



JOURNAL OF SERVICE- LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

ISSN: 2162-6685

Volume 12 Winter 2021

THE JOURNAL OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION IS AN ONLINE, INTERNATIONAL, PEER-REVIEWED JOURNAL FOR THE DISSEMINATION OF ORIGINAL RESEARCH REGARDING EFFECTIVE INSTITUTIONAL-COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIPS. OUR PRIMARY EMPHASIS IS TO PROVIDE AN OUTLET FOR SHARING THE METHODOLOGIES AND PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES THAT LEAD TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY-IDENTIFIED OUTCOMES. THE JOURNAL OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION IS A SUBSCRIPTION-FREE JOURNAL WITH A REVIEW BOARD MADE UP OF VARIOUS ACADEMIC DISCIPLINES OF THE MEMBER INSTITUTIONS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM AS WELL AS OTHER NATIONALLY AND INTERNATIONALLY ACCREDITED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES AND AFFILIATED ORGANIZATIONS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Navigating Mismatched Expectations and Dissonance on International Nursing Service-Learning Trips Yarbrough, Matthew, and Hockett	3
It's All About the Relationship: Identifying Management Attributes For Quality Non-Profit Partners in Service-Learning Schaffer and Shearer	16
Sticking Together: The Impact of a Collaborative Intensive Service-Learning Program on College Students' Academic Outcomes Yen and Carrick	29
Pre-Departure Training is Essential for Preparing Healthcare Teams for Service-Learning to Resource-Limited Countries Trotter, Dunnivan-Mitchell, Borman, Kent, and Oliva	42
A Case Study: Assessment of Civic Learning Knowledge amongst Informatics Faculty and Undergraduate Students' Attendees Of Civic Workshops at Mercer University Ben Ramadan, Liu, and Stapleton	59
Redesigning a University Class in Classroom Behavior Support: Social Emotional Learning and Positive Behavior Support Strategies Taught Through Service-Learning Shapiro	72

Navigating Mismatched Expectations and Dissonance on International Nursing Service-Learning Trips

Elizabeth Yarbrough
George Fox University

Stephanie Matthew
George Fox University

Eloise Hockett
George Fox University

As international service-learning trips are becoming increasingly more common, especially in higher education, attention is being paid to the perspectives of the various participants (Gallagher & Polanin, 2015; Kohlbry, 2016; McFarland & Wehbe-Alamah, 2018). To meet the full potential of the cross-cultural experience, short-term international work is best conducted in a partnership with in-country organizations or local community members in order to create positive and lasting effects (Hockett & Muhanji, 2017). This leads to multiple groups involved in the trip process, and sometimes the expectations and goals of the various trip participants may not align well.

On an international service-learning experience, there are typically three groups of participants:

1. Students; the visitors coming into this cross-cultural experience
2. Trip leaders; often faculty from the sponsoring institution
3. Nationals (hosts, community partners, and patients)

Each of these groups has their own set of expectations, and these varied expectancies can sometimes cause communication difficulties, frustrations, or mutual dissatisfaction throughout the duration of a trip.

Abstract

This article examines the phenomena of mismatched expectations on international nursing service-learning trips and the resulting dissonance those expectations can produce in trip participants. The work of Festinger and others are used as a theoretical framework for recognizing the elements of dissonance and how to navigate through the various stages of dissonance before, during, and after a service-learning experience. Specific examples from students, international partners, and leaders on service-learning trips are used to illustrate how to recognize and acknowledge expectations in order to successfully navigate the associated dissonance. While dissonance may never truly resolve in international work, the awareness of how to navigate the dissonance can be utilized to improve cross-cultural collaboration and communication, while minimizing potential conflicts and misunderstandings.

This article will include examples from the authors' experiences as professors leading students on short term, cross-cultural experiences to Kenya. These trips have been designed to be long-term commitments returning to the same communities repeatedly and strengthening relationships over time. Most of these trips are serving in the context of providing health education or working alongside local healthcare providers in providing basic nursing services. Each experience includes pre-trip preparation meetings, evening debrief sessions during the trip, reflective journal entries, and post-trip interviews with participants. On these various trips, the leaders have observed trends of mismatched expectations between trip participants resulting in misunderstandings and mutual frustrations. Navigating these types of resultant conversations requires an awareness of initial expectations and perspectives. The recognition of personal expectations enables participants to dialogue more effectively about the goals and activities of the trip.

Theoretical Framework

The framework of cognitive dissonance was chosen for this article as it closely aligns to the topic of expectations and how one responds when various expectations are challenged. The term cognitive dissonance was originally researched by Leon Festinger in the late 1950s. In his first writings, he formed two initial hypotheses: 1) "The existence of dissonance, being psychologically uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance" (Festinger, 1962, p. 3), and 2) "When dissonance is present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actively avoid situations and information which would likely increase the dissonance" (p. 3). Festinger also believed that dissonance occurs for each person on a daily basis even if it appears there are no new occurrences or knowledge.

Working within these two hypotheses, there are many facets to cognitive dissonance. If two pieces of information become known to someone, and if one of those pieces is in conflict with the other, the importance of the dissonance will be related to how one views each part (Festinger, 1962). Thus, the greater the discomfort with the dissonance, the more one will want to eliminate the main cause of the dissonance (Cooper, 2007; Festinger, 1962).

In considering service-learning experiences, dissonance may come about due to interactions with a past event (Festinger, 1962). For example, if one has taken a trip to a specific location a number of times, it is easy to expect a similar experience on subsequent trips. When new or different events challenge any original expectation, then dissonance occurs as the participant wrestles with those changes, whether good or bad. In addition, the dissonance will be present unless the participant seeks to resolve the changes.

The navigation of cognitive dissonance is one of the foundational aspects of intercultural learning (Mitchell & Paras, 2018). For service-learning trips, dissonance can be due to differences in cultural expectations (Festinger, 1962). While efforts may have been in place to prepare students for differences in the new culture, the students will likely carry some prior expectations, biases, and assumptions as they enter that new culture. When those prior expectations are challenged as they interact with the new culture, dissonance will occur. This dissonance then causes students to examine their

thinking processes in order to find ways to work out the incongruities they are facing (Festinger, 1962). Students must expand their thinking processes in order to make room for the new information to co-exist with what they already know (Festinger, 1962). Within the context of service-learning in another culture, it is important for faculty or trip leaders to assist students through this transformative process of dissonance, and help them through the steps of resolving the dissonance and making new meaning (Mezirow, 2000; Mitchell & Paras, 2018; Taylor, Jones, Massey, Mickey & Reynolds, 2018).

A student's developmental state may be challenged when faced with differences in their existing learning context. Jones (2008) wrote that when a student faces differences, they may hold on to what they already know, and retreat from circumstances that cause them to feel conflict with the new experiences. This retreat occurs as they may not be developmentally ready to accept such changes to their existing knowledge (Giles, 2014; Taylor et al. 2018). According to Cooper (2007), reducing the perceived inconsistencies in the situation is the best way to diminish the dissonance.

The process of navigating or diminishing dissonance within cross-cultural work requires a level of humility on the part of the learner. Festinger's discussion of cognitive dissonance does not mention humility specifically, but the concept is woven throughout his writings (Festinger, 1962). As individuals attempt to reduce or resolve dissonance, the process involves surrendering one's preconceived notions which requires an element of humility. In prior cross cultural work, we have found that cultural humility is a crucial step in working through dissonance and mismatched expectations (Hockett & Muhanji, 2017).

Methodology

For the purposes of this article, we used data we collected over the course of four years of international service learning trips. The U.S. based participants included: 27 undergraduate students (25 nursing students, one pre-med student, and one engineering major), and three faculty members. In addition, there were four Kenyan participants who worked directly with our teams and were a part of the formal data collection. This study has been approved by the university's institutional review board.

Data were collected via the following: recorded debrief sessions, student journal entries, and field notes. For the data analysis we followed the protocols for qualitative research as identified by Creswell (2013, 2014) and Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2008). Recorded interviews were transcribed, read through, then coded to identify main themes. Triangulation occurred by examining all of the data collected in order to justify the main themes which we identified through multiple readings, comparisons, and analysis (Creswell, 2013).

In analyzing our own observations, experiences and responses as faculty and trip leaders, we used the lens of reflective practice. Dewey (1933), one of the early writers on reflective practice, posited that our ability to reflect occurs only after a problem has been identified. The tension surrounding the problem invites the person to actively investigate possible solutions. As a result, reflective practice allows for the educator or practitioner to further assess personal motives, assumptions, and outcomes of their work, which can then lead to further growth and development as a professional

(Larrivee, 2000; Osterman & Kottman, 1993). The reflective process involves an honest examination of one's own behaviors and biases, while identifying how those behaviors have an impact on our responses and future work (Larrivee, 2000). Osterman and Kottman believe that the reflective process has a greater impact when the learner is invested in the process and there is motivation to learn and change. Osterman and Kottman further state that true learning cannot take place without reflection and without the results of our reflection leading to action. Kegan and Lahey (2009) wrote that "...reflection without action is ultimately as unproductive as action without reflection" (Kindle version, location 3564).

Thus, the reflective practitioner continues to examine her experience by asking such foundational questions such as: What did I do? What was the result? What could I do differently? Reflective practice is then a cyclical process which continues to adapt to the changes, and looks back on the process, only to repeat the cycle once again (Larrivee, 2000). Therefore, our actions from the reflective process should produce an impact on our professional practice (Garson, 2005).

Results

Through our analysis over four years of data, we have identified the main themes which related to the topic of expectations. We present the main themes in a narrative format via the lens of the students, the accompanying faculty members, and our Kenyan partners.

Identifying Conflicting Expectations on Short-Term Trips

Within a service-learning context, it has been our experience as trip leaders that the most important element of navigating dissonance is to recognize that expectations will be present for each participant involved. When intentionally trying to consider everyone's perspectives, it may become apparent that each person is holding a different set of expectations. These differences can create a sense of underlying frustration or even outright conflict if they are not recognized and addressed. Mismatched expectations can sabotage a trip's objectives and desired outcomes, and may hinder well-intentioned actions.

When learning to navigate mismatched expectations, it is first important to recognize that expectations do exist. This can be extremely difficult for trip participants, particularly when their expectations may be held subconsciously. Over the course of many service-learning trips abroad, we have heard undergraduate nursing students claim they do not have any preconceived expectations for the experience. In pre-trip interviews before a recent service-learning trip to Kenya, several students shared sentiments about wanting to *keep an open mind* and that they were purposefully trying to avoid having biases beforehand (pre-trip video interviews, June 2018). An early group meeting during another Kenya serve trip included a student saying, "I came on this trip without any expectations at all" (Field notes, personal communication, March 2015). Eventually, however, these same students began to recognize that they did have trip and cross-cultural expectations despite their efforts to ignore and minimize them. In our experience, expectations tend to reveal themselves when students are feeling discomfort, homesickness, or any sense of surprise. We have noted several instances

when student trip participants would say, “I wasn’t expecting...,” or, “I didn’t think we would be doing this....” These types of conversations reveal underlying expectations of which the students were not even consciously aware.

The expectations of trip leaders can be vastly different from those of student participants. The safety of the team will always be the top consideration for trip leaders, when it might not even be a priority of the more adventurous students. Trip leaders are continuously thinking about trip preparations and logistics. An example of this would be when preparing for medical camps and clinics, when the leaders are never sure which diseases and diagnoses to emphasize to the students during the pre-trip planning sessions. Even the local healthcare providers, who often function in leadership roles on trips, have been surprised when their own expectations of common diagnoses are incomplete or false. After a medical camp in an area we had not previously visited, our collaborating Kenyan physician commented, “I expected to see HIV and high BP here, but we ended up seeing more anemia than anything” (Dr. Andrew, personal communication, January 2018).

Sometimes all trip participants may have the same expectation, but the outcome still does not match the goal. In most clinic settings, everyone present would like a quick fix if it was possible. With international service work, the local patients are often expecting miracles and instant results from the foreign visitors. Unfortunately, instant gratification is rarely possible or sustainable and can lead to significant disappointment from the patients and the community hosts. One student wrote in her journal (trip reflection journal, 2016), “people came to us thinking we could perform miracles for cancer or paralysis” and this participant struggled with having to tell patients what was realistic regarding our scope of practice. There is also another layer of disappointment if a trip does not appear to be achieving as much medical benefit to the community as was hoped by participants and community members.

