
1. Give students a stronger voice	1	1	1	--
2. Connect college students with high school students for service	--	--	--	3
3. Include future service as a goal of the program	--	--	1	2
4. Make service meaningful for students	1	1	--	--

Table 6

Obstacles to Improving Service-Learning to Better Motivate Volunteerism in College

Obstacle	Faith-based school	Private school	Public school	Key expert
1. Teacher education in colleges does not include training about service-learning	--	--	--	2
2. School liability	--	--	1	
2. High schools do not ask for teachers with service-learning training	--	--	--	2

Summary

In this chapter I presented the findings for the five research questions that were the focus of this study. The first two questions were applicable to the case study school informants, while the last three were answered by all 13 informants. The presentation of the findings was organized by the research questions. For research question #1, which explored the current state of service-learning at the high school level, the findings indicated that each school had transitioned from a community service hour requirement to an integrated service-learning model. Both the faith-based and private schools currently integrate service-learning opportunities into each grade level. The faith-based and private schools use community partner placement models, with a focus on meaningfulness and opportunities for active student involvement. These same schools had inconsistent reflection activities before, during, and after service. Each school incorporated evaluation in its program. For research question #2, which compared the three case study schools, the findings indicated all schools used a project model, while the faith-based and private schools also used a placement model and both direct and indirect service-learning models. All of the schools reported full participation in service-learning by their students. At least one informant from each school reported building school community as well as the opportunity for students to experience serving with the community partners as strengths. Informants at each school reported that lack of resources was an obstacle for their service-learning programming.

In response to research question #3, recommended strategies for effective service-learning included reflection before, during, and after service; service that is meaningful to the students; and having teacher buy-in. In response to research question #4, informants

recommended increasing student reflection as a strategy to improve service-learning programs so they better motivate students to participate and foster greater satisfaction. An obstacle to improvement reported by respondents was the prominence of K–12 standardized testing and the common core curriculum. In response to research question #5 informants recommended partnering high school students with college students for their service and giving students a stronger voice in the project as ways to better motivate continued volunteerism in college.

In Chapter 5, I will present my interpretations and conclusions from the analysis of the findings. The limitations of the study will be described. I will present recommendations for further study, along with recommendations for ways that directors of high school service-learning programs can improve their programs.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The intent of this study was to compare three types of high schools through interviews with school seven high school teachers and service-learning coordinators at three case study schools (public, private, and faith based). Interviews were also conducted with six informants who have expertise in the field of service-learning. Data were analyzed to identify strategies for effective service-learning in high schools and to identify areas of needed improvement as well as obstacles that may be encountered while implementing these improvements. The study findings were presented in Chapter 4. In this concluding chapter, the findings are integrated, synthesized, and evaluated in relation to the study's research questions. Recommendations for action and further study are drawn from the research findings and conclusions. The final section of this chapter includes thoughts about how the results of this study may be used to create positive social change.

Interpretation of the Findings

Current State of Service-Learning in High Schools

Each of the high schools studied had transitioned from an educational model that required community service hours to a model of integrated service-learning. The most recent transition occurred in the faith-based and private schools studied. The public school included in this study was the only institution that required graduating students to have community service hours in addition to participation in a service-learning project. Both the faith-based school and the private school incorporated service-learning in each grade level. The public school incorporated service-learning into the 11th-grade classes. When making placements with community partners, administrators at the faith-based

school and the private school considered the meaningfulness and the active involvement opportunities for the students. The public school held the service-learning on campus, so no placement process was needed. Only the faith-based school administrators considered community partners' ability to further the classroom curriculum. The faith-based school and the private school informants reported inconsistent reflection activities related to the service-learning projects. However, the public school informants reported that reflection activities were incorporated into the 11th-grade service-learning projects.

Because the public school still required community service hours along with a service-learning project, that school's model can be considered less effective than the models used by the other schools. In contrast, the other two case study schools used a fully integrated service-learning model in which community service was integrated into the curriculum. Ohn and Wade (2009) stressed that effective community service-learning projects should incorporate academic content to maximize students' learning. The faith-based school had transitioned from community service hours because they realized it was not serving the students. Each year, near the end of the year, a significant number of students had not completed the required service hours, leading the administration to recognize that this requirement was viewed as peripheral to students. One student referred to it as mere "homework." The key expert informants interviewed for this study emphasized the importance of shifting away from community service requirements and toward service-learning integrated into the curriculum.

