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The impact of a short duration service-learning project on student learning outcomes.

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ABSTRACT

Service-learning has been empirically shown to impact student learning outcomes in multiple disciplines in several countries. Prior studies have shown that students are often involved in service-learning projects that last many weeks. This study reports on student learning outcomes after business students were exposed to an intensive daylong service-learning project at a major nonprofit organization. Using the SELEB Scale, the researchers examine how students perceive the improvements to their practical skills, citizenship, personal responsibility, and interpersonal skills, that accrued from the service project. The results indicate that although females' scores were higher, they were not significantly different from males. In addition, differences in academic major subjects caused no significant differences in the results. The results of this study demonstrate that students can benefit from service-learning projects that can be completed in a shorter time span.

Educational institutions are highly invested in their students' success. Therefore, universities create programs that are oriented toward providing students with the skills necessary for success after graduation; course contents are delivered using a combination of lectures, cases studies, projects, and assignments. Many researchers have questioned whether these traditional pedagogical methods are truly beneficial to the educational development of students (e.g., Bringle & Hatcher, 2009; McCord et al., 2015).

Guyton (2000) suggests that traditional pedagogical methods turn students into passive underachievers. McCoskey and Warren (2003) state that while case studies and role-play exercises provide valuable real-world simulations, they only approximate reality. Morton and Troppe (1996) characterized the current learning approach as an information assimilation model that transmits large amounts of information to students who do not retain it for later application. Because of these innate problems, service-learning is being promoted as a means to improve the educational process and promote community engagement.

Numerous research studies provide evidence of the educational benefits of service-learning courses across many disciplines. Most research on the benefits of service-learning are based on projects embedded in semester-long courses (Anderson et al., 2016; Toncar et al., 2006). There is little research that examines the impact of day-long service-learning projects that are interdisciplinary in business schools. However, this study examines students' perceptions of the effects of service-learning on learning outcomes based on a day-long service-learning project. The Service-learning Benefit (SELEB) scale developed by Toncar et al. (2006) is used.

Constructivist Pedagogy

Experiential learning is the core of service-learning and is defined as the process of learning through experience; it is a reflection of the constructive pedagogy style. The notion that experience is the catalyst for learning may be traced back to 1938 when John Dewey's pioneering programs addressed adult student learning. Dewey (1938) states that individuals learn best through hands-on experience. The teacher's role is to organize the learning environment such that students truly gain knowledge, as opposed to simply being able to regurgitate information. This model is consistent with Kolb's (1984) emphasis on experiential learning as a basis for knowledge creation. Kolb conceptualizes learning as evolving through four phases beginning with concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation.

Most universities offer service-learning courses as elective or required courses in different disciplines. Bringle and Hatcher (2009) define service-learning courses as competency-based, credit-bearing educational courses in which students participate in organized service activities that meet community needs, impact their grasp of curriculum knowledge, enable them to develop a larger appreciation of the discipline, enrich personal values, and promote civic responsibility.

Fundamentals of Service-learning

Although many schools offer internships and co-op programs for students to gain professional experience, these differ from service-learning as they do not foster community engagement. Service-learning differs from volunteering in that it is academic work that is intentionally designed around social learning objectives. Because students are placed in mostly nonprofit, community-based settings to interact and share knowledge, they also gain an understanding of the relationship between education and civic responsibility. This description stresses the fact that well-designed service-learning courses are constructed through a collaborative process with the community. Service-learning provides a unique opportunity to create knowledge because the participants are placed in concrete situations and then asked to reflect upon their experiences; this helps them internalize the situation and thereby alter their psychological constructs. Encouraging students to reflect on their service-learning experience is an important component of this process because it not only increases academic knowledge but also develops self-monitoring skills and a better understanding of the learning process and facilitates the discovery of personal values and beliefs.

When students internalize their experiences, their attitudinal structures comprising beliefs and affective and connate components are stimulated (Holzman et al., 2008). Service-learning creates opportunities for students in an environment that allows real-world experiences that are pragmatic in nature and encourages deep reflection as articulated by Dewey (1938) and Kolb (1984), respectively. Reflection is a critical component of students' learning; critical reflection sets thought patterns into motion and creates links between service and learning by connecting action with the development of attitudes and emotions. The literature documents that service-learning courses can be developed to promote specific but related learning outcomes in multiple disciplines (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Sax, 2004). The beneficial outcomes reported are stronger awareness of civic responsibility, increased academic knowledge and skills, and the development of interpersonal skills (Bootsma et al., 2021; Chiang, 2008; Sabat et al., 2015; Toncar et al., 2006).

Selective Service-learning Studies and Outcomes by Business Discipline
When reviewing the most current business studies based on service-learning projects that are empirically tested for learning outcomes, we find that the major learning outcomes are related to academic skill development, communications, personal growth, and civic engagement. Table 1 provides a summary of these studies by the major business disciplines. Regardless of the discipline, students' perception of the learning outcomes was significant. Overall, accounting studies reported significant improvement of accounting and academic knowledge (see Chiang, 2008; Edmond & Driskill, 2019; Strupeck & Whitten, 2004).
Several researchers (Blanthorne & Westin, 2016; Bootsma et al., 2021; Strupeck & Whitten, 2004) reported that students involved in accounting service-learning programs such as the VITA program, which provides tax assistance to low-income households, experienced improvements in their understanding of accounting concepts and interpersonal skills. When business students taught personal financial management concepts to low-income students, they reported improvements in analytical thinking, interpersonal, and team building skills (McCord et al., 2015). Reiss et al. (2019) surveyed students in the finance discipline who participated in service-learning projects and found significantly positive attitudes regarding service, the value of future service work and the need to continue involvement in the community. In separate finance-related courses, students experienced positive dimensions with regard to leadership, social justice issues (Sabbaghi et al., 2013), improvement in academic and critical thinking, and social responsibility vision (Dahlquist, 1998).
Service-learning studies in management courses reported significant learning outcomes related to cultural diversity and deeper connections to the community (Bhattacharya & Scherage, 2015; Wozhiak et al., 2006). Several others show that service-learning projects improved students' perceptions of academic skills, personal responsibility, and leadership skills (Gallagher & McGorry, 2015, Madsen & Turnbull, 2006; Sabat et al., 2015). When Megley (2020) incorporated a service-learning project in a senior capstone course, students developed grant writing skills and expressed a stronger commitment to volunteer after the semester ended.

Popovich and Brooks-Hurst (2019) found that students' satisfaction from a marketing service-learning project was significantly related to their perception of the course content and their critical thinking skills. In this scenario, the students derived satisfaction from the ability to apply the skills learned from academic settings to practical business problems. Crutchfield (2017) reported that students perceived that they acquired an in depth understanding of marketing concepts, improvement in team building, relationship skills, and a more positive attitude toward social responsibility. Wang and Calvano's (2018) field experiments in two different undergraduate marketing courses reported that all stages of the Kolb (1984) learning experience cycle were significantly correlated with service-learning outcomes. Students directly involved in service-learning show significantly higher correlation scores than non-service-learning students.

When developing the SELEB scale to measure student learning outcomes, Toncar et al. (2006) demonstrated the convergent validity of the scales when they measured students' outcomes in two separate classes that had different "fun factor" levels. Burns (2011) surveyed a diverse group of marketing students from several different universities using the SELEB instrument and reported significant relationships among the service-learning scale item skills assessed, which were as follows: (a) critical thinking and application skills, (b) communication and interpersonal (team building skills), (c) social responsibility, (d) citizenship, (e) trustworthiness, and (f) sensitivity to the needs of others. They also reported the six different personal motivations that impact a student's willingness to volunteer (career, esteem, social, protective, understanding, and value). Hagenbuch (2006) also noted that students reported significant improvement in most learning outcomes and more positive attitudes toward personal selling after participating in a service-learning project in a sales class. Fewer studies are reported in general business courses, but those conducted show that students gain more sensitivity to social responsibility and global issues (Schneider, 2018). In a business communication class, Blewitt et al. (2018) found that a service-learning project not only developed stronger communication skills but also improved students' perceptions of teamwork skills and their global and social awareness. As emphasized by numerous researchers, the majority of service-learning studies report a positive impact on students' learning outcomes. These studies are based on projects that are embedded in academic courses or programs and are often attached to academic units such as the VITA program.

Multiple-Week Projects
One major similarity between these studies is that the participants are usually involved in the service-learning project for multiple weeks. Garger et al. (2020) found that project duration affects student satisfaction. Their research shows that projects requiring more than 45 hours per semester had a negative impact on student satisfaction. Many academic programs sponsor class projects in which students commit to performing community service projects over a shorter period. These projects are usually a major component of the course grading process. Little extant research has investigated the impact of service-learning programs with projects of a shorter duration (i.e., one or two days). Therefore, this raises the question of whether service-learning projects with a shorter duration could influence student learning outcomes.

Study Hypotheses

All of the service-learning studies reviewed were on business classes and conducted within the time frame of five to ten weeks. These studies focused on the development of specific academic skills such as accounting, finance, and marketing. However, many service projects do not emphasize specific academic skill development such as accounting or marketing. The research participants are students from different academic disciplines. Regardless of the class hosting the service-learning assignment, students tended to respond positively to questions about their general skill development, such as their communication ability and commitment to social responsibility.

Given the above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1a: A general service-learning project with a short time span will impact students' perceptions of three of the four subscale outcomes (citizenship and interpersonal and personal responsibility).

H1b: A general service-learning project with a short time span will not impact students' perceptions of practical skill development.

Researchers have found significant gender differences with respect to interest in volunteering and service-learning projects, but those differences vary (Burns et al., 2008; Burns, 2011; Trudeau & Devlin, 1996; Wilson, 2000; Wymer & Samu, 2002). From a sample of volunteers, Wymer and Samu (2002) found that males are more likely than females to spend more time volunteering, but females are more empathetic toward volunteering. Surveying marketing students, Burns et al. (2008) found significant gender differences in four of the six constructs for motivation to volunteer using the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) scale. Using the SELEB scale, Burns (2012) found significant gender differences in students' perception of the benefits of engaging in service-learning projects. Female respondents perceived greater benefits than male students on all of the specific subcategories of the SELEB scale.

Given the above discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: There is no significant gender difference as measured by the four subscale outcomes (citizenship, practical, interpersonal, and personal responsibility).

Few studies have examined student perception of the benefits of service-learning by discipline, and there are many reasons for this. Many of the research studies examining student perceptions were generally done within classes that were discipline-specific (Bootsma et al., 2021; Burns, 2011; Burns et al., 2008; Chiang, 2008; McCord et al., 2015; Toncar et al., 2006). Although most service-learning studies in capstone management courses likely had students from multiple majors, the numbers by discipline may not have been large enough to enable a comparison. Importantly, for

most disciplines, many studies have shown that students perceived service-learning projects as having improved their academic skills or knowledge. However, if the service-learning project focused more on soft skills, such as interpersonal, citizenship, and personal responsibility, then regardless of their academic discipline, students should perceive roughly the same benefits from the project.

Given the above discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: There is no significant difference between responses based on academic major.

Methodology
Participants
Students enrolled in the business program at a medium size university in a major city in the southwestern United States are required to take a service-learning course. The course promotes career development, leadership, and interpersonal skills in their junior year. Embedded in the course is a service-learning project that requires students to spend a day at a major food pantry that supplies food and vital information on social services to families and organizations in multiple counties.

Prior to the visit, students were given background information on the purpose and work of the food pantry. The organization provided an introduction and orientation to the work areas when the students arrived. Students were then assigned to a variety of projects in teams. A week after participating in the project, students submitted individual reflective essays. In the critical reflective essay (at least 1000–1200 words or two–three pages), students wrote about the significance of their experience at the service-learning project (relative to communication, teamwork, and networking) and the impact it had on their business worldview. This writing assignment was conducted across all class sections of the course. After the completion of the semester, students were asked to complete the SELEB survey. Data were collected for four semesters prior to the pandemic, which began in Spring 2020. A total of 240 undergraduate business students voluntarily completed the surveys. The majority of the students were female (53%), and more than 40% were Hispanic non-white, while 12.5% were African American, 12% were white non-Hispanic, 15.4% were Asian, and 10.4% belonged to a different group.

Instrument
The SELEB scale, adapted from Toncar et al. (2006) was used because it was designed to measure students' self-reported perceptions of the benefits from participating in service-learning projects. The scale consists of 12 items that test for four underlying benefits of service-learning relating to Practical Skills, Citizenship, Personal Responsibility, and Interpersonal Skills. Each item is rated using a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = not at all and 7 = very much so. Through the years, the SELEB scale has been successfully utilized in other studies, including several business studies with reported reliabilities ranging from .70 to .95 (Anderson et al., 2016; Burns, 2011, 2012; Gallagher & McGorry, 2015). Therefore, the instrument and scales were considered acceptable for this study.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed with SPSS version 26 using descriptive and inferential statistics. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was calculated to assess scale reliability. For the overall 12-item SELEB scale, Cronbach's alpha was .98. Each of the four sub-constructs' (interpersonal skills, citizenship, personal responsibility, and practical skills) scores were over .90, which demonstrated strong internal reliability.

Results

Students indicated whether they felt that the service-learning project benefited their growth and development for each scale item on the 7-point Likert scale. To test the first hypothesis, the mean score for each item was calculated. The mean scores were well above the 3.5 middle range on the scale. The mean scores on the individual items ranged from 5.30 to 6.10, and on the subscales, the scores ranged from 5.46 to 5.76, indicating positive perceptions with the respect to how students felt the project impacted their growth and development. Students felt that the project benefited them the most with regard to their practical and interpersonal skills, as shown in Table 1.

While not a scientific comparison, the study's descriptive means were compared to two previous studies that used the 12-point SELEB scale to measure students' perception of the benefits of service-learning projects. As shown in Table 2, the mean scores of the subscales for this study showed average scores that compared favorably to those reported in similar studies where students spent longer times on the respective service-learning projects. The results taken together mean that the null hypothesis H1a was rejected, and hypothesis H2 was accepted. Therefore, students do perceive benefits from a service-learning project with a shorter duration. Hypothesis 1a was rejected because students appear to feel that their ability to apply practical skills to diverse general assignments was improved.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics on the 12-Item SELEB subscales

	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error
Practical skills				
1. Applying knowledge to the "real world"	220	6.10	1.21	0.08
2. Workplace skills	220	5.64	1.46	0.10
3. Organization skills	220	5.54	1.60	0.10
Total practical skills	220	5.76	1.42	0.10
Citizenship				
4. Understanding cultural and racial differences	220	5.44	1.67	0.11
5. Social responsibility and citizenship skills	220	5.73	1.46	0.10
6. Ability to make a difference in the community	220	5.52	1.51	0.10
Total citizenship	220	5.56	1.55	0.10
Personal responsibility				
7. Social self-confidence	220	5.45	1.63	0.11
8. Ability to assume personal responsibility	220	5.30	1.75	0.12
9. Gaining the trust of others	220	5.63	1.51	0.10
Total personal responsibility	220	5.46	1.63	0.11
Interpersonal skills				
10. Ability to work with others	220	5.77	1.47	0.10
11. Leadership skills	220	5.46	1.52	0.10
12. Communication skills	220	5.75	1.44	0.10
Total Interpersonal skills	220	5.66	1.48	0.10
Total scale mean	220			

Table 2. Comparison of selective service-learning studies using SELEB scale

	Toncar et al. (2006)		Current study	Anderson et al. (2016)
	Marketing research mean	Public relations mean	General business mean	Criminology mean
Practical skills	4.70	5.61	5.76	4.92
Interpersonal skills	4.12	5.36	5.66	4.69
Citizenship skills	4.14	5.20	5.56	4.85
Personal responsibility	4.22	5.36	5.46	4.41
Overall SELEB	4.36	5.41	5.54	Not reported
Length of project	6 weeks	6 weeks	1 day	15 weeks

To test the second hypothesis, independent sample t-tests were conducted to explore any significant differences between gender on item and scale means. The results in Table 3 indicate no significant gender differences on the subscales or for the overall SELEB scale.

Table 3. Comparison of female and male independent samples T-Test mean SELEB constructs

Constructs	Female	Male	T-statistic	P value
Interpersonal skills	5.6845	5.4789	1.11	.267
Personal responsibility	5.7196	5.4908	1.11	.267
Citizenship	5.6825	5.6126	.393	.695
Practical skills	5.6578	5.4591	1.04	.302
SELEB total mean	5.6337	5.4367	1.07	.286

As displayed in Table 4, both female and male students' perceptions were positive. Although the results were not significant, females consistently reported a higher degree of benefits when compared to male students across all subscales and the total scale. At the individual item level, females perceived that the project significantly impacted their growth and development more than did males for only two scale items (their ability to work with others and gaining their trust).

Table 4. Comparison of female and male independent samples T-Test mean SELEB items

SELEB Item#	Female mean	Male mean	T-statistic	P value (2-tailed)	Cohen's D
INTERPERSONAL SKILLS					
IPS1: Ability to work with others	5.95	5.56	-1.996	0.047*	-0.275
IPS2: Leadership skills	5.59	5.27	-1.534	0.127	-0.211
IPS3: Communication skills	5.86	5.66	-1.021	0.308	-0.141
PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY SKILLS					
PR1: Social self-confidence	5.59	5.26	-1.521	0.13	-0.21
PR2: Ability to assume personal responsibility	5.43	5.16	-1.12	0.264	-0.154
PR3: Gaining trust of others	5.86	5.36	-2.442	0.015*	-0.338
CITIZENSHIP SKILLS					
CS1: Understanding cultural and racial differences	5.59	5.27	-1.41	0.16	-0.194
CS2: Social responsibility and citizenship skills	5.86	5.59	-1.381	0.169	-0.19
CS3: Ability to make a difference in the community	5.56	5.49	-0.341	0.733	-0.047
PRACTICAL SKILLS					
PS1: Applying knowledge to the "real world"	6.22	5.96	-1.629	0.105	-0.224
PS2: Workplace skills	5.8	5.47	-1.664	0.098	-0.229
PS3: Organization skills	5.66	5.41	-1.185	0.237	-0.163
SELEB mean	5.6337	5.4367	-1.07	0.286	-0.147

*Significant at 0.05 level.

To determine if differences were significant among academic majors, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. As shown in Table 5, there was no significant difference in student perceptions based on academic majors at the p<.05 level for the five conditions tested: interpersonal skills [F(3, 234) = 1.22, p = 0.304],; citizenship skills [F(3, 236) = 1.45, p = 0.230], practical skills [F(3, 236) = 1.22, p = 0.304], personal responsibility skills [F(3, 236) = 1.05, p = 0.372], and SELEB performance [F(3, 236) = 1.37, p = 0.253]. The results indicate acceptance of the null hypothesis.

Table 5. One-way analyses of variance for SELEB factors based on academic major

ANOVA

		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
PerformanceIS1	Between groups	14.623	3	4.874	1.217	0.304
	Within groups	937.273	234	4.005		
	Total	951.896	237			
PerformanceCS1	Between groups	16.991	3	5.664	1.447	0.23
	Within groups	923.652	236	3.914		
	Total	940.643	239			
PerformancePS1	Between groups	14.979	3	4.993	1.218	0.304
	Within groups	967.574	236	4.1		
	Total	982.553	239			
PerformancePR1	Between groups	13.851	3	4.617	1.048	0.372
	Within groups	1039.897	236	4.406		
	Total	1053.748	239			
PerformanceSELEB 1	Between groups	16.152	3	5.384	1.369	0.253
	Within groups	928.265	236	3.933		
	Total	944.417	239			

Discussion and Implications

This study suggests that the length of the service-learning project may not matter for students to perceive positive benefits. Service-learning is a viable pedagogical practice that positively engages students in skill development while serving the needs of the community regardless of gender or academic major. Therefore, schools should be encouraged to develop more courses with day-long service-learning projects because of the potential positive impact on students and the community. This has the potential to connect more diverse community-based programs with universities.

The research studies conducted on the topic of service-learning thus far have not included one-day projects. Moreover, this study can assist with the design and delivery of service-learning projects with similar community service organizations that can be completed in one day or one week. This junior-level general business course included majors from all departments in the college. Working together, students were able to

successfully apply their business and interpersonal relationship skills in a manner that they perceived helped to improve their overall knowledge, skills, and abilities.

The results are similar to those reported by Burns (2012) and Burns et al. (2008), who investigated the role of gender when measuring student motivation to volunteer. In Burns' (2012) study, females reported significantly higher (P ≤.05) mean responses than males for all of the subscales as well as the overall scale.

Although nothing was hypothesized regarding students' prior experience with service-learning projects, the study found that a significant number of students (58%) had participated in volunteer activities prior to the service-learning project at the Food Bank. Importantly, over 78% of the students indicated that they were very likely or likely to volunteer again for similar service experiences in the future. This seems to corroborate Burns' (2011) assessment that when students perceived positive benefits of service-learning, it may promote a willingness to increase volunteering in the future. Chang et al. (2019) reported that students' previous involvement in community service projects did not impact self-reported social, intellectual, or personal development scores, but they did report a higher score for civic development.

The study also suggests that the length of the service-learning project may not matter for students to perceive positive benefits. Service-learning is a viable pedagogical practice that positively engages students in skill development while serving the needs of the community. Service-learning provides benefits for all organizations and most individuals involved (Shaw, 2018; Waldner et al., 2012). Furthermore, the college and institution is also able to further demonstrate their commitment to community engagement through service-learning practices. This high-impact practice is tailored in alignment with the needs of the academic community through socially responsible leadership practices that reinforce reality-based teaching and learning. This also helps better prepare students for other courses that may require a service-learning component, as such components are included in many capstone courses. Service-learning is validated and evidenced to have a profound positive impact on students' engagement in multiple ways. These types of community-based partnerships should be purposefully designed in consideration of the school program and community partners' strategic plans and organizational missions.

Limitations and Future Research

As this survey was conducted after the students had completed the project, future studies should include a pretest at the start of the class and a posttest after completion of the project. A possible confounding factor could be that a large percentage of the students had participated in volunteer activities prior to the class. This study was conducted using students from one mid-size Hispanic-serving institution. It should be expanded to more diverse schools and to other types of service-learning projects to improve the generalizability of the results.

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Career Development through Career Transition Coaching:
A Qualitative Study of Military Veterans and Student Coaches

ABSTRACT

Military veterans seeking to transition into civilian employment possess valuable skills, yet often face challenges in their job searches. Though veterans are legally protected in the U.S., stereotypes about them persist and influence the hiring process. Future human resource managers, (e.g. college students) will be key to veteran hiring and they will need to appropriately assess applicant qualifications in an unbiased manner. This paper demonstrates the results of a career development program in which 112 students provided monthly job search assistance to 242 military veterans preparing to be discharged from a large VA domiciliary. Results demonstrated the importance of context specific HR skills and coaching in applied settings, and the impact of such experiences on personal growth, and how career development programs might be used to reduce stereotypes.

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Career transition, defined as a major change in one's work role or context, is on the rise in contemporary society for a variety of reasons, including but not limited to, corporate downsizing, restructuring, or layoffs (Klehe et al., 2021). During the transition process individuals often undergo the process of *reinventing* themselves in some way or *repackaging* their skills and qualifications to make them marketable to a new field. This topic is especially important given the recent Covid-19 pandemic and the subsequent "great resignation" within the US. Though individuals left the workforce from a variety of professions areas such as teaching, health care, and restaurant workers left the workforce in greater numbers. Therefore, it is important to find creative ways to groom potential employees to fill corporate needs. The extent to which they believe their skills and abilities will transfer to a new occupation plays an important role in their success (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011) and this has been described as one's occupational identity (Opengart, 2021).

Social identity theory (SIT) offers insight into the occupational identity development

process and is relevant to the career transition process. Social identity is described as an individual's sense of who they are based on their group memberships (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Group membership guides personal behavior, decision making, and how one might fit into society. SIT proposes that groups (e.g. social class, family, occupational field) to which people belong are important sources of pride and self-esteem. Social identity goes beyond group membership; SIT posits that social identity arises due to members valuing and being attached to certain groups (Yates, 2017). Groups offer individuals a sense of social identity and belonging in a social world and can reduce uncertainty. Group membership also affects how individuals view other groups and offers a lens to *categorize* others in this effort. Group identity can also lead to negative stereotyping of out-groups. Part of the social identity process, which enhances self-esteem, is believing that one's group is superior to other groups, and therefore, there is a tendency to construct negative stereotypes about out-group members (Yates, 2017).

In this paper we focus on two important groups who are going through the career transition process: Military veterans transitioning to full-time civilian employment, and human resource management (HR) students looking to transition from being students to working professionals. The transition between college and professional work challenges students to be ready to demonstrate career-related skills, which influences their career trajectory (Ng & Feldman, 2007; Saks, 2018). Previous research has demonstrated the importance of early career HR professionals understanding the nuanced experiences, needs, and challenges of diverse applicants (Bañales et al., 2021; Combs & Luthans, 2007; Harris, 2016).

Similarly, military veterans transitioning to the civilian workplace experience challenges such as negative stereotypes and often a lack of appreciation for their military skills (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011; Parrott et al., 2019). Such beliefs may hinder the ability of veterans to transition into the civilian workforce even though organizations have a legal responsibility to avoid discrimination against them, and to make a concerted effort to recruit them (Noon, 2018). Even with legal protection, veterans often experience high unemployment rates and need additional resources in the career transition process (Stone & Stone, 2015).

This study offers insights on the career transition process and to do so we interviewed university HR students and military veterans who were involved in a service-learning project. We applied qualitative methods to collect and analyze the data as such approaches offered the most insight into "why" phenomenon might be occurring. Through this project, students worked with U.S. military veterans to help them identify their marketable job skills, develop resumes, practice interviewing, and learn how to navigate the online job application process. We focus on the importance of occupational identity in the transition process, and how both groups' current identities might be impacted by a career development experience. Such experiences allow students the opportunity to *practice* professional skills in a real world setting as opposed to a classroom (Marco-Gardoqui et al., 2020; Nikolova & Andersen, 2017). By qualitatively examining experiences of both groups, we aim to identify factors that influence career transition success.

Our study contributes to the literature in several ways. Importantly, this study uses SIT as a lens for viewing several concepts in the career transition process for veterans and students, primarily, the need for individuals to expand their occupational identities to consider new occupational possibilities as they make a successful transition. In addition, the SIT lens is used to consider stereotypes that are prevalent in the workplace, and how uniting the groups in a coaching context may serve to reduce negative stereotypes of both groups. We contribute to the career transition literature by revealing some perceived barriers U.S. military veterans may experience in the transition process. In addition, we lay out a roadmap that organizations or educators might use to develop applied career transition projects.

To date, research on career transitions has used theoretical underpinnings from vocational personalities (Kim & Beier, 2020), student career transitions (Burleson et al., 2021), social cognitive career theory (Savickas et al., 2018), and others. Despite the importance of one's identity in the career transition process, few researchers have considered SIT in explaining this phenomenon. We fill a research gap in the career transition literature specific to the process of transitioning occupational identities. Specifically, we consider how SIT might illuminate the career transition process for individuals seeking to change careers.

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

1. What factors specifically influence career transition?
2. How might SIT illuminate the career transition process for individuals seeking to change careers?
3. How does HR students' coaching impact veterans' career transition process, and reciprocally, how might veterans' experiences impact HR students?

Theory

Social Identity Theory and Career Transitions

SIT posits that individuals develop their identities in part through comparisons to relevant others and groups (Petitta & Jiang., 2020; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Association with a group of relevant others, with whom the individual perceives as similar, can enhance self-esteem and self-image while creating distinctions between the referent group (in-group) and other groups (out-group) (Hoffmann et al., 2020). Some of an individual's multiple social identities (e.g., ethnicity, religion, political affiliation, occupation), will be more relevant or important than others. In fact, some have argued that individuals may identify with certain occupations they have chosen more than with other social groups, such as gender, race, or religion (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

According to SIT, the self-concept is comprised of a personal identity, based on individual differences, and a social identity, which is comprised of "salient group classifications" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). Three social-psychological processes are subsumed within SIT: social categorization, social comparison, and social identification (Welbourne et al., 2017). Social categorization occurs when people assign themselves and others to categories based on specific salient attributes. Comparison occurs as individuals assess attributes, values, status, and rewards etc. of other groups in relation to their own. Social identity "is the perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). Once

individuals identify with a group, they are likely to take on characteristics of the prototypical member of that group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Thus, individuals may adopt the characteristics of groups with which they identify and have a difficult time shifting to a new identity (e.g. professional or social).

An occupational identity is a social identity that is based on being in a certain occupational group. The military may evoke particularly strong social identities (Opengart, 2021). Due to its mission, the military intentionally utilizes structured, institutionalized socialization processes that "are designed to foster loyalty and a collective identity based on shared norms, values, and beliefs…" (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011, p.503). To a lesser extent, students may strongly identify with the "student" occupational group. We argue that the strength of one's occupational identities becomes important when considering making a career transition, as part of the transition process requires individuals to imagine themselves as a member of a future in-group (the new occupational role) (Yates, 2017). Those whose occupational identity is deeply entwined with their personal identity may struggle more to imagine themselves in a different occupation, and/or may experience a sense of loss or "identity strain" when they are making a transition (Hamner, 2019).

The social categorization process results in individuals viewing the world as *us* and *them* (Tajfel, 1978; Yates, 2017). There are three factors that increase the tendency of individuals to identify with groups: the distinctiveness of the in-group; the prestige of the in-group, and the salience of the out-group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). According to Tajfel (1978) group members of an in-group (us) will seek to find negative characteristics of an out-group (them), which can interact with or lead to negative stereotypes. Social categories tend to be associated with specific expectations, known as stereotypes, which perceivers use to process and interpret incoming social information about another individual (He et al., 2019). This is a normal cognitive information processing function where individuals might exaggerate the differences between groups, the similarities of individuals within a group, and the way individuals view their own group (Tajfel, 1978; Yates, 2017). There is evidence that strong group identification may also result in discrimination against out-groups (Hong et al., 2004), and evidence that some stereotypes result in implicit bias (Fitzgerald et al., 2019). Thus, stereotypes are relevant when considering career transitions.

Veteran Career Transitions: Challenges and Opportunities

As of 2021, 18.8 million Americans qualified for veteran status; accounting for 8 percent of the U.S. population (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021). Although career transitions for veterans are similar in many ways to other job sectors, there are several challenges that veterans have in addition. Their challenges have been discussed extensively in the literature (see Gonzalez & Simpson, 2021 for a detailed review), but a few are worth noting here.

In the past, negative stereotypes of veterans were aligned with the public's opposition to participation in a war (e.g., Vietnam War) (Stone et al., 2018; Parrott et al., 2019). By contrast, contemporary negative stereotypes about veterans appear to be based on the potential war-related physical and/or psychological problems veterans might experience (Keeling et al., 2019; MacLean & Kleykamp, 2014, Parrott et al.,

2019). Stories of violent behavior of former combat veterans appear in the news and lead some to fear or avoid veterans (White et al., 2016). In addition, increased attention to veterans with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) compounds the prevalence of negative stereotypes (Stone et al., 2018). Negative stereotypes are further propagated by a lack of understanding of military culture, and a lack of employers' knowledge about jobs, skills, and certifications obtained in the military (Parrott et al., 2019; Stone & Stone, 2015; Stone et al., 2018). The limited research conducted in the area of veteran employment suggests that stereotypes may be a factor in their higher rates of unemployment (Shepherd et al., 2019). In fact, hiring managers are more likely to be resistant to considering veterans, and less likely to consider their military training to have resulted in skills that can transition to the civilian workplace (Opengart, 2021). Further, due to the strong collective group identity of the military, veterans may have trouble advocating for themselves individually in terms of selling their skills to potential employers (Opengart, 2021). Therefore, it is important for HR professionals to recognize this potential issue and proactively attempt to mitigate the use of negative stereotypes.

SIT is a helpful lens for understanding the career transition process. SIT posits that career transitions require people to cognitively shift their self-perceptions as an out-group member to that of an in-group member (Yates, 2017). Haynie and Shepherd (2011) utilized case studies of traumatically injured war veterans to better understand how such veterans transitioned from a military career in which they had envisioned long-term employment, to an entrepreneurial role. The authors defined this as a "discontinuous" career transition, as opposed to a more linear, incremental (protean) transition, such as traditional students transitioning from school to the professional workforce. Veterans who transitioned more successfully were more likely to cognitively link the competencies gained from the military with those needed in their new role. These competencies included not only knowledge, skills, and abilities, but also coping competencies. In contrast, those who did not transition successfully were more likely to be dismissive about the ability of their competencies to transfer to a new occupation, even after training. Thus, being able to shift one's identity from one occupation to a completely different one appears to be important. Yates (2017) referred to this as the ability to imagine the *possible self*.

Student Career Transitions: Challenges and Opportunities
SIT and the development of a professional identity has also been linked to the career transition process for students (Burleson et al., 2021). According to Burleson et al. (2021), the development of a strong professional identity should be a component of any professional program of study. They posit that the role of higher education is to provide opportunities to promote student participation in professional identity development programs. The development of entry level skills has traditionally been offered through firsthand experiences such as internships, cooperative partnerships, or service-learning (Harris, 2016). When students do not have real world experiences, potential employers may feel they are unable to pivot from college to the workforce (Chavan & Carter, 2018). Learning about one's profession (e.g. through coursework) and the development of a professional identity (e.g. through a program outside coursework) should occur simultaneously to be fully effective (Pratt et al., 2006).

Substantial research has examined the process of students transitioning from school to the workforce (Ng & Feldman, 2007; Klehe et al., 2021). Previous studies have used various career development theories to research student career transitions. These include, but are not limited to, Holland's theory of vocational personalities in the work environment, social cognitive career theory, the self-concept theory of career development, and career construction theory's full model of adaptation (Kim & Beier, 2020; Savickas et al., 2018; Burleson et al., 2021). The career development theories explain how people assess fit with certain careers, and identify tools, education, and methods used to adapt during the career transition process. Furthermore, career development theory encompasses career adaptability which is the ability to cope and be prepared for both predictable and unpredictable adjustments associated with changes at work and the work environment (Savickas, 1997). More recently, Donald et al. (2018) used career ecosystem theory stemming from career theory to explain student career perceptions of how university has prepared them for the global labor market.

Few researchers have considered SIT as a lens for understanding the role of the students' identity in their career development as they transition to the workforce. Ng and Feldman (2007) specified two important role identities necessary for a successful transition: the student role and the worker role. Similar to the military transition research above (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011), students must conceptualize that their current knowledge, skills, and abilities can transfer into their desired work role. Although social identity as a student may be strong, the transition process is likely less challenging for students than it is for veterans. Given that it is society's expectation as part of the maturation process that young people will inevitably transition from being students into being productive working adults, there are many structural supports for this transition. The challenge is for employers and educators to identify good, effective yet efficient learning opportunities that will help students practice the skills they need for successful transition (Klehe et al., 2021).

The Veteran's Resume Project and the Present Study
The Veterans Resume Project was conducted at a Veterans Administration Domiciliary (VA DOM) in a large Midwestern city. A domiciliary is a veteran's medical care facility where patients are housed for a variety of reasons for an extended period of time (e.g. weeks or months). At this VA DOM, ninety-five percent of the veterans looking to transition out of the VA system were unable to find full time employment, became homeless, and then ended up back in the VA DOM within six months. This vicious cycle was difficult for the veterans, the VA DOM employees, and utilized resources (e.g. societal & VA). Therefore, gaining full time, permanent employment was extremely important to the long-term health and welfare of program participants. Many veterans who had previously not received assistance with the job search process were discharged from the facility, became homeless, and returned to the VA DOM to repeat their treatment. The Veterans Resume Project was conducted from 2012 through 2020 and was initiated by the first author through a large Midwestern university. There were two goals: 1) to assist local veterans in their employment search, and 2) to offer students real world experience applying HR skills.

The students in the service-learning course were all HR students and met monthly at the VA DOM to work one-on-one with the veterans to assist with job search preparation and skills. Service-learning is a type of experiential learning in which students engage in structured, applied projects that promote learning and development, and at the same time, address human and community needs (Dumas, 2002). Students were tasked with helping veterans develop resumes, write cover letters, apply for jobs through online application systems, and acquire full-time civilian jobs. Such employment would allow veterans to support themselves and transition out of the VA system as their primary means of support.