Similarly, patient encounters often hold unmet expectations for the students and clinic workers. Students may be wanting to see resolution and follow-up of each patient case, when this is not realistic in a short-term experience. Wound care activities are often a trip highlight for participants who witness the healing process occur over a few days. One student shared in an evening debrief session, “We love acute issues (like wound care) because we see evidence of progress, but most issues here are chronic and require significant life change” (Trip participant, personal communication, January 2018). During another recent trip to Kenya, students were asked to share pros and cons of the medical camps of the prior two weeks, and one of the main cons mentioned was the lack of follow-up with patients. Students experienced dissonance when they were unable to re-evaluate a patient after implementing nursing interventions. The lack of opportunity for patient reassessment exacerbated student discomfort. This was a common theme in the reflective journaling and post-trip interviews as well: “The hardest thing is not knowing what happened with specific patients” (trip participant, personal communication, Spring 2017)

In situations where multiple service trips are led from the same institution, participants may be expecting trips to be like prior iterations or other locations. While our institution has been focused on ongoing work in Kenya, nursing professors have led service-learning trips to Nicaragua and Haiti as well. An evening debrief session in

Nicaragua brought out the comment from a student saying, “I thought we would be doing more medical care like on the Kenya trip instead of the health fairs here [in Nicaragua]” (Trip participant, personal communication, June 2015). When the trip leader recognized this unmet expectation of the participants, the group discussed the importance of health education and location-specific needs, rather than assuming that all service-learning trips would look the same.

Examples of Navigating Dissonance

In our experience, dissonance is woven throughout cross-cultural work as the participants enter into new situations and experience discomfort with the unknown of the new setting or culture. Each trip participant can choose how they want to navigate this dissonance, especially as they face conflicting expectations. Trip leaders are navigating their own dissonance, but are also balancing the dissonance of the other two groups of participants: the students and the nationals.

Examples from Students.

Two student stories illustrate how students either worked through the dissonance with some success, or refused to navigate through their discomfort with the new situation. One student, Janice, recognized her discomfort from the beginning and sought out the trip leader for multiple conversations about her dissonance with the various events and interactions with the Kenyans that were taking place. The trip leader remembers her saying, “I’m not getting this. Help me understand what we are doing.” In this way, Janice recognized early on that she did not understand her role in all of the interactions and was doing her best to learn and navigate all she was experiencing. From another journal entry she wrote: “I’ve taken initiative to talk with people from the other team and our team.” She also wrote down her expectations and goals at the start of the trip and adjusted these in writing throughout the experience. She consistently demonstrated that she was engaging in the process of navigating dissonance.

Janice recognized in her early trip journaling that “new locations are difficult for me”. As trip leaders we observed Janice’s discomfort and current state of dissonance. She did not expect to experience as much dissonance as she was feeling. However, she recognized this and later wrote in her journal, “I’ve become more fluid, go with the flow, more relaxed than I usually am. I feel at PEACE.” When asked about her goals for the remainder of the trip, Janice wrote, “To challenge myself to seek out the conversations that will build people up.” Janice lived this goal out when doing an impromptu health education presentation for 8th grade girls of a local village. After completing the presentation Janice sat down in the middle of the room and the students crowded around her. She asked about their hopes and dreams and listened attentively to their questions. This moment was an example of how Janice was able to meet her goal of seeking out meaningful conversations. After this encounter, she talked about how this interaction was the highlight of her trip.

Occasionally, students do not appear to navigate cross-cultural dissonance well. A student participant on our first trip to Kenya stated in a debrief session that she had no expectations for this experience and she did not appear to recognize her dissonance at the time. Throughout the trip, the leaders noted that this particular student maintained

a rather fixed mindset and appeared to disengage from any dissonance she felt. The student continued to claim that she had no expectations and yet her reflection journals mentioned several surprises which would imply the presence of pre-existing expectations. "Prior to this trip I thought that Kenyan patients would be similar to patients I saw during clinicals in America. I did not think I would be surprised by anything healthcare-related. Thankfully, I was wrong... I felt that the Kenyan people were much more respectful and grateful for receiving care than Americans." Her reflection journals were also shorter and lacked evidence of personal growth compared to the other student writings from the trip. These superficial journal entries included broad generalizations about the country and people, perpetuating the idea that foreigners are the experts, and repeatedly wanting to give quick fixes for any problems at hand.

Examples from nationals.

As more community members become involved in our cross cultural work, dissonance often appears when new or novice leaders begin to participate in the partnership. Dissonance emerges as a lack of understanding on both sides with previously-held expectations of how to engage positively with others. This is often where misunderstandings occur. For novice participants, they often do not have the background knowledge, education, or experience to understand how we have developed our ongoing partnerships within the framework of cultural humility (Hockett & Muhanji, 2017).

We initially became aware of this phenomenon of the novice participant/leader when we were evaluating our first partnership work on Mount Elgon during trip leader debrief sessions. On one of our trips, a lead community member, who we will call Jacob, had assumptions about what we should be doing during our time at the health center. Our responsibility was to remain within our scope of practice, which the community member did not understand. This lack of awareness became a form of dissonance, compounded by multiple U.S. teams collaborating together as guest entities at the health center.

In Jacob's effort to assert his role as leader, he was continually asking members of our team to act outside of their scope of practice as nurses and nursing students. He encouraged the nurses to prescribe medications to every patient, even using placebos so that the patients would feel like they were *receiving something* for the registration fee they had paid. He did not understand that asking nurses to order or prescribe medications is not ethically within their role.

The trip leaders experienced significant dissonance when they discovered that patients had been paying for the services at this free clinic. We were giving our services and time for free and therefore thought the patients were receiving care for free. As a team we felt the integrity of our clinical judgement was being compromised as we were constantly being asked to work faster and see more patients. However, we did not understand what had been communicated to the general public on the mountain and the expectations which had been previously set-up for our medical camp. Navigating these mismatched expectations led to dissonance, pain, and confusion for our entire team.

Attempts at resolving the dissonance came through ongoing conversations with Jacob. These led to the discovery of a deeper issue of trying to support the clinic through the fees which were charged to the patients. We as trip leaders realized we needed to appeal to Jacob's deeper motivations of how best to serve the patients who were coming to the medical camp.

In this particular example, knowing a person's motivations can help us understand our collaborators and achieve a mutually beneficial end. Sometimes learning an individual's motivations is as simple as asking. Other times it requires careful observation and study. In the end, it is important to build relationships to create a lasting and positive impact.

A different example of dissonance came via a young Kenyan physician who joined one of our service-learning trips. Dr. Benjamin is a colleague and friend of our main collaborating physician, Dr. Andrew. After each of our collaborative health care initiatives in our partner villages, Dr. Andrew would share with his colleague Dr. Benjamin of his positive experiences working with our students and teaching them about tropical diseases and how those are treated in Kenya. These discussions piqued the interest of Dr. Benjamin who had only engaged in medical camps through his medical school training, and not with foreigners. Dr. Benjamin even began to cover the regular work shifts of Dr. Andrew as a show of support and to allow him to join more of our collaborative work in the villages.

After hearing about these experiences for over a year, Dr. Benjamin finally had the opportunity to first meet one of our teams at a rural health center. There he had a brief opportunity to observe how we collaborated with the Kenyan medical staff. Everyone on the team, regardless of professional status or experience, engaged in all aspects of the work, from setting and cleaning up to hauling equipment back into the vehicles. In our observations, Dr. Benjamin seemed reticent at first to join in the work until one of our nurses invited him to assist. Once he observed his colleague Dr. Andrew helping with tasks other than the traditional role of a physician, Dr. Benjamin began to work as an equal with everyone else.

Dr. Benjamin officially joined our team as the collaborating physician a year later. Through group debrief sessions and field notes, he shared how collaborating with our team opened his eyes to different ways of doing things. In our observations, he was an active participant with all aspects of the work, taught our students as he assessed and treated patients, and willingly engaged in all social interactions with our team. In one of our debrief sessions, Dr. Benjamin shared with the entire group:

I have learned a lot... On the side of health education, which we discovered for the last three days, people actually do not know what they are suffering from. They have medications. They will tell you what they take, but no one has ever told them why they are taking [these medications]... It is sad because it is teaching us that maybe we have been denying our patients the right to know what they are suffering from.... Maybe it is us [Kenyan healthcare providers] who made that mistake. It actually drove me back to try and educate my patients, because when you educate them, obviously they will understand themselves... On our side we have learned that when we go about our workplaces, health education is very important. We have learned today that most patients, when

they reach our facilities, maybe we take very little time with them. We don't examine them well, and that leads to maybe the wrong diagnosis, giving the wrong drugs. - Evening Debrief Session June 2018

From our perspective as trip leaders, Dr. Benjamin navigated his dissonance fairly quickly and was able to effectively work as a co-collaborator with the visiting team. At this time, we do not have enough experience and observation with Dr. Benjamin to know the extent of his expectations in collaborating with us, however, he did reveal many times that he was impressed by our nursing students and their spirit of collaboration and service toward others. We can assume that he was not expecting to witness this level of collegiality with our team.

Revealing Expectations

Interestingly, many of the students who claimed they had “no expectations” prior to the trip, spoke quite differently after the trip was concluded. Perhaps these discrepancies may be due to cognitive bias, such as the Dunning-Kruger Effect where people are not self-aware of their own low abilities (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). In interviews several months after the trip, students were asked, *Prior to this trip, what were some of your cultural assumptions and biases about Kenya and the people here? How have those changed?* Each student was able to identify expectations they had been holding when coming into the trip, and highlighted the struggles they felt when reconciling their expectations with reality even if they reported having no expectations before they left on the trip.

From analyzing the perspectives of nationals, novice participants are still developing the ability to navigate cross cultural communication and how to interact with those from a different culture. As more community members become involved within our work, there is a dissonance when newer people are novice in cross-cultural expectations. The community members desire to have visitors come and work with them, but in the case of Jacob, he is a novice in his approach to cross-cultural relationships and collaboration. He creates dissonance for himself with his own assumptions of what should be happening, and this creates dissonance for other team members because of misunderstood expectations.

Discussion

There are many facets to navigating both dissonance and mismatched expectations on a service-learning trip. As we are analyzing our data from our students and our Kenyan partners, we recognize that expectations from both could be influenced by a number of variables including: age, education, life experiences, travel, and exposure to other cultures. Further, we have noted that dissonance appears to be continually present on all of our international service-learning experiences.

As we examined our participant data even further, we noticed that the students selected as exemplars of navigating dissonance well were students fairly early in their nursing programs at the time of their trips. The students who did not appear to cope with dissonance as well were actually older, closer to graduation, possibly having a more fixed mindset, or perhaps not wanting to move forward into the dissonance. More

research is needed to determine if this difference between levels in nursing training is an anomaly in this case, or if more experienced students have more of a fixed mindset when it comes to cross-cultural interactions.

With the example of the Kenyan physicians, Drs. Benjamin and Andrew are younger than our other Kenyan partners and well-educated, and have had experiences in bigger cities and with diverse populations. They adapted to our team much faster than Pastor Jacob who from our observation and experience has a relatively narrow frame of reference in regards to working with those from another culture. Dr. Andrew quietly encouraged and mentored Dr. Benjamin about joining one of our trips for at least a year prior to Dr. Benjamin's first encounter with our team. In contrast, Jacob did not have mentorship in collaborating within this context, and yet has been present since our first team visit. In addition, Jacob is also rather isolated in his professional role on the mountain. Since our first time meeting and working with Jacob on Mt. Elgon, it appears that he has not navigated through his dissonance with how he interacts and interfaces with our teams. From our perspective, his expectations for our teams on each subsequent trip have not changed significantly.

In working with each of the Kenyan partners, we all have had expectations which have required us to work through our dissonance together in order to effectively collaborate with our service-learning objectives. Through this process, it has taken time to build trust and relationships. Within our partnership work, effective communication has provided the foundation for the cross-cultural exchanges. According to Hockett and Muhanji (2017), the key components of cross-cultural communication include: relationship-building, listening, addressing biases, and carefully observing situations. We have noted that when collaborators are able to identify and openly discuss expectations ahead of time to clarify the trip goals and objectives, potential misunderstandings can be minimized or avoided altogether.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation we have considered is where we might have put expectations on students without realizing it. In our pre-trip planning we often discuss the types of trips we have previously taken with students. It could be that we unknowingly in our preparations place expectations on our students. Another limitation could come from previous trip members. Our students and graduates often stay in contact with each other and their classmates, frequently talking about their service-learning experiences, thus setting up the current students for a level of expectations. Even participants who might be repeating a trip to a similar location might have expectations and compare them to previous trips.

Future research regarding expectations could include how to prepare for future trips without building up expectations detrimentally. Within existing research, there is a gap in examining the perspectives of community members who participate in service-learning collaboration. Expectations of our national partners could be elicited more specifically with interviews and conversations, particularly examining how these may have changed over time. Additionally, it would be interesting to examine the specific demographic information of our student trip participants which could include: previous travel experiences, living in another culture, educational level or experience, and age.