At the public school, students are off campus during community service, which discourages an integrated approach to service-learning. Instead, the public school program would be advised to link that service to the curriculum. For example, the

administration could work with the English teachers to encourage students to volunteer as tutors for students at a local after-school program. Another example of linking would be for biology/environmental science teachers to encourage their students to work with Heal the Bay or the Tree People. Students could write or create a reflection piece they could share in class, which Billing (2000) noted as an essential part of the service-learning experience. By linking the community service requirement to the curriculum, the school could create a richer learning experience for the students.

Comparison of Service-Learning in Three Types of High Schools

All three case study schools used the project model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007) for their service-learning programming. The faith-based school and the private school both used the placement model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007) and the direct and indirect service-learning models (Florida Campus Compact, 2009). The public school operated its service-learning programs on campus and used the presentation model (Bohat & Goodrich, 2007); the single discipline model, the multi-discipline model, and the individual project model (Swanson, 2000); and the community-based action research model and the directed study model (Hefferman, 2001). None of these models used by the public school were used by the faith-based or private schools.

All case study school informants reported full student participation in the service-learning programs, with the faith-based school and the private school incorporating service-learning at each grade level, and the public school incorporating service-learning in the 11th grade. All three case study schools acknowledged during their graduation ceremonies any independent community service completed by students. However, the

public school was the only school that required a number of community hours to graduate.

The case study school informants identified the strengths and weaknesses of their school's service-learning programming. The main strengths informants identified were building community through service, the opportunity to interact with a community partner, and the opportunity for students to have an experience they might not otherwise have. Other strengths included linking service to the curriculum in meaningful ways for the students, and providing the opportunity to experience what it is like to serve. Additional strengths were that service requires students to think, and service helps students identify and address a community need.

The weaknesses identified by case study school informants included a lack of resources, especially lack of community partners, staff time, and budgetary resources. Informants from the faith-based school and private school noted the inconsistency of faculty buy-in for the service-learning approach. The private school and public school informants identified the lack of student voice and engagement in some of the service-learning opportunities. Other weaknesses included inconsistent reflection in the service-learning programming and lack of student initiative.

Each of the case study schools seemed to be using the appropriate models for their students and the service-learning program. Each of the informants was able to identify program strengths and weaknesses that were generally consistent with strategies found in the literature review. However, few of the informants reported that service-learning enhanced students' learning. This is concerning because the literature review indicated one of the goals of linking the service to the curriculum is to enhance learning. The

biology teacher at the faith-based school touched on the enhancement of learning when she identified the in-class reflection that occurred throughout the year pertaining to the service-learning experience. The Humanitas Academy teacher also spoke of how the students researched and implemented the Decades Project. However, neither teacher named enhancement of learning as a strength of their school's service-learning model. If the schools included enhancement of learning as a goal, this would more likely become a strength of their programming.

Although the public case study school has had its service-learning program in place the longest of the three schools studied, it had the least robust service-learning program. Both the faith-based school and the private school had service-learning programs for each grade level, while the public school offered the experience only to 11th-grade students. Although offering one service-learning opportunity prior to graduation is aligned with the LAUSD's Service, Learning Partnership's mission, it is not aligned with the vision of this partnership. The vision states "each student will have at least one high quality service-learning experience at each grade span prior to high school graduation" (LAUSD Service-Learning Advisory Committee, 2004, p. 1).

The public school was the only school that did not have a dedicated service-learning coordinator on the campus, which may have contributed to the school's inability to offer the experience at each grade level. Additionally, the public school informants noted the lack of resources for expanded service-learning, both in terms of insufficient district funds and limited staff capacity. Blume (2015) reported that while the LAUSD board passed an increased budget, the increases were for pay raises and benefits, and hundreds of teachers and staff throughout the district would still be laid off.