Prior to joining the Veterans Resume Project, students were required to complete an 8-hour training course designed to aid their understanding of veterans' unique experiences, needs, and challenges. While some students had family members who were veterans, most had no prior knowledge of veterans and their experiences, the military, or the skills acquired while in the service. This training was offered in two parts: Part one focused on military acumen (e.g. acronyms, ranks), for the students needed this knowledge to successfully assist the veterans. This training also included topics such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), military certifications and how they might translate to the civilian workforce, and an introduction to the online search engines focused on military to civilian transition. Another key topic was battlefield experiences that could potentially lead to physical and psychological problems for war veterans.

Part two of the training covered detailed job interview techniques specifically geared toward veterans. Building on the information offered in the first part of the training, and then moving on to specific project steps, was key to success. The goal of this portion of the training was for students to become comfortable extensively interviewing veterans on their backgrounds and using the gathered information to coach them on job search skills. To do so, students took turns practicing interviewing each other while working with example veteran resumes. Detailed feedback was exchanged between the students and the professor until training was complete. If needed, additional training was offered until all students felt confident in their understanding. A total of 242 veterans and 112 students participated in the Veterans Resume Project.

Method

Study Design

To best understand participants' perceptions and experiences, we used a qualitative interpretive study design (Green & Thorogood, 2004). This approach was chosen because interpretive approaches focus on participants' interpretations of their experiences rather than trying to measure some objective reality. Prior to beginning this research IRB approval was obtained.

Participants

Upon completion of the service-learning course, students who had successfully completed the course were contacted via e-mail to participate in this research. E-mails were sent at the conclusion of each semester. A total of 112 students were invited to

participate, 32 responded favorably to the invitation, and the final sample consisted of 25 undergraduate students, 14 men and 11 women. Their ages ranged from 20 – 27, and all were majoring in HR.

All veterans who participated in the Veterans Resume Project were invited in person to participate. This occurred at the completion of each semester as was the case with the students. Nineteen participated in the final sample including 17 men and 2 women; their ages ranged from 30 – 58, and their average tenure in the military was 17 years. In keeping with IRB protocols, the research, procedures, and informed consent process were described to each participant. Prior to interviews all participants completed the informed consent document.

Procedure

The first and third authors conducted in-depth interviews in order to enable participants to reflect on their experiences while telling meaningful stories (Rovers et al., 2011). Interviews of the veterans and students were conducted on site at the VA DOM and lasted between 60-90 minutes. The interview questions were developed based on the literature surrounding career development. All interviews were recorded, transcribed verbatim, and the questions are noted below A. A total of 264 pages of transcribed data were included in the study.

Interview Questions for Participants

1. Why did you initially join the Veterans Resume Project?
2. What did you gain out of this project (experience)? Please give as many examples as possible.
3. As a volunteer (participant) in the Veterans Resume Project, can you share a high point moment from your experience? Why would you consider this a high point?
    A. Probe: Can you share a story when you felt a strong sense of purpose while working on this project? Specifically, what aspects of this project do you like? Dislike?
4. (Based on your observation) When do other volunteers (vets) in this project feel most engaged or passionate? Please share an example.
5. What challenges did you face while working on the Veterans Resume Project with the veterans (students)?

Analysis

Data were analyzed using a thematic content analysis approach (Green & Thorogood, 2004). This approach was chosen because it identifies recurrent themes through repeated examination and comparison. The central focus of content analysis is the development of meaning, intentions, consequences, and context surrounding data.

The content analysis process proceeded through four steps, conducted by the first and second authors, in order to demonstrate validity. Prior to analysis, member checking was completed with all participants to ensure the transcribed data were correct and captured their intended meaning. No changes were required. Each of the two participant groups was analyzed separately at first using the below referenced steps

and then cross analyzed to assess similarities. During the first analysis step, the first two authors read the transcripts independently to get a sense of the over-arching experiences the participants described. Second, we discussed each transcript, the major codes we initially saw, and what criteria should be used to assign each sentence fragment to a particular major code. Example codes and comments noted during this stage included: Helping others "I really enjoyed being helpful" (added to the meaningfulness theme), important discussions "We really spent time talking about their experience" (added to the coaching skills theme) and practice "You can't do this in the classroom" (added to the context specific HR skills theme). We discussed those that we disagreed upon until consensus was reached. Next, we independently conducted open coding to define and characterize the major themes; then fragments (phrases) were coded into the identified themes independently. Again, any disagreements were discussed until consensus was reached. The authors met a total of five times until a final list of themes was established and both researchers agreed. Themes that appeared to be recurring most frequently were identified (Green & Thorogood, 2004) (Table 1).

Results

Our analysis identified two general categories of experience: Career development and personal growth. Career development was divided into the following themes: coaching skills and context specific HR skills (e.g. working with student coaches; working with veterans). Each of these categories and themes emerged from both students and veterans and is analyzed through the perspective of both groups. From the student perspective, career development includes skills that are directly related to student HR coursework and could be directly transferable to the workplace. From the veteran perspective, career development focused on the methods, tools, and means that a veteran might use to seek civilian employment.

The personal growth category emerged from both the student and veteran perspective as well, and was divided into the following themes: meaningfulness, increased self-efficacy, identity shifting, and stereotypes of others. We offer exemplars for each theme and table 1 offers a summary of the categories, themes, and their definitions.

Table 1. Study Categories, Themes, Definitions, and Exemplars (Students & Veterans)

Categories	Themes	Definitions	Exemplars
Career development- refers to the process of choosing a career, improving one's skills, and advancing along a career path	Context specific HR skills	Knowledge and skills acquired outside the classroom that can be applied in a real-world job situation.	*I read about interviewing in class but, saw how important it was in this program (student).* *I am ready for an interview now (veteran).*
	Coaching	Advice and guidance intended to help develop the individual's skills, performance, and professional career.	*I helped him to see his potential (student).* *Now I get how my military certs [certifications] can be used outside (veteran).*
Personal growth – involves the personal impact from participation in the program.	Meaningfulness	Having purpose or finding significant value in an experience.	*This was the best experience in college by far (student).* *I feel like I can be useful again (veteran).*
	Self-efficacy	Belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or tasks.	*I know I can do this in the real world (student).* *I was so proud of my resume (veteran).*
	Stereotypes of others	A preconceived notion about a group of people.	*I thought they all had issues [problems] (student).* *They were nicer and more understanding than I thought before (veteran).*
	Shifting Identities	Shift from current professional identity to a new identity.	*I wasn't sure about my future but, now I can see myself in a career (student).* *I can be a civy (civilian) worker. I know I can now (veteran).*

Career Development

Our analysis first demonstrated the importance of students and veterans being able to actively engage in their own career development, and the coaching aspect of the Veterans Resume Project appears to be key. As noted above, career development refers to the process of choosing a career, improving one's skills, and advancing along a career path. It is a lifelong process of learning and decision-making, which brings an individual toward the goal of their ideal job, skillset, and lifestyle. How these experiences manifested for each participant varied, but ultimately the learning that occurred was based on the opportunity to *practice* within a real environment. The career development category was further delineated into two
themes noted below.

Context specific HR skills. The coaching process proved to be of great value for both the veterans and the students, as all were able to practice interviewing, writing (resumes & cover letters), and applying for actual positions. For example, the act of interviewing individuals beyond classroom exercises was completely new to the students. Interviewing skills, and the ability to effectively assess the background and abilities of potential applicants, is a foundational skill for HR professionals and difficult to acquire solely through the classroom (Plakhotnik & Rocco, 2006). The interview process often requires an element of detective work, where the interviewer listens carefully for clues about skills the resume may not clearly articulate. There also can be a learning curve on the part of the interviewer, because context specific acronyms, job titles, and certifications might be completely foreign to students (or interviewers). The interviews allowed students to practice what a majority of the students (n=22) previously saw as challenging real-world experiences (e.g. working with veterans) and learn what questions to ask in order to solicit the most beneficial information. For example,

> *"Discussing their skills, their experiences, and what they did in the military got them to come up with tasks that they did while on these jobs [military] and helped to fill in the empty spaces on their resume" (Student 5).*
> *"I found many of the vets had no idea how much experience they had in the military and how valuable it might be in general society" (Student 13).*

The interviews were also beneficial for the veterans. They gained insight into the types of questions they might be asked by a potential employer and had an opportunity to craft their responses in the most effective way. For example,

> *"He [the student] told me what it was like to do on an interview. The types of questions he was asked and how valuable it was to practice interviewing. He said that practice made perfect for him and he learned from each interview he went on. He also told me how terrified he was to be rejected. That really helped me. I am not the only person who is afraid clearly" (Veteran 5).*
> *"In the military we have our own language which people on the outside might not understand. She [the student] told me to use real language when explaining things to an interviewer and not to use all those letters" (Veteran 9).*

Coaching skills. For an HR professional, coaching is a training method in which a more experienced or skilled individual provides another employee with advice and guidance intended to help develop the individual's skills, performance, and/or advance in their professional career (Lin et al., 2016). During a coaching session, the coach works closely with the coached individual to understand their professional aspirations and to help them understand how their skills fit into specific occupations or organizations, to help the individual make transitions, and advance in an organization or field. This may require the coach facilitating an occupational identity shift in the coached worker.

The Veterans Resume Project focused on the career potential of the veterans, and often this was thought provoking for both the students and veterans. Student understanding of the military careers of the veterans was important as the students worked to match veterans with appropriate careers, companies, or open positions. For example, according to the students,

> *"These vets are so down on themselves, but what they don't realize, is how marketable they actually are. They have skills that employers would really be interested in. So, as HR people in the real world we might deal with people who at first don't seem marketable. Sometimes we just need to take the time to learn a bit more about them" (Student 11).*

Some veterans also had a very difficult time understanding how their military background might transfer to the civilian world. However, through the project process they began to see the connections and how the military experience could be used as a career development opportunity.

> *"I had all these certificates that were expired in the military. I worked really hard to get them, but they expired a long time ago. So, since they weren't current, I just forgot about them. He [the student] told me they still would be important to an employer because I had worked for and achieved a goal. Interesting" (Veteran 1).*

Personal Growth

Personal growth refers to those experiences that went beyond the career-oriented skills practice and impacted the participants on a deeply personal level. Beyond the applied HR experiences, the students and veterans appeared to acquire a great deal in terms of personal growth. The personal growth category was broken into four themes: meaningfulness, self-efficacy, identity shifting, and stereotypes of *others*.

Meaningfulness. Meaningful work involves engaging in work that is personally meaningful, supports personal growth, and contributes to the common good (Allan et al., 2017). To varying degrees, meaningfulness of the project was clearly an important aspect of the experience for all participants. For some students, the experience was meaningful because of their work with veterans; for other students and veterans, the experience shattered assumptions or stereotypes about each other. Still other

participants (students and veterans) discovered meaning surrounding their own self-image (e.g. their view of their own current or future ability). Students provided examples where they felt personally satisfied seeing the progress made by the veterans,

> *"I get such a high from working with the vets. After I leave, I think about the people I met, who I worked with, and the conversations. It is so fulfilling to see the looks on their faces when we finish their resume and print it out" (Student 11)*
> *"It may sound corny, but you leave here feeling like you have done something. You have been productive and helped someone with their life" (Student 3).*

Veterans also found meaning in the experiences, noted they found new friends, and felt the students truly cared about their struggles. Many expressed that they felt "heard."

> *"He [the student] told me about his struggle finding a job. I thought he would have an easy time finding jobs because he is a college boy, but he had a tough time too. We talked about being rejected, giving up, and ideas to find jobs. I don't know if you are a religious person, but he was like an angel to me right when I needed to hear that" (Veteran 2).*

Self-efficacy. Our analysis also found a number of examples where the self-efficacy of the participant may have increased through the Veterans Resume Project. Self-efficacy is belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or tasks (Combs & Luthans, 2007). One's sense of self-efficacy can play a major role in how one approaches goals, tasks, and challenges (Bandura, 1977; Combs & Luthans, 2007, Kao et al., 2020). Examples of self-efficacy were evident among students and veterans. For example, one student stated with respect to his being able to coach the veteran through the process,

> *"I gained experience doing things that we just practiced in classes. That was really a scary process at first for me but then I realized I could actually do this. When I go out there in the real world, I really think I will be a bit more prepared to do this" (Student 1).*

Some of the veterans demonstrated increased self-efficacy as well. For example,

> *"The vets are tough to wake up. We are beaten down, we have lots of problems, we are afraid of living on the street again. I would say the most awake I have seen them (vets) is when they print out their resume and walk down the hall with it" (Veteran 2).*

Often the veterans would return to visit the students even after they had completed the project in order to share their good news with the student who had helped them.

"It was a great feeling of accomplishment when a veteran would come back to tell us they had gotten a job" (Student 12).
"I just couldn't wait to tell her [the student] I got a job. We were in that [job search] together" (Veteran 3).

Shifting identities. This theme refers to instances where participants demonstrated examples where they began to shift from their current professional identity (e.g. student or veteran) to a new identity (e.g. HR professional or civilian worker). Such insights were demonstrated by more veterans (n = 10) than students (n = 8). For example, students demonstrated the shift from their role as a student and envisioned themselves in a professional career.

"*Now I can't wait to start my career. Now [after the project] I know I can work in HR"* (Student 10).

Some veterans also demonstrated an openness to shifting their professional identities:

"I am going to look into the construction field. It makes sense to me because I did that in the Navy" (Veteran, 18).
"Maybe I can be truck driver? I drove large trucks in the Army. I just need to get my CDL license" (Veteran, 16).

Stereotypes of others. At the inception of the project, both groups appeared to have preconceived stereotypes (positive and negative) about the other group, and some expressed surprise to learn their initial stereotypes were possibly incorrect. Only 3 participants (students) expressed positive stereotypes about the other group, and both groups expressed initial negative stereotypes. For example, from the students (n = 22),

 "I heard veterans often have criminal backgrounds" (Student 1).
"I heard they all have PTSD and that can't be fixed. So why anyone would go into the military and end up that way? I have no idea?" (Student 9).

Negative stereotypes from the veterans with respect to students was also quite prevalent (n = 19).

 "These are college students. They have money, cars, great lives, and really don't know us at all. Why should they care about us" (Veteran 4)?

"I assumed all college students are not nice, and [are] snobby" (Veteran 8).

What was particularly interesting were the examples where negative stereotypes, held either by students or veterans, shifted based on the service-learning experience.

"I didn't know about military people before. All I learned about them was from the news and I thought they were homeless drug addicts. I learned so much from hearing their stories and they are not as bad as I had heard" (Student 3).

Veterans also demonstrated stereotyping shifts.

"He [student] treated me like a human being. He looked at me with respect. He took the time to listen to me, make suggestions, and tell me about his own job search issues. I was really surprised how kind he was to me and seemed to actually care about my goal" (Veteran 2).

Discussion

The aim of the present study was to examine the impact of career development activities on two groups, military veterans and students, in the context of a service-learning project, and to consider these impacts through the lens of SIT. This is the first study using SIT as a lens to examine these two groups and the results offer two key contributions to the SIT and career transition literatures. First, we contribute to the career transition literature, particularly for military veterans, and qualitatively demonstrate the "how and why" this might link with social identity social identity (e.g. specifically identity shifting) may play a role in their career transition process. Second, we contribute to the stereotype/implicit bias literature by demonstrating how negative assumptions about groups might be mitigated by encouraging distinctly different populations to work together and re-categorize others in a more positive light. We also offer insight into ways individuals might re-categorize themselves. The results also offered surprising insight into how a career development and coaching activity could serve as a mechanism to help those making career transitions to expand their professional identities.

Career Transition and Identity Shifting

Relevant to the first research question guiding this study, the findings demonstrate the importance of examining how individuals may shift their identity in the career transition process. Previous research has demonstrated the importance of an individual's identity and how this links with one's career (Dutton et al., 1994; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). An identity *shift* was certainly evident within the student sample, where several began to see themselves more as HR professionals and less as college students. However, for students, the shift was less drastic and appeared to be more easily accepted by the participants. This might be because students are often passive consumers of information and understand their role as a student is to become a professional upon graduation (Ng & Feldman, 2007). They often spend their years as an undergraduate preparing for the transition through internships or classroom activities. Therefore, the process of shifting from a student identity to a workforce identity might be a more natural shift.

However, the identity shift for the veterans appeared to be more dramatic and surprising to both groups of participants. The student participants began to see the skills and abilities of the veterans and how they would transfer to the civilian workforce. The

veterans saw the empathy of the students and through conversation began to see their own ability to successfully transition beyond the military. This ability to shift will be key to the success of both groups, but especially for the veterans. Previous research has demonstrated a strong interconnectedness between a veteran's sense of self and their career success (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011). Veterans often strongly identify with the military even after they have left the service (Hamner, 2019) and the termination of their military career can challenge their self-identity; making them feel alienated, hopeless, and full of despair. To an extent, those leaving the military might go through a grieving process on *what once was* and be unable to see *what might be* in the future. Haynie and Shepherd (2011) describe those transitioning out of the military as individuals going through a discontinuous career transition where the traditional methods of career exploration might not be appropriate.

Most previous research on military veterans has focused on the impact of their individual differences and how such differences might predict a successful transition to the civilian workforce. Individual differences are important; however, it is also important for veterans to *visualize* themselves beyond the military in order to successfully transition (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011). This research extends SIT by demonstrating the importance of identity shifting and not simply recognition of an established social identity (e.g. an established self- categorization which is static). Currently SIT does not address how individuals progress toward an identity shift; however, these data demonstrate identity shift might be especially relevant to groups which possess particularly strong group identities (e.g. military veterans) and often find themselves *frozen* in an identity and unable to transition to a new career.

We also offer additional empirical support to the career transition literature and the challenges experienced by veterans (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011). We extend on this research to demonstrate how a veteran own self- image might be an additional challenge which should be examined. This is especially relevant for two reasons. First, many veterans experience trauma during their military service, and previous research has demonstrated trauma to be a subsequent career constraint (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011). Second, the socialization process of the military is designed to develop a self-identity which is strongly aligned with the military (Budd, 2007; Hale, 2008; Lande et al., 2007).

Career Transition and Stereotypes

Another very interesting contribution from this study was the shifting of stereotypes: that is, the reduction of negative stereotypes based on two very different groups of individuals working together with a common goal. These findings support research question one again. Both students and veterans expressed that their initial assumptions about the other changed the more they talked and shared experiences. These one-on-one conversations between the two groups, the sharing of challenges, opportunities, and stories seemed to be key to the process of seeing the reality of the *other*. Through such conversations the negative stereotypes seemed to dissipate, and the potential and value of the *other* were more apparent.

Certainly, these findings are in line with the contact hypothesis (Allport, 1954) which proposed personal experience with a stereotyped group would minimize any

negative stereotypes individuals might have about another group of individuals (Schreiber et al., 2014). However, we propose our findings are unique because we examine two distinct groups of individuals who probably would not necessarily have experience working together in most situations unless compelled to do so. Therefore, relevant to the second research question, we extend SIT (Tajfel, 1978) and demonstrate the categorization process is malleable at the group level. Through this experience the two groups were able to see the other as less of an outgroup member by re-categorizing them through the coaching conversations. Such experiences might apply to other groups which might not cross paths. Stereotypes in organizations can be challenging and might be present between individuals from different cultures, different generations, or in different disciplines (e.g. accounting vs. marketing). An experience such as the coaching activity utilized in this study might therefore be of value to organizations seeking to *break down* some of the *us* against *them* which is in many organizational cultures.

Practical Implications

The Veterans Resume Project has had a notable impact on both the veterans and the students. These findings support research question three. Since the inception of the program, 119 of the total 242 veterans found full-time employment. This equates to a 49 percent success rate (veterans who participated in Veterans Resume Project) which stands in stark contrast to the previous 2 percent success rate prior to the Veterans Resume Project. The impact on the students has also been significant, and many have continued to be involved with the project as volunteers after their course ended. Students developed listening and coaching skills, found their way through often difficult conversations, guided veterans through a reflective process on their skills, and developed their own HR competencies. The experience gave the students a level of understanding of the context of veteran experiences (e.g. life in the military, certification, war experience) which may motivate them to actively seek veterans for positions in their future organizations (Opengart, 2021).

The findings of this research demonstrate how social identities and perceived stereotypes can possibly be changed through career development programs. Our data demonstrate methods organizations could use to integrate groups (e.g. underrepresented minorities, disabled) into their workforce. Such approaches could potentially be adapted to other reentry populations (e.g. mothers reentering the workforce, ex-offenders). These groups are often hindered in their job search by negative stereotypes and also the dramatic changes in the employment process (e.g. technological changes) since they were last employed.

Perhaps rather than simply teaching veterans how to apply for jobs in the civilian world they need to be coached on how to develop a new occupational identity, (i.e., to visualize themselves in an occupational role outside the military). Instruction on how to shift their social identity when they are seeking civilian employment is not included in career transition programs, and not examined in the literature. Through this study's coaching opportunities, veterans began to visualize themselves in the civilian workforce and develop a new self-narrative. Research has demonstrated one's narrative repertoire (or their own story of who they are) can be adjusted through feedback from others

(Ashforth et al. 2001; Ibarra, 2004; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010). Through conversations with students, the veterans were able to revise their self-narratives and begin to develop a new role identity in the civilian workforce. These coaching sessions gave new insight into their abilities, how their military skills might be transferable into the civilian workforce and offered them a new positive understanding of their military experiences. Veterans who were able to see themselves through a new identity were the most successful in transitioning to a new civilian role (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011).

Future Research & Limitations

Future research might consider a pre/post-test design in order to capture the degree of impact through the career development experience on both student and veteran participants regarding stereotypes, self-efficacy, and job search knowledge. Another area worth consideration might assess similar projects on other populations with strong social identities and those who might have difficulty shifting careers. We propose studying of mechanisms that might influence individuals to shift their identities toward new careers. Saks and colleagues (1994) note the importance of "anticipatory socialization" where new employee expectations on the new position might be set (or we posit reset) prior to beginning a new job or career.

Conclusion

The Veteran Administration is challenged to find adequate support for veterans transitioning from military to civilian employment. However, many of the traditional career development mechanisms are not adequate to successfully assist veterans in their move to full time employment. We propose career development programs assisting veterans should seek ways to assist them in shifting their social identity as part of the career development process. Such programs may have other benefits, such as the mitigation of stereotypes, and be of value to other groups that have difficulty transitioning from one career to another. This research offers ways to bridge a number of gaps in the career transition literature and offers ways SIT might offer insight into a unique population.

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How do International Service-Learning programs attend to linguistic difference? A review of literature

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ABSTRACT

To understand how ISL addresses linguistic difference between participants and host communities, a qualitative content analysis of recent peer-reviewed articles in which programs were described as having addressed linguistic difference. Nearly half of the literature did not explicate how language was addressed. Across 25 programs, seven methods were identified. Programs most commonly involved participant language lessons and utilizing participants' extant second language skills. ISL programs were found to value participants' second language skills more than found in previous reviews, contradicting a pattern of general indifference. This review advocates providing participants language lessons and critical linguistic awareness, moving towards a plurilingual reciprocity. Constituting an initial step, this review urges further exploration of cross-linguistic communication and greater critical reflexivity on the topic of linguistic difference in ISL programs.

Reciprocity is accepted as a tenet of ISL (Bamber, Phil, 2011; Bamber, Philip M., 2015; Bartleet et al., 2019; Clayton et al., 2010; Dostilio, Lina D. et al., 2012; Lough & Toms, 2018; Nguyen, 2017; Pisco, 2015; Sherraden et al., 2013). A recent concept review within ISL publications explored the usages of the term, finding three orientations being deployed (Dostilio, L. D. et al., 2012). Some ISL programs (heretofore, "programs") employed an exchange orientation, in which, "reciprocity is the interchange of benefits, resources, or actions" (p. 19).The second orientation sees reciprocity as influence on the process and/or outcomes, in which, "reciprocity is expressed as a relational connection that is informed by personal, social, and environmental contexts" (p. 20). The third orientation is generativity, in which, "participants (who have or develop identities as co-creators) become and/or produce something new together that would not exist otherwise" (p. 20), whereas the term "participants" is inclusive of host community members.

Reciprocity, in whichever orientation(s), depends upon communication. Acknowledging this fact means that the quantity, quality, and distribution of the communication matter. Humans communicate through language, so we must recognize the constitutive role that language plays in reciprocity. Because ISL administers programs that are global and immersive (Hartman & Keily, 2014), communication within programs often transpires across either languages or dialects. Even when sending English-speaking participants to English-speaking host communities, mutual intelligibility is not guaranteed *a priori* (Deterding, D. & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Deterding,

David, 2013; Nelson, 1995; Rajadurai, 2007; van der Walt, 2000). In this view, the term cross-linguistic will be hereto used as encompassing of cross-dialect communication to conserve words, although the two are not synonymous.

Post-structuralist theories of language recognize language as both instrumental and symbolic. Such theories acknowledge that, "language itself is not only a linguistic system of signs and symbols, but also a complex social practice through which relationships are defined, negotiated, and resisted" (Atkinson, 2011, p. 77). Within ISL programs, Nieusma & Riley (2010) posited, "when language is viewed merely as a logistical concern rather than a critical site of power relations, the consequences for process, project, and social justice are likely considerable" (Nieusma & Riley, 2010, p. 53). One clear articulation of this view was made by former United Nations Secretary General Boutros Boutros Ghali. He theorized:

> "We all know that forcing international civil servants, diplomats or ministers to express themselves in a language that is not theirs amounts to putting them in a situation of inferiority. It deprives them of the capacity for nuance and refinement, which amounts to making concessions to those who speak that language as a mother tongue. Also, we all know that concepts that look similar often differ from one civilization to the next. For instance, the word democracy in English doesn't refer to the same concept as the word démocratie in French. Words express a culture, a way of thinking and a world view. For all these reasons, I think that much in the way democracy within a state is based on pluralism, democracy between states must be based on plurilingualism" (Barlow & Nadeau, 2006, p. 350-1).

This passage recognizes that language itself can democratize or marginalize people within collaborations. For pedagogies like ISL which bring people together across cultures, issues of communication are of critical importance. Whether programs enact or strive for Ghali's plurilingual ideal, or even acknowledge the power differentials embedded in language, reflects on the reciprocity being practiced on the linguistic level.

Language exerts a constitutive influence on reciprocity within ISL even if ISL programs overlook language's importance. As such, language is a critical space for investigation. Bringing communication out of obscurity reveals previously unasked questions that are salient to reciprocity. Among them are questions of the quantity and quality of communication, but principally, the question of whose linguistic proficiencies are availing the interchange, co-creation, and/or relationship building (i.e. reciprocity) within ISL programs. Also important to pedagogies of critical internationalization like ISL is critical self-awareness, including linguistic self-awareness. Before these questions can be investigated, an initial step is simply to understand how programs addressed issues of linguistic difference between ISL program learners/students who travel abroad (heretofore "participants") and "host community (members)" to whom participants travel.

Previous ISL reviews

Recent reviews of ISL programs depict it as largely indifferent to issues of language. In one recent review of 12 programs, developing participants' language proficiencies were neither program goals nor issues that arose within projects

(RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1803). Another review of 41 articles (Dixon, 2015) identified only 3 programs in which increased foreign language skills were recognized as program outcomes (Main et al., 2013; Metcalf, 2010; Urraca et al., 2009). A survey of ISL community of practice found that neither participants' language proficiencies nor issues of linguistic difference were crucial concerns (Lough & Toms, 2018). A review of "global citizenship" programs found that few programs included a foreign language study requirement (Aktas et. Al, 2017, p. 72). What remains to be explored is how programs that acknowledged the existence of linguistic difference between participants and host community members addressed this difference. Only then can an assessment of program's reciprocity -on the linguistic level- become available.

Scope of the Review

Focus Question

To understand ISL programs' method of addressing linguistic difference, the following focus question was investigated: Of programs in which language differences were acknowledged, how were issues of linguistic difference explicitly attended to?

To gain a complete picture of how programs addressed linguistic differences between participants and host community members, research would need to undertake direct examination of all ISL programs globally, were it possible. Conversely, a sample or programs could be reviewed, yet its findings would not reflect ISL as a whole. Instead, reviewing programs as described in recent peer-reviewed, English-language publications avails an initial assessment of a sample of programs with a global reach, since academic journals generally welcome submissions globally. This review of secondary sources followed previous reviews of ISL literature and programs (Dixon, 2015; Mitchell, 2008; Taylor, J., 2002).

Answering this focus question required a multistep process to delimit the data set. To overview, recent ISL articles were gathered then examined to produce a set of articles that focused on individual programs. Secondly, references to methods of addressing linguistic difference were identified. Articles excluding such data were excluded. Thirdly, programs' methods of address linguistic difference were analyzed and categorized. The findings represent counts of discrete programs using each method of addressing linguistic difference. Findings are reported as raw numbers and as percentages of programs addressing linguistic difference.

Delimiting the Data Set

Collecting Articles. Searches were done of peer-reviewed articles published between 2010-2020 using EBSCOHOST's ERIC Database. Article abstracts and titles were searched for the truncated search terms, with and without hyphens: "global service learn*", "international service learn*", "international community service learn*", "global community service learn*", and "service learn* abroad". All yielded articles were treated as ISL literature. Abstracts were read for indications of an ISL program, which was operationally defined as a program 1) that had occurred in the past, and 2) that brought participants physically across international borders relative to the participants' home institution. Included were articles on programs from institutions beyond the U.S./

English-speaking countries. Also included were articles focusing on the host community members within an ISL program, having met these two criteria (Gates et al., 2014; Grain et al., 2019; Maakrun, 2016; O'Sullivan, M. et al., 2019; Reynolds, N. P., 2014).

Searches yielded 83 discrete publications, of which 30 were excluded. The remaining 53 constituted the data set. Seven articles were excluded because details of individual programs were unavailable: two literature reviews (RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1803; Dixon, 2015); three sets of aggregated data from multiple universities (Niehaus & Crain, 2013; Soria et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2016), and two sets of data aggregated over 16-20 years (Bamber, Philip M., 2015; Tolar & Gott, 2012). Ten articles' programs did not physically cross international borders (Bamber, Philip M., 2016; Doppen & Tesar, 2012; Hosman & Jacobs, 2018; Konieczny, 2017; Messner et al., 2016; Metcalf, 2010; Sanmiguel et al., 2019), including three programs within indigenous communities in the country of the home institution (Bartleet et al., 2019; Locklin, 2010), or semi-autonomous regions within that country (Weick et al., 2015). Rightly or wrongly, these programs were exclusions to avoid complicated, sensitive issues of national sovereignty. Thirteen articles were not focused on specific past programs (RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1875; Aktas et al., 2017; Bamber, Phil, 2011; Crabtree, 2013; Lightfoot & Lee, 2015; Lough & Toms, 2018; Morrison, 2015; Nguyen, 2017; Reynolds, N. R., 2019; Rubin & Matthews, 2013; Sherraden et al., 2013; Streets et al., 2015; Yoder, 2016).

Identifying Programs. A total of 49 discrete programs were identified from the 53 articles. Best efforts were made to identify singular programs. General parameters of a program were set around academic credit, or ISL experience for non-credit bearing programs, rather than by location or recurrence. No article was found to report on multiple programs. Four programs were identified as reported on within two articles: a program to South Africa (Czop Assaf et al., 2019; Lussier et al., 2019) to Malaysia and China (Power, 2013; Power et al., 2017), to Ecuador (Taylor, K. B. et al., 2017; Taylor, K. B. et al., 2018), and Global Studies program requiring a ISL experience (RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1841; Garcia & Longo, 2013). Conversely, one author team was found to have published two articles examining distinct programs (O'Sullivan, M. et al., 2019; O'Sullivan, M. W. & Niemczyk, 2014).

A program was counted as a singular program, even if it dispatched participants to multiple locations abroad to perform different service activities, if participants received the same academic credit or programmatically-unified experience, like an internship (Larsen, 2017) or placements for a singular academic requirement (Akhurst, 2016; Power et al., 2017). One program recurred over multiple years in the same host community abroad (Brown, B. G. et al., 2018; Keino et al., 2010), and another recurred in a different host community but belonging to one academic program (O'Sullivan, M. et al., 2019; Reynolds, N. P., 2014). Another program involved undergraduate and graduate students (Taylor, K. B. et al., 2017), while another was jointly run by two institutions of the same country (Luna et al., 2018).

Roughly half of the articles reviewed did not describe the methods by which programs addressed issues of linguistic difference and were excluded from this review. For each of the 25 programs that addressed linguistic difference (hereafter 'programs addressing language'), best efforts were made to generate a program profile. These

profiles, while extraneous to answering the FQ, were provided for practitioners' viewing. See Appendix A for explanation, prior to Appendix B, which includes program profiles within the full analyzed dataset.

Identifying Linguistic Difference Data. The 49 discrete programs were reviewed to survey the ways that programs addressed issues of linguistic difference. In each article, references to language were located using the search terms "language", "lingu* (bilingual, linguistic, etc.), "communicat*", "interpret", "translat*", "broker", "facilitator", "speak*", "spoke" and where applicable, the dominant language of the host country, e.g. "Spanish", "Swahili", etc. Each found usage was read for relevance to this review's interest. In total, 25 discrete programs addressing language were identified.

Disregarded were search terms appearing in articles' literature reviews, references to language as discourse; e.g., "language of the academe" (Jameson et al., 2011, p. 272), and ambiguous or implicit references to language proficiencies (Miller & Gonzalez, 2010, p. 33), or language courses that may have been required (Martinsen et al., 2010). Also excluded were references to language made uniquely by/ about individual participants as reported in reported data (journals, interviews, etc.) (Acquaye & Crewe, 2012, p. 779; Grain et al., 2019, p. 29).

As a study of secondary sources, it was necessary to discern between the references to the research and to the program. In one excluded case, a bilingual author might have served as a program's interpreter (Nickols et al., 2013). Three article explicated the author's role as translator/interpreter in conducting the research, but not a program's implementation (Gates et al., 2014; Reynolds, N. P., 2014; Wu, 2018). One of these studies explained the language proficiencies of student researchers – conducting research with host community members regarding their involvement in a prior ISL program-, but not of the program participants themselves (Gates et al., 2014).

Method of Analysis

Distinguishing Methods of Addressing Linguistic Difference. Identified evidence of a program's addressing linguistic difference were analyzed using qualitative content analyses of the data set (Merriam, 2009, p. 205). In this method of inductive analysis, *a priori* categories guide a study, yet categories are anticipated to emerge from the data. In this review, three such *a priori* categories were utilized: programs that 1) sent participants into host communities that were explicitly identified as English-speaking, 2) developed participants' second language proficiencies in a language of the host community, and 3) did neither. From these a priori categories, a total of seven discrete analytic categories emerged, each representing methods by which programs addressed linguistic difference.

Enumerating each, one method was a program's explicit recognition that host community members spoke English language or the country of the host community was officially English-speaking (1: "HSE"). If, for example, it was not explicated that Kenya is an officially anglophone nation, then the program sending participants to Kenya was not counted as "HSE" because the issue of linguistic difference was marginalized. A program was identified as using "HSE" even if the host community members were identified as non-native speakers of English, and even if participants were from an

institution in a non-native English-speaking country (Hsiung, 2015; Wu, 2018). No program was found to use this method from institutions located in predominantly non-English speaking country, using an alternative language (e.g. a Spanish university sending participants to Mexico, an officially Spanish-speaking country).

A second method was that a primary service activity of a program was teaching 'our' language (2: "PSTL2"). Since Chinese language teaching was found to be a primary service activity in one program, the term "our language" was used to broaden the category beyond English teaching. Whether in English or Chinese, the service performed is singular: native speaker participants teaching language skills to non-native speaker host community members. Questions of membership and ownership of a language are crucial but require separate study.