Conclusion

In service-learning experiences or other international work, we believe dissonance is never truly resolved. Festinger (1962) suggests that individuals can reach consonance, a sense of harmony within oneself related to the dissonance. In this context of cross-cultural work, we would postulate that dissonance is always present as one is continually learning and each new experience brings the potential for mismatched expectations. While Mitchell and Paras (2018) mention that cognitive dissonance resolution is possible within intercultural learning, the measurement of this outcome remains largely subjective and situational. We believe that trip participants will likely never reach true consonance or dissonance resolution on a short-term service-learning experience because the learning is a continual process.

The authors of this article have no disclosures.

References

- Cooper, J. (2007). *Cognitive dissonance: Fifty years of a classic theory*. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think*. New York: D.C. Heath and Company.
- Festinger, L. (1962). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Gallagher, R. W., & Polanin, J. R. (2015). A meta-analysis of educational interventions designed to enhance cultural competence in professional nurses and nursing students. *Nurse Education Today*, 35(2), 333-340. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2014.10.021>
- Garson, B. (2005). Teaching abroad: A cross-cultural journey. *Journal of Education for Business*, 80(6), 322-326.
- Giles, H. C. (2014). Risky epistemology: Connecting with others and dissonance in community-based research. 65–78. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 20(2), p. 65+.
- Hockett, E. & Muhanji, J. (2017). *Lessons from cross cultural collaboration: How cultural humility informed and shaped the work of an American and a Kenyan*. Eugene, OR: Wipf & Stock.

Jones, S. R. (2008). Student resistance to cross-cultural engagement: Annoying distraction or site for transformative learning? In S. R. Harper (Ed.), *Creating inclusive campus environments for cross-cultural learning and student engagement* (pp. 67–85). Washington, DC: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA).

Kegan, R., & Lahey, L. L. (2009). *Immunity to change: How to overcome it and unlock the potential in yourself and your organization*. [Kindle version]. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Kohlbray, P. W. (2016). The impact of international service-learning on nursing students' cultural competency. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship: An Official Publication of Sigma Theta Tau International Honor Society of Nursing / Sigma Theta Tau*, 48(3), 303. <https://doi:10.1111/jnu.12209>

Kruger, J., & Dunning, D. (1999). Unskilled and unaware of it: How difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 1121-1134.

Larrivee, B. (2000). Transforming teaching practice: Becoming the critically reflective teacher. *Reflective Practice*, 1(3), 293-306.

Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2008). Qualitative data analysis: A compendium of techniques and a framework for selection for school psychology research and beyond. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 23(4), 587-604. [doi: 10.1037/1045-3830.23.4.587](https://doi.org/10.1037/1045-3830.23.4.587)

McFarland, M., & Wehbe-Alamah, H. B. (2018). *Leininger's transcultural nursing: Concepts, theories, research, & practice*. (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Mezirow, J. (2000). Learning to think like an adult: Core concepts of transformation theory. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Learning as transformation: Critical perspectives on a theory in progress* (pp. 3–33). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Mitchell, L., & Paras, A. (2018). When difference creates dissonance: Understanding the 'engine' of intercultural learning in study abroad. *Intercultural Education*, 29(3), 321-339. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2018.1436361>

Osterman, K. F. & Kottman, R. B. (1993). *Reflective practice for educators*. Corwin Press: Newbury Park, CA.

Taylor, K. B., Jones, S., Massey, R., Mickey, J., & Reynolds, D. J. (2018). 'It just had to settle': A longitudinal investigation of students' developmental readiness to navigate dissonance and experience transformation through international service learning. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 89(2), 236-260. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2017.1368817>

About the Authors

Elizabeth Yarbrough MSN, RN, George Fox University, Assistant Professor of Nursing

Stephanie Matthew MSN, FNP-C, RN George Fox University, Assistant Professor of Nursing

Eloise Hockett EdD, George Fox University, Professor of Education; Co-chair, School of Education Chair, Undergraduate Teacher Education

Contact information for Authors

Elizabeth Yarbrough MSN, RN, <mailto:elizabeth.a.roark@gmail.com>

Stephanie Matthew MSN, FNP-C, RN, smatthew@georgefox.edu

Eloise Hockett EdD, ehockett@georgefox.edu

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank our Kenyan hosts, community partners and students who traveled with us.

It's All About the Relationship: Identifying Management Attributes for Quality Nonprofit Partners in Service-Learning

Regan Harwell Schaffer
Pepperdine University

Robert Shearer
Pepperdine University

Strategic partnerships between nonprofit organizations and universities utilizing service-learning and internships are a proven means to assist nonprofits and provide meaningful and relevant learning experiences for students (Schaffer, 2012; Chupp & Joseph, 2010; Kenworthy-U'Ren, 2000). However, a student's experience collaborating with a nonprofit organization as part of a *required* service-learning course can be very different from a student serving as a volunteer or intern. The motivations and purposes differ; volunteer and interns choose the organization they serve whereas a service-learning student is likely assigned to the organization as part of a class assignment. Student volunteers and interns often have a career interest in the nonprofit sector and use the experience to enhance their career development; service-learning students may have no interest in a career in the sector. Consequently, they may need to be managed differently than a volunteer or intern. This can create conflict for both the nonprofit professional and the students and faculty involved. Most worrisome for the nonprofit sector, the service-learning experience could permanently prejudice students against the sector. This paper examines the relationship between a student's experience in a service-learning course and management attributes of the nonprofit client, in particular the person who works directly with the student. We are interested in which management attributes of

Abstract

This paper examines the relationship between a student's experience in a service-learning course and the management attributes of the nonprofit client. We utilize a mixed methods approach to identify and explain the most impactful attribute. We find that the quality of the consulting relationship has the strongest effect on a student's experience. This attribute can be further explained in terms of the client's personal engagement, commitment to collaborative learning, and positive attitude behaviors.

these individuals influence students' perceptions of their service-learning involvement and the nonprofit sector. We analyzed four years of end-of-course survey data from a service-learning course at a major university. We used Spearman's Rho to measure the strength of the relationships between the student's experience and the management attributes followed by content analysis to discover underlying themes that explain the strongest relationship. The inferences drawn from the analysis provide nonprofits and faculty insight into how best develop and implement service-learning partnerships.

Literature Review

Service-learning is an academic method whose foundation is in experiential education (Furco, 1996) and is widely recognized as a valuable pedagogical tool despite numerous constraints. Regardless of student motivation, research shows student learning benefits of increased skills in problem-solving, critical thinking, writing, speaking and collaborative team work (Elgren & Hensel, 2006; Landrum & Nelson, 2002). Additionally, service-learning prepares students for citizenship as participants develop a deeper understanding of social issues and how values, beliefs, and norms are socially constructed (Colby, Beaumont, Ehrlich & Corngold, 2007; Checkoway, 2001; Jacoby, 1996; Astin, 1993). It is also considered a high-impact practice because it helps students to develop meaningful relationships with supervisors, faculty, staff, and peers (Kuh, 2008). Many nonprofit professionals who work directly with the students report that they benefit from the service received, access to university resources (and potential graduates) and the collaboration with faculty (Littlepage, Gazley & Bennett, 2012; Chupp & Joseph, 2010; Worrall, 2007). Service-learning should ensure that the service is tied to course learning objectives, includes both formal and informal reflection, allows students multiple interactions in their service experience and receive both feedback and official evaluation tied to their grade from their nonprofit partner (Yorio & Fe, 2012; Schaffer, 2003; Bringle, Games, & Malloy, 1999; Caron, 1999). Furthermore, there are attributes of the nonprofit partner that can strengthen the service-learning dynamic with students including mutual respect and knowledge, trust, collaboration, and shared vision and goals about what is to be achieved and learned through the experience (Worrall, 2007; Mihalynuk & Seifer, 2002; Benson & Harkavy, 2001). This partnership is strengthened when all parties are engaged in every step of the process from identifying the need to designing the service and collaborating on the outcome (Campbell & Lambright, 2011; Strand, Marullo, Cutforth, Stoecker, & Donohue, 2003). Gazley, Bennett and Littlepage (2013) in their study on effective nonprofit partnerships found that frequent and intentional communication is key. They go on to note additional critical factors including intentional partnership with the faculty and students, "active work" to build a quality reciprocal relationship through shared decision-making and planning and constructive feedback (p.575). In another study by the same authors (2012), they discuss the importance of the nonprofit partner identifying a person who is responsible for the "managerial activities" of working with service-learning students rather than cede that responsibility to the university faculty or staff (p.18). This includes

motivating the students, modeling professional behavior, and providing leadership to the students (Gazley, et al, 2013; Basinger & Bartholomew, 2006). These studies, while insightful, focus on the perceptions of the nonprofit partners where we focus on the perceptions of the students.

Optimistic outcomes are many, yet challenges exist with both service-learning and perceptions of the nonprofit sector. Stoecker and Tryon (2009) in their book, *Unheard Voices: Community Organizations and Service Learning*, address concerns about the negative outcomes of service-learning in the community. They state that the service or charity model of service-learning may reinforce negative impressions of nonprofits and the communities they serve. A 2010 study by Chupp and Joseph found that “some service-learning experiences may actually reinforce negative or counterproductive attitudes among students” (p. 192). Deeley (2015) in his critique of the pedagogy states that many service-learning placements are “ill-structured” and diminish the learning outcomes for the students (p.30). Furthermore, Schwartz (2015) also finds that service-learning that involves multiple placement sites within interdisciplinary majors are “open to many pitfalls” especially when poorly coordinated (p.54). While the value and role of the nonprofit sector cannot be understated, some negative opinions of the sector exist. Rhode and Packel (2009) discuss the lack of public confidence in the nonprofit sector and its organizational culture in particular. Salamon, Hems, and Chenock (2000) found that nonprofit organizations are vulnerable to “excessive amateurism” or controlling behavior and Paul Light (1998) notes that despite the sector’s growth it suffers from an impression that it is less efficient and effective than the for-profit world. These perceptions were reinforced in a Bridgespan study that found that nonprofit staff consistently rated their organizations much higher on leadership skills, such as developing a shared vision, than on management capabilities, such as decision-making and setting priorities. This led the researchers to conclude that quite a few nonprofits are “strongly led, but under-managed” (Stid & Bradach, 2009, pg. 35). Indeed, the sector has been criticized for not giving priority to training their own staff to manage their colleagues and volunteers (Rehnberg, S.J., Bailey, W.L., Moore, M., & Sinatra, C., 2009; Hager & Brudney, 2004). These critiques, while not representative of service-learning or the nonprofit sector overall, are valid concerns that should be considered in facilitating university and nonprofit partnerships.

Service-Learning Capstone and Study

The context of this study is a private college with a majority of traditional students. We define service-learning as: “a credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way to gain further understanding of the course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility” (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 222). The course is a required capstone course for business, accounting and nonprofit undergraduate

students that they complete in their senior year. The overt learning objectives are focused on the development of servant leadership (as coined by Robert Greenleaf, 1970) and include the following themes: displaying leadership skills through problem solving, communicating effectively, managing stress, gaining trust of nonprofit client and team members, mutual-respect, creativity, time management and collaboration. The covert learning objectives include students developing a greater understanding of and appreciation for the nonprofit sector, demonstrating an increased desire to serve, volunteer and work in the nonprofit sector, and a stronger sense of responsibility to use their knowledge to address societal needs. We approach these covert learning objectives through the course reading assignments, the students' engagement with their nonprofit client, and both oral and written reflection.

The students are placed on teams and assigned to consult with a nonprofit partner, referred to as the client, to address a business challenge within the organization. The nonprofit partner applies to be part of the program before the semester, at which time they identify their need (business challenge) and once accepted attends a required orientation. The project is designed for a majority of the work to be completed remotely but the team meets face-to-face with the client three times throughout the semester in addition to weekly check-in conversations. At the conclusion of the 12-week consultancy, the students complete an evaluation of their nonprofit client and conversely the client completes an evaluation of the student team and overall program. The survey used by the students is based upon twenty-years of experience teaching this course, the literature previously discussed on effective service-learning practice, and the course learning objectives. In addition, we focused on attributes recognized in the management literature in terms of task behavior and relationship behavior (Osula & Ng, 2014; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013; Greenleaf, 1970). Our study, which comes from this survey, specifically focuses on eleven management attributes from the literature that determine the overall experience of a student in a service-learning course. These attributes include (the three character designation used for each follows in parentheses): accessibility to the client (ACC); level of oral and written communication between student and client (OCM and WCM); extent to which the client provides feedback on the team's work (FDB); professionalism of the client (PRO); frequency at which the clients follows through on requested items (FLW); quality of the consulting relationship (QLT); initiative shown by the client (INT); responsibility shown by the client (RES); leadership shown by the client (LDR) and level of motivation to help the students (MOT). We hypothesize that the eleven management attributes are each positively correlated with the student's overall experience. We also hypothesize that that the practical significance of the eleven are not the same, i.e. some attributes play a greater role in a student's experience than others. We seek to identify and understand those attributes that have the greatest impact.