The public school was the only school that conducted its service-learning program solely on the school's campus. The faith-based school performed its programs in the community, and the private school handled its service-learning programming both on campus and in the community. What may prevent the public school from having in-community service-learning experiences for the students is the lack of an on-campus service-learning coordinator, as well as lack of resources for a student body of more than 2,700. Spring et al. (2008) noted the importance of having a service-learning coordinator to ensure the service-learning was meaningful to both the students and the community partner. However, if the school were to link the required community service with specific classroom curricula, this could enhance the community service-learning program with few additional resources needed.

The faith-based school had the strongest model with respect to tying the service-learning into each grade-level curriculum. The director of the service-learning program reported they transitioned from community service hours to the current program to give the students a more rewarding and integrated experience, both in their service and in their learning. This model is supported in the literature. This faith-based school has the resources to employ an on-campus service-learning coordinator who could seek out and engage with quality community partners, which Posing et al. (2010) identified as important for a quality service-learning experience. Additionally, the school has the resources to finance the necessary transportation to get its fewer than 450 students out into the community. This school is able to incorporate into the program characteristics Eyler and Giles (1999) identified as necessary for a high-quality service-learning experience.

Although the private school offers a service-learning experience for each grade level, this programming does not include a strong link to the curriculum. The director of the service-learning program noted that the transition to service-learning was recent and started with the lower grades, so the high school transition is still in progress. Because so many services and events are offered throughout the year, the service link to the curriculum is not always clearly defined.

The main differences between service-learning programming in the three types of schools were based on available resources, the type of school, the type of students, the size of the student body, and the overarching goals for the program. Limited resources included finances, faculty time, and outside volunteers. The extent and availability of these resources were also influenced by the size of the student body. The type of school affected the service-learning programs in a variety of ways, but most obviously in association with the differing missions of the schools. The faith-based school had a student body of all girls, the private school had learning disabled students, and the public school students were all 11th graders; thus, the service-learning programs were designed to meet the needs of these types of students. Finally, the administrations' goals for the service-learning programs differed across the types of schools.

The Most Important Strategies for Effective Service-Learning in High Schools

Although both the case study school informants and the key expert informants identified a number of strategies for effective service-learning at the high school level, the two groups identified different strategies as being most effective. The top two strategies according to the case study informants (offering service that is meaningful to the students, and obtaining teacher buy-in) were not cited as important strategies by any

of the expert informants. However, according to the literature, researchers support the testimony of the case study school informants. Eyler and Giles (1999) identified students doing meaningful work as one of the characteristics of a high-quality service-learning program. Krebs (2008) noted the importance of teachers' participation in initiating and carrying out service-learning projects in K–12 school programs. Additionally, in a survey with coordinators of high school service-learning programs, Dymond et al. (2013) identified teacher participation as one of the top three elements of a successful service-learning program. These three examples from the literature indicate that the case study informants are on the right track by identifying service that is meaningful to the students and obtaining teacher buy-in.

According to all six key expert informants, the most important strategy is reflection before, during, and after service. This strategy was not identified by any of the seven case study school informants. However, reflection was one of the top three components identified in the literature (Dymond et al., 2007, 2008). Not recognizing the importance of including reflection before, during, and after the service-learning experience can be problematic for a school's programming because this strategy was identified as vital by the experts interviewed. Four of the key expert informants and one of the case study school informants indicated that having a strong student voice is an effective strategy for service-learning. This finding supports the research by Zaff and Lerner (2010), who noted the importance of student voice in the process of a service-learning project.

Although both the case study school informants and the key expert informants noted effective strategies that were cited as important in the literature review, the two sets

of informants had different views about which strategies were important. This could be the result of the case study school informants voicing effective strategies that pertain to their own schools, and key expert informants using a different lens of best practices.

Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Better Motivate Students to Participate and to Foster Greater Satisfaction

All informants identified ways in which high school service-learning programs can be improved to better motivate students to participate and to foster greater satisfaction. The top strategy for improvement was to increase student reflection, which was cited by three case study school informants and one key expert informant. Other improvement strategies included giving students a stronger voice in the project and tying the service with the standardized test outcomes. These two strategies were cited by the public school informants and at least one key expert informant. The top obstacle to implementing the recommended improvements cited by five key expert informants and both public school interviewees was the prominence of K–12 standardized testing and common core curriculum.