A third method, distinct from "HSE", were programs' recognition of participants' extant language proficiencies in a language of the host community (3: "PL2"). Monolingualism is not universal, and thus this article uses the indefinite article "a language". To give ISL the benefit of the doubt, this review accepted as PL2 programs with unspecified amounts/ periods of study (Amerson, 2012), any number of participants -even a singular participant (Jones & Ceccucci, 2018), or even hints that participants had relevant language proficiencies (Foster et al., 2015). Programs from institutions in non-native English-speaking countries that utilized participants' extant English proficiencies, to travel to English-speaking host communities, were recognized as "PL2" (Hsiung, 2015; Wu, 2018). "PL2" was distinct from "PSTL2" because the latter indicates that the learners from the host community are at least emergent bilinguals (Rodriguez et al., 2014, p. 17), but does not necessarily implicate any level of proficiency among participants.

A fourth method was programs' inclusion of predeparture language lessons (4: "LLPD"), which differs from "PL2". In "PL2", participants' proficiencies were developed prior to and/or independent of a program's language lessons ("LLPD"/ "LLWA"). Such development could have recognized by a program's language requirement. Here, requirement does not mean requiring participants' attendance at predeparture meetings in which language lessons were offered ("LLPD"), nor (fifthly,) does it mean that programs required or included language lessons while participants were abroad (5: "LLWA"). Rather "requirement" indexed that programs explicitly required of participants a level of language proficiency or completed a period of language study ("PL2") to participate.

For example, programs that required participants to have finished 4 semesters of prior language study was counted as recognizing participants' extant second language proficiencies ("PL2"), but not necessarily including predeparture language lessons ("LLPD") because the four completed semesters of study occurred independently from the ISL. Conversely, one program required applicants to demonstrate their extant second language proficiencies ("PL2 *req") prior to being selected, then required participants to take a language predeparture language course ("LLPD") (Hsiung, 2015). These and other example are identifiable by the label ("PL2 *req") in Tables 3 and 6. For programs including language lessons while participants were abroad ("LLWA"), even general indications of informal language learning being a programmatic element were recognized in this review. Distinct from this method was a sixth method, including

lessons "about" language(s) (6: "LALWA"), in which participants developed critical knowledge about the host community's linguistic landscape, distinct from developing communicative proficiencies in a second language.

The seventh, final method was programs' use of (a/an) translator(s)/ interpreter(s) (hereto, "interpreter(s)"), (7: "T/I"). This category groups together translators, who transfer the content, style, etc. of a written text (not spoken) from the source language into the target language (United Nations, 2020b), together with interpreters, who do so for spoken communication (United Nations, 2020a). "T/I" included only programs using individuals, whether named or unnamed, hired or volunteered, so long as 1) they performed translation/ interpretation and 2) were not participants. Programs in which participants with second language proficiencies acted as translators/ interpreters were categorized not as "T/I", but as "PL2" (Grain et al., 2019, p. 27). It was also noted whether the identities of interpreters were named within the article, a distinction which is noted in the findings but not treated as an eighth category.

When delimiting programs using interpreters, one program utilized the translation skills of both translators/ interpreters ("T/I") and a participant ("PL2") (Jones & Ceccucci, 2018). Another program used groups of individuals (Sharpe & Dear, 2013), and another used a professor/ trip leader/ article author as interpreter for the ISL trip (Reynolds, N. P., 2014). One ambiguous case arose with one program that not clearly identifying the translators/ interpreters, requiring a determination made in view of other linguistic difference data (Luna et al., 2018). Only considered were references to translation in programs that had taken place, and not future iterations (Nickols et al., 2013).

To further understand how programs addressed linguistic difference, once programs' methods were identified, the review also made note of the number of programs using each method as the singular method for addressing linguistic difference. Within the programs incorporating, "language lessons" ("LLPD", "LLWA"), a further distinction emerged over the nature of the language lesson. Two poles became clear around formal language lessons on one hand and informal language lessons on the other. Formal language lessons were identified as a program's self-description of its language study as "formal", indications of a course name or number, or classes that demonstrated they occurred with regularity and were scheduled, not simply incidental, sporadic, or occurring once. Reporting/ alluding to individual participants were keen on language study and had reached an advanced level were not counted as a programmatic commitment to language study, and thus not "formal language lessons".

Assumptions of the Study

Following a prior review of secondary sources in ISL (RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1803), this type of review is not without limitations. It reports from publications on programs, not from programs directly. Publications are not mere documentation of past programs, but rather focus on specific aspects of programs. Inconsistent reporting of how programs addressed linguistic difference language is demonstrated through the direct quotes from articles within findings tables. Nonetheless, this review's modest contribution is an initial but useful assessment.

This review made assumptions about the data set. Analysis assumed that programs' methods of addressing linguistic difference are accurately reflected in articles. Locating pertinent information across a diversity of articles required sorting articles' research from the program it reported on. For example, one article mentioned the use of an interpreter, but in a way that was ambiguous if the interpreter was used for the research or during the ISL program (Grain et al., 2019; Maakrun, 2016). This review only took an interest in the latter.

Assuming that communication, and thus language, are crucial to reciprocity, this review presumed that linguistic differences matter, even for programs dispatching participants to English-speaking countries or societies. This review believes that the mutual comprehensibility of English dialects/ varieties cannot be assumed (Kachru, 2008). Moreover, that a country is 'officially' English-speaking often belays linguistic realities, particularly within postcolonial societies which are often multilingual/ multidialectal. Because communication is a cornerstone of reciprocity, no *a priori* presumption should be made about the mutual intelligibility of English dialects, and the intelligibility of English dialects -particularly in a global, immersive context- must be explicated. This review made no assumptions about host communities being English-speaking "HSE" without an article author's explicit identification as such.

Concerning terminologies, "second language" was chosen to align with recent definitions from the field of Second Language Acquisition (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 21-22), a field that acknowledges the inherent shortcomings of all labels. Here, "second language" referred to a language/ dialect that was used by the host community, but not predominantly used by the country in which the ISL institution was located. The term did not encompass all second language proficiencies but only those pertinent to interactions with the host community. For example, the French proficiencies of a U.S. participant within a Spanish-speaking host community were not considered as "second language" in this study (nor did such an example surface in the data, of a second or third+ language.) In the case of non-native English-speaking participants -as identified in the article- traveling to an English-speaking host community -as identified in the article-, English was considered a "second language".

Using this operational definition of "second language", the review did not exclude participants with diverse linguistic backgrounds, such as non-native English-speaking domestic students (Liu & Lee, 2011). Such populations are linguistically-talented, and deserve more, focused scholarly attention. Likewise, this review also used the term, "proficiencies", which is preferable to "fluent", "competent", or "Spanish-speaking", etc. because it encompasses 'fluency', or the ability to produce "(flowing, natural) language" which alone does not guarantee 'accuracy', or the ability to produce "clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically correct language" (Brown, H. D., 2007). Also, the term "multilingual" in this study refers to people who use more than one language.

Lastly, this review assumed that, because communication is foundational in reciprocity, the programs using multilingual interpreters/ translators were greatly impacted by the subjectivities and credentials of these individuals, knowingly or not. Implicit in this assumption is the expectation that articles reporting on program of ISL, a pedagogy that values reciprocity, should report the names and credentials of interpreters/ translators.

Findings

From 49 identified programs in recent peer-reviewed articles on ISL, it was found that 25 programs addressed linguistic difference. Among the 25 programs, seven methods emerged from the data. See Table 1. The most common of the seven methods was a program's recognition of participants' extant second language proficiencies (10, or 40% of programs addressing language, hereto unrepeated). However, this top ranking is replaced with "language learning lessons" if the two discrete methods of pre-departure and while abroad language lessons ("LLPD", "LLWA") were aggregated into one method, (11, or 44%). See Table B (Appendix B) for the full dataset.   Following was a program's use of (a/n) translator(s)/ interpreter(s) (8, or 32%). Within this method, the identities and credentials of interpreters were absent in all but two programs (, or 8% of programs).

Table 1 How Programs Addressed Linguistic Difference

Linguistic difference addressed by…	# of programs	% of programs addressing linguistic difference	# of programs using only this one method	% of programs addressing linguistic difference using only this method	Abbreviation in Table 5
recognizing participants' extant second language proficiencies in a language of the host community	10	40%	3	12%	PL2 /PL2*req
using translator/ interpreter	8	32%	5	20%	T/ I
recognizing host community members' English proficiencies	7	28%	3	12%	HSE
language lessons occurring while abroad	6	24%	2	8%	LLWA
predeparture languages lesson occurring	5	20%	1	4%	LLPD
…the primary service activity was teaching "our" Language	5	20%	2	8%	PSTL2
lessons "about" language(s) occurring while abroad	1	4%	0	0%	LALWA

Analyzing data differently, it was found that 16 of the 25 programs addressing language did so using only one method (64%). Mostly commonly, using an interpreter was the sole method of addressing linguistic difference, found in 5 of the 25 programs (20%). See Table 1 for a reporting of these findings and the abbreviation used to index each method within Table B (Appendix B), which presents the complete, analyzed data set.

Discussion

This review offers a preliminary examination of ISL programs' relation to issues of linguistic difference as described in recent peer-reviewed articles. Within the dataset, it was found that 44% of program actively developed participants' second language proficiencies. This finding contradicts the pattern of general indifference within ISL to participants' second language proficiencies and presents a less clear picture of ISL's relationship to issues of linguistic difference. Previous reviews of programs found that participants' second language proficiencies were rarely programmatic goals (RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1803), requirements (Aktas et. Al, 2017, p. 72), outcomes (Dixon, 2015), or even concerns among practitioners (Lough & Toms, 2018). The general disinterest in linguistic difference signals an underappreciation of the role of communication in reciprocity. Conversely, this review found that most programs were not engaged in developing participants' second language proficiencies, which may have been rooted in beliefs that issues of linguistic difference are sufficiently mitigated when programs' 1) utilize interpreters/ translators 2) select English-speaking host communities, or 3) select primary service activities that teach "our language". All three beliefs are problematic vis-à-vis reciprocity.

Taking each in turn, using interpreters/ translators is no panacea to the critical inequalities inherent in cross-linguistic communication. One ISL article posited, "language embodies the intellectual wealth of the people who speak it, and it is used to construct meaning in ways that are natural and relevant to the needs dictated by the local society » (Garcia & Longo, 2013p. 119). In this view, not using one's language represents an impoverishment. Remembering Ghali's problematizing the equivalence of English's *democracy* and French's *démocratie*, translation is not beyond reproach (Barlow & Nadeau, 2006, p. 350-1). Acknowledging the impossibility of a full translation of cultural concepts, one author used untranslated Spanish concepts in an English-language article on one ISL program (Reynolds, N. P., 2014p. 87). Even "international service learning" as a translated, transcultural concept should be problematized (Morrison, 2015; Nguyen, 2017).

Venuti (2012) posited, "the ethically and politically motivated translator cannot fail to see the lack of an equal footing in the translation process, stimulated by an interest in the foreign, but inescapably leaning towards the receptor" (Venuti, 2012, p. 483). In other words, interlocutors *to* whomever language are being translated are privileged relative to interlocutors whose words are being translated *from*.   Complications resulting from interpretation were reported within one ISL program (Brown, B. G. et al., 2018, p. 18-19), which suggests that they impacted other programs but went unreported or possibly unrecognized by programs aware of the centrality of communication to reciprocity. However subtle, the shifts that translation produces, within the context of

ISL, cannot but impact reciprocity, particularly the orientation of *co-creation*, which "emphasizes shared voice and power" (Jameson et al., 2011, p. 264). Without the counterbalancing of other methods of addressing linguistic difference, this distortion is unmitigated in a program, which undermines the equality that undergirds "co-creation", the core of the influence orientation of reciprocity.

Singular dependence upon interpreter(s)/ translator(s) to effectuate all cross-linguistic communication across participants and communities, as done in reviewed programs, further disturbs the other orientations of reciprocity. Such dependence limits the amount of possible *interchange* between groups to only communication flowing through interpreters. This limitation cannot but impair *relationship-building* between groups, even setting aside the sociocultural dimensions bound up in language that impact relationship-building. Expecting an omnipresent interpreter to unlock every interaction for every participant is unrealistic (Amerson, 2012).

Notably, all but two programs using interpreters (Grain et al., 2019; Reynolds, N. R., 2019), did not report the identities and credentials of programs' interpreters. Translating and interpreting requires multilingual proficiencies, the development and maintaining of which requires cognitive work (Douglas Fir Group, 2016). In some economically-disadvantaged communities, multilingual proficiencies may constitute one of few means of earning a living. Viewing interpretation as labor, when scholarship excludes the identities of interpreters, it is depriving them some form of income due to them. This should be viewed as an injustice, and an academic malpractice akin to plagiarism, the misattribution of source material. Pedagogically, excluding interpreters' identities and credentials also obscures their impact on the program overall. Going forward, multilingual work- remunerated or not- must be honored within any cross-linguistic initiative that aspires to reciprocity. ISL must not forget the "joint ownership of work processes and products" (Jameson et al., 2011, p. 264). Particularly laudable was one article that recognized the interpreter as co-author (Grain et al., 2019).

Secondly, issues of linguistic difference, and a crucial awareness of language, are not moot within programs dispatching participants to English-speaking host communities, particularly as programs' sole method of addressing linguistic difference. The intelligibility of English worldwide, when closely examined, is quite complex. The belief within this type of program that, "language preparation is not necessary" (Guseh, 2015, p. 84) is presumably rooted in the misconception that a language is a unified, mutually intelligible system. English is far from homogeneous (Kachru, 1992), even within North America (Linguistics Laboratory, University of Pennsylvania, 2020). Nor are 'dialects' of a language necessarily mutually intelligible (Shin, 2013, p. 50). The mutual intelligibility of English dialects, or 'Englishes', cannot be assumed *a priori* (Kirkpatrick, Andy, Deterding, David,Wong, Jennie, 2008). (The author was reminded of this fact while writing this article: a troubled interaction transpired when a solicitor knocked on his Ohio apartment door: the (unmasked) solicitor, presumably a fellow white Ohioan but of a lower socio-economic class, spoke in one of Ohio's three English dialects in which the author is not native; the interaction required multiple repetitions and frustration. The author is multilingual).

Moreover, a country's official policies (e.g. officially bilingual) may misconstrue its linguistic landscape, since such policies often belie a society's linguistic complexity

(Shin, 2013, p. 63-5). That the United States has no official language (Kaur, 2020), does not imply that English is not important, for example. Likewise, society's use of a singular language may employ *diglossia*, or the use of multiple varieties for specific purposes or contexts (Shin, 2013, p. 57). ISL participants in an English-speaking host community may, for example, use formal English during their service within government buildings or schools, yet catching the bus to arrive at the service site requires proficiencies in distinct modes (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2012), or skills (Buyl & Housen, 2015). Unable to use the correct language or the correct register would inevitably impact any of the three orientations of reciprocity.

ISL programs -which are "global" and "immersive"- must adopt a nuanced understanding of *Englishes*' intelligibility, "taking into consideration linguistic ecology, interactional pragmatics, and sociocultural realities" (Kachru, 2008, p. 294). This recommendation extends to all programs, whatever the linguistic landscape of the host community may be. Programs' participants, "…cannot merely be declared competent in communication…the degree of proficiency required to survive as a tourist or as a student is not the same as that required to negotiate treaties" (Hadley, 2001, p. 9). Many programs made such declarations about their participants' linguistic proficiencies. In some, proficiencies are so inadequately or vaguely described that they can only be characterized as lip service to addressing linguistic difference (see Appendix B).

ISL must also recognize that language use is laden with issues of power. A core commitment of ISL is to enable participants to analyze, "political, economic, social, cultural, and historical structures and how they normalize our experiences and assumptions" (RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1875). This critical self-awareness overlaps with all orientations of reciprocity and must extend to issues of language (Nieusma & Riley, 2010, p. 53). Programs should consider the ways that participants' language use during sojourns in host communities reinforce linguistic hegemonies, as rare programs currently do (Czop Assaf et al., 2019; Lussier et al., 2019; Wu, 2018). Indeed, learning *about* a/the language of the host community ("LALWA"), learning about the critical issues surrounding it, and participants' place vis-à-vis critical issues, seem to be indispensable to reciprocity's orientation of co-creation, if not all three.

Thirdly, the most critical conversation that appear lacking in programs is that of the global hegemony of English (Harper, 2011), particularly of the American and British dialects (Qiong, 2004). Although such conversation is needed in all programs, it may be most crucial for the programs that addressed linguistic difference by involving participants' teaching 'our' language as the primary service activity ("PSTL2"). Specifically, an ideology exists that English is centered as the language of global citizenship (Aktas et al., 2017, p. 72), an ideology which inevitably privileges English monolinguals over non-native English-speaking people, including multilingual people. Even among *Englishes* critical awareness is needed around extant linguistic hegemonies (Wu, 2018) which prioritize the "Inner Circle" English at the expense of Outer Circle countries (Kachru, 1992). Unlike most world languages which have a governing body to maintain language standards- to decide correct and incorrect language-, English has no such body (Barlow & Nadeau, 2006, p. 392). This means that there no one correct English exists, despite prevailing ideologies.

ISL must be careful to not reinforce participants' ethnocentricities by perpetuating expectations among participants that someone else -other than participants- should (and will) accommodate monolingual English-speakers and do so happily. Such expectations would trouble ISL advocates seeking to problematize Western-centric, hegemonic perspectives (Camacho, 2004; Sharpe & Dear, 2013; Taylor, K. B. et al., 2018; Wu, 2018). Without a critical understanding of language, it is not inconceivable that ISL becomes, "…a recipe for the perpetuation of global ignorance, misunderstanding, and prejudice" (Zemach-Bersin, 2008).

Some ISL practitioners view language an indispensable component of understanding others' worldviews and experiences in a global context (Czop Assaf et al., 2019). Very few programs were reported to trouble linguistic hegemonies or examine language through a critical lens (Czop Assaf et al., 2019; Lussier et al., 2019), and previous studies found participants' deficient linguistic proficiencies created problematic or unequal relationships with the host communities (Baker-Boosamra et al., 2006; O'Sullivan, M. et al., 2019). What's more, some articles' authors even recommended programs select English-speaking host communities because it avoids language barriers (Guseh, 2015; Prins & Webster, 2010). (Underwriting this recommendation is an acknowledgement that issues of language are not of marginal import to ISL).

Alternative Explanations

Alternative explanations of the review's findings could criticize its logistics or assumptions. Critiques of this study, a review of secondary sources, are possible. Moreover, critiques could argue it casted to narrow or too wide a net into the ISL sea. Another critique could argue that findings produced only reflect publications, not programs, because programs did address linguistic difference in ways that subsequent articles did not report. This critique cannot be wholly rejected. It is possible that a program addressed linguistic difference, or did so in multiple ways, that went unreported in its subsequent article. Such a reality however would support the view that ISL, through its scholarship, is imprudently marginalizing issues of linguistic difference, even if programs are not. In any discipline, the publication is a vehicle for ideas' transmission, but also its recordkeeping and a vault for its valuables. If an article excluded such details, it can only be because these details were either nonexistent in a program or devalued during publication.

Some may argue that participants' second language proficiencies are not crucial to reciprocal relationships in a global context for different reasons. One reason may view English's global ubiquity as obviating the need for participants' second language proficiencies. This view would have to contend with the finding that only 19% of programs addressing language cited the host community's English proficiencies. Greater reflexivity may be needed (RW.ERROR - Unable to find reference:1874; Crabtree, 2008) around the issues of linguistic privilege and the structures that enable it. A related contention may hold that the review exaggerates the mutual un-intelligibility of Englishes. Dialects of English spoken in Canada and in India are both spoken "natively" by their citizens, yet they are heterogenous. Within the author's own institution, a public HBCU, sincere learners (who are themselves likely bidialectal English users), whose

comments are not presumably motivated by racism, have expressed their difficulty in understanding some foreign-born, native English-speaking instructors. Given that all orientations of reciprocity, a tenet of ISL, depend upon communication, clear thinking, and reporting on issues of language, including *Englishes*, is imperative.

Other critiques may content that participant 'pick up' the host community's language, as reported in some programs. An ethnographic examination of such programs would likely reveal that a person with the means of cross-linguistic communication, though unrecognized in the article- was contributing to the communication in overlooked ways. Some programs may have involved service activities with minimal spoken interaction between participants and host community members. Appendix B offer a look at the complete set of programs reviewed. Balzer & Heidebrecht (2020)'s critique hit at the relational orientation of reciprocity: "Global North participants rarely speak the languages of the communities they visit, and, when combined with the oft- short- term reality of ISL programs, there are few opportunities to develop relationships of any depth" (Balzer & Heidebrecht, 2020, p. 154). In other words, relationship building in a program is undermined when the linguistic dimension of reciprocity is overlooked or under-accounted for.

Recommendations

ISL must acknowledge that reciprocity is built upon communication between participants and host community members, which may involve the indispensable bilingualism of interpreters and translators. Therefore, as a globally immersive pedagogy, the importance of language cannot be marginalized. This acknowledgement must span programs and subsequent publications thereof. Currently, this is absent in much of the ISL scholarship, given that language is not cited in articles.

Bringing issues of language into view, reciprocity in ISL should move towards plurilingualism. Coined by the Council of Europe, plurilingualism recognizes the importance for multilingualism and language learning across Europe (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 21). A person with plurilingual competence possesses, a 'repertoire of languages,' and holds values of plurilingual tolerance toward all languages and varieties (Hélot & Cavalli, 2017). In Ghali's plurilingual equality, no speaker is put in a position of inferiority on the basis of their language. Plurilingualism is distinct from multilingualism: the former requires "actively promoting the use of different languages in international institutions" (Barlow & Nadeau, 2006, p. 350) and a pedagogical goal of speakers to, "give equal value to each of the varieties they themselves and other speakers use" (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 20-21). Ghali's plurilingual ideal may set the bar high for ISL programs, yet to ignore that plurilingualism is the embodiment of reciprocity on the linguistic level does not diminish its veracity, but rather only undercuts the ignorer's formulation of reciprocity. Through this lens, an ISL program or publication that overlooks issues of communication is one that is not thoughtfully tending to or accounting for reciprocity.

Recent programs that (solely) recognize participants' extant second language proficiencies ("PL2") embrace multilingualism, but they are not embracing plurilingualism. Plurilingual pedagogies, "do not need to aim at making students fully competent in a second or third language. Instead, …what is important is that one

acquire competence to communicate to varying degrees" (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 23). Programs sending participants into cross-linguistic or cross-dialectic collaborations should implement measures to develop among their participants competence in modes (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2012) or skills (Buyl & Housen, 2015) of the host community's language/ dialect. Targeted skills or modes should be selected that will prove useful to participants when interacting with host community members, as determined by programs' service activities or pedagogical goals, etc. A modest plan, for example, could develop participants' abilities to perform greetings, name food, asking for tools, etc.

Beyond linguistic proficiencies, the plurilingual ideal promotes an equal valorization of others' language that can only come through critical (/self-)reflection. Garcia (2017) posited, "Entering a community with an understanding of the native language and cultures facilitates more authentic interactions between participants and community members while fostering greater cultural humility and respect for the linguistic diversity of our world" (Alonso García & Longo, 2017, p. 46). Plurilingualism would mandate that the latter of these two values, humility and respect, be targeted learning outcomes of pedagogy. This is because, as recognized in Europe, "…this awareness (of plurilingualism) should be assisted and structured by schools since it is in no sense automatic" (Council of Europe, 2001). Both language lessons and critical conversations should be sustained before, during, and after the trip to reinforce the permanency of their importance, combatting the short-term nature of programs, which predisposes learning to superficiality (Balzer & Heidebrecht, 2020, p. 154).

Taking such measures could be called embracing a plurilingual reciprocity. This approach most aligns with the Intercultural Communicative Competence Model, in which learners develop knowledge, attitudes, and critical cultural awareness as well as the skills of interaction and interpretation (Byram, 1997). One laudable program to South Africa involved a thoughtful, sustained, critical focus on issues of language (Czop Assaf et al., 2019; Lussier et al., 2019), which may have been intensified through experiential learning of some degree of one of the languages itself. Appendix B, an overview of programs, was included to spark ideation among practitioners.

Within publications on ISL, enacting a plurilingual reciprocity would require reporting how issues of linguistic difference were addressed by a program. If we "say what we mean and mean what we say" (Dostilio, L. D. et al., 2012), we must write with intentionality and transparency. As such, the quantity and quality of information provided on linguistic issues must increase from current levels. To this end, the terms used in this review can serve as more precise instruments. Going forward, peer-reviewed articles must explain how programs addressed linguistic difference and whose proficiencies were utilized. Just as it is unacceptable that articles omit the author's name, so should it be for programs' language brokers. De-marginalizing issues of linguistic difference within programs and publications would move ISL closer towards a plurilingual reciprocity.

Future Directions

In light of this review, more study is needed to understand ISL's mixed relationship to issues of linguistic difference. This review of literature availed an initial assessment but was impaired by the scarcity and inconsistency of data reported on issues of linguistic difference. Future efforts to understand ISL's position on issues of language could avoid such obstacles by drawing closer to primary source data. A gathering of ISL practitioners-scholars could be surveyed (Lough & Toms, 2018) to learn how programs addressed linguistic difference. The closest look, but also the narrowest in scope, would entail ethnographic study of how cross-linguistic communication actually occurs during ISL programs. Doing so could avail insights into the linguistic work being performed during an ISL program.

Unfortunately, it was not possible to discern the proficiency levels of participants in this review due to ambiguous ways that articles reported such information. Using "proficiencies" in future work, rather than semesters, courses, or hours of study would enhance accuracy and transparency, but likely require testing and more planning. Future investigations of a comparative nature could elucidate the role of participants' second language proficiencies, their exact proficiency levels, and the impact on the learning. Host community members' perspectives on the program's successfulness could be explored with this same focus. Other work could examine the ISL experiences of multilingual international students and domestic students with diverse linguistic backgrounds, a group which has gotten little scholarly attention.

Within the ISL community of practice, conversations should explore the role of communication within reciprocity, and relatedly, which model of intercultural competence their pedagogies embrace. For native-English speakers, we must admit our privilege in today's globalized world (Aktas et al., 2017, p. 72), and we must bravely ask ourselves how this privilege structures our practice of ISL. Particularly, if we pedagogues of U.S. institutions, are unwilling to ask ourselves these questions, we should anticipate others' skepticism. If ISL endorses monolingualism as sufficient for reciprocity within cross-cultural, cross-linguistic collaborations, we risk reinforcing participants' ethnocentricities.

Recognizing that, "we cannot predict whether community service learning will perpetuate power differences", (Camacho, 2004, p. 40), even modest enactments of plurilingualism may gradually steer participants away from such outcomes. One proposed model, "Reciprocal Service Learning" (RSL) incorporate all three orientations (Dostilio, L. D. et al., 2012) but seems to make room for a plurilingual reciprocity. An RSL program includes, "an explicit commitment on the part of at least one of the two groups to developing their intercultural competencies (Collopy et al., 2020, p. 23). Remembering that international mobility is a privilege (Camacho, 2004), the commitment to developing intercultural competence must be made by participants who are privileged with international mobility.

Plurilingual reciprocity, and greater attention to issues of linguistic difference, may align with other ISL initiatives and aspirations. It may facilitate problematizing participants' "tourist gaze" (Prins & Webster, 2010), or plant the seeds of transformative learning (Baecher & Chung, 2020; Bamber, Philip M., 2015; Bamber, Philip M., 2016;

Taylor, K. B. et al., 2018; Webster & Arends, 2012). It may overlap with formulations of ISL as an application of anthropology (Simonelli et al., 2004). In yet another, participants can become awareness of the power of language and pursue critical pedagogical virtue (Yoder, 2016), in programs that are, "…unapologetic in its aim to dismantle structures of injustice" (Mitchell, 2008, p. 50).

Thinking reciprocally, ISL scholars and practitioners of English-language scholarship should be aware that ISL as a pedagogy is not proprietary to North American or English-speaking institutions. Multilingual researchers could examine ISL pedagogies as reported in non-English language journals, as suggested by Nguyen (2017). This could enrich an ISL that seems largely confined to English-language articles, using North American-centric conceptions of the pedagogy. Going forward, if ISL collectively omits key aspects from their programs and publications, it offers such a template to peer academes beyond North America and beyond English-language presses. For this reason, North American-based, English-based ISL scholars and practitioners should be conscious of the models they establish for others.

Limitations

As a literature review, the present review constitutes only an initial step to understanding how programs addressed issues of linguistic difference. Only reviewed were articles written in English, which may have excluded ISL programs written about only in other languages. The search terms used to gather articles set parameters around ISL, believing programs indexing the terms "global", "international" or community-/service learning "abroad" described a singular pedagogy. Indeed, this constitutes a small sample of all ISL program that occurred within the decade.

Conclusion

The social tumult of 2020-2021 has forced a reexamination of societies worldwide, opening our eyes to the subtle and overt machinations of power. This should inspire some critical self-reflection within ISL. Indubitably, ISL programs must balance several priorities and operate within numerous constraints. This review was undertaken from the starting point that issues of linguistic difference are epicentral to reciprocity, a fact which has previously gone unappreciated. Attention to them must figure within these priorities and is already being accounted for in many programs. The review found that many programs address linguistic difference through recognizing or developing participants' second language proficiencies. This finding contradicts ISL's general apathy towards the topic, which requires further clarification.

It also found however that most programs did not develop participants' second language proficiencies. It argued that English monolingualism can undercut ISL reciprocity, and that if programs eschew issues of linguistic difference and the critical dimensions embedded in them, we must look askance at the reciprocity claimed to being practiced. Furthermore, if articles erase interpreters' identities, they should be seen as practicing academic misconduct. If ISL marginalizes language, it misses opportunities to facilitate participants' becoming more linguistically aware, tolerant, and critically self-reflexive. Such missed opportunities may in fact reinforce monolingualism and prevailing linguistic hegemonies, which are obstacles to fostering reciprocal

interchanges, relationships, and co-creation. Instead, this review proffered a plurilingual reciprocity as a lodestar for ISL. Some scholars may view the steps involved in it as onerous. ISL was founded upon high principles; as pedagogies advance, the bar must continuously be raised.

Appendix A

Table A Types of ISL Programs

Source	Program Type	abbreviation
Garcia & Longo (2017)'s ISL Program Types	Co-curricular international service trip (<u>non</u>-credit bearing)	st-nc
	Short-term international service learning course (credit-bearing)	st-c
	Course-embedded Spring Break International Service Trip	cesb
	Curricular-embedded Pre- or Post-Course International Service Trip	cepp
Additional ISL Program Types	Service Learning during Study Abroad	SLSA
	Service Learning during Study Abroad -Service Learning not required-	SLSA-NR
	Program labeled only as a "placement"	pl
	Program labeled as credited internship	intern
	Insufficient data to classify	unkn

Appendix B

Table B Complete, Analyzed Data Set of ISL Programs Addressing Linguistic Difference

Program cited in article	Type	Host Country	Field, course, or participants	Service Activity	Service Duration	How?
Akhurst (2016)	pl	South Africa/ Tanzania (from a UK university)	Psychology students	School-based projects	"placement" duration unknown	PSTL2
Amerson (2012)	cesb	Ecuador/ Guatemala	senior-level undergraduates of community health nursing	clinic-based projects, clinic-based teaching	1 week	T/I, LLPD, PL2
Baecher & Chung (2020)	st-c	Costa Rica	10 primary/ secondary in-service teachers of TESOL	English-language teaching	4 days per week in EFL teaching context, 1 month	PSTL2, LLWA
Brown, Chaudhari, Curtis, & Schulz (2018)	st-c	India	undergraduate & graduate students of varying backgrounds depending upon host community needs	projects in dental hygiene, nursing, physician assistant studies, public health, engineering, sustainable communities, forestry, photojournalism, English, & business	Average trip duration unspecified, but one trip: 3 day cultural visit, 7 days (dental hygiene)	T/I
Czop, O'Donnell Lussier, Furness,	st-c	South Africa	undergraduate pre-service teachers at a	school-based, camp-based projects,	4 weeks	LALWA, HSE, PSTL2

& Hoff (2019) and Lussier, Assaf, & Hoff (2019)			Hispanic-Serving Institution	teaching English		
Foster, Cunningham, & Wrightsman (2015)	cepp	Costa Rica	high schoolers	community-based research, service project : soccer game, pig roast, community-based research	2-day research , 3 day service, 2 weeks total	PL2, LLPD
Garcia & Longo (2017) and Garcia & Longo (2013)	cepp	Nicaragua, Mexico	Global Studies-majoring undergraduate students in junior year	Youth literacy/ arts education-related projects, cultural learning on language and identity loss	Unspecif ied short term	PL2*req
Gaugler & Matheus (2019)	cepp	Dominican Republic	Computer Science majoring-students enrolled in a 1-credit elective (46/71) including 5 Heritage Speakers of Spanish, &	design & implement a STEM summer camp curriculum in Spanish for children	2 weeks	PL2*req, LLPD

			Spanish course-enrollees in a 3 credit class who completed at least 4 semesters of Spanish (25/71)			
Guseh (2015)	unkn	Liberia	students in a Master's of Public Administration program	various administrative projects for gov't agencies	2 weeks	HSE
Hsiung (2015)	st-nc	Nepal (from a Taiwanese university)	Early Childhood pre-service teachers, undergraduate students	school-based projects, learning (education), education-based research	30 days	HSE, LLPD, PL2*req
Jones & Ceccucci (2018)	cepp	Guatemala	Info Systems Management students	producing a website for a school	duration unknown	T/I, LLPD, PL2
Luna, Davila, & Reynoso-Morris (2018)	cesb	Dominican Republic	undergraduate students enrolled in courses either on Environmental & Sustainable Design or a first year preview to study abroad-course	community-based research, construction of aquaponics system	1 week	PL2
Martinsen, Baker, Dewey, Brown, & Johnson (2010)	SLSA-NR	Spain	1 male 12 female undergraduate students, taking 200-level Spanish class	Volunteering at schools, orphanages, and homes for the elderly	one semester, with service performed 5-15 hours	LLWA

					per week	
Mogford & Lyons (2019)	SLS A	Kenya	"U.S. students"	women's school-based projects	Quarter-long	LLWA, HSE
Motley & Sturgill (2013)	cep p	2 un-identified Central American countries	graduate students enrolled in an MA program in Mass Communications	projects with community organizations providing services for people with disabilities (including blindness), a sustainability program, & a waste-management /recycling business	3 week January Intersession course, including 9-10 days abroad	T/I
Nickols, Rothenberg, Moshi, & Tetloff (2013)	st-c	Tanzania	undergraduate & graduate students enrolled in a 3-6 credits of "directed studies (electives tailored to students' interest)"	projects with a women's economic cooperative, a girls' organization, & an agro-forestry project	4 weeks	T/I, LLWA
Oberhauser & Daniels (2017)	st-c	Tanzania	12 undergraduate students of social & physical sciences, humanities, among others; 1 graduate student	gender-related cultural activities, site visits	1 month	LLWA
Power (2013)	pl	Malaysia, China	pre-service teachers of Early	Malaysia: teaching	2 weeks	PSTL2

and Power, Truong, Gray, Downey, Hall, & Jones (2017)		(from an Australian university)	Childhood, Primary, and Secondary Education	math, science, the arts, or English; China: teaching English		
Prins & Webster (2010)	cepp	Belize	undergraduates enrolled in a two-semester rural sociology course	create a community garden & teaching; marine ecology teaching	1 week	HSE
Regalla (2016)	st	Costa Rica	28 teacher candidates (mostly MA TESOL students)	bilingual-school based projects	2 weeks	PSTL2, LLWA, PL2
Reynolds (2014)	unkn	Nicaragua	undergraduate students from the College of Engineering	engineer clean water, electricity; aid in health care services	unspecified	T/I
Robinson, Robinson, & Foran (2019)	cepp, intern	Belize (from a Canadian university)	in-service teachers who were part-time graduate students	teaching	2 weeks	HSE
Sharpe & Dear (2013)	cepp	Cuba (from a Canadian university)	senior level undergraduates of Recreation & Leisure Studies	Garden-based, camp-based projects	18 days	T/I

Taylor, Jones, Massey, Mickey, Reynolds, & Jackson (2017) and Taylor, Jones, Massey, Mickey, & Reynolds (2018)	cep p	Ecuador	mixed undergraduate & graduate students (MA of Higher Education) enrolled in a course in education, from many majors	cultural learning, school-based projects	3 weeks	PL2
Wu (2018)	st-c	Phillipines (from a Taiwanese university)	undergraduate English majors, one graduate student of English, all Taiwanese non-native English speakers; ISL fulfilling 40 required service hours to graduate	« volunteers' major task was to teach local high school children how to address social issues in their lives» (p. 518)	2 weeks	HSE, PL2

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Understanding preservice teachers' perceptions of service-learning when teaching educational technology to students with exceptionalities

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ABSTRACT

During an educational technology class in the spring of 2021, preservice teachers worked at an inclusive, state accredited private school as part of a required service-learning component. Preservice teacher candidates worked with middle and high school students, many of whom were identified with a disability, preferably referred to as an exceptionality. Prior to engaging in activities with K-12 students, preservice teachers were introduced to floor-robots and virtual reality environments during class. After gaining necessary skills and a greater awareness of how to incorporate educational technology into a learning environment, they were then required to teach high school students how to use the education technology devices. Over the course of the semester, preservice teachers wrote three reflections centered on service-learning and educational technology, including a pre-reflection, a midway reflection, and a post-reflection. Three independent researchers, using a thematic analysis approach, analyzed the data prior to meeting as a group to identify overarching themes and sub-themes.