Methods and Results

We utilized a sequential explanatory design that received IRB approval from our university. This is a mixed methods approach where the quantitative data is collected first, followed by the qualitative data. The purpose of such a design is to use the qualitative analysis to further explain and interpret the quantitative results. In our case, we used the quantitative data to identify which attributes are most practically significant, and then used the qualitative data to explain the most impactful attribute(s).

The data came from 663 evaluations completed by students enrolled in the Service Leadership course in 32 classes over eight semesters (Fall 2010 through Spring 2014). The students had just completed their service-learning consultancy project for their nonprofit client. The survey consists of 21 questions and asks the student to assess their client across the eleven attributes. The students were asked to score their client in each attribute using a five category Likert scale ranging from poor (1) to outstanding (5). The students were then asked to score their own Overall Experience (OVR) with the nonprofit, using the same five-category Likert scale. Figure 1 shows combined box (in the style of Tukey) and jitter plots for all eleven management attributes against the student's overall experience. All eleven plots suggest positive, monotonic associations. Quality of consulting relationship appears to have the strongest association.

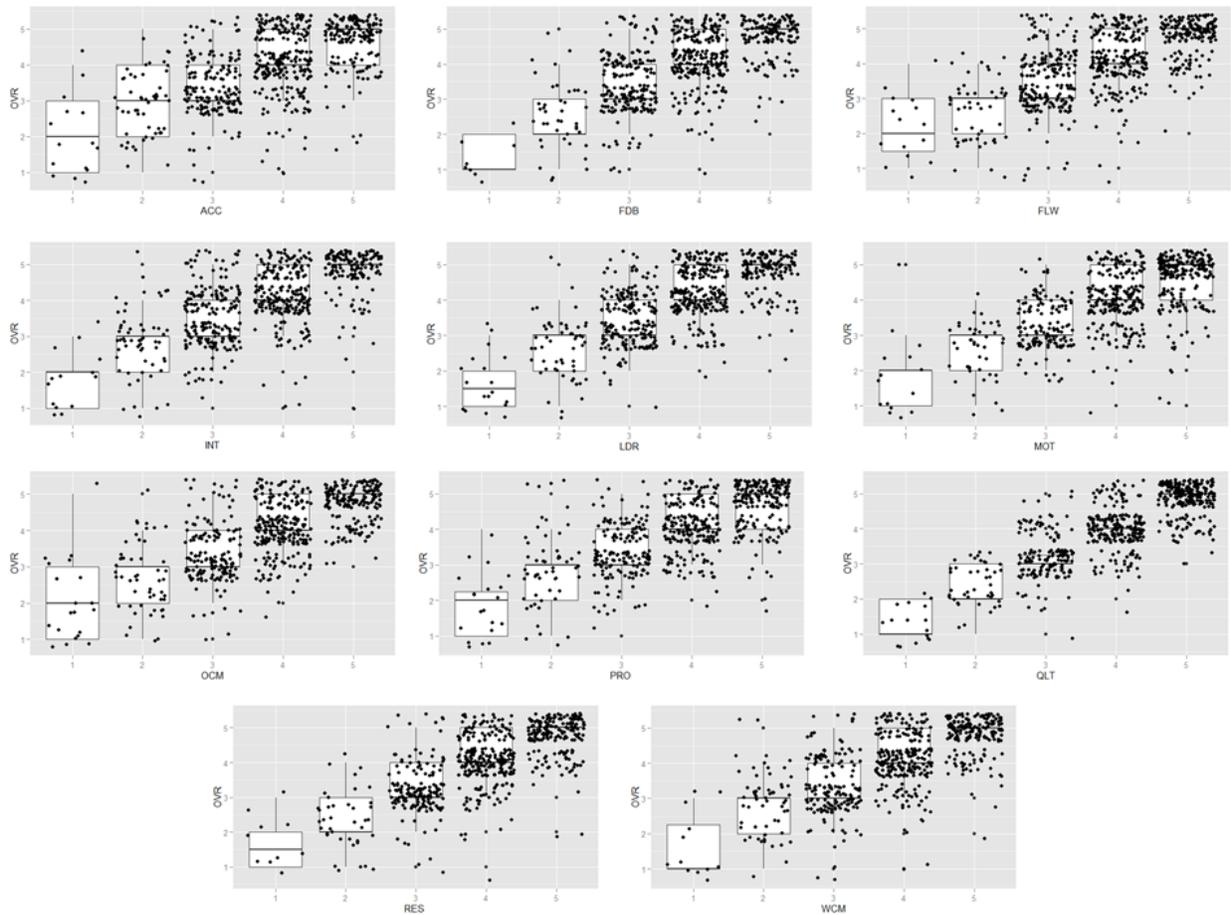


Figure 1. Combined box and jitter plots for each management attribute and a student's overall experience.

The assessment also asked for students to “provide comments regarding your assessment” for each of the eleven attributes. Here the students explained why they gave the scores that they did for each of the attributes.

The quantitative data obtained from the survey is ordinal in scale, which limits the statistical methods available for use to nonparametric ones. We calculated Spearman's rho (also known as Spearman's rank correlation coefficient) for the pairwise correlations between the eleven attributes and the student's overall experience. Spearman's rho is a nonparametric measure of rank correlation. It measures the strength of the monotonic relationship between paired data. We also tested the hypotheses that each of these correlations were significantly different from zero (i.e. no relationship). Table 1 contains this correlation matrix.

Table 1. Spearman’s rank correlations between a student’s overall experience and management attributes.

	ACC	FDB	FLW	INT	LDR	MOT	OCM	PRO	QLT	RES	WCM
FDB	0.62										
FLW	0.64	0.58									
INT	0.63	0.62	0.69								
LDR	0.56	0.62	0.60	0.72							
MOT	0.51	0.58	0.51	0.66	0.70						
OCM	0.61	0.59	0.57	0.63	0.68	0.63					
PRO	0.50	0.56	0.48	0.56	0.63	0.54	0.63				
QLT	0.59	0.64	0.61	0.64	0.69	0.64	0.67	0.68			
RES	0.64	0.62	0.66	0.69	0.70	0.65	0.66	0.68	0.75		
WCM	0.64	0.59	0.64	0.60	0.63	0.52	0.66	0.59	0.67	0.69	
OVR	0.62	0.67	0.64	0.66	0.70	0.66	0.69	0.68	0.83	0.73	0.70

Notes. All correlations between the management attributes and a student’s overall experience are significant at the $\alpha = 0.01$ level.

As hypothesized, all eleven of the attributes are statistically significant ($\alpha = 0.01$) with positive correlations. An increase in any of these scores would likely yield an increase in the student’s overall experience score, assuming a causal relationship between the two. There is moderate, but not strong correlation between the attributes, suggesting little multicollinearity. The eleven attributes each contribute to the student’s overall experience. Only one of the attributes, quality of consulting relationship, has a Spearman’s rho greater than 0.80. Three of the attributes: leadership, responsibility, and written communication have correlations greater than 0.70.

We then looked at the students’ open-ended comments to understand what influenced a student to rate their quality of consulting relationship with their nonprofit client as “superior/outstanding” or “very good” as opposed to “below average” or “poor”. We completed a content analysis whereby a group of five research assistants analyzed and coded the comments to identify patterns of desirable behaviors in the client. These patterns were identified by reading the comments, coding the data based upon recurring phrases and descriptions, and reaching consensus among the researchers as to which overarching ideas were most prevalent (Creswell, 1998; Tesch, 1990). Three behaviors

emerged that influenced students' perceptions of the quality of the relationship: personal engagement, commitment to collaborative learning, and attitude.

The first behavior, personal engagement, addresses the amount and type of effort made by the client towards the team. Personal engagement begins with the first meeting between the client and the students and continues throughout the duration of the service-learning project. Students positively cited clients that took the time to learn about each student before jumping into the project. Clients also received positive reports on personal engagement if they acknowledged each student's role and commented on the collective effort at the end of the project. Students negatively cited clients that remained aloof and disengaged. They seek more than purely transactional relationships, they want to develop interpersonal relationships during the project.

The second behavior, commitment to collaborative learning, addresses the client's interest in the students' individual development and their willingness to work with the students. Students positively cited clients that treated them as colleagues, not as interns. These clients valued their ideas, engaged the students in discussion, and provided valuable feedback. Students negatively cited clients that didn't read the students' progress reports, utilized a top down management style, failed to actively participate in the project, and provided little to no feedback. Students desire a mutually respectful relationship where both sides contribute and learn from one another.

The third behavior, positive attitude, addresses the client's outlook towards the team, the project, and even their own organization. Students positively cited clients that expressed optimism about the project, displayed resilience and remained calm during difficult moments,

Students negatively cited clients that complained about their nonprofit, expressed indifference to the project, and viewed the project as a burden and not an opportunity. Positive attitude can also have a reinforcing effect on the other behaviors. A positive attitude diminishes damage to the students' experience caused by poor personal engagement or a lack of commitment to collaborative learning.

Discussion

Our research confirms that relationships matter. Indeed, for students engaged in service-learning it is the quality of the relationship with their nonprofit client that most influences their perceptions of the experience and the sector. The quantitative analysis identified, as expected, that all eleven attributes have positive, monotonic relationships with a student's experience. Increasing a client's level in any of these eleven attributes would likely improve the student's experience. Also, as expected, the strength of these eleven relationships are not the same. The quality of the consulting relationship has the strongest, positively monotonic relationship of the eleven. Educators seeking nonprofit partners to participate in a service-learning program should start their search with this attribute in mind. Yet quality of the consulting relationship is a rather vague term. What behaviors should service-learning practitioners look for in potential clients? How does one identify these behaviors? Here we turn to our experience and the qualitative

analysis, which identified the three behaviors that students desire in a quality consulting relationship: personal engagement, commitment to collaborative learning, and positive attitude.

We recommend that faculty begin to look for these behaviors during the recruitment process. Our university recruits twice a year for service-learning nonprofit partners. Applicants must submit a project proposal and attend a ninety-minute orientation. The orientation includes project overviews, learning objectives, review of past survey results, a discussion of the incoming students' generation, and a Q&A panel of former clients. Client personal engagement behaviors are often apparent during the orientation. Determination requires face-to-face interaction, as both verbal and nonverbal cues appear most clearly in person. Ideal clients will display friendliness, curiosity, and a willingness to interact with others. One may also discern future level of personal engagement from the client's vernacular. Clients that refer to the students as "kids" or "interns" often score lower on personal engagement, while those that refer to them as "colleagues" score much higher. Clients committed to collaborative learning will arrive to the orientation with a well-developed plan. Those that have invested a considerable amount of time and thought into the proposal tend to stay committed through the entire project, while those that have spent little time on their proposal rarely grow in commitment. The leadership style of the client also matters. Autocratic, bureaucratic, and laissez-faire leaders tend to place little value on collaboration with the students. Lastly, we recommend dropping clients that fail to attend the orientation or in other ways show a low level of commitment to the project. We have found genuinely positive attitude behaviors are the most difficult to identify in potential clients. Ideal clients will possess a level of excitement for both their project and nonprofit. Negative clients are easier to identify and should be avoided.

We further recommend that any search to identify nonprofit partners consider these three behaviors as essential. Clients that match these three will likely prove to be excellent partners, producing a project that not only helps the nonprofit but also helps the students to develop. After identifying good partners, we recommend returning to them from time to time for future service-learning projects. Service-learning has the potential to create meaningful partnerships between universities and the nonprofit sector, but it comes with challenges. Fortunately, the benefits that your students receive from quality nonprofit clients vastly exceeds the costs of finding them.

References

- Astin, A. (1993). *What matters in college: Four critical years revisited*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Basinger, N. & Bartholomew, K. (2006). Service-learning in nonprofit organizations: Motivations, expectations and outcomes. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, Spring*, 15-26.
- Benson, L., & Harkavy, I. (2001). Leading the way to meaningful partnerships. *Principal Leadership, 2*(1), 54-58.
- Bringle, R.G., Games, R., & Malloy, E.A. (1999). Colleges and universities as citizens: Issues and perspectives. In R.G. Bringle, R.Games, & E.A. Malloy (Eds.), *Colleges and Universities as Citizens*. Needham, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bringle, R. G. & Hatcher, J. A. (1996). Implementing Service-Learning in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education, 67*(2), 221-239.
- Campbell, D.A., & Lambright, K.T. (2011). How valuable are capstone projects for community organizations? Lessons from a program assessment. *Journal of Public Affairs Education, 17*, 61-87.
- Caron, B. (Ed.). (1999). *Service Matters: The engaged campus*. Providence, RI: Campus Compact.
- Checkoway, B. (2001). Renewing the civic mission of the American research university. *Journal of Higher Education, 72*(2), 127-147.
- Chupp, M. G., & Joseph, M. L. (2010). Getting the most out of service learning: Maximizing student, university and community impact. *Journal of Community Practice, 18*:2-3, 190-212.
- Colby, A., Beaumont, E., Ehrlich, T., & Corngold, J. (2007). *Educating for Democracy: Preparing Undergraduates for Responsible Political Engagement*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Creswell, J.W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Deeley, S. J. (2015). A theoretical paradigm for service-learning. In *Critical perspectives on service-learning in higher education*. United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Elgren, T. & Hensel, N. (2006). Undergraduate research experiences: Synergies between scholarship and teaching. *peerReview, 8*, 4–7.