One key expert informant also identified reflection as the main means of improving a service-learning program. Einfeld and Collins (2008) identified reflection as a key concept of service-learning, so the responses in this study can be considered consistent with at least some voices from the literature. However, it is notable that even though the case study school informants cited reflection as the best way to motivate students, none of them identified reflection as an effective strategy for service-learning. Only one key expert informant identified reflection as a way to motivate student participation and provide greater satisfaction. It could be that this expert was more aware

of the current state of reflection in high school service-learning programs, while the other experts assumed reflection was more widely integrated into the curriculum than it actually is.

The public school informants and the key experts were more closely aligned than the faith-based school informants and the private school informants in their ideas about how to motivate students. One public school informant and two expert informants indicated that giving the students a stronger voice in the project was a way to motivate student participation and provide greater satisfaction. One private school informant and four key experts also identified a strong student voice as an effective strategy for service-learning programs. Consistent with this view, Celio et al. (2011) determined that inclusion of student voice in a project led to increased program effectiveness and greater benefits to the students.

In general, the case study school informants and the key expert informants gave discrepant answers with respect to what they considered the most important strategies for effective service-learning. Additionally, these two groups of informants gave inconsistent answers about how to improve service-learning programs to better motivate students' participation and achieve greater satisfaction.

The public school informants and key experts were aligned on the need to directly tie service-learning to standardized test outcomes. The most cited obstacle to implementing needed improvements to motivate students' participation and increase satisfaction in service-learning programming was the prominence of K-12 testing standards and common core curriculum. Establishing a direct link between service-learning and testing standards and the core curriculum would increase the acceptability of

service-learning in the eyes of school administrators and would increase the likelihood of schools receiving funding.

Improving High School Service-Learning Programs to Better Motivate Continued Volunteerism in College

The strategy for improvement in the high school service-learning program to better motivate students to continue volunteerism after graduation cited by all the case study schools' informants was to give the students a stronger voice. However, none of the key experts cited this strategy. Morgan and Streb (2001) noted the need for students to have a strong voice in service-learning projects, which helps them connect to the service. Students who feel connected to their service would logically be expected to be more likely to repeat the experience.

The importance of connecting college students with high school students as part of their community service experience was cited by three key expert informants and none of the case study school informants. The strategy of including future service as a goal of service-learning programming was cited by all the key expert informants and a public school informant. If the administration at a given school integrates future service and volunteerism as one of the overall service-learning program goals, continued volunteerism is more likely to happen for students. This was not a program goal for the case study school informants interviewed, and the schools did not track the students' volunteerism after graduation.

While all six key informants identified obstacles toward improvement, only the public school informant identified an obstacle. The key expert informants cited two obstacles; namely that college teacher education programs do not include training about

service-learning and that high schools do not ask for teachers with this training. The public school informant noted a potential issue with school liability as an obstacle if a school wants to conduct off-campus service. Without having teachers trained in service-learning programming, it is more challenging to provide robust and rewarding experiences for students. If students have a less-than-rewarding service-learning experience, they are less likely to seek service-learning experiences after graduation.

Implications for Social Change

The results of this study can be shared with Los Angeles Unified School District public schools, as well as with the faith-based schools and private schools, to provide those in charge of the service-learning programming with useful information. There is no geographic restriction to the value of this information.

According to Einfeld and Collins (2008), service-learning is distinguished from volunteerism in that it includes both a service aspect as well as an academic reflective aspect. The service aspect of a high-quality service-learning program can effect social change. The intent of this study is to provide useful information about what needs to be improved with the current high school service-learning programs to invoke greater student participation and satisfaction, as well as to improve the likelihood the students will continue volunteering after graduation.

Given the responses by both the case study school and key expert informants, it is evident there is room for improvement. I plan to offer to revisit the case study schools to share the findings. If they desire it, I will provide these schools with specific recommendations for how they can incorporate some or all of the findings in order to improve their service-learning programming.

Limitations to the Study

The limitations to this study are that I only used case study schools in the Los Angeles area due to limited financial resources. While it was necessary to conduct the case study school interviews with staff and faculty who were directly involved with directing and/or implementing the service-learning programming, the interviews were limited to only those individuals in the school. At the public school, access was only available to interview the faculty from one of the five SLCs. Thus, the perspectives of others involved in the program were not obtained and could not be reflected in the results.