Service-learning in higher education provides undergraduate students with opportunities, outside of academia, to learn more about themselves and their communities. At the same time, participating in service-learning can increase undergraduate students' understanding of civic engagement while enhancing academic performance. Jacoby (2015) described several ways service-learning augments a student's undergraduate experience, including enhanced "moral development, empathy, efficacy, sense of personal and social responsibility, and commitment to service during and after college" (p. 11). During the spring of 2021, undergraduate students majoring in education enrolled in an educational technology (ED Tech) course in the southwestern United States. All students participated in service-learning activities at a K-12 private school. As education majors, these preservice-teachers

engaged in a service-learning project that was tied to their major field of study. Although service-learning activities can be incorporated into college coursework that is not tied to a student's degree program, such as an English class where students volunteer in soup-kitchens and reflect on the experience, the activities in this course directly tied to students' major area of study.

The service-learning component embedded in the ED Tech class required preservice-teachers to spend 15 hours across a semester volunteering their time and expertise working with students with exceptionalities at an inclusive school. The K-12 school includes 92% of students identified with exceptionalities, including students identified with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). Students who have been identified with ASD fall along a range on the spectrum. Students who are low on the spectrum may have more severe characteristics, while students who fall on the high end of the spectrum often perform at or above their same aged peers academically. However, they struggle with social skills (Heward et al., 2018).

During their time at the school, preservice-teachers worked primarily with middle and high school students who were high on the spectrum. After the pre-reflection was written, preservice-teachers met with the professor to learn how to use and engage with floor-robots and virtual reality (VR) headsets before beginning the service-learning activities. It was important that they felt confident in using the technology prior to teaching middle and high school students how to use the equipment. In the ED Tech class, 100% of preservice teachers were unfamiliar with floor-robots, and approximately 90% were unfamiliar with more expansive VR headsets. When using VR, students enter a virtual environment where they learn to manipulate items in a virtual world. For example, preservice-teachers learned how to enter the Anne Frank house and move through the rooms. To exit the house, they had to select the proper button on the handset from touch. Taking their new-knowledge, they taught the middle and high school students with a variety of abilities.

As stated earlier, service-learning activities do not necessarily have to be tied to an undergraduate students' major. However for this class, preservice-teachers volunteered in a school setting, which blurred the lines between service-learning and other required educational components typical of students majoring in education. One difficulty in using service-learning in this fashion is that at times, preservice-teachers would confuse service-learning with field experiences.

Service-Learning

Felton and Clayton (2011) provide a detailed description of how learning through service has evolved over the centuries, beginning with Thomas Jefferson's tethering of higher-education with a student's preparation for self-governance, to the more structured formats developed by Sigmon (1979), Erlich (1996), and Bringle et al. (2006). When students have opportunities to serve others, in whatever capacity that might be, and then reflect on the process at various points during the experience, the capacity for seeing the world through a new lens may be beneficial for all those involved (White, 2021). Jacoby (2015) noted that critical reflection is essential, but that facilitating critical reflection must be undertaken in a manner that allows students to reflect on how their actions can impact people and/or communities. Furthermore, those

opting to embed service-learning into a course should use critical reflection to "lead students to recognize the need and potential for social change, together with their own capacity to effect it" (p.44).

`Service-learning can be undertaken during college coursework, but providing service to a community in need may take place outside of a college classroom as well. This might include providing services to a soup kitchen, assisting at a women's shelter, or working with Habitat for Humanity. Jacoby (2015) describes these types of experiences as "providing service, with no intentional link to reflection or learning" (p. 2). However, those who volunteer their services may still benefit through increased feelings of self-worth or a renewed purpose in life. This was the case with many of the participants during a recent service-learning project embedded in college coursework. Over the course of four months, during a time when Covid-19 decreased opportunities for engaging in K-12 classrooms, 14 preservice-teachers worked with middle and high-school students with exceptionalities as a required component of a service learning project. Preservice-teachers wrote pre, during, and post reflections of their experience, responding to specific questions to guide their responses and engage students in critical reflection. Jacoby (2015) noted that the desired form of reflection during service learning should be "*critical* [sic], reflection", which is the "process of analyzing, reconsidering, and questioning one's experiences within a broad context of issues and content knowledge" (p. 26). Jacoby noted that when students respond to questions during service-learning, questions should increase in complexity and guide students to higher levels of thinking and analyzing. Jacoby provided multiple sample questions, including: (a) "Have you changed as a result of this experience?' and, (b) "How did this experience make you feel?" (2018, pp 34-35). Three researchers across three disciplines reviewed student-participants' pre, midway, and post reflections separately prior to forming an overarching consensus theme. Results were positive, with researchers finding that college students were surprised at their own increased self-efficacy in working with high school students with exceptionalities.

Methods

The principal investigator (PI) collected qualitative data from 14 preservice teachers enrolled in a college course during spring 2021. Preservice-teachers completed a variety of assignments related to ED Tech, including pre/post surveys on self-efficacy in using technology, guided written reflections, with open-ended questions that students completed pre, during, and post service-learning activities, lesson plans that incorporated ED Tech into instruction, and online discussions about technology use in and outside of educational settings. End-of semester grades were recorded, and then students received a research study participation form from the PI, via email, requesting permission to use their assignments as part of the data.

Data collection for this study focused solely on preservice-teachers' service-learning reflections. A Thematic Analysis (TA) was selected as the design of this qualitative study because it provides flexibility and accessibility; and by using a TA, "you can legitimately focus on analyzing meaning across the entire data set, or you can

examine one particular aspect of a phenomenon in depth" (Braun & Clarke, 2012, p. 58).

The PI and co-PIs determined to focus on students' reflections because these documents captured preservice teachers' thoughts more accurately than the lesson plans and other assignments during this service-learning experience. The research questions were exploratory, and the PI and co-PIs wanted to understand: (1) How do preservice teachers' perceive service-learning?, and (2) How do preservice teachers experience instructional interactions with students with exceptionalities? Using a TA, the PI and co-PIs analyzed the data separately, coding initially, and then identifying relevant themes. Although the research questions are not inter-dependent, the experience of working with students with exceptionalities through a service-learning project tie the two questions together.

Participants. Participants included 14 preservice teacher candidates. These students are non-traditional undergraduate students; and many have military ties, families, and jobs. Of the 14 students, seven students agreed to participate. After the first email was sent, two additional emails were sent to make sure that students had an opportunity to participate. As this course ended prior to summer break, and grades were already submitted, some students may have stopped checking emails. However, data from the seven participants was similar to their non-participating peers and provided enough information to accurately capture the essence of the experience for all students.

Procedure. Fourteen undergraduate preservice teachers completed pre, midway, and post service-learning reflections as part of their requirements for a service learning project during the spring 2021 semester. Following the end of the semester, preservice teachers received an email requesting participation in the research with a link to the informed consent. For each reflection paper, students responded to specific questions to guide their responses and keep them focused on the purpose of writing. As Jacoby noted, questions can guide student thinking; but importantly, if grading reflections, grades should be assigned after assessing "how authentically and deeply students think about their feelings" (2015, p. 40). The PI developed questions for each reflection with the intent to have students think more deeply about this experience for each paper.

For the pre-reflection, the PI wanted to gather information on students' understanding and potential previous experiences with service learning. Students responded to four questions that included one or two parts: (1) Think about the two terms separately and together-what does service mean? What does learning mean? (2) What is your current understanding of service learning? (3) What does the term service mean to you? What might you learn from providing a service to someone in need? (4) How can you use your knowledge to help others? How might serving others benefit you? These four questions prompted students to think about the benefits they might receive by providing a service to others.

The second reflection paper, written at the mid-way point, focused on the benefits that the middle and high school students might receive from service-learning,

as well questions about the ED Tech. Preservice-teacher candidates responded to four questions, again with multiple components: (1) In considering the time you have spent at the school, how do you feel the community partner is benefiting? Be specific. How has the role you have played benefited students, the school, and/or other stakeholders? (2) In considering the time you have spent at the school, how do you feel you might be benefiting? Be specific. (3) In thinking about students and educational technology, are the activities you have done benefitting students with exceptionalities? How so? (4) In this service-learning opportunity, do you belief that both you and the school are benefiting equally? Or do you believe that the relationship is benefiting one partner more than another? Be specific and provide examples.

The final post-reflection, service-learning paper required preservice-teachers to think more critically about the entire experience. The PI developed questions that required preservice-teachers to think about the experience as a whole; and it provided them with opportunities to express the positives and/or negatives associated with service learning. There were a total of nine questions: (1) Was this experience different that you expected, or was it about what you expected? How so? (2) Do you feel that educational technology is a good option for student learning? Why/Why not? (3) When thinking about VR, do you think that meditation apps might be calming for students identified with Emotional Behavior Disorder or ASD? Justify your response. (4) Is VR a fad, or do you see this being present in classrooms within the next decade? Explain your thinking and state whether you disagree or agree with VR being in a classroom and why you agree/disagree. (5) Will you incorporate service-learning into your future classroom? Why/why not? (6) Whether you will or will not incorporate service learning, how might service-learning be incorporated into a classroom? (7) Of all the ED tech tools you reviewed, which one will you be most likely to incorporate into a future classroom and why? (8) Overall, did you find the service-learning beneficial for you personally? Or did you find it stressful? Please respond to both of these questions and explain your thinking. (9) Do you think students at the school benefitted from working with you in a non-academic environment? Why or why not? (10) What is one take-away from this service-learning experience for you? (11) What is one thing you would like me to know (positive or negative) about this experience. Why was it a positive or negative? The PI and co-PIs used different methods to analyze data and search for themes. The PI initially analyzed the data by hand, reading through the documents, identifying segments, coding segments, placing coded segments into groups, and then identifying a theme. The third co-PI used a similar method, separately from the PI. The second co-PI used NVivo qualitative software. After individual analysis was completed, the researchers met to discuss the findings and review the major themes. Two primary themes emerged from the post-reflection papers: increased pedagogical application and make a difference.

Results

The three researchers were provided with all data compiled into pre, midway, and post reflections. The researchers conducted individual analysis on each of the data sets to arrive at their own conclusions. The PI read through all participants' reflection

multiple times, looking first at the pre-reflections, then the midway reflections, and then the post-reflections. During this time, the PI identified meaningful chunks of data, coding them into several categories and then merging the categories into themes. Various themes emerged from this initial data analysis for the pre, midway, and post reflections. After an analysis of the pre-reflection service-learning reflections, the PI had 16 codes, which were subsequently moved into four categories and themed: Personal Growth, Giving, Purpose, and New Knowledge. The same analysis was performed for the midway reflections, with the midway reflection having 39 codes transformed into four themes: Real World Pedagogical Application, Game Changer, Beneficial, and Amazing SPED students. Finally, the PI concluded coding the data using the same analysis for the post reflections, which ended with 19 codes broken into five themes: Stressful but beneficial, New Pedagogies, Purpose and Caring, VR is the Holy Grail, and Pleasantly Surprised.

After the PI conducted a hand search of all reflection papers, a computer generated word count was pulled to make a comparison. For the pre service-learning reflection papers, the five most commonly used words included: service (n=64), knowledge (n=39), learning/others (n=38), and help (n=35). For the midway service learning reflection, the four most commonly used words included: students (n=105), school (n=36), technology (n=30), and learning n= (29). For the post service-learning reflection, the five most commonly used words included: students (n=157), experience (n=65), classroom (n=59), and technology (n=56). These words somewhat align with the themes (Table 1).

Table 1

PI themes and word count

Reflection	Themes	Most Used Words
Pre Service-learning	Personal Growth, Giving, Purpose, New Knowledge	service (n=64) knowledge (n=39), learning/others (n=38), and help (n=35)
Midway Service-learning	Real World Pedagogical Application, Game Changer, Beneficial, Amazing SPED students	students (n=105), school (n=36), technology (n=30), and learning n= (29)
Post Service-learning	Stressful but beneficial, New Pedagogies, Purpose and Caring, VR is the Holy Grail, and Pleasantly Surprised	students (n=157), experience (n=65), classroom (n=59), and technology (n=56)

The first co-PI used NVivo to analyze the data. NVivio (Edhlund, 2012) is a statistical software program that can be used to analyze qualitative data sets. The relevant themes that emerged included: (1) Pre-reflection: Definitions, Service Rewards; (2) Midway Reflection: Rewards, Site Information; and, (3) Post-Reflection: Expectations,

Incorporating Service Learning, Service Learning Options, Service Learning Take Away, Tech Incorporation, VR Learning, VR Limitations, and VR Mediation.

The third co-PI reviewed the data used a method similar to the PI, along with the use of word-clouds (Figures 1 & 2) to gather a visual image of words used. The third co-PI addressed the research questions (RQs), tying the data analysis of each pre. During, and post reflection directly to the two RQs. After analyzing the pre-reflection, the third co-PI noted that in relation to RQ1: The themes noted in these artifacts were difficult to identify due to the rather disconnected perceptions of the writers. This was a writing assignment meant to encourage a free or open writing style designed to get the students writing about the prompt.
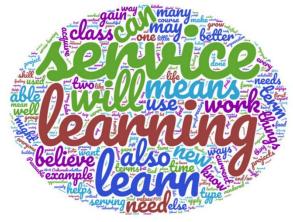

Figure 1
Word Cloud Pre-Reflection

After reviewing the samples of student writings, the key themes appear to be that students perceive service-learning as a positive growth experience. However, students also seemed to be more focused on why it is important to do service-learning and not the definition of service-learning. The five themes that emerged were: uncertainty, efficacy, opportunity, competency and personal satisfaction/pride. For RQ2, similar responses were noted, but there seemed to be less reflection on instructional interactions and more on the purpose of service learning. Four themes emerged, including: competency, experience, growth, reflection.

For the midway reflection for RQ1, the second co-PI noted that college students were more organized in their writing and described the impact they were having on middle and high school students' learning. Interestingly, students' midway reflections revealed a larger discussion on who was benefiting more, themselves or the middle and high school students. Themes appear to be: a sense of accomplishment, pride in their ability to pass on knowledge and skills, and the love of seeing students having a lightbulb moment. All students' reflections described a perceived mutual benefit as a result of the partnership and the opportunity to hone their tech skills while developing their instructional muscle memory to apply to their profession. Additional themes for RQ1 and RQ2 included competency and growth/experience, with more students

reflecting on the purpose of service learning in RQ2, including an excitement to work with technology and students with exceptionalities.

The second co-PI analyzed the post-reflection with a focus on RQ1 and determined that these were markedly different from the previous reflections. Importantly, college students perceived a better understanding of what service-learning is, with the idea of a variety of service-learning classes that could be developed. Some students expressed concern on the desire to incorporate service-learning into a future K-12 classroom experience, and they worried that bureaucracy and their own experiences might hinder the ability to incorporate service-learning into a k-12 classroom. However, students also noted an opportunity to make a difference in future students' lives, depending on the teacher/classroom needs. Several students found the service-learning to be a stressful experience due to Covid, unexpected winter weather, scheduling time to visit schools, and communication. They found these made for a distracted or confused experience, which aligns with other preservice-teachers' experiences when working during of Covid (Roman, 2020). Students also worried about having access to appropriate technology necessary to assist future students in understanding and applying concepts.

Notably, when analyzing students' post-reflections in relation to RQ2, the second co-PI noted that students found ED Tech as a great option for student learning. Students' reflections noted that they believed ED Tech ignited a passion in middle and high students' desire to learn more. Students were excited about the apps to explore and try out. However, a few students again noted some negatives related to scheduling and being confident of what was required.

After the PI and co-PIs individually analyzed the data and compiled themes, an overarching emergent theme was developed to best reflect the analysis of each researcher. The PI and third co-PI had the themes personal growth and positive growth experience respectively. These two themes merged to form theme of positive growth. The first co-PI had a theme of service rewards, while the PI had themes of giving, new knowledge, and purpose. The second co-PI had themes of personal satisfaction/pride and efficacy. An overarching theme of rewards was determined to best reflect these ideas. Table 2 shows the emergent overarching themes that were developed from individual researcher's themes.

Table 2

Compilation of individual analysis and emergent themes

Reflection	Themes: Researcher 1	Themes: Researcher 2	Themes: Researcher 3	Emergent Themes
Pre-reflection	Personal Growth, Giving, Purpose, New Knowledge	Definitions, Service Rewards	Positive Growth experience, Uncertainty, Efficacy, Opportunity, Personal satisfaction/pride, Competency	Positive Growth, Rewards
Midway-reflection	Real World Pedagogical Application, Game Changer, Beneficial, Amazing SPED students	Rewards, Site Information	Accomplishment, Pride in their ability, Lightbulb moments, Opportunity to hone their tech skills, Apply skills to their profession, Competency, Growth/experience	Beneficial, Pride, Competence
Post-reflection	Stressful but beneficial, New Pedagogies, Purpose and Caring, VR is the Holy Grail, Pleasantly Surprised	Expectations, Service-Learning, Benefits (Nonacademic), Service-Learning, Incorporation, Service-Learning, Options, Service-Learning Take Away, Technology Incorporation, VR Learning, VR Limitations, VR Meditation,	Make a difference, Stressful due to Covid, Access to technology, Apply concepts, Scheduling difficulties, Better communication of service-learning needed	Increased Pedagogical Application, Make a difference

Discussion

The two research questions that the PI set out to investigate included preservice teachers' perceptions of service-learning and their responsiveness to working with students with exceptionalities. The service-learning primarily took place in a non-academic setting. Although the PI developed the questions prior to the start of service-learning, working with innovative educational technology was an element that might have made this project more engaging. Likewise, the undergraduate students who participated reflected on a mutually beneficial learning experience because they believed all stake-holders (college and middle/high school students) benefitted equally. After separate data-analysis by three researchers, emergent themes developed for pre,

midway, and post reflections. The merged themes from three separate analyses include: (1) Pre-reflection-Positive Growth, Reward; (2) Midway reflection-beneficial, Pride, Competence; and, (3) Post-reflection- Increased Pedagogical Application, Make a Difference.

In a review of all emergent themes, including individual rater themes and over-arching final themes, there was a general consensus that college students found service-learning to be beneficial for all involved. Jacoby (2015) noted that "planning and implementing a cocurricular [sic] service-learning experience that participants view as worthwhile is critical if the desired outcomes are to be achieved" (p. 146). This is noteworthy because the PI designed the service-learning to incorporate ED Tech; this tied directly to course student learning outcomes. However, if service learning had taken place without the inclusion of innovative ED Tech, would students have found the experience as beneficial? That is less clear.

Overall, students did find the experience to be much more valuable than they originally anticipated. For example, students responded positively to the question about whether they intended to incorporate service-learning into a future K-12 classroom, and noted in post-reflections that: (1) "The service-learning approach helps students find a purpose for learning"; (2) "I believe that the primary reason for incorporating service-learning into a curriculum is to fully understand a particular topic"; and, (3) "There are many ways in which service learning can be incorporated, and I think it would largely depend on the teacher and classroom needs".

However, during data-analysis, it was noted that students found scheduling service-learning into an already full schedule difficult; and this was made more difficult with the added influx of Covid safety measures and a terrific winter storm that shut down the area. Likewise, several students noted difficulties in communication. For example, one student noted: "I feel that service-learning would have been easier if it there were prescheduled days with a clear task or objective for which we could sign up". All students met with the partnering school principal on a first visit to the school. They were all told to schedule the days and times that worked best for them. Furthermore, the floor-robots were left at the partner school for students to check out and use in classrooms. All undergraduate students were required to attend a training session for floor-robots and VR headsets prior to using them with middle and high school students. Still, based on students' reflections, clear goals with explicit communication and set days/times might increase students' experiences more positively.

Conclusion

Service-learning was primarily a beneficial activity for undergraduate students. Felton and Clayton (2011) noted that service-learning is "most effective at generating significant educational outcomes when" (p. 81): (a) there is a collaborative community partnership; and, (b) goals, reflections, and community experiences complement each other. The PI took part in a service-learning workshop for one semester prior to beginning service-learning. During that time, the PI met with a group of other faculty who were also planning to embed a service-learning opportunity in a college class. The PI carefully planned the experience so that student learning outcomes were addressed,

reflection questions built upon each other and required more critical-thinking from pre to post reflection, and that the community partner had a stake in working with us to meet their needs. Any faculty interested in developing a service-learning course should take time to plan a course with careful consideration given to a number of factors, including identifying and working with a community partner. Likewise, developing reflection questions that address the goals of a service-learning project, as well as the learning outcomes in a course, may assist students' awareness and understanding of how service-learning can be used in a given discipline such as education. Jacoby (2015) noted that "carefully designed final reflections can help students to recognize what they learned, what big questions remain, and what next steps they can take" (p. 147). Continued use of service-learning to strengthen students' awareness of civic responsibility is important. For preservice teachers, that can be critical. Jacoby (2015) noted that the success of service-learning in college is dependent on preparation K-12 students receive. Thus, it is imperative that preservice teachers take part in effective service-learning projects that deepen their own understanding of the purpose and promise of service-learning. Importantly, Chambers and Lavery (2012) noted that preservice teachers may experience a deeper understanding of social-emotional learning and be better prepared for a career as an educator when they engage in service-learning. Chambers and Lavery (2012) concluded with the idea that "Service-learning units act to strengthen pre-service teachers' capacity to empathize, be resilient, use initiative, reflect on one's own practice, grow as an individual, develop and hone leadership skills and become more competent and capable practitioners" (p. 135). More research on preservice teachers' attitudes toward service-learning is needed to add to the research base.

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A School of Nursing and a Community Service Agency Close the Gap for Rural Families with Health Disparities During COVID-19: A Novel approach to Clinical Education and Service-Learning

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ABSTRACT

This descriptive study involving over 50 students, both undergraduate and graduate nursing students. A modified Community Service Attitudes Scale was given pre and post service-learning activity to the students.

Students overwhelmingly reported an increase in their cultural awareness, their ability to work effectively with others and their feeling of making a real difference for those they served in the activity.

Utilization of a service-learning activity (SLA) via health fairs is an effective pedagogy to offer clinical hours and exposure to professional situations for nursing students. The impact of the SLA is multifactorial on the students and on the community served.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, in-person clinical experiences for undergraduate and graduate nursing students were limited due to closures or limitations at many clinical sites. This situation challenged the school of nursing (SON) faculty at a Midwestern public university to develop alternative clinical opportunities for their students. These faculty considered service-learning, as this approach has long been considered an effective way to offer students learning opportunities in communities and with populations, they would not otherwise have access to in traditional online or in-seat courses (Sandberg, 2018; Sheikh, 2014).

Therefore, over one winter semester, these faculty met with the staff of a large, primarily rural community service agency (CSA) to plan four health fairs to be held across the state. These health fairs allowed nursing students to gain clinical experience while providing much needed health screenings for low-income, preschool children and their families, a population who often lacked access to these state-required services. Such access was further limited by the challenges posed by COVID-19.

This descriptive pilot study used a pre-post survey method to determine students'

perceptions of service-learning before and after their participation in community health fairs planned through a partnership between SON faculty and CSA staff.

Literature Review

In the past five years, hundreds of studies have assessed the impacts of service-learning. Results from multiple studies indicated that service-learning is mutually beneficial, as communities gain needed services while students gain educational experiences (Beebe et al., 2021; Bryant et al., 2017; Bryant-Moore et al., 2018; Copeland, 2021; Gosse & Katic-Duffy, 2020; Gresh, 2021; Kayser, 2017; Smith et al., 2017). Findings also have shown that service-learning contributes to students' professional development, learning, cultural competence, and understanding of the social determinants of health. These benefits are addressed briefly below. This study's novelty lies in the identification of the benefits service-learning—in the form of planning and working at community health fairs—has for students.

Professional Development

Service-learning as a pedagogy has multiple benefits for nursing students, including professional development (Hermann, 2020). For nursing students, the career socialization process begins in pre-graduate education where they learn socialization and communication skills while working with populations they will later care for as healthcare professionals. In service-learning students learn to recognize and understand social problems, develop a sense of civic responsibility, and gain confidence in their ability to affect patient health (Kayser, 2017). The results of a study examining the effects of international vs. local service-learning showed no statistically significant difference in the level of professional nursing values (PNV) developed between the two groups. This finding indicates that local service-learning helps nursing students develop professional nursing values as effectively as does international service-learning (Ferrillo, 2020). Furthermore, Huffmaster et al. (2017) noted that service-learning activities (SLAs) encourage personal and interpersonal development and an understanding of social responsibility, while also strengthening professional socialization among nursing students.

Student Learning

Many studies have documented how service-learning enhances student learning. First and foremost, SLAs provide an ideal opportunity for students to gain exposure to a variety of clinical settings while accumulating valuable clinical hours (Hawkins, 2019). Moreover, Elliott et al. (2021) noted that service-learning opportunities foster essential nursing foundations while providing community exposure for nursing students. Regarding specific skills, nursing students who participated in service-learning reported that it improved their readiness skills, problem solving abilities, therapeutic communication, and critical thinking, as well as their awareness of patients' cultural differences and health disparities (Beebe et al., 2021; Humphrey, 2021).

In another study, student journals revealed a common theme of service-learning fostering empowerment and comfort in treating patients who have been ignored or marginalized due to community and social barriers (Huffmaster et al., 2017). Overall,

the combination of academia and service-learning results in a more relevant curriculum that considers the needs of the healthcare environment. Finally, placing the learner in a work-like setting with mutually beneficial activities results in a pedagogy that improves patient care and helps meet nursing students' needs (Spencer, 2021).

Cultural Competence

Service-learning can help students meet clinical objectives for attaining cultural competency as they face new challenges and opportunities. For example, students in one study reported an increased awareness of cultural differences after participating in SLAs (Beebe et al., 2021). In another study, students providing care to low-income individuals in Appalachia during a Regional Area Medical event recounted life-changing interactions with patients who had significant health disparities and were culturally different from them in many aspects (Aplin-Snider & Vossos, 2022). Finally, another group of nursing students reported developing heightened cultural awareness, knowledge, confidence, and sensitivity from engaging in a SLA (Dyches et al., 2019).

Understanding the Social Determinants of Health

Participation in SLAs has been shown to increase nursing students' understanding of social justice and the ability to identify the social determinants of health (Beebe, 2021; Bryant et al., 2018; Hermann, 2020). Copeland et al. (2021) noted that the SLA in their study had a positive effect on student attitudes and reflections, a finding indicating SLAs could help promote the provision of patient-centered care for individuals experiencing homelessness.

With patients experiencing health disparities in various forms, nursing faculty need to build a curriculum that educates students about these patients' needs (Huffmaster et al., 2017). In one study, students reported having an increased awareness of health disparities after participating in an SLA (Beebe et al., 2021). Students also have reported being exposed to and having a new understanding of how health disparities affect their learning and perception (Aplin-Snider & Vossos, 2022). Finally, working with disadvantaged individuals during SLAs allows nursing students to develop more compassion towards poor and disadvantaged patients (Hawkins, 2019).

Community Benefits

Community members served by student SLAs report receiving significant support from the student activities in the form of healthcare, education, and feelings of being cared for and about (Beebe, 2021). Community-academic partnerships are essential to service-learning and exposing the gaps in health-related services (Voss, 2016). Students also play a critical role in helping organizations with resources that are stretched thin. Moreover, project successes were directly related to students' providing a rich learning experience for themselves and community members by taking on tasks that would otherwise fall to organization staff (Voss, 2016). CSAs have described students who volunteer on projects as valuable partners whose help is desired moving forward (Bachelder et al., 2020). Community partners also reported that the projects enabled clinics to implement changes for which they otherwise lacked resources (Beebe, et al., 2021). In one project, agency evaluations of the students were excellent;

in another, the community partners reported that the students made a significant contribution to their mission in the community (Huffmaster et al., 2017). Other community partners also reported that the SLA helped the organization build sustainable infrastructure (Gresh et al., 2020).

Theoretical Framework

Leninger's Cultural Care Model informed the development of this SLA. Collaborating with the client to design a new style of care to promote the client's health and well-being is foundational to this model (Petiprin, 2020). All care modalities require collaboration and participation among nurses and clients, which in this study include the CSA and the parents of children receiving care. With such collaboration, the project participants were able to identify, plan, and implement the fairs to meet the needs of medically underserved families in the surrounding rural communities.

Leininger's model promotes the development of nursing actions and decisions based on cultural knowledge and culturally based ways providing meaningful and satisfying holistic care with our partners. In this project, the students could see these theoretical underpinnings in action.

Methodology

Setting

The Northeast Michigan Community Service Agency (NEMCSA) serves 21 counties in the rural northeast corner of Michigan. NEMCSA offers early childhood services, school success partnerships, housing, and client services, as well as services for the aging population. This CSA is funded by several federal grant agencies and has a yearly operating budget of 52 million dollars. These federal monies come with requirements, goals, and care standards for NEMCSA's target populations. While 18% percent of Michigan's population lives in rural counties, only 17% family physicians work in these counties. This paucity of primary care providers makes it difficult for the agency to meet the Early Head Start (EHS) and Head Start (HS) program requirements to provide well child physicals, immunizations, and dental and lead screenings. The COVID-19 closures of primary care practices further reduced EHS/HS programs access.

The poverty rate in NE Michigan ranges from 11.4% (Otsego County) to 19.5% (Alcona County). In Alcona County, 22.4% of children will have experienced homelessness by the fifth grade, and 22.9% in Iosco County. Eighteen of 21 counties had higher than average percentages of children receiving free or reduced-price meals. Such statistics indicate that Michigan has a significant population of vulnerable individuals, which in turn results in a higher likelihood of this population experiencing the negative determinants of health (Walcheski, 2021). Fourteen counties with the highest poverty rates in the State of Michigan are within NEMCSA's service area, and seven counties in the service area saw recent increases in the percentage of their population living below the federal poverty rate.

In the 2020 NEMCSA needs assessment, healthcare was the top concern in the service area (NEMCSA, 2019). One suggestion was to "….create stronger access on a more frequent basis to mobile-traveling offices, machines, testing equipment or increasing the number of providers/centers" (NEMCSA, 2019, pg.19). Also from the assessment: "another practical option is increasing the number of Nurse Practitioners and allowing them to travel into homes as part of the outpatient, patient relocation/transfer and home care services; checking on recovery, prescription transfer systems, and reconciliation, as well as after care support" (NEMCSA, 2019, pg. 19).

Regarding care access, Michigan has 758 Health Professional Shortage Areas (HPSA), 244 dental HPSAs, 243 mental health HPSAs, and 271 primary care HPSAs in. Of the 271 primary care HPSAs, 113 (42%) are in NE Michigan within NEMCSA's service area (data.hrsa.gov/geo).

Human Subjects Protection

This study was approved by the relevant IRB (HUM 00207128). Study participation was voluntary and anonymous, and not all students who participated in the health fairs completed the study survey.

Student Recruitment

The 65 students enrolled in pediatric courses included in the Doctor of Nursing Practice (DNP) and the Master of Science in Nursing (MSN) programs were invited via a course announcement to participate in the health fairs (to accumulate clinical hours) and the accompanying study to document their perceptions of the SLA.

Data Collection

Participants were asked to complete a pre- and post-activity survey, a modified Community Service Attitudes Scale that included one open-ended qualitative question (Appendix A) and was accessed via Blackboard. The survey was anonymous, and the faculty were unable to track which students had completed it.

Students received health fair reminder announcements a week before each fair was held. Students also received a reminder to complete the post-activity survey within a week after each fair was held. Multiple reminders were sent at various times, as the four health fairs were held at different sites throughout the state and not all students attended all four fairs. In fact, due to the travel distance involved, it was unusual for a student to attend more than one fair. Thus, it was important to capture students' pre- and post-activity thoughts and perceptions as close to the fairs as possible.

Faculty at the fairs verbally reminded the students to complete the surveys. Faculty also gave printed survey copies to each student before it was decided that the data processing would be too complicated if both paper and electronic surveys were used. This decision may have been a crucial mistake, as participation likely would have been much higher had the paper surveys been included. The N also changed after the semester ended. The survey data were downloaded from Blackboard and analyzed as reported in the results section.

Health Fair Planning and Implementation

During initial health fair planning meetings, SON and CSA members evaluated existing resources and determined those that needed to be created. SON graduate students were tasked with helping to plan the inaugural event with close faculty supervision. The undergraduate students developed educational materials for the attendees.

To provide structure and staff for the fairs, CSA staff made reservations to attend the fairs. Each fair offered six basic services, as described below.

- Well child visits (height, weight, vital signs, a physical examination, immunization review, vision and audiology screenings, and interaction with parents to review and evaluate the screening results)
- Parent/child education pamphlets (gun safety, healthy eating, handwashing, healthy dental practices, sun safety, helping young children cope with COVID, proper car seat use, the importance of well child evaluations, and the benefits of exercise)
- Lead level evaluations
- Nutritious snacks
- A safe play area
- Bicycle helmets (Police and firemen were on site to interact with the attendees and provide each child with a bicycle helmet)
- Books and donated toys

Two of the four health fairs had a mobile dental unit offering screenings and appointments. Two fairs had county health departments on site to administer immunizations. Two counties also had community mental health services available for parents who screened positive for depression. One fair had bicycles that were raffled from free raffle tickets provided at check in.

Fair organization improved with each successive fair. While the first health fair set up and tear down was time consuming, the last time it took only about 30 minutes. A faculty member and her husband fabricated individual booths for physicals. Tables and chairs were provided by faculty and the fair site. Faculty provided medical supplies such as otoscopes and ophthalmoscopes. The university simulation lab provided paper supplies, gloves, and masks. Faculty members developed a height board. Weight, vision, and hearing tests were completed in a private space provided by the CSA site. CSA staff managed reception activities. Equipment was stored in a faculty member's motorhome and record keeping was completed and held by the CSA. Health Information Portability Accountability Act (HIPAA) issues were minimized by using site staff, students, and faculty who were knowledgeable about HIPAA. A volunteer guided each family through the stations to ensure they did not miss any of the offered services.

With faculty supervision, undergraduate students obtained vital signs, gave out educational pamphlets, and performed lead level testing. Also under faculty supervision, graduate family nurse practitioner students performed physical assessments in semi-private booths with children who were accompanied by their parents. Faculty brought students in to observe when an abnormal finding was discovered.

Results

One hundred and forty children participated in the health fairs. Abnormal physical examination or lead level findings were immediately communicated to the child's primary care provider via phone. One child was sent directly to an emergency department, as their primary care provider's office was closed on that Wednesday afternoon.

Of the 65 students invited, 50 students participated in the health fairs, either via direct care or development of educational material. Of those participating in direct care, 10 completed the pre-activity survey, and five completed the post-activity survey. Student demographic information is presented in Tables 1 (pre-activity survey) and 2 (post-activity survey). Results from the pre-activity survey indicated that eight of the 10 students had prior community service experience, while two did not. Among the students with community service experience, seven volunteered once a year and one volunteered monthly.