Furco, A. (1996). Service-Learning: A balanced approach to experiential education. *Service Learning, General*, 128.

Gazley, B., Bennett, T., & Littlepage, L. (2013). Achieving the partnership principle in experiential learning: The nonprofit perspective. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 19(3), 559-579.

Greenleaf, R. (1970). *The servant as leader*. Indianapolis, IN: Robert K. Greenleaf Center.

Hager, M.A. & Brudner, J.L. (2004). *Volunteer management practices and retention of volunteers*. The Urban Institute: Washington, DC.

Hess, J.D. & Bacigalupo, A.C. (2013) Applying Emotional Intelligence Skills to Leadership and Decision Making in Non-Profit Organizations. *Administrative Sciences*, 3, 202-220.

Jacoby, B. (1996). Service-learning in today's higher education. In B. Jacoby and Associates (Eds.), *Service-learning in higher education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kenworthy-U'Ren, A.L. (2000). Management students as consultants: A strategy for service-learning in management education. In P.C. Godfrey & E.T. Grasso (Eds.), *Working for the common good: Concepts and models for service learning in management*. Washington DC: American Association of Higher Education.

Kuh, G. (2008). *High-Impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them and why they matter*. American Association of Colleges and Universities.

Landrum, R. E., & Nelsen, L. R. (2002). The undergraduate research assistantship: An analysis of the benefits. *Teaching of Psychology*, 29, 15-19.

Light, P.C. (1998). *The tides of reform: Making government work*. Yale University Press.

Littlepage, L., Gazley, B., & Bennett, T. (2012). Service-learning from the supply side: Community capacity to engage students. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 22(3), 305–320.

Mihalynuk, T. & Seifer, S. (2002, September). *Partnerships for higher education service-learning*. Scotts Valley, CA: National Service-learning Clearing House.

Osula, B. & Ng, E.C.W. (2014). Toward a Collaborative, Transformative Model of Non-Profit Leadership: Some Conceptual Building Blocks. *Administrative Sciences*, 4, 87-104.

Rehnborg, S.J., Bailey, W.L., Moore, M., & Sinatra, C. (2009). *Strategic volunteer engagement: A guide for nonprofit and public sector leaders*. RGK Center for Philanthropy & Community Service, University of Texas at Austin.

Rhode, D & Packel, A.K. (2009, Summer). Ethics and nonprofits. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*. Accessed November 1, 2014
http://www.ssireview.org/articles/entry/ethics_and_nonprofits

Salamon, L.M., Hems, L., & Chinnock, K. (2000). *The nonprofit sector: For what and for whom?* Working Papers of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project, no. 37. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies.

Schaffer, R.H. (2003). A model for effective design and implementation of service-learning in higher education. *International Journal of Learning*, 10, 1771-1781.

Schaffer, R.H. (2012). Nonprofit and university strategic partnerships to strengthen the sector. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 23 (1), 105-117.

Schwartz, E. (2015). "Bringing it all back home": An interdisciplinary model for community-based learning. *Journal of College and Character*, 16(1), 53-61.

Stid, D., & Bradach, J. (2009). How visionary nonprofits leaders are learning to enhance management capabilities. *Strategy & Leadership*, 37(1), 35-40.

Stoecker, R., & Tryon, E. eds. (2009) *Unheard voices: Community organizations and service learning*. Temple University Press: Philadelphia.

Strand, K., Marullo, S., Cutforth, N., Stoecker, R., & Donohue, P. (2003) Principles of best practice for community-based research. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 5-15.

Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools*. New York, NY: Falmer Press.

Worrall, L. (Fall, 2007). Asking the community: A case study of community partner perspectives. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 5-17.

Yorio, P. & Ye, F. (2012). A meta-analysis on the effects of service-learning on the social, personal, and cognitive outcomes of learning. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 11(1), 9-27.

About the Authors

Regan Harwell Schaffer is a professor of Management and the Director of the Nonprofit Leadership Collaborative at Pepperdine University.

regan.schaffer@pepperdine.edu

Robert Shearer is an associate professor of Decision Science at Pepperdine University.

robert.shearer@pepperdine.edu

Sticking Together: The Impact of a Collaborative Intensive Service-Learning Program on College Students' Academic Outcomes

Shu-Chen Yen
California State University, Fullerton

Nathalie Carrick
California State University, Fullerton

While student success has always been at the forefront of higher education institutions, finding ways to promote success is especially relevant today as graduation rates have decreased and years to degree increased (Bound, Lovenheim, & Turner, 2007 & 2010). To combat these trends, many institutions have implemented high-impact practices [HIP] (Kuh, 2008) into their curriculum in hopes of increasing student engagement, retention, and ultimately graduation. One reason HIPs can be effective is because they increase student involvement with courses, faculty and/or community, and create a sense of purpose and belonging. As a well-recognized HIP, service-learning has been shown to be especially effective at promoting positive school attitudes, civic engagement, and academic achievement (e.g., Celio, Durlak, & Dymnicki, 2011); making it a promising method to promote student success. Our study examines a service-learning model that requires significant collaboration among students early on in their college career, thereby engaging students in the additional HIPs of learning community and student collaborative projects/assignments. Specifically, we examined differences in student outcomes for those who participated in a collaborative intensive service-learning program Jumpstart, a nation-wide program that trains college students to teach

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine whether participating in a collaborative intensive service-learning program, Jumpstart, is associated with positive student academic outcomes. Specifically, the retention and graduation rates, and years to degree of students who participated in Jumpstart were compared to students who participated in a traditional service-learning program. Results indicate that, while controlling for ethnicity and first-generation college student status, Jumpstart students were more likely to graduate than were non-participating students. Group differences between retention and years to degree were not found. This study contributes to literature on links between high-impact practices and student academic outcomes and highlights the benefits of promoting strong connections among students for their academic success.

at-risk preschoolers, compared to students enrolled in a traditional service-learning program. We focused specifically on outcome measures related to retention, graduation, and years to degree, given the push from universities' administrations for students to complete their degree.

Research on student participation across HIPs reveals generally positive associations with academic success, engagement, retention, and personal growth (Brownell & Swaner, 2009; Buch & Spaulding, 2008; Cabrera, Nora, Crissman, & Terenzini, 2002; Hu & McCormick, 2012; Kuh & Schneider, 2008; but see Johnson & Stage, 2018). Each HIP develops specific skills, and thus tends to be associated with different outcomes. Those HIPs relevant to our study -- service-learning, learning communities, and collaborative projects/assignments -- have been associated with student success measures such as positive attitudes to learning, cultural awareness, and social responsibility (Cabrera et al., 2002; Celio et al., 2011; Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Jones & Abes, 2004; Kilgo, Sheets, & Pascarella, 2015; Pike, 2002; Pike, Kuh, & McCormick, 2011; Simons & Cleary, 2006; Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Also significant and of particular interest to this study, is that these HIPs help students create personal networks, feelings of engagement, and a sense of belonging, which have associations with student retention (Buch & Spaulding, 2008; Celio et al.). Additional findings have shown a dosage and timing effect, such that engaging in more service-learning hours and/or multiple HIPs, and doing so early on in college can be especially beneficial to students (e.g., Astin & Sax, 1998; Mabry, 1998; Padgett, Keup, & Pascarella, 2013; Wismath & Newberry, 2019). As such, we propose that a service-learning program like Jumpstart, that requires intensive student collaboration over an extended period of time in the first two years of college, may be particularly effective at promoting students' commitment to their education, and lead to successful academic outcomes.

Moreover, participation in HIPs can have added benefit for underrepresented students, who comprise many of students enrolled in Jumpstart at this university (e.g., Latinx, first-generation college students.) Underrepresented students often report challenges to adjusting to and navigating through a university setting, which may account, at least partially, for lower rates of retention and graduation (College Board, 2012; Granfield, 1991; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2018; Pike & Kuh, 2005; Strayhorn, 2012). Some research has found that creating personal connections through learning communities, or engaging in service-learning experiences, especially those focused around issues of social justice, may help underrepresented students increase a sense of belonging (Finley & McNair, 2013; Ribera, Miller, & Dumford, 2017; Wilsey, Friedrichs, Gabrich, & Chung, 2014, but see Taylor, Yochim, & Raykov, 2019). As described next, the Jumpstart program provides such opportunities; thus, we were interested in examining whether it was particularly helpful for the participating underrepresented students.

Jumpstart Program

Jumpstart is a nation-wide program, funded by Americorps, that trains college students to implement an intervention curriculum with at-risk preschoolers to develop

children's language, literacy, and social skills (Jumpstart, 2020). The program is based on the HighScope principles of active learning through interaction with adults and peers that builds on Lev Vygotsky's model of adults scaffolding children's learning (HighScope, 2018). While the benefits of Jumpstart on children's development has been examined by the first author (Yen & Lee, 2019), this is the first study to our knowledge to test its impact on college students' academic outcomes.

College students enroll in Jumpstart via two consecutive service-learning practicum courses (lower and upper division) that are designed specifically for Jumpstart. Students are placed in small cohorts of approximately 20 students. They typically participate within their first two years of college, but it is not mandatory. (Of note, students who participated after their second year were excluded from our study.) The course material covers child development theories, developmentally appropriate practices, and cultivating preschoolers' school readiness and social skills. Teams of four to five students work together to develop weekly lesson plans to be implemented in a Head Start classroom. There, each student serves 300 hours and spends eight hours a week team-teaching alongside fellow students and a master teacher. Students also work closely with a faculty mentor who observes students and provides feedback.

As is evident, Jumpstart combines the HIPs of service-learning, learning community, and collaborative projects/assignments, resulting in a highly immersive and collaborative experience, which is different than many other service-learning programs (and those of the comparison students in our study). Jumpstart's service-learning requirements are substantial. The number of hours exceeds that of many programs (in this study, each comparison student served 120 hours over two semesters), and Jumpstart students are responsible for direct instruction of young children. Yet, perhaps the more significant difference is the emphasis placed on student-to-student interaction. First, students are in a learning community in which they take two consecutive courses together that focus on a significant and meaningful topic (Tinto, 1997), specifically ways to prepare underserved young children for kindergarten. Second, students participate in weekly collaborative projects when creating lessons plans, so they are consistently working together to effectively apply developmental theories to the activities implemented in the preschool classroom. Students must listen to other people's views, accept feedback, and construct a curriculum together. More traditional service-learning practicum courses do not always implement learning communities nor such intensive student collaborative assignments. Thus, we anticipate that participating in Jumpstart increases students' engagement and sense of belonging that may lead to better student outcomes.

Overview of Study

The present study compared three academic outcomes – retention and graduation rates, and years to degree -- between students who participated in Jumpstart and students who participated in a traditional service-learning experience. Students were matched on demographic variables found to be related to academic

outcomes: gender, ethnicity, and first-generation status (DeAngelo, Franke, Hurtado, Pryor, & Tran, 2011). Based on the design and requirements of Jumpstart, we predicted that students who participated in Jumpstart would have higher retention and graduation rates, and decreased years to degree compared to the comparison students. Additionally, given that HIPs are especially helpful for underrepresented students (e.g., Finley & McNair, 2013), we expected that participation in Jumpstart would show added benefit to these students.

Methods

Data Source and Sample

The study used student data compiled from a large four-year comprehensive state university designated as a Hispanic-Service Institution, after receiving the university's Institutional Review Board approval. Data from two groups of students was collected: the Jumpstart group and the comparison group. The Jumpstart group consisted of native first-year students who 1) participated in the Jumpstart program in their freshmen or sophomore year, 2) were enrolled in the accompanying lower and upper division practicum courses, 3) did not participate in Jumpstart nor another service-learning practicum course in subsequent years, 4) attended the university between 2001 – 2011, and 5) if graduated, did so in less than six years. Of note, only five Jumpstart students identified as African American, which is considered too few to include as an independent group in a regression analysis (Peduzzi, Concato, Kemper, Holford, & Feinstein, 1996); thus, they were excluded from the sample. The low enrollment of African American students is consistent with that of the university (2%) and geographical region. Students who identified as mixed ethnicity were also excluded due to the inability to accurately match them on ethnicity in the comparison sample. Finally, given the push of many universities' administration to graduate students within six years, students who took longer than six years were excluded.