An additional limitation arose from the focus of research question #5. This question specifically addressed students' continued volunteerism in college. Thus, it did not address the future volunteerism of high school graduates who do not continue on to college, or even students who leave high school without graduating. When designing the study, I chose to confine the question to college volunteerism out of concern that asking more broadly about future volunteerism would introduce too many variables and yield less meaningful results. At the same time, this limitation means that the results cannot be generalized to all students after high school.

Recommendations for Action

The case study schools should review the effective strategies for service-learning identified by the key experts and incorporate those into their programming in addition to the effective strategies the case study school informants identified. The public school may not be able to eliminate the budgetary restraints imposed by the state of California. Given that the faith-based school and the private school have the needed financial

resources, implementing the identified areas of improvement should not be as difficult as it will be for the other types of schools.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study was limited to the Los Angeles, CA, area. Therefore, studies in different areas of the United States would be helpful in obtaining a broader range of insight and experiences with service-learning programming.

Another recommendation for future study is to do an in-depth study of one or more public high schools that are currently doing service-learning programming. In this study, the researcher could interview not only the staff and faculty in charge of the program and those enthusiastically implementing it in their curriculum, but also faculty who do not buy into the need to implement service-learning into their classroom curriculum. Interviewing the latter individuals could provide valuable insight into ways to improve the service-learning program.

Conclusion

Since the passage of the Kennedy Serve America Act in 2009, many high schools now incorporate service-learning programs. It would follow, therefore, that these programs aim to be of high quality and to provide students with the richest experience possible. Toward this end, program administrators need sound advice about how to design effective programs. This research study sought to define the state of the art and to provide recommended strategies for improvement. Specifically, it aimed to provide guidance about how to better motivate high school students to participate more fully in service-learning so they can get the most out of the experience. The long-range goal of

improving service-learning programming is to motivate students to continue their volunteerism in college and beyond.

Service-learning is mandated for the LAUSD schools and it is incorporated into many of the Los Angeles area faith-based and private schools. This study included interviews with seven case study school informants, representing public, private, and faith-based schools, and with six key expert informants. Each of the case study schools incorporated service-learning into the school's programming. The faith-based school and the private school incorporated service-learning into each grade level, while the public school offered service-learning to the 11th-grade students only. Each of the schools integrated some of the practices that the literature and the key experts identified as contributing to a high-quality experience, yet not all practices were included. For example, consistent use of the practice of reflection was lacking in the faith-based school and the private school. School administrators in charge of the service-learning programming are advised to incorporate more strategies that are understood to lead to a high-quality service-learning experience.

Given that long-term volunteerism was not a goal of any of the schools participating in this study, it is not surprising that the schools did not track student volunteerism after students graduated. Because a service-learning experience may be one of the first times a student is engaged in community service, it is important for that experience to be high quality. The U.S. tradition of civic mindedness that so impressed de Tocqueville (1831), and that was noted to be in decline by Putnam (2000b), would benefit from having high school students engaged in community service that is meaningful to them.

In this study I have attempted to contribute to the body of knowledge about what enhances the experience and the efficacy of the service-learning experience. It is my hope that school administrators and teachers will read this study and implement those strategies most likely to improve the quality service-learning in their schools.

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Appendix A: Instruments

Interview Questions for Case Study Interviewees

Name_____

School_____

Date interviewed_____

I'm going to ask you three sets of questions about how you would (1) describe your program, (2) evaluate your program, and (3) improve your program.

A. Background Information About the Program

1. What is your role with the service-learning program at this school?
2. Please describe the program
 - (a) What overall model(s) does it follow?
 - (b) How many students are involved?
 - (c) Is service-learning integrated into the classroom? If so, which type of class is most often involved?
3. What is the level of student participation?
 - (a) Is the volunteerism episodic or consistent?
 - (b) Is the volunteerism required for graduation?
4. How does the program incorporate each of the following (please describe):
 - (a) placement strategies
 - (b) in-class discussion
 - (c) reflection activities
 - (d) student autonomy and voice
 - (e) meaningfulness of work and quality of tasks
 - (f) relationship with community partners
 - (g) feedback from agency
 - (h) service duration
 - (i) teacher preparation
 - (j) educational goals
 - (k) evaluation
 - (l) balance of academic content and social problem-solving processes