Table 1. Pre-Activity Survey Participant Demographics (n=10)

Characteristic	Number of Participants
Age	
17	-
18-20	-
21	-
22	-
23-29	2
30-39	4
40 or older	4
Gender	
Female	9
Male	-
Did not disclose	1
Race	
African American	1
Hispanic	-
Native American	-
Asian	1
White	8
Multiracial	-
Other	-
College Rank	
Undergraduate	-
Graduate	10

Table 2. Post-Activity Survey Participant Demographics (n=5)

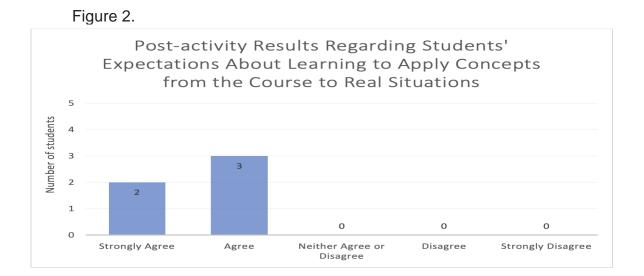| Characteristic	Number of Participants
Age	
17	-
18-20	-
21	-
22	-
23-29	1
30-39	2
40 or older	2
Gender	
Female	4
Male	-
Did not disclose	1
Race	
African American	-
Hispanic	-
Native American	-
Asian	1
White	4
Multiracial	-
Other	-
College Rank	
Undergraduate	-
Graduate	5

Learning

Regarding the question of whether they would gain a deeper understanding of course topics through the SLA, in the pre-activity survey, six of the 10 students strongly agreed, two agreed, and two neither agreed nor disagreed. In the post-activity survey, all five of the students either strongly agreed (n=2) or agreed (n=3) that they gained a deeper understanding of course topics from the SLA (Figure 1).
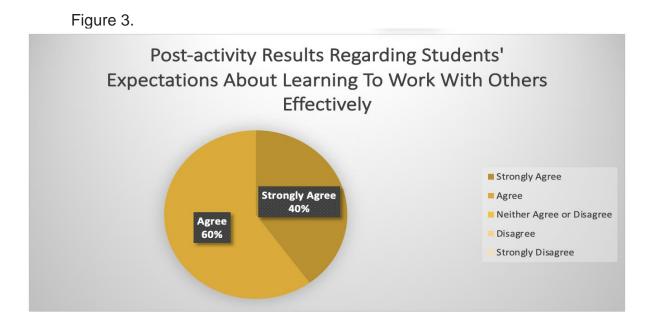
Figure 1.

Post-activity Results Regarding Students' Expectations About Gaining a Deeper Understanding of the Topic Area of the Course

Concept Application

Regarding the question about whether they felt they would learn to apply course concepts to real situations from the SLA, in the pre-activity survey, six of the 10 students strongly agreed, three agreed, and one neither agreed nor disagreed. In the post-activity survey, all students either strongly agreed (n=2) or agreed (n=3) that they learned to apply course concepts to real situations from the SLA (Figure 2)

Figure 2.

Post-activity Results Regarding Students' Expectations About Learning to Apply Concepts from the Course to Real Situations
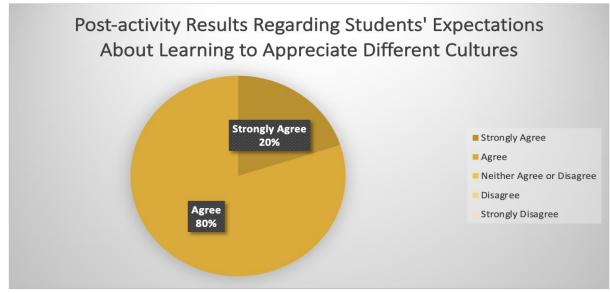
Teamwork

      Regarding their expectations of learning to work with others effectively during the SLA, in the pre-activity survey, four of the 10 students strongly agreed, five agreed, and one neither agreed nor disagreed that they would experience such learning. In the post-activity survey, all students either strongly agreed (n=2) or agreed (n=3) that they learned to work with others effectively during the SLA (Figure 3).

Figure 3.

Post-activity Results Regarding Students' Expectations About Learning To Work With Others Effectively

Cultural Awareness

      Students also were surveyed about their expectations of learning to appreciate different cultures. In the pre-activity survey, four of the ten students strongly agreed, four agreed, and two neither agreed nor disagreed that they would experience such learning. In the post-activity survey, one student strongly agreed and four students agreed that this learning occurred (Figure 4).

Figure 4.

Post-activity Results Regarding Students' Expectations About Learning to Appreciate Different Cultures

Meaningful Contribution

Finally, students were asked to rate their expectations regarding their ability to make a real contribution through the SLA. In the pre-activity survey, three of the ten students strongly agreed, four agreed, two neither agreed nor disagreed, and one disagreed with the statement. In the post-activity survey, one student strongly agreed and four agreed that they made a real contribution through the SLA (Figure 5).

Figure 5

Post-activity Results Regarding Students' Expectations About Making a Real Contribution Through the Service Learning Activity

Discussion

The SLA design was successful, as it provided care to preschool children and families, delivered rich clinical experiences for students, and promoted relationship building for all involved. The students reported the SLA advanced their ability to work as a team, appreciate cultural differences, understand the real-world impacts of the social determinants of health, and make a real contribution. Moreover, students experienced professional mentoring, modeling, and collegiality among themselves, faculty, and CSA staff.

One unanticipated program benefit was the collaborative learning that took place between the undergraduate and graduate students. The graduate students helped the undergraduate students learn more about the importance of and techniques for performing physical examinations outside a traditional exam room. The undergraduate students helped the graduate students understand the need for a curriculum that is scaffolded in purpose and completeness as well as the ability to have creative adaptations of the traditional physical examination.

The health fairs increased the number of children screened for health and dental issues. Word of mouth and targeted marketing likely will increase future health fair participation from the 140 children who participated in these four fairs. The CSA staff appreciated student and faculty efforts to help them meet the health requirements for the children and families they serve and expressed their desire to continue the collaboration. For the 2021-2022 school year, 1,515 children were newly enrolled in the CSA and 947 students completed required screenings for developmental, sensory, and behavioral concerns within 45 days. Of these children, 265 were identified as needing follow-up assessment or formal evaluation to determine disability status (NEMCSA, 2019). Obviously, not all of these children were screened in this round of health fairs.

While families were not specifically queried about their satisfaction with the program, many parents were effusive in their appreciation for the program. One mother was overheard telling a friend that her child had just received the most thorough physical examination she had ever had in her life.

Addressing Limitations and Challenges

All the information gained during the health fairs was examined with a view to produce even more successful fairs in the future. As with all pilot studies, we encountered several challenges and limitations. This study's most significant limitation was its small sample: 65 students were invited to participate in the SLA, 50 students participated, in either the health fairs and/or the CSAS survey. Ten students actively involved in hands-on care completed the pre-activity survey, and five completed the post-activity survey. The low student participation levels likely were due to schedule-related factors, as the study did not correspond with an actual undergraduate course and the health fairs were scheduled during the summer (after the conclusion of the semester). To maximize student and family involvement, health fairs should be held in the months of April, May, August, and September instead of June and July. Furthermore, informal discussions revealed that, because half of the fair sites were more than an hour drive from the university, Mondays would be better fair days than other days of the week.

The CSA held a debriefing session and identified the challenges of hosting health fairs: the need to hold the fairs outside due to COVID, weather conditions/wind, and scheduling issues. Nursing faculty identified challenges related to improving student participation, documenting student perceptions, and ensuring the program captures the richness of service-learning. All of these challenges will be reviewed in planning future fairs.

Implications for Education

The results from this small pilot study suggest the importance and benefits of SLAs for graduate nurse practitioner students. No data were collected from the undergraduate students who participated, as they were not in an actual course during the study. However, undergraduate students verbally reported the benefits they received from their participation: faculty mentoring, interaction with children and faculty, and an increased awareness of the health disparities among health fair attendees.

Designing health fairs to provide clinical learning opportunities to nursing students and care to children is an innovative pedagogy that meets the needs of both community members and students. These health fairs also served as an important source of clinical experiences for students during a time when traditional clinical sites were closing or limiting student participation due to the COVID-19 pandemic. For this reason, these fairs will be used routinely with these courses and viewed as an additional option for clinical education in other courses.

It is noteworthy that the design process for this health care program parallels translational research methods as well as the nursing process. From its conception to evaluation, this health fair program also aligns with recommendations from the American Association of Colleges of Nursing for implementing a final DNP project.

Future Research

It is anticipated that, with an improved schedule and strengthened methods and data collection, this small pilot study can be replicated and expanded to include more than 100 students. While only graduate students were surveyed in this pilot study due to their class schedule, undergraduate students will be included in the future. Including both types of students will allow researchers to compare and contrast their views on SLAs. Additionally, the clinical and cultural competence of those participating in an SLA could be measured against those who did not participate. Indeed, there are many areas within this study concept for further exploration of how service-learning affects the many aspects of student learning.

Conclusion

This SON-CSA collaboration was a true working partnership that resulted in an SLA that benefited students, faculty, CSA staff, children and families, and the communities involved. This collaboration also can serve as an important link to care for underserved children and families. Plans are underway for replication and expansion of this study and the health fairs in spring/summer 2022

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Service Learning of An Inmate Re-entry Program In An Urban Commuter University

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ABSTRACT

The pedagogy of a service-learning course is applied in a large urban commuter university to explore the impact of a service-learning course on upper-level students. The study population was engaged in an inmate re-entry program, and students were placed in non-profit re-entry agencies. Results show changes in students' perception of offenders during the re-entry process. Furthermore, students' empathy and understanding of the re-entry population indicate internal changes from fundamental offender-based thinking. Offering a Recovery Coach training opportunity seems to positively impact student self-awareness while providing an essential resource to non-profit community agencies.

Public universities were created in the 1860s with the belief that they would serve the needs of their communities. However, universities have evolved into insulated entities using a traditional lecture-based pedagogy. The growth in experiential learning programs suggests that universities may finally begin to fulfill the promise of their original mission. Not only do these programs have the potential to benefit the community, but a growing body of literature has also found that students benefit more from an experiential learning experience than traditional classroom instruction (Hawtrey, 2007; Bradberry & De Maio, 2019; Nikzad-Terhune & Taylor, 2020).

The AACU documents several high-impact practices that help with student success at the undergraduate level (American Association of Colleges and Universities, 2022). This list includes many practices that have become popular in the past few years and are present in the current study. Service-Learning and Community based learning are often experiential-based learning components that allow students to give back to the community while applying what they are being taught in the classroom. Capstone courses are required in

some degree programs as the concluding course in the degree plan in which soon-to-be graduates can apply their knowledge to a specific issue. Collaborative assignments and projects have students working together to solve a problem, complete an assignment, or complete other parts of a course. Writing-intensive courses have structured writing components in the course, in which feedback from the professor and revision from the student is expected. These high-impact teaching practices allow an instructor to reach a student on a different plane than that of a traditional lecture or seminar format. Students are gaining the knowledge and learning to apply it in real-world settings or gaining the knowledge in a different form than they are used to. As such, learning diversity is being triggered, and students who may not have been heavily involved in the university or classwork suddenly find themselves actively engaged in the material and within the university community because they are being reached in ways they were not before.

We describe a prisoner re-entry service-learning (SL) project in an undergraduate criminal justice course. We present quantitative and qualitative evaluations of the course from the student's perspective. Finally, we discuss the promises and pitfalls of incorporating experiential learning into the traditional criminal justice curriculum.

Overview of Service-Learning

Public universities were created with the central focus of serving their local communities (Fitzgerald, Bruns, Furco, & Swanson, 2016). The Morrill Act was passed in 1862 with the notion that an educated public was essential for sustaining a democracy (Bonnen, 1998). Over the years, universities have drifted away from their traditional land-grant missions to become more narrowly focused on knowledge production within disciplines and have become somewhat insulated from the issues and concerns of their communities (Pasque, 2006). There is a growing recognition that not all knowledge and expertise reside in higher education (Fitzgerald, Bruns, Furco, & Swanson, 2016). Communities should draw on partnerships with universities to solve complex problems (Savery, 2015). State legislatures must see that universities deliver value to the general public beyond granting degrees (Fitzgerald, Bruns, Furco, & Swanson, 2016). Universities have important resources such as students, faculty, research expertise, technology, and libraries (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

Various experiential learning opportunities are available to students, such as study abroad, internships, and field experiences (Nzaranyimana et al., 2019; Constantinou, 2018). However, they tend to emphasize extending students' professional skills by exposing them to the profession. Faculty and students often engage in community service projects, especially within student organizations, but not as a course-based approach integrating clear learning objectives and reflection exercises. Bringle and Hatcher (1996) provide a helpful definition of service-learning as "a credit-bearing educational experience which students participate in an organized service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility" (p. 222).

Service-learning courses may be particularly important in urban commuter campuses. It is difficult for commuter universities to develop traditions and a sense of

belonging among students that is prevalent in traditional universities (Gianoutsos & Rosser, 2014). Urban universities can create a robust learning environment and promote a greater sense of belonging among commuter students by involving them in service-learning activities (Schuh, Andreas, & Strange, 1991; Jacoby, 2020). This is especially true for urban commuter universities that enroll large numbers of non-traditional students or large community college transfers. These students come in with large amounts of course credits and often are at the university for a shorter period than FTIC students (Yang et al., 2018).

Several scholars have mentioned the importance of integrating service-learning into the spectrum of teaching, service, and scholarship (Fitzgerald, Bruns, Furco, & Swanson, 2016; Stallworth-Clark, 2017; Goodell, Cooke, & Ash, 2016; Scales, Roehlkepartain, Neal, Kielsmeier, & Benson, 2006; Kraft, 1996). Successful integration of service-learning would include involvement within the university's original mission, planning and allocating resources, recruitment and rewarding of service-learning faculty, and publicizing successful service-learning activities (Morton & Troppe, 1996; Bringle & Hatcher, 2000). Effective communication of engagement activities to the community can help build public support for higher education as a public good (Fitzgerald, Bruns, Furco, & Swanson, 2016). This is especially important when universities are under increasing scrutiny from state legislatures around the country (See, Kelderman & Pettit, 2022) and are increasingly seen through a partisan lens by the public at large (Green, 2021). Goodwill begets goodwill.

Faculty and Student Perceptions of Service-Learning

Faculty who teach High-Impact (HIP) courses report that it brings new life to the classroom, is a more enjoyable way to teach, and increases student interest and performance. Students in service-learning courses report more positive beliefs in the importance of serving the community and learning outcomes (Boss, 1994; Bringle & Kremer, 1993; Cohen & Kinsey, 1994; Moely, McFarland, Miron, Mercer, & Ilustre, 2002; Novak, Markey, & Allen, 2007).

Gray and colleagues (2000) evaluated curriculum-based service-learning with Learning and Save America Higher Education grants among colleges and universities. They compared students in service-learning courses with students in similar courses that did not involve service-learning across 28 colleges and universities. Service-learning students were significantly more likely to indicate they would engage in civic activities and reported improved life skills (Gray, Ondaatje, Fricker Jr., & Geschwind, 2000).

A meta-analysis of 62 studies involving 11,837 students showed that, compared to controls, students participating in SL programs demonstrated significant gains in five outcome areas: attitudes toward self, attitudes toward school and learning, civic engagement, social
skills, and academic performance. There was empirical support for the position that following certain recommended practices—such as linking to curriculum, voice, community involvement, and reflection—was associated with better outcomes (Celio, Durlak, & Dymnicki, 2011).

In a longitudinal study of over 22,000 college and university students, students that had participated in service-learning courses had significantly higher academic performance (GPA, writing skills, critical thinking skills), values (commitment to activism and to promoting racial understanding), choice of a service career, and plans to participate in service after college (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000).

Service-learning courses may be especially important for first-generation college students. Many of these students struggle to integrate into college life in terms of interactions with other students and faculty (Polinsky, 2002) and are less likely to finish their degrees (Chen, 2005). McKay and Estrella (2008) found that service-learning courses increased positive interactions with students and faculty, leading to greater retention rates among first-generation students (McKay & Estrella, 2008).

Service-Learning in the Criminal Justice Field

The criminal justice field provides enormous opportunities for service-learning education. Service-learning courses have been developed in the areas of juvenile delinquency (Hirschinger-Blank & Markowitz, 2006), restorative justice (Vigorita, 2002), women in the system (Love, 2008), and prisons (Pompa, 2002); Vigorita, 20002). These courses have sought to challenge students' perceptions of offenders (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hirschinger- Blank & Markowitz, 2006; Hirschinger- Blank, Simons, & Kenyon, 2009; Pompa, 2002; Swanson, King, & Wolbert, 1997; Vigorita, 2002), bridge the gap between theory and practice (Breci & Martin, 2000), develop greater comprehension of the topic (Hirschinger- Blank & Markowitz, 2006; Penn, 2003), and introduce students to community service and related careers (Dantzker, Kubin & Stein, 1997; Hirschinger- Blank & Markowitz, 2006; Vigorita, 2002).

There are many practical obstacles to developing criminal justice service-learning courses. It may be challenging to identify community partners willing to take on students for a limited time (Koliba, Campbell, & Shapiro, 2006; Kretzman & McKnight, 1993). Placing students in the field and around offenders creates the possibility of liability for the facility, university, and students (Koliba, Campbell, & Shapiro, 2006; Kretzman & McKnight, 1993). Another important obstacle would include finding the time to develop and implement a service-learning course when faculty have other teaching, service, and scholarship obligations. These impediments to service-learning education are why institutional support is critical.

Program Description

The Re-entry Project is multifaceted and provides students in an undergraduate Senior Capstone Course in Criminal Justice with opportunities to work with the prison re-entry community. The degrees are offered at a large regional public teaching university in the South. The university is located in a major metropolitan area, and the campus is in the downtown area.

The university has around 14,000 students in a given semester, with the vast majority non-traditional and most being transfer students from other institutions (University of Houston-Downtown, 2022b). The institution is a Hispanic Serving Institution and a minority-majority institution. According to the university's factbook (Office of Data Analytics and Institutional Research, 2021), the undergraduate student

body is around 64% female, 56% Hispanic, 18% Black, 12% White, 8% Asian, and has an average age of 26.7 years old. Additionally, among the undergraduate population, juniors and seniors comprise close to 75% of this group. Close to 90% of the undergraduate students at the university are classified as part-time (less than 15 credit hours per semester).

The university started focusing on high-impact learning practices, emphasizing community involvement during the previous SACSCOC reaffirmation in 2016. More recently, an office focused on impact learning was created, and university monies are directed to service-learning courses, high-impact learning activities, and experiential learning options for students. The criminal justice capstone class checks off several boxes for the university related to impact learning and furthers the goal of developing community relationships.

The Senior Capstone course has been a part of the criminal justice curriculum for several years. The course is intended to be a culmination of the students' learned knowledge throughout the degree program. The university catalog description of the course (University of Houston-Downtown, 2022a, CJ 4370) says,

> *This is a capstone course for criminal justice majors. It facilitates critical examination by the student of contemporary criminal justice issues and topics. Particular emphasis is placed on the application of theoretical and ethical frameworks in a variety of decision-making contexts in criminal justice. Ancillary foci of the course are student writing and appropriate use of citation. This is a writing-intensive course that adheres to the department policy on writing-intensive coursework.*

Multiple instructors teach the Senior Capstone Course in various formats each semester. Some classes incorporate high-impact practices, while others do not. Before registration, students are made aware that the course involves a significant time commitment for the current capstone course. Students have other registration options with less intensive involvement. However, even in the actual class, students are allowed to pick a level of involvement suitable for their availability in that semester. Students are divided into seven different groups, and each group is assigned to a different local provider of services to formerly incarcerated offenders.

One of the local providers that students work with is Service Employment Development Jobs for Progress (SER). SER has received a grant of over one million to work with felons returning from prison using holistic and professional services. Senior Seminar students were assigned to SER to assist those in the re-entry process who need mentoring, resume building, and other life skills. Another example of student placement is with Unlimited Visions (UV). This agency works with at-risk youth. Students begin their work at UV by shadowing trained counselors, social workers, and other re-entry personnel with at-risk teens and young adults.

A carefully selected subgroup of students was chosen to receive training to become a Recovery Coach (RC). Recovery Coaches are trained in the four domains of advocacy, ethical responsibilities, mentoring and education, and recovery wellness

support. Once RC training has ended, students may earn the Peer Recovery Coach (PRC) title. This designation comes after an individual completes 500 hours with twenty-five hours of supervision within the recovery community. Recovery Coaches promote quality of life for those in the re-entry process. The holistic approach includes steering the client into active participation and empowerment. Individuals often provide the scope of RC work with a lived experience in recovery. The role of an RC is non-clinical. Coaches are trained to broker out their clients to professionally trained clinicians if necessary.

Training to be an RC within the academic arena consists of 6 hours of course materials and fifty-four hours of face-to-face training. All training is completed on two consecutive weekends by a state trainer. Students who complete the training receive a certificate issued by the state and can use the designation, Recovery Coach when applying for jobs in the re-entry community. The certification allows students to use the designation RC after their name.

Each student is expected to work at least ten hours per week with their agency. Community partners and a faculty member meet to discuss the deployment of each student. Each partner and faculty member work toward the best interests of both students and the agency. Students are responsible for maintaining professionalism and self-efficacy when working with their particular agency. Each agency reports back to the faculty member if there are any problems with the student placement. One of the outstanding features of this collaboration is the willingness of the community agencies to mentor and follow each student's progress.

In addition to the formal training, each RC student must complete a weekly journal to include: hours worked at a facility, lessons learned while working with clients, and how self-efficacy is addressed personally and with clients. Students in this course gain a firm understanding of ex-offenders challenges in re-entry. The students provide agency personnel with academic and theoretical expertise to improve services to clients at little or no cost.

Methods

Study Population

This study implemented a case study method to examine the impact of an experiential learning project on the self-efficacy, community service, and re-entry offenders' perception of two cohorts of undergraduate students. This qualitative approach provides contextual information and deeper insight into the students' lived realities and a basis for evaluating their responses to the project. With this method, the researcher strives to avoid subjective assessment and thus strengthening the quality of the researchers' arguments. The study purposively selected two cohorts of respondents comprising fall 2015 and spring semester 2016 criminal justice seminar class students. Figure 1 is a chart of the distribution of the student's demographic data. Over two semesters, thirty students (7 males and 23 females) participated in this service-learning experience. All students were criminal justice majors. The students in these courses represent the diversity of the [University]. Fifty-seven percent ($n = 17$) were Hispanic, 23 percent ($n = 7$) were African-American, and ten percent ($n = 28$) were Caucasian, Table

1. The average age of the students was 21.2. The vast majority of students were employed including twenty-seven percent ($n = 8$) full-time and forty-seven percent ($n = 14$) part-time. All but three students were considered enrolled as full-time students by their number of credit hours. Fifty-three percent ($n = 28$) of the students transferred to [University] from a community college. Seventy-three percent ($n = 22$) of the students received financial aid. Forty-seven percent ($n = 14$) were seniors, 47% ($n = 14$) juniors, and 6% ($n = 2$) sophomores. Only twenty percent ($n = 6$) had a college grade point average of 3.0 or above with an average of 2.49.
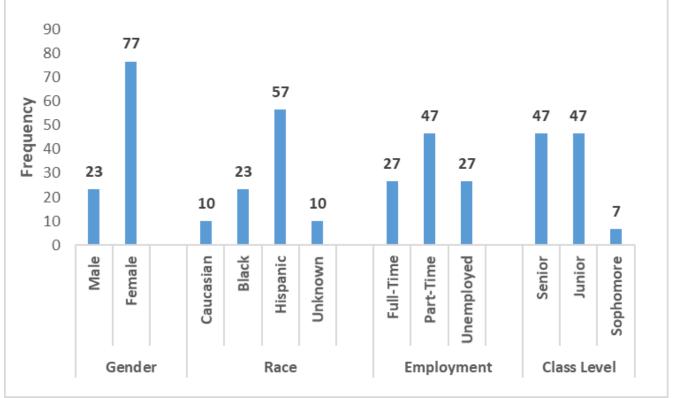
Figure 1
Chart Showing the Demographic Distribution of the Respondents

Table 1
Student Demographics

		N	%
Gender	Male	7	23
	Female	23	77
Race	Caucasian	3	10
	Black	7	23
	Hispanic	17	57
	Unknown	3	10
Employment	Full-Time	8	27
	Part-Time	14	47
	Unemployed	8	27
Class Level	Senior	14	47
	Junior	14	47
	Sophomore	2	6
Student Hours	Full-time	27	90
	Part-time	3	10
Financial Aid	Yes	22	73%
	No	8	27%
Transfer Student	Yes	16	53%
	No	14	47%
Grade Point (avg.)		2.49	
Age (avg.)		21.2	

Data Collection, Measures, and Analysis

The data collection method involved an online survey and written exit assignments. The surveys included closed-ended, open-ended, and 8 Likert scale questions. The assignment required the student to write a reflective essay about their participation in the experiential learning project. The students were directed to an online portal at the end of the service-learning period. 100 percent of the selected students responded to the survey. The question items assessed the student's self-awareness and perception of re-entry offenders. Students were asked about their perceptions of the service-learning course at exit. There were two questions concerning content comprehension: 1) I was able to apply the academic content of this course to a real-world situation; and 2) I learned the course content better because of the service-learning project. One question asked about the student's personal development: Participating in the Service-Learning project increased my self-confidence. There were

three questions concerning career development: 1) The service-learning project in this course gave me knowledge and skills that will help me beyond this class; 2) Service-learning in this course helped me to think about my career and professional options, and 3) The service-learning project has allowed me to explore career pathways in my area of interest. One question asked whether the service-learning project benefitted community partners: I feel that my project made a positive contribution to my/our community partner. One question posed was regarding service-learning and citizenship: Participating in the service-learning project has made me a better citizen. Finally, there were three questions concerning the students' perceptions of their contribution to the course and whether service-learning should be incorporated in future courses: 1) I feel that I contributed personally to this project; 2) I would recommend that service-learning be incorporated into this class in the future, and 3) I will consider taking another service-learning course in the future.

Reflections Analysis

For the qualitative measures in both semesters, a content analysis was conducted of students' answers to two assignments using the QDA Miner Lite Qualitative Software. The QDA Miner Lite is a computer-assisted qualitative software used to analyze textual information. It also incorporates strong capabilities for coding, analysis, and writing reports. The first assignment required students to 1) explain why self-efficacy is a necessary theoretical approach to prisoner re-entry; and 2) what best practices would you suggest ensuring that community, group, and personal efficacy be maintained? Students were also required to complete a reflection assignment at the end of the course to reflect on their experiences. Based on five major themes developed as the experiential learning cornerstones in the program, Figure 2, these assessments were entered into the QDA Miner Lite for coding and analysis. The program themes were thus further categorized into– attitude, career, clients, education, and service-learning.

Results

Student Perceptions

Using the survey tool, the student perception element of the study primarily addressed five categories of items –career development, leadership development, benefit to community, citizenship, and contribution to the course (Figure 2). Generally, the students felt that their participation in the experiential learning project positively impacted the five key items addressed by the survey. The study adopted a conservative approach in the assignment of the Likert scale responses between the positive and negative impact factors. The 'strongly agree' responses were assigned to measure students' perception of the positive impact, and the responses' neutral,' 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' to measure the negative impact of the program. Students felt strongly that they learned the content of the course through the service-learning experience; 97% strongly agreed that they were able to apply academic content to a real-world situation, and 94% strongly agreed that they learned the content of the course better.

Students believed (Table 2) they developed self-confidence (91% strongly agreed), and the project contributed to their leadership (85% strongly agreed). Students also agreed that the course helped develop skills that will help beyond the class (94% strongly agreed). Service-learning students also agreed that the course aided their career development; 87% strongly agreed that the course helped them think about their careers and explore career pathways in their area of interest. Additionally, a significant number of students (80%) agreed or strongly agreed that they would consider a career in the non-profit sector.

Students also agreed that the course benefitted the community. All students agreed that the project positively contributed to the community partners, including 87% who strongly agreed. Finally, all students agreed or strongly agreed that they contributed to the project (74% strongly agreed). All students strongly agreed that service-learning should be incorporated into this course in the future, and 87% strongly agreed that they would consider taking another service-learning course. Figure 2 is a bar graph of a frequency distribution of the student perception of the impact of the experiential learning program on the five categories of items addressed. On average, each of the five response item categories positively impacted approximately 70% of the respondents or more. The respondents realized the highest positive in leadership development, and the area of career development recorded the least positive impact (70 percent) of the project on the respondents. The respondents also perceived a low positive impact on their ideals of citizenship (73.3 percent) comparatively. All the response responsive categories were perceived negatively by less than 10 percent of the respondents.

Figure 2
Bar Graph of the Respondent's Perception of the Impact of the Experiential Learning Project
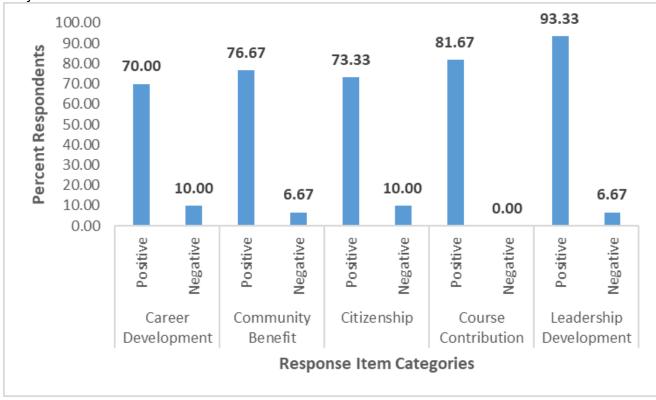
Table 2

Student Attitudes Concerning Service-Learning

	SA	A	N	D
I was able to apply the academic content of this course to a real-world situation	97% (30)	3% (1)		
I learned the course content better because of the service-learning project	94% (29)	6% (2)		
Participating in the service-learning project increased my self-confidence	91% (28)	6% (2)	3% (1)	
Participating in the service-learning project contributed to leadership development	85% (16)	6% (2)	6% (2)	3% (1)
The service-learning project in this course gave me knowledge and skills that will help me beyond this class	94% (29)	6% (2)		
The service-learning in this course helped me to think about my career and professional options	87% (27)	10% (3)	3% (1)	
The service-learning project has allowed me to explore career pathways in my area of interest	87% (27)	13% (4)		
Form: Due to this experience, I would consider a career in the non-profit sector.	53% (16)	27% (8)	20% (6)	
Participating in the service-learning project has made me a better citizen	73% (22)	17% (5)	10% (3)	
I feel that I contributed personally to this project	74% (23)	26% (8)		
I feel that my project made a positive contribution to my/our community partner	87% (27)	13% (4)		
I would recommend that service-learning be incorporated into this class in the future	100% (31)			
I will consider taking another service-learning course in the future	87% (27)	3% (1)	10% (3)	

SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; N=Neutral; D=Disagree

Content Analysis

Table 3 lists the program themes (category), codes, and the percentages of cases reflected under each coded item. These items were derived from the student's reflections on their participation in the re-entry course experiential learning project. The table showed the percentage of students that mentioned a particular item and the number of times that item occurred. For instance, the item' experience' were mentioned by 89.3 % of the respondents and comprised 36% of items mentioned. Figures 3 and 4 show the word chart and bar chart frequency distribution of codes derived from students' exit essays and surveys. The most important item the students reflected on was the experience gained during the program. This was followed by the opportunity to learn and be involved in a research team. Next, the students considered service-learning amazing and were generally grateful that the program was incorporated into the course.

Table 3

Themes, Codes, and Percentages of Cases, and Items Based on Student Reflections

Category	Code	Count	%Codes	Cases	%Cases
Attitude	Different Perspective	3	2.00%	2	7.10%
Attitude	Positive	3	2.00%	3	10.70%
Career	Experience	54	36.00%	25	89.30%
Career	Graduation	4	2.70%	3	10.70%
Clients	Change Lives	8	5.30%	6	21.40%
Clients	Inspiring	1	0.70%	1	3.60%
Clients	Welcome	3	2.00%	2	7.10%
Education	Amazing	13	8.70%	12	42.90%
Education	Challenges	3	2.00%	2	7.10%
Education	Learn	18	12.00%	10	35.70%
Education	Research Team	10	6.70%	6	21.40%
Education	Volunteer	4	2.70%	4	14.30%
Service Learning	Grateful	7	4.70%	6	21.40%
Service Learning	Opportunity	19	12.70%	9	32.10%

Figure 3:

Code Frequency Word Chart

Figure 4:

Codes Frequency Bar Chart

Self-efficacy among the reentering population:

Students were required to complete a written assignment concerning the importance of self-efficacy among the re-entry population. The prompt asks: (a) how have you contributed to the self-efficacy of your population? (b) use the textbook (use your journal information as well) to critically define and explain why self-efficacy is an important theoretical approach to re-entry. (c) What best practices would you suggest to ensure that community, group, and personal efficacy be maintained?

The vast majority of students were able to define self-efficacy and apply that term to the services they provided at their sites. Students recognized that self-efficacy can be an important internal mechanism for change and overcoming obstacles.

Student 1: Self-efficacy is one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task. The people on probation are doing everything in their hands to succeed in life and accomplish everything they set their mind to. In order for success to take place and allow re-entry back into the community, those looking for a different life have to be willing to change for the better.

Student 2: High self-efficacy is an important aspect in a person's life because it allows them to handle stressful conditions and situations appropriately. People with high self-efficacy are seen to have a better grasp and control of their lives. Rather than dwelling on the negative consequences of an action, they focus on the positive outcomes that can come from overcoming an obstacle.

Student 8: In order for reentrants to successfully reintegrate and become productive members of society, belief in one's own personal abilities is a necessity. In order to succeed, the re-entry population must possess a perspective of viewing challenging problems as solvable and have the ability to recover from setbacks and disappointments rather quickly.
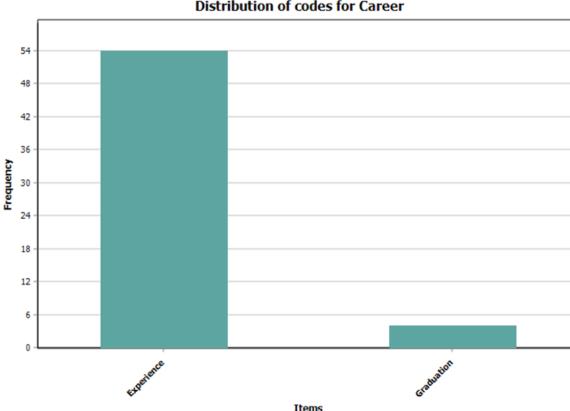
Student 3: Self-efficacy is a very important theoretical approach to re-entry. Individuals who have criminal backgrounds with low self-efficacy are at-risk of recidivating. A criminal conviction results in consequences that extend beyond incarceration. Self-stigmatization is a negative consequence that many former offenders experience. It manifests in low self-esteem and personal barriers to re-entry. When an individual is labeled as a criminal and seen only as a criminal, then they tend to live as they are labeled.

Other students recognized that the criminal justice system could have a negative impact on the self-efficacy of the re-entry population, and the community can play an important role in reversing the stigma associated with offending.

Student 3: When reentering individuals see that they have the support from society, then their self-efficacy can be higher. Rather than discourage and stigmatize those who are trying to reenter into society, the community should show support and help those reentering. By providing a sense of support and care, the reentering individuals are able to achieve the goal of becoming a model citizen again.

Figure 5:

Distribution of Codes for Career

Clients:

The importance of empathy and understanding

Figure 6 reflects a distribution of students' perceptions of the clients after the program. Many students in the criminal justice field hold negative views of offenders, and in many cases, they see offending behavior as a rational choice and the system as generally lenient on most offenders. One purpose of criminal justice education is to teach students that the causes of crime are often complicated and multifaceted. For

offenders committed to changing their lives, society puts up many obstacles. Students must recognize the humanity in offenders, and they are not so different from themselves in many respects.