The comparison group consisted of a random selection of native first-year students who 1) identified as child development majors, 2) were never enrolled in Jumpstart nor the accompanying practicum courses, 3) were enrolled at the university between 2001-2011, 4) participated in the department's traditional service-learning lower and upper division practicum courses, and 5) if graduated, did so in less than six years. Comparison students took two non-consecutive service-learning courses, typically within their sophomore and junior years, and served at a range of sites related to children and/or families for 60 hours per semester. They were not placed in cohorts, did not collaborate with one another at their sites, and rarely served at the same site both semesters. From the comparison group sample, a random selection of students who matched the Jumpstart students on gender, ethnicity, and first-generation college student status were selected. Due to lack of representation in the comparison sample, first-generation status could not be matched for the two European American males.

The final sample consisted of 144 participants, evenly split between the two groups. There was a total of 44 Asian American (44 females), 20 European American (18 females, 2 males), and 70 Latinx (62 females, 8 males) students.

Measures

Demographic information was obtained on each participant, including gender, ethnicity, and first-generation college student status. The student outcome variables included: 1) whether or not students graduated (*Graduated*; 0 = did not graduate, 1 = did graduate), 2) for those who did graduate, the number of years it took them to complete their degree (*Years to Degree*), and 3) for those who did not graduate, the number of semesters they were enrolled before leaving the university (*Semesters Retained*).

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were conducted on the outcome measures and are presented in Table 1. Preliminary analyses were conducted between gender and the student outcome measures. A logistic regression was conducted on *Graduated*, and a multiple linear regression was conducted on *Years to Degree*. For both regressions, ethnicity, first-generation status, and Jumpstart status served as the independent variables, as well as interaction terms between Jumpstart status and ethnicity, and Jumpstart status and first-generation status. Ethnicity and first-generation status were entered in Step 1, Jumpstart status in Step 2, and the interaction terms in Step 3. All models were run with Latinx students as the reference group, and for the multiple linear regression model, additional analyses were conducted with European American students as the reference group, to test all potential ethnic group differences. *Semesters Retained* was examined via an independent sample t-test.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Student Outcome Measures by Group

Participants	First Generation %	Graduated %	Years to Degree Mean (SD) Range	Semesters Retained Mean (SD) Range
Jumpstart				
Asian American	56	73	4.56 (.69) 3.00-5.50	5.00 (.75) 2-10
European American	22	78	3.85 (.69) 3-5.00	4.00 (2.82) 2-6
Latinx	83	80	4.64 (.68) 3.00-5.5	3.71 (.75) 2-4
Total	53.66	77	4.36 (.69) 3-5.5	4.23 (1.44) 2-10
Comparison				
Asian American	56	64	4.39 (.71) 3-5.5	4.37 (3.50) 2-10
European American	33	67	4.17 (.26) 4-4.5	3.33 (1.15) 2-4
Latinx	83	57	4.52 (.52) 4-5.5	3.46 (2.47) 1-10
Total	57.33	62.67	4.36 (.50) 3-5.5	3.72 (2.37) 1-10

Note. Years to Degree was calculated for those who graduated. Semesters Retained was calculated for those who did not graduate.

Results

Gender was not significantly associated with the student outcome variables and thus not considered in further analyses. Regarding graduation rates, 77% of Jumpstart students and 63% of comparison students graduated (see Table 1). Findings from the logistic regression reveal that while the full model did not significantly predict *Graduated*, $X^2(4) = 4.52, p > .05$, Nagelkerke's $R^2 = .05$, the variable Jumpstart status did, suggesting that while holding ethnicity and first-generation status constant, students in Jumpstart had a higher likelihood of graduating than did students in the comparison group. No other significant main effects or interactions emerged. See Table 2 for regression coefficients.

Table 2
Logistic Regression predicting Graduated

Variable	B	S.E. B	Wald	Odds Ratio
First-Generation	-.132	.447	.088	.876
Asian American	-.056	.439	.016	.946
European American	.110	.642	.029	1.116
Latinx (ref)	--	--	.069	--
Jumpstart	.792*	.387	4.185	2.221

Note. * $p < .05$

Next, of those who graduated, the mean *Years to Degree* was 4.36 for both groups. The multiple linear regression predicting *Years to Degree* revealed that, while controlling for ethnicity and Jumpstart status, first-generation students took longer to graduate than did continuing-generation students. Additionally, there was a trend for Latinx students to take longer to graduate than European American students ($t = -1.89$, $p = .06$). No other significant main or interaction effects emerged; thus, Jumpstart status was unrelated to *Years to Degree*. See Table 3 for regression coefficients. Finally, of those students who did not graduate ($N = 21$), *Semesters Retained* did not vary by group, $t(39) = -.650$, $p > .05$ (Jumpstart $M = 4.27$; comparison $M = 3.73$).

Table 3
Multiple Linear Regression predicting Years to Degree

Variable	B	β	T
First-Generation	.356*	.264	2.44
Asian American	-.039	-.029	-.271
European American	-.391	-.213	-1.89
Jumpstart	.064	.049	.622
R	.397		
Adj R ²	.118		

Note. Model presented with Latinx students as reference group. * $p < .05$

Discussion

The purpose of our study was to examine the impact of participating in Jumpstart, a collaborative intensive service-learning experience on student academic outcomes. Findings revealed that students who participated in Jumpstart were more likely to graduate within six years than were comparison students, but not necessarily in less time. The effects on graduation rates were found while controlling for ethnicity and

first-generation status, suggesting that this type of program can benefit a wide range of students. These results are promising, and speak to potentially fruitful paths to support graduation rates.

We credit the positive impact Jumpstart had on students completing their degree to the strong ties students create with other students, faculty, and the community. Given the structure of the Jumpstart model, students work in close collaboration with each other in multiple and varied contexts (e.g., college classroom, preschool classroom, team meetings), and over an extended period of time. Students have rich group experiences that tap into the benefits of the HIPs learning community and student collaborative projects/assignments (Cabrera et al., 2002; Tinto, 1997). This differs from that experienced by students in the comparison sample whose service-learning practicum courses did not require such collaboration. It is likely that students in Jumpstart were able to build a community with their cohort that supported their college experience and sense of belonging. Jumpstart, however, did not decrease the number of years students took to complete their degree. Either the effects of Jumpstart are unrelated to this measure, or years to degree showed a floor effect: students in both groups completed their degrees in approximately 4.3 years, which is less than the university's reported average years to degree of five years.

Although Jumpstart showed a positive impact on many students graduating, 33% did not complete their degrees. Of the Jumpstart students who did not graduate, they tended to leave the university at the same time as the comparison group, specifically after their sophomore year. These trends, referred to as the sophomore slump, had prompted administration and researchers to develop effective ways to engage sophomores (Graunke & Woosley, 2005; Provencher & Kassel 2017). Regarding Jumpstart, future studies could use student self-report interview data to learn more about why some students did not complete their degrees. Additionally, Jumpstart did not have added benefit for the Latinx and/or first-generation students, despite past research suggesting that HIPs can be particularly helpful for underrepresented students (e.g., Finley & McNair, 2013). In our study, first-generation students in both groups took longer to graduate than did continuing-generation students, consistent with past findings (College Board, 2012). Underrepresented students' experiences at universities are multifaceted, and call for not just student-level support, but also institutional-level changes (Taylor et al., 2019). Additionally, while one service-learning experience is not enough to overcome the many challenges facing underrepresented students, engaging in service-learning can help students develop their views on diversity, learning, and civic responsibility, all significant measures of student success (Langhout & Gordon, 2019).

The study's findings should be interpreted within its limitations. First, the demographics of the Jumpstart sample limits generalizations of findings. That is, due to the low number of African American students enrolled in Jumpstart at this university, they were not included in the study, and consistent with the Jumpstart program nationwide, few males participated. Second, data were obtained from university archival records, limiting the ability to identify the number and type of other HIPs students may

have engaged in (e.g., student-faculty research and diverse/global experiences). Future research would benefit from self-reported student survey data that can more accurately identify students' involvement in HIPs. Finally, as with all correlational studies, generalizations regarding causal effects of participation in Jumpstart and student outcome measures cannot be made. Without random assignment into groups, these findings may have been influenced by a selection bias into the Jumpstart program (Provencher & Kassel, 2017).

In conclusion, our study contributes to the limited research on associations between service-learning and objective student outcome measures, and is the first to test the impact of this nation-wide program on college students' academic outcomes. Findings highlight the significance of fostering personal connections via meaningful academic experiences early on in students' college careers as a way of promoting students to complete their degree.

References

- Astin, A. W., & Sax, L. J. (1998). How undergraduates are affected by service participation. *Journal of College Student Development*, 39(3), 251-263.
- Bound, J., Lovenheim, M., & Turner, S. (2007). *Understanding the decrease in college completion rate and the increased time to the baccalaureate degree* (Research Report 07-626). Ann Arbor, MI: Population Studies Center, University of Michigan.
- Bound, J., Lovenheim, M., & Turner, S. (2010). *Increasing time to baccalaureate degree in the United States*. (Working Paper No. 15892). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. Retrieved from <http://www.nber.org/papers/w15892>
- Brownell, J., & Swaner, L. (2009) High-impact practices: Applying the learning outcomes literature to the development of successful campus programs. *Peer Review*, 11(2), 26-30.
- Buch, K., & Spaulding, S. (2008). A longitudinal assessment of an initial cohort in a psychology learning community. *Teaching of Psychology*, 35, 189-193.
- Cabrera, A., Nora, A., Crissman, J., & Terenzini, P. (2002). Collaborative learning: Its impact on college students' development and diversity. *Journal of College Student Development*, 43, 20-34.
- Celio, C. I., Durlak, J., & Dymnicki, A. (2011). A meta-analysis of the impact of service-learning on students. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 34(2), 164-181.

College Board. (2012). *The college completion agenda*. Retrieved from <http://media.collegeboard.com/digitalServices/pdf/advocacy/policycenter/college-completion-agenda-2012-progress-report.pdf>

DeAngelo, L., Franke, R., Hurtado, S., Pryor, J. H., & Tran, S. (2011). *Completing college: Assessing graduation rates at four-year institutions*. Los Angeles, CA: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA. Retrieved from <https://heri.ucla.edu/DARCU/CompletingCollege2011.pdf>

Einfeld, A., & Collins, D. (2008). The relationships between service-learning, social justice, multicultural competence, and civic engagement. *Journal of College Student Development*, 49(2), 95-109.

Finley, A., & McNair, T. (2013). *Assessing underserved students' engagement in high-impact practices*. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Granfield, R. (1991). Making it by faking it: Working-class students in an elite academic environment. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 20(3), 331-351.

Graunke, S. S., & Woosley, S. A. (2005). An exploration of the factors that affect the academic success of college sophomores. *College Student Journal*, 39(2), 367-376.

HighScope (2018). HighScope preschool curriculum. Retrieved from <http://highscope.org/preschool>

Hu, S., & McCormick, A. C. (2012). An engagement-based student typology and its relationship to college outcomes. *Research in Higher Education*, 53, 738-754.

Jones, S. R., & Abes, E. S. (2004). Enduring influences of service-learning on college students' identity development. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45(2), 149-166.

Johnson, S. R., & Stage, F. K. (2018). Academic engagement and student success: Do high-impact practices mean higher graduation rates? *The Journal of Higher Education*, 89(5), 753-781.

Jumpstart Children First (2020). Jumpstart vision and mission. Retrieved from <https://www.jstart.org/about/mission-and-vision/>

Kilgo, C., Sheets, J., & Pascarella, E. (2015). The link between high-impact practices and student learning: Some longitudinal evidence. *Higher Education*, 69(4), 509-525.

Kuh, G., D. (2008). High-Impact Educational Practices. Retrieved from <https://www.aacu.org/leap/hips>.

Kuh, G. D., & Schneider, C. G. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Langhout, R. D., & Gordon, D. L. (2019). Outcomes for underrepresented and misrepresented college students in service learning classes: Supporting agents of change. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*.

Mabry, J. B. (1998). Pedagogical variations in service-learning and student outcomes: How time, contact and reflection matter. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 5, 32-47.

Nguyen, T., & Nguyen, B. M. D. (2018). Is the "First-Generation student" term useful for understanding inequality? The role of intersectionality in illuminating the implications of an accepted - yet unchallenged-term. *Review of Research in Education*, 42(1), 146-176.