5. How is the program evaluated?
 - (a) By whom?
 - (b) How frequently?
 - (c) How are results reported?

B. Assessment of the Program

1. Overall, how successful would you say the program has been?
2. What is the program's greatest strength? (give examples)
3. What is the program's greatest weakness? (give examples)
4. Is the volunteerism meaningful to the students?
5. Which of the following are outcomes of the program for students?
 - (a) Academic gains
 - (b) Personal development
 - (c) Social development
 - (d) Increased civic engagement
6. Are there gender differences related to participation?
7. Are there issues specific to your school type?
8. Do you know if students continue to volunteer once they reach college? If so, what percentage?
9. Do you have any documentation on the service-learning program that you are willing to share with me?

C. Improving the Program

1. How has the service-learning program evolved since you have been involved with it?
2. What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in your program?

3. How can your program be improved to better motivate students to participate and to foster greater satisfaction? Discuss:
 - (a) Specific program elements
 - (b) The roles of teachers and administrators
 - (c) Community relationships

4. What obstacles to implementing these improvements do you see?

5. How can your program be improved to increase the likelihood of continued volunteerism in college? Discuss:
 - (a) Specific program elements
 - (b) The roles of teachers and administrators
 - (c) Preparedness of the students
 - (d) The student role
 - (e) Community relationships

6. What obstacles to implementing these improvements do you see?

Interview Questions for Key Expert Informants

Name _____

Affiliation _____

Date interviewed _____

I'm going to ask you some questions about ways to improve the service-learning programming in high school. These are open-ended questions. Please feel free to expand on your answers.

A. Background Information

1. What is your background in service-learning?
 - (a) How many years have you been involved with service-learning/volunteerism?

(b) Do you have experience with high school, college, and/or government service-learning/volunteer programming?

2. What is your current position/job?

B. Improving the Program

1. How has the field of service-learning evolved since you have been involved with it?

2. What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools?

3. How can high school service-learning be improved to better motivate students to participate and to foster greater satisfaction? Discuss:

- (a) Specific program elements
- (b) The roles of teachers and administrators
- (c) Preparedness of the students
- (d) The student role
- (e) Community relationships

4. What obstacles to implementing these improvements do you see?

5. How can high school service-learning be improved to increase the likelihood of continued volunteerism in college? Discuss:

- (a) Specific program elements
- (b) The roles of teachers and administrators
- (c) Community relationships

6. What obstacles to implementing these improvements do you see?

Appendix B: Consent Forms

Consent Form (in person)

You are invited to take part in a research study about service-learning programming. The researcher is inviting service-learning administrators and experts to be in the study. This informed consent form is to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Tracey Boldemann-Tatkin, MA, MPA, who is a doctoral candidate at Walden University.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to identify ways to improve the current models of high school service-learning so that students are more likely to become active participants and more likely to continue volunteerism after they graduate.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to participate in one interview. The interview will last between 30 minutes and one hour and will be conducted in person or on the phone/Skype at a time convenient to you.

You will receive a copy of the interview questions ahead of time so you can be prepared for the interview. Here are some sample questions:

4. What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools?
5. How has the field of service-learning evolved since you have been involved with it?

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

Being in this study would not pose risk to your safety or well-being.

The potential benefit of participating in this study is the satisfaction of knowing that you are contributing in yet one more way to the betterment of service-learning programs.

Payment:

There is no payment or reimbursement for participation.

Privacy:

Any information you provide will be kept confidential. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study reports. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:

You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via email at tboldemann@yahoo.com. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott, the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 612-312-1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is IRB # 10-15-13-0063312, and it expires on October 4, 2016.

Please print or save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above. I understand I may withdraw my participation at any time without penalty.

Date of consent

Participant's signature

Researcher's signature

Consent Form (via email)

You are invited to take part in a research study about service-learning programming. The researcher is inviting service-learning administrators and experts to be in the study. This informed consent form is to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Tracey Boldemann-Tatkin, MA, MPA, who is a doctoral candidate at Walden University.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to identify ways to improve the current models of high school service-learning so that students are more likely to become active participants and more likely to continue volunteerism after they graduate.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to participate in one interview. The interview will last between 30 minutes and one hour and will be conducted in person or on the phone/Skype at a time convenient to you. This interview will be audio recorded.