Student 3: Family reunification is one more critical component of the re-entry and integration of every individual coming out of corrections. I have been a witness to both sides of the criminalized world. From working inside of a Correctional Facility to having family or known friends that have or are serving time currently. Within this semester, it has opened my eyes to both sides of the equation, and has shown me a different perspective.

Student 4: Ms. Mary has learned from her past behaviors, letting go of who she was, finding significance in life and making new plans for her future. Learning about Ms. Mary's experience before, during and after prison was quite shocking but it taught me these programs are definitely needed to help those who want to change their ways and do better in life.

Student 7: The recovery movement is about caring for an addict in a way that makes them want to change their lifestyle. This movement is about de-objectification of individuals. The recovery movement is about giving people choices and options to renew themselves.
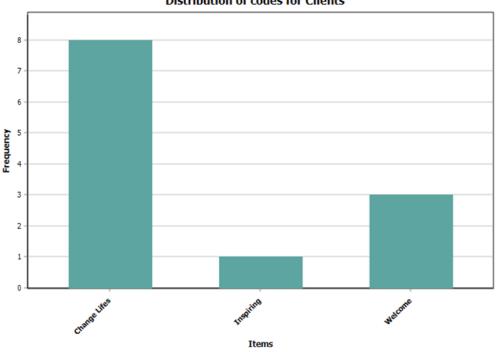
Student 8: The women wanted someone to listen to them, understand their point of view, see them as an equal, and meet them where they were without judging them or forming an opinion about their personal circumstances and/or past history. Allowing the women to see and feel the care and concern by those working with them is an effective approach to letting the women know they matter, thus strengthening their personal belief in self.

Student 9: As a detention officer, I am up close and personal with inmates daily. I can honestly say that since volunteering at Angela's House, I have become more curious about the stories of how the inmates ended up in jail.

Student 10: There has always been a misinterpretation about how ex-convicts lack motivation to change…I could not disagree with this more.

Figure 6:

Distribution of Codes for Clients

Distribution of codes for Clients

Service-Learning:

Internal Change among Students

One of the strengths of a service-learning course is that it can lead to a change in students. When these courses are at their best, students change their views of themselves and their place in society. Figure 8 is a reflection of the student's attitudes toward the clients and themselves after the service-learning interaction with the correctional system. The student's attitudes were equally shared between having different perspectives about the offenders and being more self-aware and positive about their own abilities and self-efficacy.

Student 5: I was able to witness how different people overcame their situation through determination. It was these people that gave me the template to better myself and not be afraid of failure but rather embrace it and learn from it.
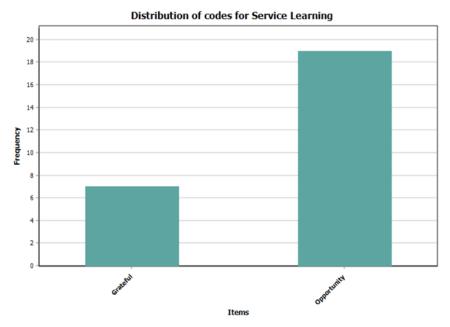
Student 6: This is an important realization for me as I learned while working at Work Faith Connections. The notion that people will seek me as their version of a successful model and emulate my behaviors was a humbling thought.

So now for the question, how have I contributed to the self-efficacy of my population? I didn't. They contributed to me and taught me more about life and overcoming adversity than I have ever experienced in my own life. To witness people coming from prison and reentering society with smiles and positive outlooks taught me more than I could ever teach them.

Student 10: What I wasn't prepared for was the fact that throughout this experience I would be digging in the roots of my problems/life and analyze my life as a whole as well.

Figure 7

Distribution of Codes for Service-Learning

Distribution of codes for Service Learning

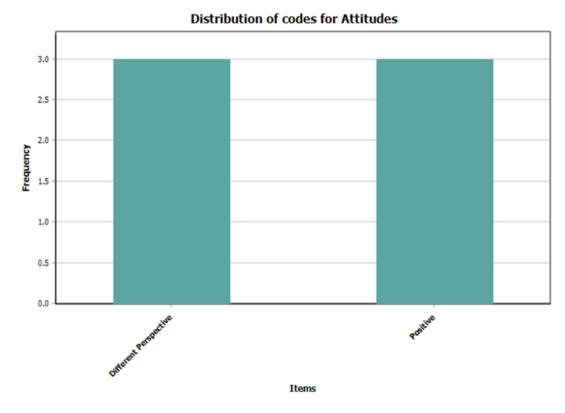Attitudes:

Recovery Coaches

The training to become a recovery coach is intense in many respects and requires role playing and self-examination. The approach suggests that recovery coaches can be effective only after addressing their own issues.

Student 12: The recovery coach training was the most emotional, life-changing experience out of the whole course.

Student 13: The recovery coach training was practically indescribable. The purpose of the training is to get to be able to acknowledge your own troubles and issues in order to be able to help others with theirs. When it was my time to share it was not easy…the fear of being stripped down to all of your insecurities. It was intense and one of my hardest challenges.

Student 15: I am very thankful to have the recovery coach training. Through this opportunity, I have learned that recovery is a process of change through which individuals improve their health and wellness, live self-directed lives, and strive to reach their full potential. It is also built on access to evidence-based clinical treatment and recovery support services.

Figure 8:

Distribution of Codes for Attitudes

Education:

Volunteering at Agencies as a Recovery Coach:

After students undergo recovery coach training, they apply what they learned at Unlimited Visions. This is a mentoring program for juvenile offenders. Students could see the impact they were making on their clients, leading to internal changes and the possibility of continuing to work in this arena.

Student 12: I had the opportunity to follow other recovery coaches at Unlimited Visions aftercare. I got to use and see all of my training at my work site, and am in shock at how amazing and life-changing the experience was. After graduation, I plan on working with youth and this experience has really confirmed that.

Student 13: It was such a liberating experience to be able to help these kids [at Unlimited Visions] and try to guide them and give them advice on how they can change their lives. I feel it has shaped me into a better person.
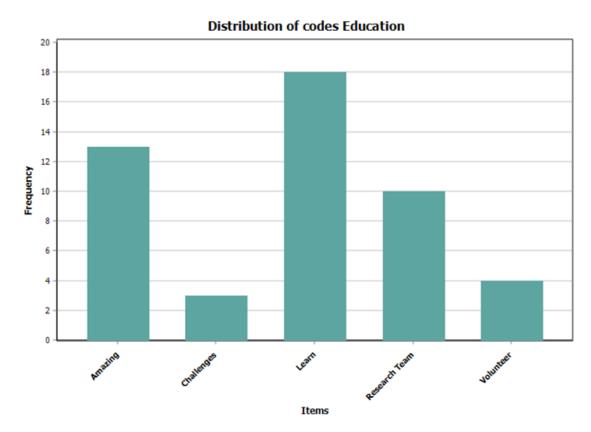
Student 14: As I worked at the agency I came across one resident who was willing to attend school, but had no knowledge about computers. She was eager to start college to become a medical assistant. I felt a sense of accomplishment in being able to guide her through the steps to accomplish her dreams.

Student 14: This course has given me an opportunity to support the community and make a difference in peoples' lives. This course has been a tremendous experience. My goals have changed to continue helping my community and those in need.

Student 15: In the future, I hope to apply what I have learned in Asian communities and perhaps introduce the recovery coach method to mainland China's criminal justice system.

To date, five students who have been trained to be Recovery Coaches through the Senior Capstone course are working full-time in the re-entry field. Another student has pending employment. Three of the five employed students are now [University] graduates working full-time in criminal justice. One student became a full-time case manager at SER and is now seeking her law degree. The most recent hire will be

working at Santa Maria Hostel where she will work with women and their children who need a "safe place" to live while going through re-entry. Some of these women are serving the remainder of their jail sentences at Santa Maria after giving birth while being incarcerated.

Figure 9

Distribution of Codes for Education

Distribution of codes Education

Discussion

      The present study examines a service-learning course's impact on students in their senior capstone class for criminal justice. These findings are consistent with previous studies and suggest that students involved in their own learning demonstrate consistently better outcomes (Celio, Durlak, & Dymnicki, 2011). Valentine, Price, and Yang (2021) found that high-impact practice learning enhanced student learning of 25 years or older black and Hispanic students. There were exceptionally high learning gains for students involved in service-learning programs involving community participation. In other words, underserved student populations record positive learning results when participating in High Impact Programs. In the present study, while students

were intentionally taken out of their comfort zone, they could synthesize their prior academic learning experiences and apply them in unfamiliar settings. Also, students in the course strongly agreed they learned the content of the course better than they would have in a traditional course (Figure 9). This particular observation is significant as less time was spent in the classroom.

Moreover, a significant number of students are considering a career in prisoner re-entry or as a recovery coach. A majority of the students were of the opinion that experience gained from the program would enhance their career opportunities (Figure 5). This finding has important implications as many criminal justice students are unsure of their career paths.

One of the more important implications of this study is the career possibilities of working in a non-profit agency. As a general rule, the role of the non-profit agency is not taught or represented in the criminal justice curriculum. Thus, it is noteworthy that the vast majority of the study population is considering a job in non-profit agencies. This may suggest incorporating the role of non-profit agencies into the criminal justice curriculum. Many students may lose interest in the field of criminal justice when presented with only the traditional options of policing, corrections, probation, and legal studies as career choices. Exposure to other career options could help in the recruiting and retention of criminal justice students.

The most ambitious part of the service-learning course was training a subgroup of volunteer students to prepare for the [State] Recovery Coach (RC) certification. The training consists of forty-six contact hours with a board-certified trainer, six hours of reading, and 500 hours working within the re-entry community. This is not a requirement of the course. However, those students who attended the training clearly gained a deeper understanding of themselves and the individuals in recovery based on their reflections (Figures 6 &8).

Results from the writing assignments reveal the integration of theory, research, and policy. Students can better comprehend and apply criminological theory by observing how offenders are impacted in real-world settings. Several students made the connection between labeling theory, economic disadvantage, systemic racism, and the difficulty of re-entry. The writing assignments also revealed that students could understand and apply the concept of self-efficacy to service-learning clients and themselves, which was an important learning objective of the course (Figure 7).

Many criminal justice students come to the discipline with biases regarding the offender population. One of the most important results of this service-learning course was the development of empathy for the plight of ex-offenders (Figure 8). Students witnessed the re-entry population as extremely motivated toward working on self-improvement and change. Many students come to the discipline believing that ex-offenders are not motivated to change their lives, which is the primary reason for recidivism. The service-learning students working with ex-offenders dispelled this belief, and they see the community's barriers to re-entry as systemic labeling (Figure 6). An important part of the development of empathy among the students is the realization that the plight of ex-offenders could have been their plight or anyone's plight under similar circumstances. This realization resonated throughout the study population, indicating the power of service-learning opportunities. Students can play an integral role in

enabling offenders to shed negative labels and help them with their future, not as offenders but as returning members of society.

There are many challenges when setting up a service-learning course. Service-learning is curriculum-based. Therefore, one must ensure that course outcomes and goals reflect the university's mission. There is extant literature on service-learning complete with the competencies necessary to achieve student success. Nonetheless, it is necessary to look at a service-learning course in terms of the student population and the community in which they live. There is no "cookie-cutter" approach as one size does not fit all. The student population in this study lives in or close to a large urban city. All students are commuters, and most have work or household commitments that limit their free time. The student body reflects the diversity of the city (Figure1).

This service-learning course draws on every facet of the criminal justice community. The challenge in setting goals and outcomes is contingent on many factors. The university administration must support service-learning courses and the practical challenges involved. The buy-in from the university administration is vital as community partnerships must be created and maintained. These partnerships are supported with memorandums of understanding (MOU). Creating partner MOUs allows each partner and the instructor to create reciprocal opportunities. Each partner agency has different needs. Thus, the instructor must keep up with academic currency within the field and work toward agency goals. Many service-learning courses require at least some funding. This course received financial support from a university fund specifically established for service-learning initiatives.

There are some significant limitations to this study. It could have been strengthened using a standardized instrument such as the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire. This would allow for a pre and post-test design and comparison to a class with similar content that does not use a service-learning approach. The authors will be using this approach in an upcoming study. The course in this study is discipline-specific and focused on prisoner re-entry, limiting its generalizability. However, this course can be adapted to other university settings with similar community needs. By looking at university policies, working with community partners, and receiving support from the university administration, instructors could implement a similar course at their institution.

Conclusion

Experiential education is an essential pedagogical tool that moves higher education back toward its traditional mission of serving its communities. How do instructors fully engage students who may lack the requisite motivation to learn the course material or advance in their academic careers? Service-learning is a fresh look at this old problem. Not only does the service-learning environment take on a new and more intense approach, but service-learning also removes many barriers between the student and instructor. While this study is discipline-specific, the art of engaging students at a more meaningful level overlaps all disciplines. Some students work harder and retain more information when fully engaged in their learning. The study population

in this service-learning course has explored their potential, found new ways to expand their knowledge base, and provided essential services to the community.

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Convergent/Divergent Perceptions of Faculty and Community Partners' Collaborative Service-Learning Projects

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The benefits of service-learning for students have been widely reported (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Astin, 2000; Jacoby, 2003; Blouin & Perry, 2009). Lesser known are the benefits for faculty and community partners, but recent research indicates that service-learning provides the opportunity for both faculty and their partners to learn from each other, share understanding of goals and create new knowledge because of their collaborative efforts (Sandy & Holland, 2006; Harrison et al., 2013). Beyond these direct benefits is a model of service-learning that valorizes equitable negotiating power between faculty and community partners that results in achieving mutual goals (Nasmyth et al., 2016; Zimmerman et al., 2019). An early step in this process is coming to agreement about the purpose and outcomes of projects. Despite this, each partner can enter the relationship with differing goals, competing commitments and time pressures that can prevent full engagement. This qualitative analysis examines the extent to which community partners and faculty agree on the impact of their shared projects on student learning, benefits for community agencies and their clients, contributions to the broader community and advancement of social justice. Agreement between partners is a first step in equalizing power between the partners and working together toward a common goal.

ABSTRACT

This qualitative study of the perceptions of pairs of faculty and community partners who worked together on service-learning projects, reveals a good deal of convergence on their understandings of the goals, work done, and products/outcomes of their projects. Significant divergence did exist on different aspects of these projects based on partner involvement with one side of the exchange or the other. Faculty emphasized impacts on students and often seemed unaware of the impacts on organizations and community, while community partners seemed more focused on their organizations and the community more broadly. As service-learning practitioners are urged to create sustainable, egalitarian partnerships that incorporate the views of both parties, these results suggest that partners make explicit their goals so that each may benefit from students' work, and at the same time create a meaningful relationship. This seems to require extensive debriefing at the end of projects. Such a step would both enhance the value of participation for the partners and enrich students' and faculty views of the projects' worth, increasing sustainability of the relationship over time.

The Collaborative Process

The literature on faculty/community partnerships in service-learning stresses the need for community partners to have a voice in all phases of a project. Trebil-Smith and Shields (2018) emphasized early involvement with community partners, close attention to the goals of service-learning and the organization's mission and offering closure at the end of a project (Rinaldo, et al., 2015). "…the benefits are possible for both partners but only when universities work alongside agency leaders to plan for and recognize the considerable time expectations of student learners and the impact of service learners on organizations" (Littlepage, et al., 2012, p. 317). In this collaborative process, Dempsey (2010) recommends that partners spend more time defining the partnership, developing a sense of common identity, addressing existing social and material inequalities to "…actively identify and mitigate these inequalities" (p. 381). Equality in partnerships is essential, argue Zimmerman et al., (2019), to ensure that projects truly meet the needs of the community, something the partners Cronley, Madden, and Davis (2015) studied found to be lacking.

As Worrall (2007) put it in her excellent literature review of service-learning partnerships:

> Good partnerships are founded on trust, respect, mutual benefit, good communication, and governance structures that allow democratic decision-making, process improvement, and resource sharing (Benson & Harkavy, 2001; CCPH, 1999; Campus Compact, 2000; Mihalynuk & Seifer, 2002; Schumaker, Reed & Woods, 2000). More structured partnerships also include mutually agreed upon vision, mission, goals, and evaluation (Mihalynuk & Seifer, 2002; Points of Light, 2001; Royer, 1999), and a long-term commitment, particularly on the part of the higher education institution (HEI) (Maurasse, 2001; Mayfield & Lucas, 2000). Long term, healthy, sustained partnerships are grounded in personal relationships.

Building good partnerships can take time. As Brock et al., (2017) put it "…strong partnerships …require trust and rapport building between partners that can be labor and time intensive" (p. 324). Yet well-planned projects that foster mutuality enhance the chances for impacting the community and supporting the time needs of all participating parties (Chupp & Joseph, 2010). From their perspective, community partners desired continuous faculty oversight through consistent check-ins, communication and debriefings and stressed the importance of providing feedback to students (Davis, et al., 2019). They also recommended clear articulation of faculty and student needs and motivations, agreement on the scope and duration of the project (MOUs) and clear assignment of roles (Paul & Elder, 2006).

The Outcomes of Projects

Transforming Students

Students who engage in service to others learn tolerance, cultural competency and enhanced communication and leadership skills (Anker et al., 2008; Jessup-Anger, et al., 2020). In this iterative process, students can transition from self-examination of their own values to insights into social issues and then move on to social action. Such a social justice approach to service-learning requires that students examine those structural processes behind the symptoms of problems, doing a deeper examination of the political, economic, and social conditions that maintain inequalities (Mitchell, 2008). From partners' perspectives, these activities are typically couched in terms of implications for the community, i.e., global citizenship education (Reynolds, 2016), enhanced awareness of community issues and exposure to new communities and perspectives (Karasik, 2020; Cronley, et al., 2015). Partners express the desire that, in coming to better understand various disparities in our society, students will help to educate the next generation of decision-makers about those often adversely affected by policy decisions (Worrall, 2007), be better prepared for the realities of nonprofit and social welfare professions (Cronley, et al., 2015) and develop a lifetime commitment to volunteering (De Villiers, 2016).

A few studies consider the issue of social justice explicitly. Jessup-Anger, et al., (2020), in examining living-learning communities (LLC) at three Catholic Universities found that both the type of university and institutional resources impacted students' understanding of and involvement in social justice. Opportunities for engagement, reflection, and interaction in the community and the number of resources, e.g., credit-bearing classes and coursework focused on social justice, were especially important (Jessup-Anger, 2020).

Other studies aiming at social justice outcomes offer valuable lessons by examining their shortcomings. In one case, teachers and villagers from a poor, rural community in South Africa, working with university faculty, expected financial, material, and infrastructural gain, which the university was unprepared to offer (Ebersöhn et al., 2015). Without agreed upon expectations between university and community, the university is unlikely to deliver on unspoken community expectations (Holland, 2005). Another study of student action in health care centers in poor urban neighborhoods in the Philippines (Adarlo, et al., 2019) showed that almost all students had difficulty moving past their personal concerns and connecting their experiences to larger social issues. Faculty reported a greater need for critical reflection that allows students to reveal their biases. Still, some have found the opposite effects on students as for some, biases are reinforced (Chupp & Joseph, 2010). Moving toward a social justice paradigm, Jessup-Anger, et al., (2020) recommend that students be introduced to civic engagement through varying levels that build on knowledge and skills over time, and include one-time activities based on students' levels of commitment and training in guided reflection with faculty and staff.

Mitchell (2008) offers practical advice on how to distribute power equally among partners so that training students is not the sole responsibility of faculty (Dempsey, 2010). She recommends that partners contribute to designing the course syllabus and that community members play multiple roles: teacher, supervisor, and person requiring

services. Students, through readings, reflection, experiential activities, and classroom discussions, can examine power inequalities. Such an approach prioritizes work with organizations that are involved in social action and works toward the redistribution of power.

Impacts on Organizations

Impacts on organizations and communities studied in this literature are both intended and unintended (Zimmerman, et al., 2019; Reynolds, 2016). Cronley, et al., (2015) concluded that the partners they interviewed believed that their projects had met "short-term" needs, that many of the things they received from the projects were not sustainable and some things became out of date very quickly. Chupp and Joseph (2010) cited a HUD study that concluded that 92% of service-learning projects provide short-term direct services or assistance, rather than having longer term impacts. However, Trebil-Smith and Shields (2018) argued that there are often broader impacts of these projects than initially understood, such as program collaboration, shared resources, and sustainable relationships - and that the community benefits through increased resources that address current community needs.

The outcomes that were mentioned most often in this literature focused on students' contributions to organizations' capacity to do their work. Interviews and surveys of community partners reported that students contributed their work-related skills to assist clients (Ferrari & Worral, 2000), applied expert knowledge and creativity to support clients and increased agency capacity (Kindred & Petrescu, 2015; Rinaldo, et al., 2015), and used their resources to generate energy, enthusiasm and fresh perspectives that advanced the agency's mission (Trebil-Smith & Shields, 2018; Karasik, 2020). In one study, a zoo's manager of Conservation Education and Public Engagement in Science reported that students' observations and findings gave their conservation staff a better understanding of the behavior of some animals and so would help with animal husbandry (De Villiers, 2016). Comeau et al., (2019) found that community partners had overall high levels of satisfaction with the public health assessments students had done, felt the quality of the data and reports was high, and also appreciated the increased organizational capacity the students had provided them. Littlepage, et al. (2012) concluded that partners believed they benefitted from working with students in past projects by the large number of nonprofits who said they would like to work with more students.

Impacts on Community

Additionally, several of these researchers found evidence of impacts of these projects on the community more broadly. Three studies focused on issues of public health, finding unintended and lasting impacts on policy and program changes, collaboration strategies and information sharing (Zimmerman et al., 2019; Comeau et al., 2019), and on issues of juvenile obesity (Brock et al., 2017). Chupp and Joseph's (2010) respondents also reported similar extended impacts from projects done with social work students: greater engagement of community residents and stakeholders in decision making with city government, creation of specific programs, sharing of information and resources, increased capacity to manage and sustain revitalization

investments, and improved quality of life for community residents. Reynolds' (2016) international partners reported outcomes of increased access to health care and clean water, saved lives, greater trust in local processes and feelings of inclusion and pride in one's village.

Methods

Much of the literature discussed above involves qualitative methods - focus group discussions, depth interviews, participant observation and content analysis - perhaps because qualitative approaches lend themselves to assessing the nuances in partnership relationships. Like our own study, others used depth interviews exclusively (Zimmerman et al., 2019; Kerrigan, et al., 2012; Rinaldo, et al., 2015; Jessup-Anger, et al., 2020; Adarlo et al., 2019) or in combination with other qualitative methods (Ebersöhn, et al., 2015; Catlett, et al., 2019; Dempsey, 2010; Culhane et al., 2016; Reynolds, 2016; Chupp & Joseph, 2010). Some studies mixed qualitative interviews with quantitative approaches such as surveys (Clayton et al., 2010; Trebil-Smith & Shields, 2018, Comeau et al., 2019).

In this study, we collected interview data from 19 pairs of faculty and community partners at two comprehensive Midwestern state universities that offer an array of service-learning classes in all disciplines. Each author accessed a list of courses with service-learning components from the administrative offices that coordinate such projects and began contacting faculty who supervised students, looking in particular for projects that had the potential for addressing social justice issues, and asking faculty to provide the names of their community partners on these projects. Faculty interviews occurred over the course of several years, but all partners were interviewed over a six-month period. For the most part, the faculty were asked to select a service-learning project they wanted to discuss prior to the interview. The partners they had identified were then interviewed about their views of this same project.

The 19 total pairs of faculty and community partners were concentrated in certain areas of study: the social sciences (N=8), health and nursing courses (N=5), teacher education (N=2), engineering and business (N=2), and courses taught by a director of a student engagement office (N=2). After both faculty and community partners offered a brief description of the project, we asked questions about the benefits of the project for each partner, for the clients served by the agency, for the organization, and for the community, in general. Lastly, we asked how the projects empowered the people served by the agency and if partners believed it promoted social justice in any way.

After initial coding, we were guided by patterns that emerged from the data – the extent to which the pairs agreed about the basic nature of the project, the benefits that accrued to students, the partners' organizations, and the community more broadly, basic exchanges that occurred between students and organizations/partners, and how the community was changed, specifically but not exclusively in terms of social justice outcomes. Although students' views were not part of this study, faculty and community partners reveal the aspects of student learning most important to each. After each author coded sections of the transcripts, we negotiated any differences in our analysis, ultimately resolving all differences.

Analysis

Our analysis focused on the extent to which community partners and faculty had convergent or divergent views on their joint projects. Our contribution to the literature is that partner pairs described their mutual projects from their own perspectives. We first looked at agreement within the pairs, then considered the extent to which their perceptions diverged. While there were considerable areas of agreement, there were more points of divergence. Divergence was seen by comparing what each partner pair had to say and then generalizing to the larger group of faculty compared with the larger group of partners.

Points of Convergence

Fifteen of the 19 pairs we interviewed showed considerable overlap in their understandings of the nature, work, and impact of their projects. Most of these overlapping views involved the products or outcomes of the projects, in addition to the work done. The outcomes often involved helping the partner organization better accomplish their goals.

A faculty member in a Food and Nutrition class and her community partner, a Board member of a homeless shelter and soup kitchen, described the work done by the students to create awareness of food nutrition and safety.

> Students developed a quality cooking recipe book for the shelter to help them in utilizing more of their donated food items and commodity foods...Students developed sanitation and training videos for the UCS volunteers to watch prior to volunteering in the kitchen….**Faculty**

> We also got a recipe book they developed, which we have used. A longer term issue has been more attention to nutrition and food safety as far as our process, and the nutritional needs of that population…It provided more awareness about food safety and nutrition, since that is a big part of the operation of [Agency]. **Community Partner**

The pair involved in a project done by a computer information science class with a community organization that loans used musical instruments to low-income children spoke in common terms about the work done to create an organized system to track the distribution of the instruments.

> We went in and designed…a data base to keep track of instruments, who donated them and send out thank you's…a system of who they were loaned to and when are we getting it back…letter would be generated…Donors…would get tax form saying how much you donated. **Faculty**
> The project has taken us from three different EXCEL sheets and index cards for keeping inventory for keeping instruments for the community. Our records would indicate when they go out to young students who can't afford them and get to use them. It is a huge way for us to be organized. We know what our inventory is,

and we can make records and reports when we pursue grants. Get instrument in, get it out quicker, send a thank you note to the donor, make the donor feel grateful…Get tax credit letter off to them for tax deduction…**Community Partner**

Comments about a communications project also showed shared views of projects aimed at improving strategies for coping with conflict

…how to work to resolve that conflict through strategic communication that is targeted toward specific personality types…**Faculty**

They got our students to think about how to solve problems with others besides yelling and conflict. **Community Partner**

For some, the goal involved impacting the larger community beyond the participating organization. This pair had similar things to say about a project done by a Student Affairs faculty member and an international nonprofit focused in part on human trafficking.

For the community, it was more of an outreach they did. The biggest thing they contributed to was an awareness campaign, getting more people to attend their events, donate supplies, time and money, getting people to understand what the organization was…helped fill a void of awareness…**Faculty**

…We do an annual fundraising event and a marketing class…look on how to best market that event… We got more exposure, more tickets were sold…we had 1,100 tickets that were sold and 913 people showed up, so it was…a big win for us… **Community Partner**

The ideal service-learning project involves a basic exchange of learning for the students and service to the community. Partners agreed on benefits of products produced by projects, but also recognized the mutual benefits projects provided for both students and agency. These partners in a project with a charter school done by a teacher education class gave common descriptions of the exchange between the university class and the charter school.

Teacher candidates learn how to manage small groups of students under guidance of a veteran teacher. They get a feel for the school setting and experience planning lessons. Early exposure to the classroom prior to student teaching is a valuable resource for our teachers…Classroom teachers have extra hands in the classroom to provide one-on-one or small group assistance to give their students the extra assistance they need to be successful...**Faculty**

They got to do some hands-on teaching, got to design and implement lesson plans. It makes them more prepared to teach when they get into their own

classrooms…It provided some benefits for our students, being able to work on things one-on-one…. **Community Partner**

These partners also commented on the exchange between the university students and the younger students, as the relationship became more informal over time, likely promoting mutual learning.

The tutors commented on the change in their relationship with the kids, in their attitudes, how at first, they treated the tutors as authority figures but by the end, they were actively looking forward to their visits and bringing in homework for help. **Faculty**

…this idea that we have college kids working alongside our third graders at [name of school], that's just really terrific…that's where they begin to understand what college is…begin to see themselves as going to college. And so that informal mentoring that happens, I think is very valuable…We like to encourage our students to be learning together. **Community Partner**

This teacher education faculty and her students worked to address educational deficits so that YouthBuild students could pass the GED.

… students enrolled in the course taught lessons and tutored secondary students enrolled in the YouthBuild Program…All of the students enrolled in the YouthBuild program had either dropped out or have been removed. Therefore, the…students created their lessons to address academic deficit areas which were critical to passing the GED…The community benefitted…in the sense that the…students had the opportunity to share their knowledge and skills with the YouthBuild organization. **Faculty**

Her partner put it more succinctly, but with some of the same rhetoric:

If they saw a need, they developed projects, teaching aids, props, etc. and tried to help however they could. The…students did a really good job and helped our students achieve good outcomes. **Community Partner**

Another pair agreed on the benefits for the residents of a homeless shelter of a project conducted by a communications class,

Residents appreciate the attentive, caring approach that the [university] students take in these workshops, as well as the opportunity to develop more effective coping skills (anger management, assertiveness, nonviolent communication, mindfulness etc.)…In the dialogues that take place in these workshops, residents have the opportunity to learn more about each other, and to initiate and strengthen supportive relationships. They listen to one another, offer advice, and share resources. **Faculty**

They share similarities and differences...team builders throughout the process. They choose their most important conflicts and act [them] out and as a bigger group they pick it apart and decide the best way to resolve... **Community Partner**

Some pairs discussed attitudinal and behavioral changes that had resulted from these projects. Two pairs agreed their projects had sensitized the university students to broader social justice issues of which they were not previously aware. This is from a communications faculty and her partner at a large community after school program:

I wanted them to understand issues related to class, and perhaps social justice issues, but I wanted them to recognize how difference emerged and how they (might) respond as a result of the difference, real and perceived...Most were changed and in a positive way. Frankly most had never been to a low-income area and assumed such were only in big cities. Sadly, they learned that poverty is in their backyard--as before they had no idea. **Faculty**

It seemed that they had no idea this existed, from the conversations we had after we would get to together and have get-to-know each other activities. It opened their eyes to things that these kids were experiencing, the things they knew about at such an early age, terminology for getting arrested, visiting a parent in jail…with no real negative connotations about it. **Community Partner**

A student affairs instructor and his partner in the administrative office of a local school system also saw the university students changing in this way, his partner seeing longer term impacts of these changes.

Many were at low-income schools and the students hadn't been in that type of environment before. **Faculty**

This idea that you…send people out into the world with a greater understanding of the community that they live in really helps…because I don't think people always really understand why schools are the way they are or all the different… challenges that they bring…They don't understand why a child goes to school without a coat on. So, once they've been…around those families, they sort of get to see and it does help… **Community Partner**

Others focused on changes they saw in clients. This nursing faculty and her partner both noted behavioral changes in members of a Latinx community as the result of health fairs her students helped with.

Over the past 5 years that I have been engaging with students in the health fairs, I have seen the participants beginning to change from being present-oriented and not really thinking about prevention and health promotion, to now taking

initiative with their health care and getting appointments to be seen by providers. In the beginning, 80% of these Hispanic participants just went to the emergency room when things got bad; there was no thought for prevention or ongoing care, and now that is changing…We are making an impact in the community with this population and with our future healthcare providers through these health fairs. **Faculty**

...It gives the community members the opportunity for services they don't have otherwise. The whole family comes to…[health fair] because they feel they can get all kinds of help right there. They have their medical exams on site at the monthly fairs, with a high amount of benefits. It really pays off, the preventive care and information. They were encouraged to change their eating patterns to prevent diabetes. The dieticians helped them know what to eat; they teach them to eat healthy, and they started doing this. **Community Partner**

This nursing faculty and her partner discussed changes they observed in clients' behaviors.

Individuals were…made aware of resources in the community and how to cope with the challenges they faced. **Faculty**

They have had a big impact on the neighborhood that we serve. First, the knowledge they all get. They hear about issues with smoking, drugs, and alcohol, but to have the students come in with charts and pictures and see what it will do to you and your baby, that has a much bigger impact. We can see the mothers rethinking their behaviors and some come in saying "I've quit smoking" or "I'm not drinking anymore." But it has had an even bigger impact on the youth who won't start these things…we can see it is having an impact. **Community Partner**

Both faculty and community partners saw that positive behavioral changes in their clients led to positive community change. This social work faculty paired with a large non-profit noted that the programs her students helped with would have long-lasting effects, but her partner connected her clients' learned traits to larger issues.

The nutrition program, the kids were able to try the fruits and vegetables and then can go home and tell their parents that they had asparagus, and it was good. There are so many issues with childhood obesity…Character-building is what this program really emphasizes, teaching the kids at a really young age…honesty, respect, integrity. This carries over into the school day, the importance of being respectful. We know if we teach these traits, they will carry over into adulthood. **Faculty**

I think number one, it supports the mission statement that they will respond to the needs of the community…The secondary pieces, we're…creating better people

in the world…more people who give back and take care of the world…
Community Partner

This social work faculty and her community partner doing outreach for homeless programs noted the concrete outcomes their project had produced.

A report from the study was published…representing a major collaborative effort to end homelessness in _____ County. It was instrumental in the establishment of a new housing center for both homeless veterans and homeless families more generally… **Faculty**

We were able to house 60 families last year because of the outcomes in the community. Many benefits came with it. Research like that done by these graduate students is needed to make the case for those who don't have a voice…In these times, the money's getting tighter, it's tougher. Anything that points out the situation is needed. **Community Partner**

These faculty and community partners seemed to be arriving at common understandings of the nature of their projects. They demonstrated common understandings of the goals and outcomes of their projects, for the university students, the partner agencies and for the community more broadly.

Points of Divergence

While there were points of agreement between most of the pairs in the study, faculty and community partners tended to emphasize different aspects of these projects, often based on their involvement with one side of the exchange or the other.
The faculty emphasized impacts on students and often seemed unaware of the impacts on organizations and community, while community partners seemed more focused on the impact on their organizations and the community more broadly.

Impact on University Students' Learning

For faculty, a primary motivating factor seemed to be enhancing the learning of their students. Some focused on specific skills they saw students gaining: addressing social problems, putting theory into action, applying knowledge gained in a classroom, and gaining a sense of empowerment in communications and computer information science. A communications faculty working with an alternative school saw his students helping others learn what he had been covering in class.

…Our students learn to communicate with them, and in turn, learn to address problems rather than complain about them. They learn that…bullying is a complex problem. **Faculty**

Another communications faculty saw his students applying what he was teaching about conflict resolution.

My students had the opportunity to put theory into action, wrestling with complex and changing contingencies. They developed a stronger sense of their own agency and leadership skills. **Faculty**

A computer information systems faculty discussed his students applying what they learned from him in developing the program to track the use of musical instruments.

I taught the theoretical concepts, did hands on practice and then they start evolving that understanding…I would say this needs work or this is fine, but here are changes. Take the design and go through a couple of rounds of feedback… By end of September, they had arrived at the design and started constructing the database themselves…The students had a tremendous experience working with the community partner. **Faculty**

A psychology faculty observed his students applying what they had learned from him about interviewing.

…people aren't aware of these people with multiple problems or if you are aware, you don't know how to interact with them…It builds confidence in students, shows them they do know something…How do you transfer the spirit of interviewing to those without verbal skills, get the experience of what I teach them, but challenges them. Here is the limit of what I taught and how do you modify it in this context. Don't get rid of what I told you but change what I told you. They feel comfortable in their ability of doing this. **Faculty**

Fewer community partners discussed the students' learning, and when they did it often involved preparation for future careers, not necessarily what they were learning from the credit course. The executive director of the international nonprofit (partner) spoke of not only offering an educational experience for his intern, but building skills that led to a job:

…Actually, one of our interns just got hired…by a local…company…to run a not-for-profit and…I think this probably gave him a great start…We don't want to just give people busy work…not just…"Okay, here's a broom, go sweep the floor." But what is something meaningful, something that could impact them and impact us and impact the people we are trying to serve …It is a tension of trying to find legitimate, good projects for them, but…I embrace the challenge… **Community Partner**

This local school system official, working with a student affairs instructor, talked about what the university students had learned from a collaboration that brought the students into schools for a recess monitoring project, but also prepared them as future instructors.