Padgett, R. D., Keup, J. R., & Pascarella, E. T. (2013). The impact of first-year seminars on college students' life-long learning orientations. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practices*, 50(2), 133-151.

Peduzzi, P., Concato, J., Kemper, E., Holford, T. R., & Feinstein, A. R. (1996). A simulation study of the number of events per variable in logistic regression analysis. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 49(12), 1373-1379.

Pike, G. R. (2002). The differential effects of on- and off-campus living arrangements on students' openness to diversity. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, 39(4), 283-299.

Pike, G. R., & Kuh, G. D. (2005). First- and second-generation college students: A comparison of their engagement and intellectual development. *Journal of Higher Education*, 76(3), 276-301.

Pike, G., R., Kuh, G. D., & McCormick, A. C. (2011). An investigation of the contingent relationships between learning community participation and student engagement. *Research in Higher Education*, 52(3), 300-322.

Provencher, A., & Kassel, R. (2017). High-impact practices and sophomore retention: Examining the effects of selection bias. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory, & Practice*, 21(2), 221-241.

Ribera, A. K., Miller, A. L., & Dumford, A. D. (2017). Sense of peer belonging and institutional acceptance in the first year: The role of high-impact practices. *Journal of College Student Development, 58*(4), 545-563.

Simons, L., & Cleary, B. (2006). The influence of service learning on students' personal and social development. *College Teaching, 54*(4), 307-319.

Strayhorn, T. L. (2012). *College students' sense of belonging: A key to educational success for all students*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Taylor, A., Yochim, Lo., & Raykov, M. (2019). Service-learning and first-generation university students: A conceptual exploration of the literature. *Journal of Experiential Education, 42*(4), 349-363.

Tinto, V. (1997). Classrooms as communities: Exploring the educational character of student persistence. *Journal of Higher Education, 68*(6), 599-623.

Wilsey, S. A., Friedrichs, J., Gabrich, C., & Chung, T. (2014). A privileged pedagogy for privileged students? A preliminary mixed-methods analysis comparing first-generation and non-first-generation college students on post-evaluations of service-learning courses. *PRISM: A Journal of Regional Engagement, 3*(2), 79-97. Retrieved from <https://encompass.eku.edu/prism/vol3/iss2/1>

Wismath, S., & Newberry, J. (2019). Mapping assets: High-impact practices and the first-year experience. *Teaching & Learning Inquiry, 7*(1), 34-54.

Yen, S. C., & Lee, A. Y. (2019). Jumpstart program efficacy: The impact of early childhood education advancement initiatives on low-income preschool children's literacy, agency, and social relations. *Cogent Education, 6*(1).

Zhao, C. M., & Kuh, G. D. (2004). Adding value: Learning communities and student engagement. *Research in Higher Education, 45*(2), 115-138.

About the Authors

Shu-Chen Yen, Ph.D. is a professor in the Department of Child and Adolescent Studies at California State University, Fullerton. Her research interests include assessing student learning in online education, student outcomes associated with High Impact Practices, and the impact of service-learning on pre-service teachers' academic achievement and at-risk children's school readiness. Contact the author at syen@fullerton.edu.

Nathalie Carrick, Ph.D. is an associate professor in the Department of Child and Adolescent Studies at California State University, Fullerton. Her research and teaching focuses on children's early cognitive development and preparing students to work with young children.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Office of Institutional Research and the Center for Internships & Community Engagement (CICE) at California State University, Fullerton for providing us with the achieved student data.

Pre-Departure Training is Essential for Preparing Healthcare Teams for Service-Learning to Resource-Limited Countries

Suzanne Fox Trotter
University of St. Augustine for Health Sciences

Sharon Dunnivan-Mitchell
Del-Mar College

Nicole Borman
University of St. Augustine for Health Sciences

Aimee Kent
University of St. Augustine for Health Sciences

Brianna Oliva
Results Physiotherapy

Twenty-seven percent of the United States population consists of immigrants and their children (Zong et al, 2019). Educational institutions strive to prepare future healthcare providers to connect with culturally diverse populations in a respectful and culturally competent, patient-centered manner. The American Physical Therapy Association (APTA), the Commission on Accreditation in Physical Therapy Education and Accreditation Council for Occupational Therapy Education concur and support the development and tracking of cultural competency throughout occupational and physical therapy curriculums (American Physical Therapy Association, 2014; Commission on Accreditation in Physical Therapy Education, 2015; Accreditation Council for Occupational Therapy Education, 2011). One tool the

Abstract

A convenience sample of 21 physical and occupational therapy students and clinicians who participated in four 1-hour PDT sessions were included in this mixed-methods study. Training consisted of informative, reflective, and simulation experiences to enhance self-awareness, teambuilding, cultural knowledge, and in support of trip preparations. The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI™) was administered pre-training and post-experience.

Qualitative data showed emerging themes around collaboration, mentorship, empowerment, opportunity, preparedness, self-awareness, and confidence. Quantitative analysis of CCAI™ data revealed significant median differences between a) all participant's CCAI™ scores for perceptual acuity pre = 49.29 and post = 51.38 ($p = .018$); as well as b) students CCAI™ scores of perceptual acuity pre = 49.80, post = 51.46 ($p = .040$); and c) clinicians CCAI™ personal autonomy scores pre = 31.00 and post =

APTA recommends for measuring an individual's ability to adapt to other cultures is the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI™) (Kelly & Meyers, 1995). In addition to a variety of business and academic settings, this tool has been used to assess adaptability of physical therapy students serving in global health experiences (Kraemer & Beckstead, 2003; Hayward & Charrette, 2012; Glickman et al., 2015; Audette, 2017). Specifically, the CCAI™ has been used with occupational therapy students to track intercultural competency in a peer-teaching activity (Matsuda & Miller, 2007). Despite this widespread use of the CCAI™ in educational and business settings, there has been no published research using the CCAI™ for physical and occupational therapists participating together in an international service-learning (ISL) experience.

Cultural competency is defined as “the process in which the healthcare professional continually strives to achieve the ability and the availability to effectively work within the cultural context of the client- family, individual, or community” (Campinha-Bacote, 2002, p.181). To promote cultural competency in physical therapy curricula, Lattanzi and Pechak (2012) stress the importance of implementing educational strategies with an emphasis on reflective practice, global health courses, domestic and ISL opportunities, and international clinical education experiences. Tervalon and Murray-Garcia (1998) distinguish between cultural competency and cultural humility by suggesting that cultural competency is not an endpoint to be measured, but an ongoing reflective engagement ensuring that a mutually respectful partnership with communities being served is maintained. This is a process that requires humility, especially on the part of the sending institution and should be continually assessed by listening to and accommodating the host community.

Research shows that one of the most effective methods to teach ethical and cultural competency to healthcare providers is through service-learning experiences (Moran et al., 2015; Pechak et al., 2013; Ekelman et al., 2003; Johnson & Howell, 2017; Buff et al., 2015; Mu et al., 2016; Ryan-Krause, 2016; Bimstein et al., 2008; Brown et al., 2012; Clements et al., 2011; Hoang & Nguyen, 2011; Wagner et al., 2015). International service-learning experiences have been used across a variety of healthcare educational programs, to help prepare students to work with individuals from various cultures. The Normative Model of Physical Therapist Professional Education as defined by the APTA supports ISL experiences as a practice to develop cultural competency (American Physical Therapy Association, 2004). In view of vast cultural differences and ethical dilemmas often encountered while serving in under-resourced countries, universities have a moral obligation to all stakeholders to ensure that students are adequately prepared for the experience (Crump, 2008; Crump & Sugarman, 2010; Reisch, 2011; Umoren et al., 2012). Additionally, sending institutions should track meaningful outcomes, to ensure that the host community mutually benefits.

Several studies, primarily in the medical field, have documented pre-departure training (PDT) as a method to establish appropriate ethical standards and apply best practice in global health experiences (Crump & Sugarman, 2010; Anderson & Bocking, 2008; Elit et al., 2011; Arthur et al., 2011; Dowell & Merrylees, 2009; Edwards et al.,

2004). Logar and colleagues (2015) recommend that PDT engages students with scenarios through simulation exercises to address common ethical challenges faced by global health trainees. These ethical challenges may arise from cultural differences or professional issues such as students acting beyond their scope of practice and without appropriate supervision. Students may be faced with decisions regarding limited resources, or personal issues such as coping with moral distress and trauma. Simulation exercises prepare trainees to be more aware and less fearful of situations that might otherwise produce culture shock, limit learning potential and render the student ineffective on the service trip.

Bessette and Camden (2017) recommend PDT content for physical therapy students participating in global health experiences include ethics, introspection, cultural-specific knowledge of the host community, as well as personal health and safety while abroad. In addition, these researchers charge universities to “evaluate the effectiveness of PDT in the development of student’s global health competencies and in host communities” (Bessette & Camden, 2017, p. 348). Jogerst and colleagues (2015) developed a list of interprofessional global health core competencies designed to be integrated at various levels of healthcare curriculum. Furthermore, they recommend global health curriculum should focus on interprofessional collaboration. As universities begin to integrate ISL and inter-professional education into health sciences curriculum, it is essential to establish best practice for PDT through measurement of meaningful outcomes and sustainability. Kalbarczyk and colleagues (2019) performed a systematic review of pre-departure resources for global health electives and concluded that few universities conduct and publish evaluations of their trainings. To date, there is limited research on best-practice implementation of PDT for interprofessional service-learning experiences in the rehabilitation field. This research addresses the gap found in the literature by examining how PDT for a one-week service-learning project to Guatemala in April 2018 impacts cultural adaptability and overall preparedness for an interprofessional team of physical and occupational therapy students and clinicians.

The first aim of this study was to evaluate a PDT protocol to determine if it adequately prepared team members’ understanding of the host site organization and community. The second aim was to evaluate if cross-cultural adaptability scores changed as a result of the PDT and one-week ISL experience. The third aim was to document feedback from the host community about how the participants met their needs and identify ideas for a sustainable partnership for future trips.

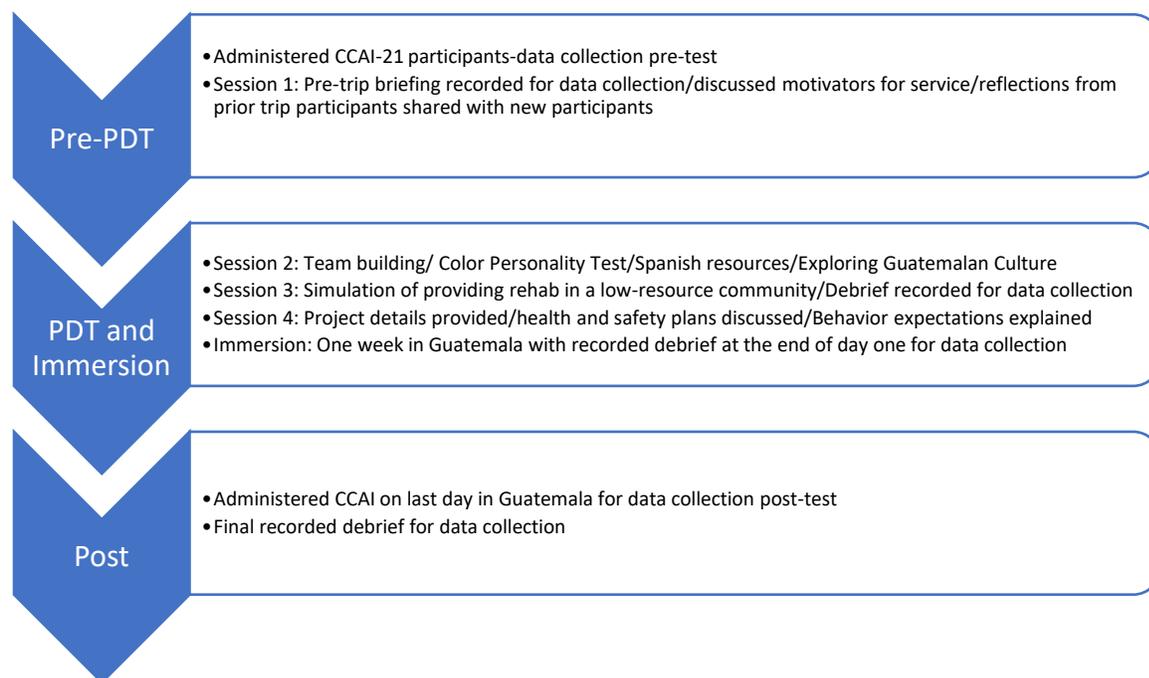
The host community associated with this project was Potter’s House Association International (PHAI) based in Guatemala City, Guatemala with a recent expansion into the rural areas surrounding Chiquimula. These service trips have consisted of providing rehabilitation clinics to community members with a lack of access to healthcare, home building for local families, teaching physical education to children in the after-school program, and training to support community members, teachers, and medical assistants. The Guatemala City location of PHAI provides medical services to individuals living and working around the garbage dump. This location is home to one of

central America's largest landfills, where approximately 13,000 people live and work scavenging the garbage as a means of survival. Potter's House has been working with these underserved people in Guatemala City for over 30 years and focuses on developing five program areas through their community centers: family development, education, health/nutrition, microenterprise, and community development (Potter's House Association International, 2019). In 2017, PHAI expanded services to Chiquimula, a rural community approximately 170 kilometers east of Guatemala City. The new location in Chiquimula had not yet developed their medical services and requested that this team collaborate with them on how to optimize community benefit, including patient treatment and local provider education. This level of collaboration has been known to support ongoing program development, and the researchers wanted to track feedback for developing a mutually beneficial relationship.