If you are serving as a key expert informant, you have met the following inclusion criteria:

- 1 Have a minimum of 10 years of involvement in service-learning at the high school level, at the college level, or with government programs
- 2 Be knowledgeable about current trends in either high school and/or college service-learning programs
- 3 Have published on the subject of service-learning in a peer-reviewed journal, book, or government publication

If your school is serving as a case study school, it met the following inclusion criteria:

1. Have a formalized service-learning program that has been in place for a minimum of one year
2. Be either a public school, a private school, or a faith-based school
3. Be willing to participate (i.e., as expressed by the school's administration)

The individuals to be interviewed as representatives of case study schools have met the following inclusion criteria:

1. Be currently involved in running a high school service-learning program, or be well versed in the running of the service-learning program
2. Be knowledgeable about current trends in either high school and/or college service-learning programs

You will receive a copy of the interview questions ahead of time so you can be prepared for the interview. Here are some sample questions:

1. What are the most important strategies for effective service-learning in high schools?
2. How has the field of service-learning evolved since you have been involved with it?

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

Being in this study would not pose risk to your safety or well-being.

The potential benefit of participating in this study is the satisfaction of knowing that you are contributing in yet one more way to the betterment of service-learning programs.

Payment:

There is no payment or reimbursement for participation.

Privacy:

Any information you provide will be kept confidential. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study reports. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:

You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via email at tboldemann@yahoo.com. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott, the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 612-312-1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is IRB # 10-15-13-0063312, and it expires on October 4, 2016.

Please print or save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. By replying to this email with the words "I consent," I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above. I understand that I may withdraw my participation at any time without penalty.

Appendix C: Interview Data

Interviewee	Status	Source	Saturation	Format	Length	Recording	Transcript
Category 1 Faith-based school			Yes				
Interviewee #1	Conducted in person 11/3/13	School principal		Semi- structured,	53 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #2	Conducted in person 11/3/13	School principal		Semi- structured	21 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #3	Conducted in person 12/11/13	School principal		Semi- structured	53 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Category 2 Private school			Yes				
Interviewee #1	Conducted in person 5/18/14	School principal		Semi- structured	52 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #2	Conducted in person 5/18/14	School principal		Semi- structured	25 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Category 3 Public school			Yes				
Interviewee #1	Conducted in person 9/23/14	School principal		Semi- structured	32 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #2	Conducted in person 9/23/14	School principal		Semi- structured	34 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Category 4 Experts			Yes				
Interviewee #1	Conducted via phone 11/25/13	Literature review		Semi- structured	25 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #2	Conducted via phone 11/26/14	Literature review		Semi- structured	45 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #3	Conducted via phone 12/2/13	Literature review		Semi- structured	30 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #4	Conducted via phone 12/6/13	Literature review		Semi- structured	47 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed

Interview Data, continued

Interviewee #5	Conducted via phone 12/10/13	Literature review		Semi-structured	32 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed
Interviewee #6	Conducted via phone 12/23/13	Literature review		Semi-structured	57 min.	Audio recording	Transcribed

Appendix D: Expert Important Strategies for Effective Service-Learning

	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Expert 6
Reflection before, during and after service	X	X	X	X	X	X
S-L connected and integrated into curriculum	X	X				X
Student is clear the S-L supports the learning outcomes	X	X				
Improved role of teachers and administrators		X				
Heightened preparedness of the students		X		X		
Enhance the student role		X				
Student voice		X	X	X		X
In class discussion		X			X	
Service educationally meaningful		X				
Student knowledge of the educational rational to include S-L		X				
Good partnerships			X			X
Validating the assets of the student that is brought to the S-L experience			X			
Student leadership role			X			X
Student experience is authentic				X		
Incorporation of academic content, knowledge, capacity and social/societal issue				X		
Working with the community as co-educators, co-developers and co-producers				X		
Build S-L into all aspects of the district				X		
Meaningful service						X
Challenging tasks						X
Getting multiple experiences over multiple years						X
Engaging experience						X
Opportunity to meet and learn with the community partners						X
Having a school or district S-L coordinator						X
Funding						X