…We want to provide a good experience for these students, so…they're not making copies…Let's make sure we provide something that's enriching and rewarding and educational for the students…**Community Partner**

This executive director of a program for developmentally delayed adults, a partner of a psychology professor, talked a good deal about what the students gained from that project.

> They were paired up with professionals…They developed assessment and treatment plans and plans of care and did some work one-on-one in occupational therapy…with an occupational therapist…shadowing her and learning about the interventions. This was beneficial to them. Some of them work with me…One [student] was interested in…basic case management how we make decisions about plan of care, and some work with the psychologist and learn how to develop behavior plans for interventions…As we go along some of the students don't know what they want to do, and we look at real world type things and have them look up jobs to get a job like that. Then we would gear skills toward that. Pair them up with care manager…It is really a great opportunity for us to educate…[we] hope to build on this to help to develop professionals who have desire…[to help] people who are dual diagnosis. **Community Partner**

Community partners displayed an expanded knowledge of student projects beyond the classroom. This executive director of an international nonprofit, partner to a student affairs instructor, discussed a project where a business finance class helped assess small loan applications from individuals in a developing country.

> …they have to apply and they have to write up a business plan and…the students actually get to see the applications and…participate in the approval process of the applications…They also wrote 24 lessons that the loan participants…get approved, have to go to a weekly business class that was written by college students…to help them…have better business practices…And to date, we've had 100% payback on every loan we've distributed…It's really cool to…have a finance class sit there and look at the applications and listen to their input as they…try…to figure out…in a third-world environment what business models they think will fly or not**. Community Partner**

This community partner focused on how these experiences give the students she worked with the chance to apply what they learned to an actual project. She also hoped to gain some ongoing volunteers.

> I think we've been a valuable outlet for them to learn about the community and make an impact. They gain and we gain…It's also a potential volunteer recruitment tool for us. As these kids learn about us and what we do, hopefully they'll stay engaged and keep them doing it... **Community Partner**

This partner who worked on a design of a trails system and her faculty partner both discussed the impact on students' learning, but the community partner saw a

broader range of learning the students took away with them than the faculty member articulated.

> The college students who participated always tell me they get far more out of doing a real hands-on thing than just some academic experience. That was especially true for the engineering students who worked on developing the trail…It's a real thing…not just something they're studying in a book or some theoretical thing…It exposes them to things they could do the rest of their life. **Community Partner**

Enhancing Student Awareness of Social Issues
More faculty than community partners mentioned that they intentionally sought to expose their students to people and communities in need. Faculty mentioned students gained increased awareness of social issues, recognized and overcame some stereotypes they held about minorities, people in poverty and people with disabilities. A nursing faculty spent a good deal of time detailing the changes she captured in her students' understanding of the Latinx community they served at a health fair through before and after surveys she administered, and reflection journals her students wrote.

> Students wrote reflection journals about their health fair experiences…answered some specific questions that I posed to them. The themes that emerged from their journals were that this was a very eye-opening and worthwhile experience that they could not have gotten by hearing a lecture or reading it from a book, and they would carry it into their professional lives and future coursework… 82.9% of students had "somewhat" or "little" awareness of the unique needs of the medically underserved Hispanic participants prior to coming to the health fair, and this experience provided them with an important awareness and knowledge of the needs of this population.

This faculty member further saw her students overcoming preconceived notions of the Latinx population.

> Their idea of people in poverty who are from another culture was challenged; they assumed they would see fractured families with no cohesion or values, and they assumed that they didn't have jobs. What they learned is that this population is very family oriented, as they saw entire families coming to the health fair, and all the children were well mannered and dressed with care. The parents took pride in what their children were learning at school. They were not looking for a free handout; the fathers want and expect to provide for the family, and the children work hard to succeed at school to bring honor to the family. All these Hispanic participants had jobs and were working in the community, but they did not receive health care with the jobs they held. They earned low wages, yet they saved money and sent money…to family members in their home country…Also, students a lot of times don't "get" that it isn't as simple as just making a phone call and making a referral to get people seen. The participants have to trust you

and feel safe where they are going to get health care (especially if they are undocumented), and they don't want to get a big bill they can't pay. They are proud and do not want charity. **Faculty**

This teacher education faculty also observed changes in her students' understanding of a disadvantaged group.

I didn't fully anticipate the eagerness for my university students to not just teach a good lesson, but actually make a meaningful impact on the lives of their "pupils". I was often moved by the real conversations, relationships, and sharing that happened between the pre-service teachers and YouthBuild students…. **Faculty**

A sociologist who ran the honors program discussed her students' growing knowledge of the differences and similarities between the youth they were engaged with and themselves.

They also realized that the kids weren't that different than any other kids in some way (sweet, loved attention, interested in learning, liked to have fun), but very different in others (kinds of problems they talked about - parents in jail, can't pay bills, not around). **Faculty**

A social work faculty member discussed the learning outcomes her students had achieved working with a project on homelessness.

Students looked deeply into their own pre-conceptions, examining their own beliefs and stereotypes, and attempted to reconcile what they had thought to be true of homeless people with what they had discovered in just one set of intake interviews….In addition to being able to better engage with individuals from diverse backgrounds, students were able to apply critical thinking and creatively problem solve as situations arose in the interview setting and during the course of the interviews. These reflection papers provided evidence on the part of many students of their ability to identify social justice issues. Additionally, the students demonstrated their understanding of issues relating to diversity and inequality. **Faculty**

Students gained a deeper understanding of their own beliefs and reconciled them, through reflection, with what they had experienced. Faculty also reported that teachers' behaviors belied their reports of how they treated minority students and those with disabilities. This student affairs instructor noted the criticism his students made of a local public school where they were helping with recess.

Some of the…students were very critical of the teachers; they saw that minority and disabled students were often treated differently. As they worked through that, many of my students chose to comment on the fact of a disconnect between the type of positive discipline the teachers talked about and the way they may have

yelled at them on the playground…They saw a lack of the positive approach to discipline that was talked about. **Faculty**

Some faculty reported shock on the part of their students as they came to understand the outcomes of disparities of families too poor to pay bills or access needed transportation. In such examples, students' prejudices about the working poor or others in poverty can be reinforced. This communications faculty attempted to expand her students' awareness of inequality, allowing that she was not always successful:

Entitlement issues were rampant. Assumptions as well-- that the kids must be neglected, that parents were terrible, and so on. I definitely need to target a few things--mainly aspects of otherness that seem to pop up with a few of the…students. **Faculty**

And this communications faculty also explicitly stated that his students sometimes had their misconceptions reinforced through the projects.

A lot of our students have never seen these students first-hand. The fear subsides after a few minutes of interacting, and they find surprising similarities. I wouldn't go so far to say that stereotypes are broken, because several of them are reinforced as well. **Faculty**

University Students as Models
Partners, more so than faculty, observed the interactions between university students and their younger clients, viewing university students as resources that put a face on what younger students deem as success. This partner, working with a sociologist who also ran an honors program, appreciated the interactions between the university students and the youth in her program.

Any time college students come there…the kids don't often see these positive adult role models, even young adults…coming and trying to make something out of their lives and succeeding. The other examples they see of success are those in gangs [and] other such activities. This gives them an alternative view and it is fun too. They can see other options. **Community Partner**

This partner in an after-school program working with a communications faculty also saw this happening.
The biggest benefit, in general, was the college aged students interacting with our kids. A lot of them are from families with single parents, lower economic status, and have not thought about going to college. Finishing high school may even be a question. Many have young mothers who themselves didn't finish high school…They would do role playing scenarios with…[the] students…one-on-one contact with the [university]…students, with different faces, someone they build a

relationship with and look up to, saying these things to them. They identified with them, saw them as role models. **Community Partner**

As did this partner with a neighborhood program working with a nursing faculty.

> We want to show them alternatives, to see they can go to college or go to trade school, that these college students they see have succeeded, so they can, too… In the current group of youth, we are working with, none of them have gotten pregnant, none have gotten in trouble with the law, over one-half of them have gainful employment this summer. A lot of this has to do with the students coming here…and working with them and giving them hope. **Community Partner**

A partner with another communications faculty said this about the impact on her students in an alternative school.

> Our students always need positive role models, which the university students were for them. It was positive to see college students in the building besides the teachers. We don't see that much, not much mentoring going on. There is so much focus on instruction; that is the priority…They provided good models for the students here, how to deal with stress and conflict. It exposed our students to college professors and students. They talked about their experiences, how they got interested, living in the residence halls, and so on that our students had never heard about. It gave them some exposure to the college culture. **Community Partner**

Faculty saw projects as leading to greater understanding of class-based social injustices and saw students' desire to work with populations in need as a successful outcome of community engagement. The partners saw great value in the students serving as role models for the youth who were their clients. Some partners were explicit about their responsibility to teach students the significance of their work for both agency and community.

Benefitting the Organization
Community partners often saw more direct benefits coming to their organizations than the faculty. For example, this health sciences faculty member whose class worked with a community garden project on preparing plots mused that the project may not have helped the organization that much.

> …students don't have contact with the population…No way of knowing. Students aren't in there long enough. They do not see the people again unless they go out again on their own. **Faculty**

However, her partner talked at length about the benefits of the project for her organization.

It makes it easy for them to have a sellable garden for people to work at…
Students…weeded…added more compost. We greatly benefitted from the work
that they're doing preparing the garden for the 109 gardeners that were there.
Pathways that needed weeding. Provide extra hands that help us out…There are
a multitude of things that need to be done, little projects get done. I…think it
definitely helps the community as a whole. The garden is a showplace…
Students are basically helping us achieve that, keeping the gardens looking good
helps us tremendously. **Community Partner**

Or this psychology faculty who believed his students had not contributed much to
the non-profit he was partnering with.

Is stuff being used? Our students...have one or two clients that they interact with,
no one has measured the importance of the relationship…Is it long lasting,
systematically changed? No…Not much contribution to agency. **Faculty**

While his partner saw more benefits.

Look at people as not…part of a population…how do you work with individual
people? Want to leave here with that…Not labeling but treating them as
individuals. Really great opportunity for us to educate and hope to build on this to
help to develop professionals who have desire…[to work with] people who are
dual diagnosis. We talk about client rights, and they are trained in that and
integration with the community… Really difficult concept for some to understand
how do we work with them. Make sure they have independence…**Community
Partner**

Then, there was the nursing instructor who listed four things her students did with
a faith-based family-centered, non-profit in a low-income neighborhood.

Here are a few of the things that our mental health nursing students have used
as projects: 1) Teaching about healthy foods and snacks to parents and children
at [homeless] shelter ; 2) Information on how to be a smart consumer of health
care; 3) At the [the faith-based non-profit], students utilized a Wheel of Misfortune
to help individuals identify why use and misuse of drugs and alcohol harms both
the individual using but also family and friends; 4) The importance of exercise
and strategies for how to incorporate in daily life for all ages. There are lots more
examples if you need them. **Faculty**
This is an extensive list, but her partner's list (who had more than one faculty
working with him) was longer and dealt with tangential issues.

They have worked with all aspects of our program, helping teach parenting skills,
working directly with the youth, working with our staff. We have used their help in
so many different ways…They've also given classes on First Aid, CPR, taught
the Heimlich maneuverer, did AED training with the staff that may well have

saved lives, did risk assessment for diabetes, high blood pressure…Students stayed and helped with the soup kitchen, helped with adults…Some of the research on the population they serve that [nursing] students did has been useful in writing grant proposals to get additional funding for the programs there…A Masters in Hospital Administration class did three projects, one on volunteer management, others on Human Resource issues that have been very helpful… [This partner's psychiatric nursing students] did some projects on stress and anger management and other things for both the youth and the parenting class…**Community Partner**

Or the CIS faculty member who focused fairly narrowly on immediate benefits of the project his students did with an organization that loaned little-used musical instruments to young students.

They had a database system that wasn't functional, not working well…Before the project, didn't know the status of an instrument. Now with a click of a button they can show a report and see where instruments are. **Faculty**

Again, the community partner had a broader view of the benefits for themselves and others.

…There are a good number of people who loved the instruments they've played. They just don't want to give the instrument away…We all know that art and music seem to be disappearing more and more from the schools…the program…fills a void. It is probably the program which is a warm and fuzzy for those people who have loaned instruments. I love the fact that there is a recycling of the instrument. They learn the music and have gratitude and appreciation and when they hear music, they can appreciate the work that went behind it. **Community Partner**

This dental hygiene faculty also saw outcomes as tied to her class topics, while her partner saw wider-ranging outcomes.

Students educated women in an addiction recovery center about the risk factors, signs, and symptoms of oral cancer…Students used the skills they learn in class and provided a service for members of our community...Dental hygiene students provided non-surgical periodontal therapy to clients exhibiting moderate to severe chronic periodontitis… **Faculty**
It really helped with awareness among this population of high-risk people. Most of them are smokers, and that is a major factor when it comes to developing oral cancer…The population we are serving is often neglected by society, agencies, and so on. This project put them in position to get help with a disease if they needed it…helped the disadvantaged get the help they needed, get more resources…It put them in a position to have some control over their living space and to learn more about how to live a good life. **Community Partner**

The contact that faculty and students had with community partners varied across projects. Nevertheless, faculty often seemed to underestimate the benefits that partners saw resulting from these projects. In two cases, faculty felt that students had little or no impact on the organizations they worked with, while their partners saw substantial benefits. Additionally, faculty had a narrower view of who benefitted from the projects, focusing their attention on students, while partners saw transformations in students' capabilities and their contributions to their organizations and the larger community.

Benefitting the Community

Community partners had a broader view of the impact their projects had on the community more generally than faculty. Fourteen of the 19 community partners (74%) discussed impacts on the community, while less than half of faculty (47%) related their project to community development. Community partners saw the potential for bettering the community through education of clients. Half of the 14 community partners who talked about community betterment attributed this to the education their clients received from university students. In this example, the role modeling of university students "helps the entire community."

> By being there, people are already instilling self-worth in these kids, helping them see the need to stay in school…Now the older kids want to finish high school and go onto trade school, more schooling. Every [university] student that comes there has something to do with that…It helps them grow. Helps the entire community. **Community Partner**

Similarly, another community partner said,

> …the better we can educate the children, the populace as a whole, the better off the community is. **Community Partner**

Typically, faculty focused their attention on student or client attitudinal or behavioral changes. A nursing faculty responded to an inquiry on the impact of her project on the community.

> Exposure to nursing students may decrease anxiety for those who need to access health care services. Individuals were also made aware of resources in the community and how to cope with the challenges they face in their lives. **Faculty**

Her community partner not only emphasized the health of the community but saw the long-term effects of service-learning on sustaining the environment.

> They understand if they're making a trail, the purpose is to provide an opportunity for people for decades to walk a trail and benefit physically, mentally, socially from that effort. It isn't just making a trail from here to there, that kids really understand why they're doing this and the impact they can have in the long

term.…'m a part of service-learning because I think we've got to find a way to give back to the world, but make sure everybody learns. **Community Partner**

This faculty saw contributions to the entire community from his trails project but expressed a narrower view than the partner.

Assuming all communities are looking for improved health, it would help any community. [City] doesn't have a good rating as far as we smoke too much and eat too much. Can burn up a few calories with the trails. **Faculty**

Another community partner involved in developing community gardens saw broad community impact.

Folks that garden together that may have been in a grocery store and in a desert. They now have a connection. Feel better about the neighborhood, about the garden. It's a real sense of pride that the garden is there, that people go to the picnic table to talk and sit and enjoy…builds community in each area. **Community Partner**

In the following case, students developed a media story about addiction for people who visited their site, but the faculty did not fully appreciate its impact.

_____ has a media story that they showcase on their website…It's communicating to people who are visiting…using digital media and the internet is a positive…I didn't ask about impact. **Faculty**

The benefits to our agency are good quality videos that we can use. They reach a population we don't necessarily reach. High schools and then colleges and we don't get into either. And then just even the peer-to-peer education…Talking to classmates, high school…we really miss out on that…They are powerful speakers…Does make a difference…**Community Partner**

Most faculty expressed their desire to enhance student learning, develop cultural competency, educate clients about community resources, and promote client knowledge for self-betterment and empowerment. Community partners saw projects as helping the larger community through an iterative process that enhances the self-worth of their clients through education, promoting a safer, healthier, more beautiful and sustainable community.

To a greater extent than faculty, community partners sought to give students a better understanding of their responsibility to make their communities more just for people in poverty and those lacking knowledge and access to needed resources. This community partner had a broader, more nuanced view on a range of the issues in the alternative school where she worked.

…we have a lot of transgender students, so we have a big issue with bullying. And this project helped with this in general and for specific groups, which helped us achieve a more just culture. **Community Partner**

The communications faculty working on this project had a more restricted view of the ways it had promoted social justice.

By targeting those who have been identified as "problem students," we may be able to change the message to one of prevention rather than reaction. Generally speaking, the messages on bullying have been "tell someone" if you're a victim and "You're going to get in trouble" if you're a bully. While these messages work superficially on the surface, they do not address the underlying issues of bullying in schools. **Faculty**

Or this communication faculty who simply stated that, "This project promotes social justice by breaking down the barriers of social class." His partner saw many more ways social justice had been addressed for the residents of the homeless shelter.

Giving them voice and understanding they have a choice and how to use that choice…It builds comradery for the people at the shelter. We can pick apart choices and instill CR (conflict resolution) technique; it allows for easier transition for the client to get to the next level…**Community Partner**

This community partner explicitly saw outcomes related to social justice that her partner did not articulate as clearly:

One major goal we have embraced as a program the last several years is to give the youth hope for the future, which they haven't had a lot of. We want them to believe they can do more than the gang activity, drug dealing, pimping, and prostituting that they see now as successful role models...The youth who lived there who succeed…leave the neighborhood, so they don't see these examples...We have been successful in these efforts…A lot of this has to do with the students coming here from ___ and working with them and giving them hope. **Community Partner**

Community partners expressed their appreciation of clients' newfound ability to improve their lives and foresee a better future for themselves and their families. Community partners, more so than faculty, connected clients' behaviors to community betterment, but most faculty seemed hesitant to claim their project had directly addressed issues of social justice.

Despite these differences in perspective, both faculty and community partners

commented on how they might contribute their time to strengthen the relationship between university and community. This community partner commented on the importance of developing strong partnerships between university and community.

> …that they get to see how well we all work together…that is very strong and that makes them, I am sure, feel that makes *me* feel so prideful about this community that we live in…We have a fantastic partnership. **Community Partner**

Discussion

Coming to agreement about the nature and intended outcomes of a project is a first step in developing the ideal type of relationship described in the literature review. Both faculty and community partners agreed that students gained important knowledge, networks, and "real world experience" and the community gained from the insights and labor of students and the materials and trainings students and faculty developed for agency clients.

Partners diverged on project outcomes, with faculty more often emphasizing the impacts on students and community partners generally seeing broader impacts on their own agencies and the larger community. Community partners sometimes placed more value on work done by students in their projects than did faculty, and they were more aware of the modeling opportunities the university students provided for their young clients. Yet, in contrast to faculty's focus on specific student activities, community partners commented on students' technical supports, contributions as grant writers, and personal qualities as creative thinkers, and stated the importance of harnessing these talents for the future, seeing students as volunteers and professionals committed to community betterment. As role models, students formed positive relationships with those they worked with, taught others social and coping skills and advanced positive structural changes in the community. Community partners connected students' care for and education of their clients with advancing clients' physical health, which in turn, contributed to community health and welfare. Faculty were often not in a position to see these expanded outcomes.

There is strong evidence that community partners placed greater significance on their own roles as teachers and mentors than faculty seemed to realize and hoped to develop a long-term commitment to the university beyond the service-learning project. Without acknowledging it explicitly, both faculty and community partners had a commitment to social justice issues. Faculty expressed their desire to change the perceptions of their students to seeing the differences between themselves and those they served had origins in social-structural conditions and not in qualities of the people themselves and so, it was important to faculty to expose students to underserved populations. For community partners, their stated goals were to show university students that they could make a difference in improving others' lives. Community partners, in understanding community institutions better than faculty, realized that what students had done through their projects could be diffused to entire families who could change their behaviors and affect larger communities by sharing their knowledge. For youth, partners hoped to show that their current reality would not predict their futures,

and that there were viable alternatives to the models they often saw around them. Community partners, because they could observe the exchanges between students and clients, had a more dynamic view of change that occurred in both student and client, while faculty tended to focus on the attitudinal changes in their students, something that was not apparently evident and difficult to measure.

What community partners took from their projects had enduring effects. They saw how projects had improved outcomes for clients, their agencies and the community, with anticipation that sustainable relationships would continue. Sustainability to partners meant growth and improvement for their communities.

The implications of our findings for changing the relationship between faculty and community partners in service-learning projects are substantial. As the ideal relationship involves both parties in guiding the project from beginning to end, it seems critical that projects finish well. Additionally, the rush to complete a project at the end of the academic semester is an artificial demarcation that universities must work to change. Increasing the space for long-term projects affords time for both partners to achieve a common vision for their projects, to properly debrief with all parties and gain a mutual understanding of their roles and to understand the full range of outcomes from these projects.

It is the responsibility of both parties to teach students about the significance of their work. However, the benefits of their efforts seem differentially rewarded. It is very difficult for faculty to measure if students' attitudes about the populations with which they work actually change. Currently, attitudinal measures based on self-report do not reflect actual future behaviors and even if behaviors change, there is no predicting how long this commitment will last. Community partners see the interactions between students and clients and through their mentoring efforts seem to have greater confidence that their work actually makes a difference. The challenge for both is to create a more meaningful relationship so that each can benefit from students' work and get validation that their contributions to the project make a difference in the lives of students, clients and the community. This can be achieved by better communication between faculty and community partners and an emphasis on faculty learning more about how agencies function for the community. Students can research larger issues of inequality associated with poverty, race or disability and come to understand how their personal contributions can promote greater social change. But these efforts must be measured so that faculty can have greater knowledge about the changes in their students, about the changes that students produce in others and the larger community. The combined efforts of students, faculty and community partners offer all these stakeholders a gateway to strengthening community.

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Examining community partners' perspectives on reciprocity and co-education.

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ABSTRACT

This study examines how community partners understand reciprocity and co-education in service-learning. Twenty community partners participated in 30-minute telephone interviews. When asked to define reciprocity, participants identified the importance of communication and maintaining a two-way relationship. With regard to co-education, community partners highlighted communication, the back-and-forth nature of the relationship, and their role as a facilitator. This study will help universities and community partners increase the effectiveness and maximize the benefits of their service-learning relationships.

As the field of service-learning has grown, so has the scholarship on service-learning and community partnerships. Research has substantiated both the benefits and challenges of service-learning for community partners (Jacoby, 2015b). The scholarly literature has also examined reciprocity between universities and community partners (Jacoby, 2015b). However, scholars have yet to examine empirically the relationship between service-learning, reciprocity, and co-education, particularly from the community partners' perspective.

Reciprocity in service-learning occurs when community partners and members of the university share ideas and responsibility for knowledge creation and project outcomes. When genuine reciprocity exists, both the university and the community benefit from the service-learning relationship (d'Arlach et al., 2009; Miron & Moely, 2006). Research has identified the importance of taking community partners' perspectives into account to yield the greatest benefits for both the community and the university (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Cruz & Giles, 2000; Hammersley, 2012; Janke, 2013; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000).

When community partners have insufficient input into the service-learning

relationship, the consequence may be a lack of community impact (Butin, 2003). In contrast, expanding community partners' input increases the reciprocity and mutual benefits of service-learning (Janke, 2013), yielding more positive outcomes for the university and community alike. Henry and Breyfogle (2006) emphasize that the element of reciprocity is important in distinguishing service-learning from community service or other forms of volunteering.

Research has highlighted the need to clearly define reciprocity to avoid confusion among those engaged in its practice and scholarship (Dostilio et al., 2012). This term may be understood in multiple ways and interpreted differently by various parties in a relationship. Three suggested conceptualizations of reciprocity are *exchange-oriented*, in which both groups do something for the other; *influence-oriented*, in which both groups influence what the other is doing; and *generativity-oriented*, in which both groups work together to co-create something new (Dostilio et al., 2012). Given these multiple conceptualizations of reciprocity, it is important to gain insight into how community partners themselves define and use this term.

Sandy and Holland (2006) argue that although reciprocity is a well-established term in the field of service-learning, the means for achieving reciprocity are poorly understood. Scholars have found that the longer and more frequent the contact between the community partner and the university, the better the relationship will be. This in turn impacts the reciprocal nature of the service-learning experience (Sandy & Holland, 2006; Worrall, 2007). Henry and Breyfogle (2006) also recommend a shift from a "traditional" to an "enriched" approach to reciprocity in which the goals, perception of power, partner identity, boundaries, outcomes, and scope of commitment are changed as needed. In this enriched model authority is shared, flexible boundaries are maintained, and all parties benefit.

Ward and Wolf-Wendel (2000) examined how universities tend to use service-learning as a way of doing work *for* community partners instead of doing work *with* them. While "doing for" creates a sense of separation between the university and community in which the university is seen as superior, "doing with" results in mutuality in which the university and community are viewed as equal partners. In a study by Blouin and Perry (2009), programs in which community-based organizations were treated not as subjects or recipients but instead as equal contributors were found to produce greater benefits for the community. Based on these findings, the authors argue that establishing shared power and shared control will improve the outcomes of service-learning for everyone involved.

Tinkler, Tinkler, Hausman, and Tufo-Strouse (2014) offer six recommendations to support reciprocity in service-learning relationships:

(a) be attentive to the community partner's mission and vision,
(b) understand the human dimension of the community partner's work,
(c) be mindful of the community partner's resources,
(d) accept and share the responsibility for inefficiencies,
(e) consider the legacy of the partnership, and
(f) regard the process as important. (p. 137)

Simply put, ensuring that community partners' voices are heard is critical to fostering and sustaining reciprocal service-learning relationships.

Recognizing service-learning as a shared responsibility involving reciprocity between the university and the community lends itself to understanding community partners as co-educators. While reciprocity is increasingly discussed in the literature on service-learning, however, very little is understood about the role of community partners as co-educators. *Reciprocity* is defined as an exchange of ideas or resources by two or more entities. *Co-education* represents a process that involves sharing ideas in the pursuit of knowledge. These two terms differ in that reciprocity is focused on giving and receiving, while co-education is focused on teaching and learning. Whereas reciprocity between universities and community partners allows students to learn how to adapt to and function in a real-world environment (Cooper & Orrell, 2016), this real-world experience would not be possible without engagement and co-education from community partners (Cooper & Orrell, 2016).

In a recent empirical study, Davis, Madden, Cronley, and Beamon (2019) identified a gap in the literature related to community partners' definition of service-learning. They found that many community partners have trouble distinguishing between volunteerism, service-learning, and other forms of experiential learning. To date, no empirical research has investigated how community partners themselves define their role in the context of service-learning.

The shared responsibility for service-learning lends itself naturally to examining the link between reciprocity and co-education. XXX (2016) studied community partners' perspectives on educating students about diverse populations. They found that students learned as much if not more from the community partner as from the professor. This research highlighted the role of community partners as co-educators with regard to teaching about diversity. While community partners are slowly beginning to be identified as co-educators, they are still not recognized as full collaborators in service-learning (Hammersley, 2012). The purpose of this study is to understand how community partners define and understand reciprocity and their role as co-educators in the context of service-learning.

Methods

The participants in this study are employed by non-profit organizations that have a working relationship with the university and that serve the community in the areas of health, education, and economic stability. The organizations, located in the southeastern U.S., reside in a community that is home to approximately 174,055 residents in nine municipalities. Mostly rural, with an 18.5% poverty rate, its largest municipality is the city, which is home to approximately 60,000 residents. The county's 424 square miles are located in the middle of the state and accessed from the north, south, east, and west via Interstates. The university conducting this study is in the Southeastern United States and the study received IRB approval.

The researchers randomly selected 27 prospective participants from the total sample of 74 individuals who have collaborated with the university's community engagement center and information was entered in a database. Potential participants

received an email inviting them to participate in the study. After a week, if they had not responded to the email they were contacted by phone. It is important to note that at the time of the study community partners may have faced challenges associated with the COVID-19 pandemic. Twenty community partners agreed to participate in a phone interview. The interviews were conducted one week after the participants agreed to be in the study. The interviews lasted on average 30 minutes, and each participant received a $20 gift card as a thank you for completing the study.

Fifteen of the participants were female and five were male. Eight participants worked for organizations focused on health, four for organizations focused on education, and eight for organizations focused on economic stability. The participants have worked in their fields on average 11-20 years and in their organizations on average 6-10 years (see Table 1).

Name	Field	Years in Field	Years with Organization	Years Working with Students	of	Number students
Steven	Economic stability	11-20	11-20	More than 5		6-10
Sarah	Health	21-30	11-20	More than 5		11-20
Stephanie	Health	31-50	11-20	More than 5		11-20
Annie	Economic stability	6-10	1-5	More than 5		50 or more
Nicolas	Health	31-50	31-50	More than 5		50 or more
Kathryn	Health	11-20	6-10	More than 5		31-50
Brad	Economic stability	11-20	1-5	3-4		50 or more
Jessica	Economic stability	1-5	105	3-4		6-10
Jack	Education	21-30	11-20	More than 5		31-50
Sharon	Education	11-20	1-5	More than 5		50 or more
Amanda	Economic stability	31-50	21-30	1-2		31-50
Kim	Health	11-20	1-5	More than 5		11-20
Becky	Education	31-50	21-30	More than 5		50 or more
Monica	Health	6-10	11-20	More than 5		50 or more
Kevin	Economic stability	1-5	1-5	3-4		50 or more
William	Health	21-30	11-20	More than 5		21-30
Isabel	Economic stability	11-20	6-10	More than 5		50 or more
Sandra	Health	31-50	11-20	1-2		1-5
Nancy	Economic stability	6-10	1-5	More than 5		50 or more
Samantha	Education	11-20	6-10	3-4		11-20

The participants have been engaged in collaborations with the university for an average of 3-4 years and have worked with an average of 21-30 students. They primarily worked with students in the context of academic courses, internships, events, and as volunteers with the main emphasis on academic service-learning. Jacoby (2015a) defines service-learning "as a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs, together with structured opportunities for reflection designed to achieve desired learning outcomes" (p. 2). In previous literature community partners had trouble differentiating between the various types of service (Davis et al., 2019).

Community partners were asked to provide demographic information and respond to interview questions. The interview questions included:

- How do you define co-educator?
- How do you see yourself as a co-educator?
- Describe a time when you were a co-educator.
- What tools do you use as a co-educator?

Participants were also asked questions related to reciprocity, including:

- How do you define reciprocity?
- Describe a time when you experienced reciprocity.
- What factors were necessary for reciprocity?

Responses to these questions were transcribed verbatim for analysis.

The number of years participants had worked with university students, the number of students with whom they worked, and the contexts in which they had worked with students were examined for mid to high frequency. After we compiled the participants' responses in a Word document, we uploaded them into a software program, Dedoose, where we conducted open coding. Dedoose was used because it is the software owned by the university. Open coding involved identifying relevant fragments from each excerpt in response to our analysis questions (Boeije, 2010). The following analysis questions guided the coding of each transcript.

- What does it mean to be a co-educator?
- How do you carry out the role of a co-educator?
- What does it mean to have reciprocity?

Following open coding, we placed the codes in a table to identify patterns, known as categories. Categories are "a group or cluster used to sort parts of the data" (Boeije, 2010, p. 95). We created a visual display to help us examine the categories. This allowed us to see how the categories interact, which led to the development of themes.

Findings

The participants were asked to define reciprocity, identify the factors that contribute to reciprocity, and define co-education. Community partners overwhelmingly talked about the give-and-take nature of their relationship with the university. This point was evident in their definitions of both reciprocity (18 out of 20) and co-education (15 out of 20). The findings were unpacked for both of these areas leading to the subheadings.

Co-education

Of the 20 participants, 15 discussed the need for co-education to occur from both the university's and the community organization's side. Twelve participants identified effective communication as a vital element in co-education. In addition, eight participants highlighted their view of themselves as facilitators as a key to their understanding of the definition of co-education.

Both Sides

Participants largely defined co-education as the involvement of "both sides." Nicolas highlighted the importance of sharing knowledge between the organization and the university, a dynamic that is critical for maintaining a balanced relationship between these two partners. In response to the question, "How do you define co-educator?" Nicolas emphasized the importance of linking academic learning with experience beyond the classroom. He noted,

> So, I think that's kind of what a co-educator is designed to do, is to get that blend out there to say, yes, we are going to tell you about the textbook principles and how things work, but we're also going to show you how it works in real life.

Similar to Nicolas, Steven expressed the need for both sides to be engaged in co-education. He also discussed the meaning of co-education in relation to the real world beyond the classroom. He described students' engagement in the community as, "just a window into the world outside of a classroom—both sides." As seen in Table 1, Steven has worked with six to 10 university students over a period of more than five years. While Steven is not veteran community partner, he does have sufficient experience to express a clear goal for students to obtain real-world experience coupled with the class material, enabling learning to take place on "both sides."

Jack sought to orient students to the daily operations of his organization in the hope that they would apply this knowledge in the classroom and thereby share it with their peers. When asked to define co-educator, Jack responded, "So we were able to educate [the students] on what we did, or what we do, every day. And they were able to use that in turn for whatever classes they may have been taking."

Nicolas, Steven, and Jack illuminate the nature of effective co-education as a two-way street. Relationships of this type require willing partners on both sides. No matter how long a community partner has collaborated with the university, both sides must remain open-minded and committed for the partnership to continue to succeed.

Communication

Communication was identified by 12 of the 20 participants as a key element of co-education. This category encompassed three themes: technology (7), open communication (5), and understanding (4). Some participants referenced more than one of these themes in their responses. The participants were adamant about the importance of these elements.

The number one area of communication referenced was technology. Examples of technology ranged from sending emails to using sophisticated databases. Nancy emphasized the need to teach students the vital role of everyday communication through technology as a means of advancing the community organization's work. When asked, "What tools do you use as a co-educator?" Nancy shared,

> Mostly right now, media technology . . . using that media for texting, using a video chat, email, those types of things, to reach out and allow students to experience conversations with these people who are doing [this work], or like I am in the field.

Technology, from this perspective, provides a tool to promote and maintain relationships between the community and the university.

Participants highlighted open communication as another key category within communication. When asked to "Describe a time when you were a co-educator," Sandra emphasized the importance of maintaining "direct communication with [the student intern] while working with her and in meetings one-on-one. Working with her as she was doing her work in the community. Giving her feedback. Listening to what she had to say." Sandra identified open communication as a key to maintaining a successful partnership.

Participants also emphasized the importance of understanding as the foundation for effective communication. William underscored the need to convey information clearly to all parties involved in the service-learning experience. When asked to describe a time he was a co-educator, William described collaborating with the university in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. He responded, "So we want to make sure that the students, faculty, residents, everybody knows, hey, this is what's happening." William highlights the importance of communicating information clearly and consistently to all members of the team so they share a common understanding of the organization's activities and purpose—and in this case, its planned response to an unexpected crisis.

Facilitator

Eight of the 20 participants characterized themselves as facilitators and not necessarily co-educators. While a co-educator plays an active role in educating students, a facilitator oversees student learning based on a framework set by the professor. Participants who viewed themselves as facilitators described their role as ensuring that students have a voice in the learning process. In response to the question, "How do you see yourself as a co-educator?" Jessica reflected, "I've seen myself, I

guess, more as a community facilitator, giving [students] an opportunity to learn about being exposed to what we do." Rather than seeing herself as a co-educator, Jessica viewed herself as a facilitator whose role was to promote student learning.

Facilitators keep their students' learning objectives at the forefront of their thinking. When asked, "How do you define co-educator?" Sarah replied,

We're helping [students] to meet those goals [of the academic course]. But the objectives for their learning experience are coming from the instructor. So we're facilitating them in helping them to meet those goals, to learn the things that they need to learn.

By relying on the faculty member to frame the course objectives and set goals for the students, Sarah is able to focus on student needs and facilitate student learning as it relates to her organization.

A significant number of the participants described co-education as a relationship that requires commitment from both sides. While the contributions of each side may differ, the two sides are unified by the shared goals of promoting student learning while benefiting the community. Keys to achieving this learning and reaping these benefits include effective communication—accomplished through the use of technology, a commitment to open communication, and ensuring shared understandings of organizational activities and purpose—and recognizing that some community partners may frame their role as that of a co-educator while other view themselves as facilitators.

Reciprocity

Reciprocity is similar to co-education in that communication and mutual giving and receiving lie at its foundation. When asked to define reciprocity, 18 of the 20 participants discussed giving and receiving, while eight participants highlighted communication.

Giving and Receiving

This high-frequency category was divided into four areas: give and take, mutual benefit (8), learning and knowledge (6), and relationships (5). Some participants referenced more than one of these areas in their responses. The give-and-take nature of reciprocity was mentioned most frequently by participants.

In Becky's experience, the give-and-take yields mutual gain for community partners and the university. She defined reciprocity succinctly, stating, "I gain volunteers and [the students] gain knowledge." Similarly, Sharon discussed the directionality of reciprocity in her definition, observing that in her experience the sharing of knowledge and the subsequent learning go both ways. Echoing Becky, in response to the question, "How do you define reciprocity?" Sharon noted,

I always think of reciprocity as a give-and-take. I know that in a relationship with the university students, I think it is a give-and-take. I think I learn from them just as much as they learn from me.

Eight participants identified the mutual benefits of reciprocity, in which both sides gain from the relationship. Each side defines what their own benefit will be. Kim emphasized the conditions for reciprocity and the mutual advantages that result.

> In most cases, [both parties] do it [engage in reciprocity] out of the goodness of how they feel, but ultimately it'll come back to them in some way. So I think it's ultimately the understanding that both parties will mutually benefit from that.

Similarly, Samantha emphasized the importance of mutual benefit in reciprocity, defining reciprocity as "the exchange of information or resources for everyone's mutual benefit."

Six participants identified learning and knowledge as vital elements of reciprocity. When asked to define reciprocity, Isabel reflected, "I think it's our responsibility to give good feedback and create learning opportunities for these students so they can walk away from that experience being more ready for the workforce and for life." Isabel cares about students' long-term learning in terms of their readiness for the job market, in addition to the life skills they would obtain.

Kevin described the reciprocal interaction that occurs when the university students interact with the students his organization serves. In response to the question, "How do you define reciprocity?" Kevin noted,

> I believe when the students come here as well, they are learning a completely different sense of what goes on, on this side of the tracks, so to speak. When they're seeing how the kids, and some of the kids live in situations, so on and so forth. And I think they learn a lot from our kids as well, so that's where I think that reciprocity comes in.

The vastly different lived experiences of these two groups result in an optimal learning experience for everyone involved.

Among the most valuable outcomes of university and community collaboration are the relationships that result. Kathryn focused on the value of these relationships. Specifically, when describing the key to effective collaboration and the factors necessary for reciprocity, Kathryn stated, "It's a strong relationship. It's good, it's good for both of us. It's a win-win for everybody. Like I said, we get as much as we give, if not more sometimes." Kathryn emphasized how the service-learning relationship produces positive outcomes for both the community organization and the university.

Communication
When asked to identify the factors that facilitate reciprocity, similar to their responses to questions about co-education, the participants emphasized the importance of communication. When asked, "What factors are necessary for reciprocity?" Annie noted,

So just communication early on in the process and throughout, checking in and then being really clear with what they need from us up front, because it is a little bit daunting to commit if you're not sure exactly what's going to be asked of you.

Annie underscored the uncertainty community partners may feel when initiating a relationship with the university, and the university's ability to assuage these concerns and establish reciprocity by clearly communicating its needs and expectations.

Similarly, when asked, "What factors are necessary for reciprocity?" Monica shared her belief that a willingness to work together and communicate are keys to creating a successful partnership. Monica emphasized the need for "communication, [a] willingness to want to work together. I don't think a partnership ever truly functions properly if you don't have communication and both parties aren't willing to put everything they have into that partnership." Monica's experiences have led her to value transparent communication as a key element in maintaining reciprocity.

The factors associated with co-education reinforce the importance of reciprocity in the university/community partner relationship. The theme of "both sides" in co-education echoes the theme of "give and receive" in the context of reciprocity, demonstrating the mutual need for the community and the university to contribute to and reap the benefits of the partnership. Participants also emphasized strong communication as a critical element in both co-education and reciprocity.

Discussion

The community partners in this study defined reciprocity and discussed their perspectives on their role as co-educators in the context of service-learning. Reciprocity and co-education shared the factors of communication and the back-and-forth nature of the relationship. Participants highlighted three key components of communication: technology, open communication, and understanding. The back-and-forth nature of the relationship incorporated the themes of both sides, give and take, mutual benefit, learning and knowledge, and the importance of relationships. The study also found that some participants viewed themselves as facilitators rather than co-educators.

The findings of this study reinforce those of previous research in this area by illuminating the benefits of university/community partnerships, the need for both sides to give and receive, and the importance of communication for establishing and maintaining effective collaborations. D'Arlach et al. (2009) and Miron and Moely (2006) found that the university and the community mutually benefit from the service-learning exchange. In service-learning, students may learn as much, if not more, from the community partner as from the classroom instructor (XXX, 2016). A successful experience utilizes the expertise and contributions of both sides.

Unlike the previous literature, this study did not identify obtaining real-world experience as a category or a theme (Cooper & Orrell, 2016). Unique to this study, some participants viewed themselves as facilitators rather than co-educators. In this role, community partners looked to the university to frame the experience and set goals for student outcomes. Regardless of their view, it is vital that both parties agree on

whether the community partner is functioning as a co-educator or a facilitator to work together successfully.

Additionally, participants highlighted the role of learning and knowledge and the long-term implications of the service-learning experience. A key finding that differed from the previous literature was the importance of a strong relationship between the university and the community partner. While the findings of this study largely support those of previous studies, this research illustrates how reciprocity and co-education go hand-in-hand and highlights the importance of investing time and communicating effectively in these relationships to enable both parties to reach their goals.

Due to the demographics of the sample, several limitations were identified. The sample size of 20 participants could have been larger, and future studies should investigate these questions on a broader scale. In addition, the sample was mostly female and participants were all from the same community in the Southeast, limiting the ability to generalize the findings. Moreover, a change in the interview protocol was necessary due to the COVID-19 pandemic. All interviews, which we intended to conduct in person, were instead conducted by telephone. During telephone interviews participants may be more distracted by their environment than they would be in person, leading them to be less engaged in the conversation. Finally, the interviewer's inability to read the body language of the participant and follow up on non-verbal cues in the context of a phone interview can reduce the effectiveness of the interview.

Implications

This study fills a gap in the literature on service-learning by illuminating community partners' understandings of reciprocity and co-education in the context of service-learning partnerships. The importance of reciprocity in the university/community partner relationship is widely recognized. However, co-education is a new term in the service-learning landscape. The findings of the present study enable us to direct our attention to creating the necessary conditions for reciprocity and co-education.

Communication can strengthen the relationship between community partners and faculty members when both sides are clear in identifying their goals and conveying their needs. The emphasis among participants on maintaining a two-way relationship highlights the importance of integrating ideas from both sides in establishing and sustaining service-learning relationships. In many situations, community partners are already integral contributors to student learning, although they may not be recognized for their work.

Future research should seek to better understand the role of community partners in educating students. Students' lived experiences also offer a resource that can be shared with the community partner, and the role of reciprocity in the relationship between the student and the community partner is another area for future study. Since faculty constitute a key component in service-learning, research should also examine faculty perspectives on reciprocity and co-education.

Future researchers should investigate the similarities and differences between the views of reciprocity and co-education held by faculty versus those of community partners. By looking at these stakeholders jointly, we can align the goals of universities

and communities in order to improve their relationship. Finally, research should explore what motivates community partners to continue partnering with universities and working with service-learning students despite the considerable time such collaborations require and the challenges they entail.

Conclusion

Previous literature and the current study have noted the importance of frequent and long-term contact for successful service-learning relationships. Faculty and community partners must set aside time to collaborate. They need to communicate early and often to clarify needs, so each side clearly understands the expectations for what it will provide and receive.

The perspectives of both faculty members and community partners need to be taken into account to ensure that the relationship benefits those on both sides. In the context of the service-learning relationship, some community partners identify as facilitators rather than co-educators, which may give them a different perspective on the nature of their responsibilities and their role. Through understanding reciprocity and co-education, universities and community partners can foster more successful service-learning relationships.

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An Analysis from the Perspective of Family Education: The Effect of Incorporating E-Baby Care in the Service-learning Courses of Colleges

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ABSTRACT

The study aims to analyze the implementation of incorporating E-baby care in the service-learning courses of colleges through the context of family education. The study applies qualitative research qualitative content analysis and interview and participant observation, supplemented by 260 questionnaire surveys, Structural Equation Model (SEM), and Second Order CFA model. The study objects consist of faculty and students from schools in Taiwan that incorporate E-baby care in the service-learning courses for colleges. The study aims to understand the effect of incorporating E-Baby care in the service-learning courses for colleges, cultivate students' literacy and sentiment in "care," accumulate the ability of observation and reflection, internalize value of abstract knowledge, and aggregate the experience value of peer collaboration.

The educational concept of service-learning is under the profound influence of the "learning by doing" theory claimed by educator John Dewey. The concept of combining "service" and "learning" help students learn from the service field and practice concept of service by learning, so that students will perceive the meaning of experimental education. Katy Farber & Penny Bishop (2018) expressed that service-learning can cultivate the characters and sentiment of students, and service-learning is one instructional method for experimental learning, and the process of valuing action and reflection. Amy L. Phelps (2012) Service-learning (note the omission of a hyphen) is the implication of service activity in courses and learning objectives while service-learning is an instructional method. Services and learning objectives have been deliberately designed to enhance the connection between course instruction objectives and service outcome. Most importantly, all participants in the class can share and exchange valuable experience and thereby attain the meaning of education.

In view of the educational meaning of service-learning, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan launched the "University Service-Learning Program" and designed a variety of service-learning courses. The program takes service-learning as academic credit or incorporates instructional units, potential courses, club activities, volunteer services,

activity plan…etc. and others into the professional and technical courses of schools (Ministry of Education, 2007). According to the 2019 statistics compiled by the Ministry of Education on nearly 153 five-year junior colleges and universities in execution of service-learning program, all schools offer the program with different styles and characteristics. Following the development of IT teaching materials, the use of IT auxiliary teaching materials and E-equipment for cleaning in most of the service-learning courses offered in five-year junior college education, and the incorporation of E-baby care in service-learning courses for college, allow students to start out from the viewpoints of basic family education, with enlightenment in the ethical concepts of love people, love self, and love the society.

The new instructional strategy developed using information technology has injected vigor to traditional instruction method. Chen, et al. (2011) stated the development of technology and the supplement of technology information for education can support and expand the convenience of paper learning, in addition to saving resources. Moreover, the use of internet technology system provides effect for learning support. For example, data upload and download are unconstrained by time and space, which could timely record the relevant information and film at the learning site, and instruction related activity process in details for sharing, interacting and exchanging ideas, and opinion and discussion needed for instruction (Hwang, Tsai, Chu, Kinshuk, & Chen, 2012).

The five-year junior colleges where the researcher instructs has applied e-baby care teaching materials in the execution of service-learning courses for nearly 10 years. Students are grouped in the course to take various family roles and realistic teaching through the multi-culture instructions of the instructor, including the description of service-learning courses and group discussion of agenda between service-learning and family education. Students will have the opportunity to experience the scope of different family education restructure, in addition to acquiring service-learning internship credits from experiment learning through E-baby care teaching materials. In particular, the operation of e-baby care via remote system allows each e-baby to exhibit different emotion or need for care. Finally, student groups present project and record the series of process including theory, family script, and baby-care practice. Students will reflect the relation between the family or caregivers and themselves while taking care of e-babies. The teachers will also understand the individual requirement of students from the process.

Tor further understand the effect of incorporating E-Baby care in service-learning courses of colleges, the study adopts the perspective analysis of family education to analyze the influence on students in various aspects of family education. The study intends to cultivate students' ethic education through establishing the care for family and ethics from this service-learning course.

Incorporating Context of Family Education in Service-Learning Course

Influence of Context of Family Education on Service-learning
Family education aims to provide the education of family living knowledge and capacity to all "family members." Everyone needs family education for their life while family education is also the education on family life, assisting people to blend into

family, social cultural background, marriage, parental roles, and the educational process of preparing for social relation between groups and individuals. Such preparation will help individuals establish concepts of physical, mental, emotional and moral development, and social ethics (Katie Chau ., et al, 2016).

Taiwan Ministry of Education (2019) suggested the context of family education: the term "family education" refers to educational activities and services of all kinds that enhance family relationships and family functioning. The scope of "family education" shall be prescribed by the central competent authority. LEE,PIN-YI (2017) mentioned that family education emphasizes on the life of individual and family with extensive scope of context, including: family relation, family ethics, family interaction, interpersonal interaction, and family living quality. The context of family education helps one establish the initial concept of "people and self" and such relation between "people and people" and "people and environment" will produce the experience of love and care in life. Family education is the foundation for students to learn respect and care, love oneself and love others, which contain the sentiment of cultivating humanistic care as service-learning. The context of family education imposes profound meaning on service-learning.

Service-learning provides opportunities for students to participate in real activities, guiding students to apply their knowledge and skills in providing services for others. Service-learning also meets community demand by internalizing knowledge and value through actual hands-on and in-person experience. Service-learning is the lifetime lesson for citizens to participate (Mitchell et al., 2015). Johnston, et al.,(2016) the service implementation of service-learning helps students develop partnership with the community and such participatory learning experience is considerably important for service-learning. College students will have the valuable learning opportunity to reflect on their interaction with the community and share experience with others.

The learning stages of service-learning are based on the experimental leaning proposed by Kolb and the process of transforming knowledge through different stages of experience. Service-learning transforms experience into knowledge through the four types of learning cycles. In particular, such process includes concrete experience (CE), (reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC), and (active experimentation). Service-learning is a model of experience learning, where students take one step further to reflect and observe their experience through the concrete experience of actual contact, thereby to learn the capacity of relocation and producing new learning concept. The new concept is applied to experimentation to generate new concrete experience, forming the structure of one learning cycle (Yu-Chi Li.,Ruo-Lan Liu,2016). Such continuous service-learning knowledge value is shown in Figure 1:
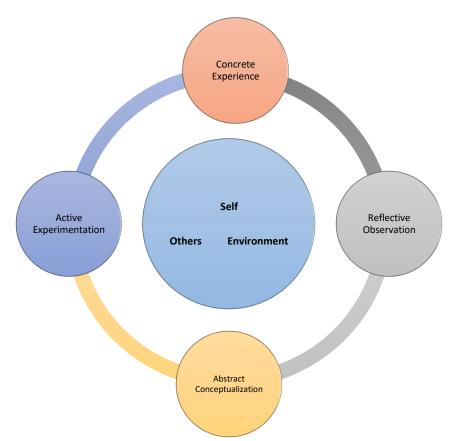
Figure 1. Influence of the Context of Family Education on Service-learning

Implementation of Incorporating E-Baby care in Service-learning Courses of Colleges

Incorporating E-Baby care in Service-learning Courses and Implementing the Richness of Digital Learning

Following the technological progress in recent years, the instruction model of service-learning through e-media and equipment can surpass traditional teaching and enhance the lively and vivid atmosphere at the instruction site (Lih-Juan Chan Lin, 2016). The IT generation has become the indicator of creative instruction site, as the development of roaming and wireless internet technology further provide opportunities supporting digital learning. Many studies on information learning prove that the use of internet information equipment can effectively support and expand the convenience from paper-based learning. Moreover, the wireless internet and transmission technology adopted allow students to access digital resources in real world and engaged in ubiquitous learning environment (U-learning) (Yang, C.-C., et al., 2013). In view of the advantage in incorporating information in courses and to enrich the content and fun of service-learning courses of colleges, the study incorporates E-baby care ion service-learning courses from the viewpoints on basic family life education (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Implementation of E-Baby care

Families are the smallest groups in sociology while parents play the important role in learning model for children in the process of human socialization. The interaction between family members the cultivation of personality and ethics in children is closely related (Lin, Shu-ling 2003). To enlighten students with the care sentiment for self, others and the environment, LEE, PIN-YI (2017) suggested that the context of family education can boost the knowledge and capacity of life in people, establish healthy physical and mental development, build happy family, and aims to establish a harmonious and warm society.

Billig (2011) expressed that high-quality service-learning requires several principles: First, service-learning projects require the continual period of time for students to participate in all activities. Secondly, there is an interaction between service content and learners that allow learners to pursue realizable objectives. Thirdly, the service-learning projects should be consistent with the course content. Fourthly, the meaning of reflection can be attained from service experience.

For incorporate E-Baby care in service-learning courses of college, the course design must cooperate with multi-culture instruction. For example, describe service-learning and context of family education for students to compose family script and take role playing in groups. Students will place E-baby into plot for performance while taking care of e-baby for one day. Students will perceive the scope of family education through group reports. The e-baby will record students' hands-on service-learning scores, students reflect their relation with the group on the report, and teachers observe the individual requirement of students.

E-Baby Data quantify the learning effect of students' experimentation.

The operation accessories for e-baby teaching material include: computer-monitoring configuration and device, e-baby, chip senor and bracelet, milk bottle, and diapers. The computer monitors and configures all demands so that all e-babies show the different status of response and demand. Students randomly draw the e-baby for pairing and they serve as the caregivers (Figure 3).Students must follow the operations instructed in the course according to the crying responses of e-babies. They will first sensor the e-baby with bracelet to provide different care requirement. In case the

students neglect the details of care safety and cause any negligence and injury in physical care, or if the e-baby cries for more than 30 seconds, the students will be deducted for points according to the number of command errors and level of hazard (See Figure 4 for examples of point deductions).

Figure 3. E-Baby Module Configuration and Outcome Presentation

Class   妝521

Student   11   ID1 7D1E5 ID2 7EFD0

Baby   圓圓   BABYD513   None None
Start   10/15/2019, 9 AM   Stop   10/15/2019, 4 PM

Schedule Order   7 11 12 13 15
Quiet Times

Total Simulation Time: 0d 07h 00m			Baby cried 6 minutes total		
Proper Care			**Mishandle**		
Rock	1/1	100%	Shaken Baby	0	0%
Diaper	2/2	100%	Head Support	3	-9%
Burp	3/3	100%	Wrong Position	0	0%
Feed	3/4	75%	Rough Handling	0	0%
Average	9/10	90%	Other		0%
ID1 was used 0 times, ID2 was used 15 times			Total	3	-9%

Performance Overview: 81% ▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐▐

Tuesday, October 15
9:00 AM   Start Simulation
10:42 AM Head Support
12:49 PM Head Support
12:59 PM Missed Feeding
1:00 PM   Head Support
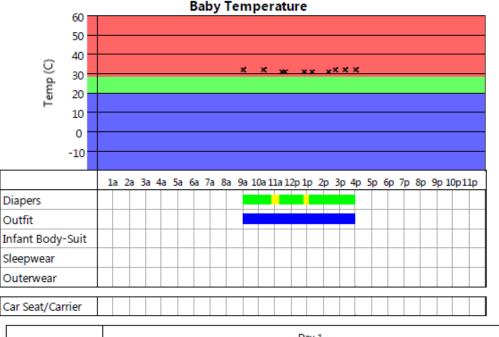4:00 PM   Stop

Figure 4. Point Deductions for E-Baby

BABYD513 Date Programmed: 10/15/2019 8:01 AM

Clothing and Temperature

Baby detects temperature, clothing, and length of time in car seat/carrier to address flathead syndrome. Missing clothing only appears if Baby detects no clothing during a significant period of time.

Look for spikes in temperature on the graph below to determine mishandling. Baby's temperature should fall inside the comfort range (in green – mid section of report). If Baby's temperature falls above or below the comfort range, Baby has been exposed to extreme temperatures for an extended period of time.

	Day 1
High Temp	32 (3:19 PM)
Low Temp	31 (11:25 AM)
Time out of safe temp range	5.1 hours
Max time between change of clothes	2.1 hours
Time in car seat/carrier	0.0 hours
Simulation Time	7.0 hours

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) verifies the high level of supplementary effect of family education viewpoints on service-learning

The study emphasizes on 260 quantitative questionnaire surveys. In particular, 250 questionnaire surveys consist of students with actual contact in E-baby care experience and 10 surveys consists of lecturing instructors. The study adopts Structural Equation Model (SEM) and Second order CFA model to analyze viewpoints of family education:

parent education, filial education, sex education, marital education, parental absence education, ethics education, multi-culture education, and family resources and management education are incorporated in service-learning course to cultivate students with the effect of building care and moral education viewpoints of ethics.

Verify the high correlation between family education viewpoints and service-learning context through convergent validity

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) expressed that the analysis of Structural Equation Model (SEM) must be divided into 2 stages: the evaluation of measurement model and structural model. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (abbreviated as CFA, equivalent to measurement model evaluation) is part of the Structural Equation Model (SEM) analysis.

Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) suggested that a good measurement model should have convergent validity and discriminate validity. As shown in the following table, the standard factor loading falls between 0.565-0.948, which conform to the range, indicating each question comes with question reliability. The composite reliability of research dimension falls between 0.835-0.94, all surpassing 0.7, indicating that each dimension comes with excellent internal consistency. Finally, the average variance extracted (AVE) has a range between 0.637-0.725, which are all higher than 0.5 and conform to the standards proposed by Hair, et al.(1998), and Fornell and Larcker (1981) . The results suggest excellent convergent validity of each dimension.

Table 1 First Order Dimension Reliability and Convergent Validity

Construct	item	Estimates of Factor Loading Significance				Question Reliability		Composite Reliability	Convergent Validity
		Unstd.	S.E.	z-value	P	Std.	SMC	CR	AVE
parent	par1	1.000				0.887	0.787	0.943	0.805
	par2	1.068	0.047	22.827	***	0.915	0.837		
	par3	1.137	0.054	20.902	***	0.881	0.776		
	par4	1.060	0.048	22.259	***	0.905	0.819		
Kid	kid5	1.000				0.943	0.889	0.964	0.869
	kid6	1.027	0.027	37.628	***	0.976	0.953		
	kid7	1.021	0.034	30.202	***	0.932	0.869		
	kid8	0.902	0.037	24.224	***	0.875	0.766		
Sex	sex9	1.000				0.900	0.810	0.942	0.804
	sex10	1.044	0.044	23.522	***	0.910	0.828		
	sex11	1.025	0.045	22.645	***	0.897	0.805		
	sex12	0.983	0.046	21.556	***	0.879	0.773		
married	marr13	1.000				0.928	0.861	0.962	0.865
	marr14	0.963	0.034	28.549	***	0.938	0.880		
	marr15	0.992	0.035	28.107	***	0.934	0.872		
	marr16	0.954	0.036	26.753	***	0.920	0.846		
Lost	lost17	1.000				0.927	0.859	0.953	0.836
	lost18	1.000	0.036	27.682	***	0.933	0.870		
	lost19	0.947	0.040	23.827	***	0.889	0.790		
	lost20	0.967	0.038	25.384	***	0.908	0.824		
ethic	eth21	1.000				0.910	0.828	0.968	0.883
	eth22	0.995	0.037	27.229	***	0.940	0.884		
	eth23	1.011	0.036	27.741	***	0.946	0.895		
	eth24	1.018	0.034	29.507	***	0.963	0.927		
multiple	mul25	1.000				0.927	0.859	0.964	0.871
	mul26	1.024	0.035	29.327	***	0.943	0.889		
	mul27	1.031	0.038	27.066	***	0.922	0.850		
	mul28	1.043	0.036	28.922	***	0.940	0.884		
frm	frm29	1.000				0.898	0.806	0.947	0.816
	frm30	1.045	0.045	23.345	***	0.907	0.823		
	frm31	0.947	0.045	20.923	***	0.868	0.753		
	frm32	1.100	0.043	25.702	***	0.939	0.882		

The study is a first order dimension with the relevance of sub-dimension shown in the following table. The relevance falls between 0.677~0.939 and relevance level is highly correlated, indicating there is an even higher common factor between the

dimensions. The average mean falls between 3.99~4.1 and the standard deviation falls between 0.673~0.742.

Table 2 Dimension Description and Relevant Analysis

Dimension	Descriptive Statistics		Pearson Correlation Matrix							
	Mena	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
parent	4.100	0.673	1.000							
kid	4.088	0.697	0.928***	1.000						
sex	4.073	0.702	0.900***	0.886***	1.000					
married	3.992	0.753	0.772***	0.819***	0.858***	1.000				
lost	4.033	0.716	0.764***	0.808***	0.865***	0.812***	1.000			
ethic	4.092	0.713	0.718***	0.764***	0.815***	0.727***	0.798***	1.000		
multiple	4.035	0.726	0.663***	0.677***	0.778***	0.734***	0.795***	0.888***	1.000	
frm	4.045	0.742	0.710***	0.740***	0.800***	0.746***	0.780***	0.931***	0.939***	1.000

***P<0.001

The Second order CFA model verifies the multiple effect of family education dimension and service-learning philosophy.

The Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is composed for at least three first order factor and 1 second order factor. The second order and all first order factors are directly connected and estimated for factor loading freedom. The arrow needs to be pointed from the second order factor to the first order factor (as shown in Figure 5). Kline (2011) believes that the positive-definite conforming to second order CFA model must meet the following three criteria:
1. One factor loading from the second order to the first order factor should be set to 1 or the second order factor variance set to 1;
2. Each second order should contain at least three first order factor;
3. Each first order dimension should contain at least 2 questions.

The second order CFA model yields 8 dimensions of family education: parent education, filial education, sex education, marital education, parental absence education, ethics education, multi-culture education, and family resource and management education, which are incorporated in service-learning courses. Each of which contains high level of correlation with the philosophy of service-learning (as shown in Table 3).
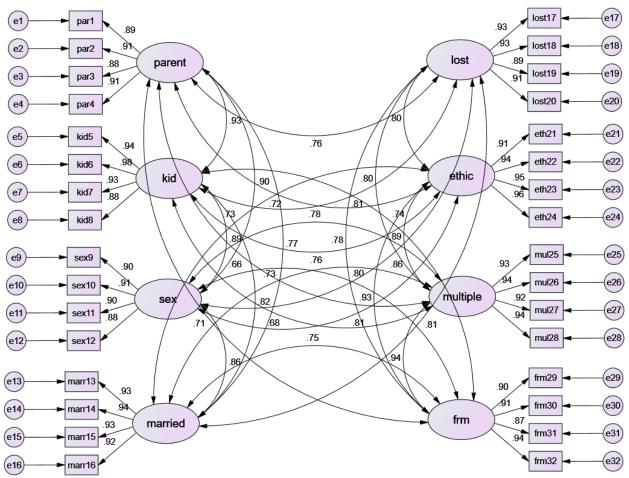
Figure 5 Second Order CFA Model Between Family Education and Service-learning

Table 3 Second order CFA model Reliability and Convergent Validity

Construct	item	Estimate of Loading Factor Significance				Question Reliability		Composite Reliability	Convergent Validity
		Unstd.	S.E.	z-value	P	Std.	SMC	CR	AVE
FAMEDU	parent	1.000				0.872	0.760	0.969	0.798
	kid	1.150	0.072	15.926	***	0.895	0.801		
	sex	1.192	0.073	16.303	***	0.946	0.895		
	married	1.222	0.081	15.11	***	0.872	0.760		
	frm	1.176	0.078	15.078	***	0.897	0.805		
	multiple	1.111	0.075	14.888	***	0.868	0.753		
	ethic	1.166	0.076	15.445	***	0.897	0.805		
	lost	1.193	0.076	15.694	***	0.899	0.808		

For the second order model of the family education dimension in this study, the objective coefficient =1866.848/2304.495=0.81, namely the second order CFA model explains 81% of first order is correlation model, indicating that service-learning can meet the purpose of family education (as shown in Table 4). Hence, the requirement for the theoretical model of the family education dimension in this study truly conforms to the philosophy of service-learning, suggesting the validity of second order model (Doll,et al., 1994).

Table 4 Model Fit Index of Family Education Second Order CFA

Dimension	Second Order CFA Model	Chi-Squared Test	Degree of Freedom	Chi-Squared/DF	CFI	SRMR
Family Education	1. First Order Full Correlation CFA Model	1866.848	436	4.282	0.891	0.036
	2. Second Order CFA Model	2304.495	456	5.054	0.860	0.065
	Proposed Value	As small as possible	As big as possible	<5	>0.9	<0.08

Context of Family Education has High Level of Imperceptible Influence and Effect on Service-learning

Family education is the foundation for cultivating excellent citizenship and morals in students. The study adopts the context of family education to integrate with new IT technological e-baby, and applies to the five-year junior college fundamental service-learning sources. The study adopts purposive sampling for interview and emphasizes on four service-learning instructors and 4 students having taken the service-learning courses (as shown in Table 5).

Table 5 Interview Objects

Identity		Teaching's Instruction Background/Student's Department
Student 1	5th-Yr Student	Student from Department of Cosmetics Application and Management
Student 2	4th-Yr Student	Student from Nursing Department (having taken pediatric nursing).
Student 3	2nd-Yr Student	Student from Department of Child Care
Student 4	3rd-Yr Student	Student from Department of Oral Care
Teacher 1	16 years of teaching seniority	Student from Nursing Department
Teacher 2	15 years of teaching seniority	English Teacher from Center of General Education
Teacher 3	14 years of teaching seniority	PE Teacher from Center of General Education
Teacher 4	13 years of teaching seniority	Teacher from Department of Cosmetics Application and management

Combining the experience learning proposed by Kolb, the study concludes the influence of context of family education on service-learning:

Family education and service leaning both advocate for the life experience with "love" and "care"

The common character between family education and service-learning is "love" and "care." As expressed by student 1: "*We find out about changes in life early when we have children. We need to put children in priority for care and love regardless in living quality or time allocation…"* Student 4 believes: "*The context of family education and service-learning will affect a person's ideas and attitude, so we would voluntarily care about our family and friends…"*

It is evident that service-learning can enlighten students with the realization of "love" and "care." Teacher 2 also thinks that: "*By understanding parent's unconditional dedication and care for children, students are also trained into a person with kindness who can voluntarily care about their family and friends."*

Through the context of service-learning, students voluntarily and timely provide goodness of care. However, some teacher also suggested that the marital relation and context of relation between the two sexes in family education can also teach students the interaction between the two sexes. For example, teacher 3 thinks: *The simulation of*

family relation scenarios allow students to understand the dedication and efforts committed by their parents. They learn to love and care for family and show appreciation and satisfaction. Most importantly, students will take more caution towards the sex relationship."

The context of *family* education helps one establishes the initial concept of "people and self." The relation between "people and people" and "people and environment" can produce the life experience of love and care. The common character of family education and service-learning is to develop the emotional education of respect for the same and opposite sex.

The e-baby care service-learning course enlightens students with the gratitude for parents or caregivers

Students perceive the dedication and efforts paid by parents and caregivers from the activity experience. As mentioned by student 1: *"I now know more about the care method* and *understand the hardship place on our parents whenever they took us out."* Student 3 also mentioned: *"It is difficult to find out why the baby cries. When the baby starts to cry, I would get my hands all tied up and I really appreciate my parents for raising us."*

Clearly students will only reflect on their experience after they have experimented in person. For this reason, teacher 1 said: "*Realizing the difficulty encountered by parents, hardship undergone by parents and cultivating student's attitude of precaution in life."* Teacher 2 also pointed out: "*the weight of e-baby is close to the actual baby. Many students could not handle the e-baby in the course and also reflect the difficulty in being a parent.*" Teacher 4 believes that: "*The mimic experimentation of e-baby puts youths in the hardship of raising children. They will put their feed in their parents' shoes and realize the dedication and loading of caregivers."*

The e-baby care service-learning course allows students to accumulate learning experience from experimentation, particularly students have reflected and are enlightened with the appreciation to their parents or caregivers.

E-baby care service-learning course cultivates students with patience, love, sense of responsibility as well as other abstract conceptualization.

The activity of e-baby care can cultivate personality traits: For example, *student 1 said: "I am annoyed by the baby's crying noise but I would try different methods to calm him down. I don't lose temper on the baby because I worry that I might hurt* them *baby. After all, if it's real person, parents must be responsible for their children."* Student 2 suggested: ""*You need to keep yourself even calmer to face a crying baby. I tell myself*

to be patient." Moreover, student 3 indicated that: *"Some students lose patience and could not take care of the e-baby. They have been taken out a lot of points."*

E-baby care service-learning courses can cultivate student's patience, love, sense of responsibility, and other abstract conceptualization while teachers hold the same views. As mentioned by teacher 2: *"Experimentation unit can boost student's patience, dedication and love."* Teacher 3 mentioned: *"Students have their hands tied up when the baby cries but after some time of accustomed operation, they can treat the baby calmly. The activity helps students develop patience and sense of responsibility."*

Service-learning can cultivate students with patience, love and sense of responsibility. However, the prerequisite is that students must thoroughly blend into the scenarios in order to enhance their commitment in e-baby care. As mentioned by teacher 4: *"The identity and attitude of commitment of a person's mentality will affect the experimentation performance. As long as students identify with the authenticity, they will show more patience and excellent learning effect. Therefore, the scenario simulation and design by instructor play a critical part."*

The active experimentation of e-baby care through service-learning courses accumulates the experience value of peer collaboration.

Students will develop mutual assistance in the service-learning process. Student 2 *expressed*: *"When I have to go to the bathroom or need to leave the e-baby unattended temporarily, I will need to communicate with my partner and ask him/her to take care of the e-baby for me so I could leave for a while."* Student 3 mentioned: *"When the baby cried in class for no reason, I was just learning to take care of e-baby at the beginning so I was not familiar with it, but the students sitting around me helped me to take care of the e-baby."*

The assistance from the partner is necessary while the teachers perceived the same; teacher 1 commented:" *Students profoundly understand the importance of teamwork from the course learning experience. A good partner matters."* Teacher 3 also stated: *"The intensification of partnership helps understand how to collaborate with a partner."*

Clearly, students and teachers both believe that teamwork can boost the effect of service-learning. Nonetheless in the process of teamwork, there are inevitably some discretion of opinions due to the differentiation in personal recognition and concepts. Hence, teacher 2 pointed out: *"The upbringing behavior of original family affects the cognition and behaviors in next generation in terms of taking care of children."* Student 1 also mentioned: *"I will education my children according to the style of my family education. There could be conflict since the two students come from different families."* It also reveals the significance of communication and respect of teamwork on collaboration.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The Kolb's interpretation of service-learning acquired knowledge includes: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Service-learning is one model of experimental learning. The paper adopts viewpoints of family education to analyze the effect of service-learning courses of colleges. Students will establish the moral educational viewpoints of caring for family and people, so that students will increase life experience in "love" and "care," and reflect the enlightenment of appreciation for parents or caregivers. Students will develop patience, love, sense of responsibility as well as other abstract conceptualization, to accumulate the experience value of peer collaboration. In general, the context of family education enlightens with care atmosphere for oneself, others and the environment. The influence of cultivating students' service-learning should not be overlooked. Family education cultivates students with quality and sentiment of "care," who will accumulate self-observation and reflection in living experience, in addition to transforming reflection feedback into internal knowledge value. Furthermore, the study voluntarily compiles the ideas and dedicate them in real actions, collecting into concrete experience through voluntary experimentation to show the knowledge of service-learning from the continuous experience value.

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