Method

A combination of qualitative and quantitative data was selected to best capture the content and focus of this research project and to allow the opportunity to evaluate inductive and deductive inquiry. This research used a mixed-methods study with a convergent parallel design to compare and integrate both quantitative and qualitative data collected within a close timeframe for interpretation and results (Creswell, 2014). A convenience sample of 21 physical and occupational therapy students and clinicians who completed four one-hour PDT sessions before traveling for volunteer service in Guatemala were included. The participants included six licensed clinicians (five physical therapists and one occupational therapist) and 15 students (nine physical therapy students and six in occupational therapy students). Training consisted of informative instruction with reflective and simulated components designed to enhance self-awareness, teambuilding, cultural knowledge, and to support trip preparations (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Pre-Departure Trainings and Trip Model



Four debriefings were recorded using open-ended questions with a thematic approach. The first briefing occurred before the trainings began. The second debriefing occurred after the third PDT module, the simulation experience. The final two debriefings occurred on the first and final day of the service-learning experience in Guatemala. Thematic areas discussed were cultural preparedness, adaptability, ethics, inter-professional collaboration, problem-solving, teamwork, and impact on their professional development as a rehabilitation provider. Participants in discussions had the opportunity to share lessons learned, ask questions, and express feelings about working in the Guatemalan garbage dump communities. Digital recordings of all debriefs were transcribed and coded using member checking to strengthen the validity and reliability of the emerging themes (Corbin & Strauss, 2007). Data for the entire group, students and clinicians was collected by administering the CCAI™ pre-training and immediately post-experience. The CCAI™ is a series of 50 statements designed to identify an individual or group's strengths and weaknesses in four fundamental areas valuable in cross-cultural experiences: emotional resilience (the ability to adjust to and react well to new experiences), flexibility/openness (the ability to enjoy different ways of thinking and behaving), perceptual acuity (the ability to pay attention and accurately perceive the surrounding environment), and personal autonomy (the ability to evolve a personal system of values and beliefs yet respecting others and their value systems).

The CCAI™'s reported internal reliability is 0.9 (Kelly & Meyers, 1995). Additionally, the authors of the CCAI™ report high face, content and construct validity (Kelly & Meyers, 1995). Data from the CCAI™ was analyzed using Wilcoxon Sign Ranked Tests using IBM SPSS 25, established p-value <.05. A convergent parallel design was used so that both qualitative and quantitative data were compared and integrated for interpretation and results (Creswell, 2014).

A convenience sample of six host-site facilitators working directly with the participants, who were proficient in English, were interviewed to gather perspective on the team's preparedness and responsiveness to the needs of the community. This qualitative portion of the project was deemed essential to the overall evaluation of participant's preparedness. It was also viewed as an opportunity to learn more about the community and local healthcare needs in order to provide ongoing support in the future. *Study Variables:* For the purpose of this study, the dependent variable was participant preparedness and adaptability to a new culture and environment they experienced in their service learning. The independent variable, to influence change on the dependent variable, was the PDT.

Qualitative Data Analysis: Each debrief session was recorded and subsequently downloaded, password protected and stored for later transcription and qualitative review. The researchers did not intend to identify participants by name and requested that participants not self-identify or identify other team members' names on the recording. Every effort was made to reduce the possibility of identifiers being collected on the digital recordings. There was no comprehensive data set created that could link demographic information to the digital recordings. Internal transcription of the recordings occurred, and if by chance any names were used, the researchers removed any names that appeared in the tapes and no names were transcribed in the data set. The transcript was typed verbatim and differentiated those who were speaking using the nomenclature of "speaker 1, speaker 2, etc." Participant data was also reported in this manner when disseminated. Using grounded theory to discover themes within the data, each of the researchers reviewed transcripts and coded data independently. Several levels of review took place. *A priori* coding using the thematic areas identified previously was performed; however, the researchers were looking for emerging themes from the overall experience of pre-departure training. Previous data was coded by two of these researchers with a focus on how the simulation only experience affected participant's soft skills (Trotter & Dunnivan-Mitchell, 2019), but this study was expanded to focus on interprofessional collaboration and the overall focus of the entire pre-departure training curriculum. Member checking was used to confirm the meaning of the dialogue that emerged from the transcripts. The researchers met at three separate intervals following the experience. These meetings served to confirm the coding (i.e. coding per the methodology) and uncover themes. Data results were reported using demographic information as well as qualitative reflections that supported the emergent themes.

Triangulation: After qualitative and quantitative data analyses occurred, the results were reviewed to determine how they correlated with each other and to determine where the data converged and diverged. This method of triangulation revealed how the data sets related to each other and provided the opportunity to gather a sense of how the results support the overall purpose of the study (Creswell, 2010).

Results

Seven themes emerged from the qualitative data analysis among the participants: collaboration, mentorship, empowerment, opportunity, preparedness, self-awareness, and confidence. See Table 1 for quotes supporting the Emergent Themes and Supporting Quotes.

Table 1: Emergent Themes and Supporting Quotes

Themes	Quotes
Collaboration	<p>From a PT student (PDT session 1): “I’m really excited. OTs are so creative. I mean if you’ve seen them work before, the things they can make out of a piece of paper and a rubber band... it’s awesome! And so, I’m excited to learn from the OTs”</p> <p>From an OT student (PDT session 4): “I think as a team we did really well bouncing ideas back and forth and then coming to a cohesive decision on a patient.”</p>
Mentorship	<p>From a PT student (PDT session 4): “You saw some of the older students starting to take charge and starting to lead, and some of the younger students starting to come up and say ‘how do you do that?’”</p>
Empowerment	<p>From a PT student when asked about their motivation for attending a service-learning project (PDT session 1): “I think I just share an interest in just really empowering people and giving them tools they need... to have a better quality of life. It goes along with the saying of making fishers of men...like you teach men how to fish so they can catch enough.”</p>
Opportunity	<p>(PDT session #3): I thought this was a great opportunity to serve others.”</p>
Preparedness	<p>The theme of being prepared, with the language barrier came across in all debriefing sessions (PDT session 4): “I was trying really hard to learn Spanish. The more you know, the more you can connect with these patients. It helps you connect with the patient on a deeper level.”</p>
Self-Awareness	<p>From a PT student (PDT session #3): “I know that I’m a lot more open about a lot of things and I’m a person that doesn’t like to open themselves up and I’m more quiet and I feel very vulnerable even just talking now. But it just made me a little bit</p>

	of a better person overall and that's why I come back because I feel like I've just learned more about myself, but I'm also helping others."
Confidence	From an OT student (PDT session #4): "I feel more secure going into internships."

Significant median differences were found between a) all participant's CCAI™ scores for perceptual acuity pre = 49.29, and post =51.38 (p =.018); as well as b)students CCAI™ scores of perceptual acuity pre=49.80, post =51.46 (p=.040); and c) clinicians CCAI™ personal autonomy scores pre=31.00 and post= 33.16_(p =.042). According to the CCAI™, perceptual acuity is defined as the extent of paying attention to and accurately perceiving various aspects of the environment (Kelly & Meyers, 1995). Personal autonomy is described as the extent of the evolution of a personal system of values and beliefs while respecting others and their value systems (Kelly & Meyers, 1995). See Table 2 for CCAI™ scores.

Table 2: Pre and Post CCAI™ scores

	Participants	Mean-Pre CCAI™	Mean-Post CCAI™	Significant Difference	<i>P (significance p<.05)</i>
Perceptual acuity- all participants:	N=21	49.29	51.38	+2.09	.018
Perceptual acuity- students:	N=15	49.8	51.46	+1.66	.040
Personal autonomy- clinicians:	N=6	31	33.16	+2.16	.042

Qualitative data found to support the significant scores from the pre- to post-test differences on the CCAI™ are recorded in Table 3: Triangulation of Qualitative Data Supporting CCAI™ Scores.

Table 3: Triangulation of qualitative data supporting CCAI™ scores

<p>Perceptual Acuity</p>	<p>From a PT student (PDT session 3): “There was a moment when I was at the house build, it was just me. I was painting the railings in one of the rooms and the translator, the mom, and the child came in while I was painting and wanted to talk with me, so I stopped what I was doing and had a really cool conversation with them, which kind of felt like in the simulation-we had a moment where the mom started crying and I totally froze and didn’t know what to do. So, from that I kind of learned that it’s OK to stop what you’re doing and to kind of be with that person because they are humans. You don’t have to just be OK; I have to get my job done. I can’t talk to you. So, it was kind of cool to set down the paintbrush and just have this conversation and get to know them better and make that relationship.”</p> <p>From an OT student reflecting on her pediatric fieldwork rotation and their experience in Guatemala (PDT session 3): “You have to be so flexible and accommodating and adapt your treatment plan when you’re working with kids. And it really kind of brought me back to the environment that we’re in in Guatemala because you’re constantly having to be flexible and adapt and meet them where they are.”</p> <p>From a clinician: (PDT session 3): I definitely have the problem of honing in and being sensitive to different individuals that may not be as open as I, and I know that’s something that I struggle with....just understanding there’s so many different personalities out there and if you’re going to be a leader....lead by example but be sensitive to others.</p>
<p>Personal Autonomy</p>	<p>From a clinician (PDT session 3): “I have loved learning from my students, and it helps me grow as a person.”</p> <p>From a clinician (PDT session 3): “I think working on openness has been something I’ve been working on.”</p>

Discussion

Participants demonstrated improvements in perceptual acuity and personal autonomy as it relates to cross-cultural adaptability following PDT and a one-week service-learning experience to Guatemala. All participants demonstrated a significant

difference in perceptual acuity, the fundamental area most closely associated with empathy (Meyers et al, 2008). One's ability to read non-verbal cues to interpret behavior within a novel cultural situation was mirrored in the recorded discussions. While the quantitative data demonstrated only the clinician's personal autonomy scores showed a significant difference, the researchers noted a shift in student's personal autonomy as reflected in the debriefings. This was not captured with the CCAI™. For example, one returning student considered why she was participating in a second trip to Guatemala: *"I grew a lot in that trip, not only just like as a clinician or future clinician but as a person in general. So, in emotional and cultural competence, like everything. It's such a good growing experience that why wouldn't you want to go back."* A first-time student vulnerably commented on her struggles in PT school: *"This last trimester was really hard for me. I just felt really inadequate and I was questioning. I said God, why did you put me here if I'm not doing how I thought I would do in schools, and just like you were saying about learning to work on your own and be more autonomous and just study hard because I know I'm here for a reason. I know I'm here and I have a purpose here and I know that God didn't make a mistake when He put me here."* Another returning student reflected on their personal growth: *"I always try not to judge a book by its cover, but a certain case I just had... I mean, you never know someone's life or where they came from...I'm going out on my fieldwork next, it's important to just step back and make sure you don't judge ... I mean you never know when someone had just an awful experience coming to the clinic."* Further investigation with a tool more sensitive to measurement of valuing and respecting diversity while maintaining personal identity may have more effectively captured this information qualitatively.

The researchers felt that there was not enough data from the six members of the PHAI staff to reach saturation for an effective analysis. This is a limitation of this study and could be due to language barriers within both parties. However, some trends were noted in response to staff interviews pertaining to team preparation: *"I felt that you make the treasures (community members who scavenge the garbage) feel really comfortable with whatever you're doing with them."* When asked about how the team can improve one PHAI staff member emphasized the importance of ensuring understanding in the client's native language: *"The fact that you're bringing people to speak Spanish, that helps a lot because then is really making a connection...Remember their level, most of them (the treasures), they didn't go to school. It's difficult to understand technique or words that are proper for medicine plus being able to see everything in English, it's difficult for them."* The staff member recommended bringing handouts and visual presentations in Spanish, not English. One staff member commented that this team *"has the right attitude to help others"* and further commented that *"you really get to know your patients"*. One staff member noted that the team portrayed empathy: *"they feel the pain that the patient has, they were really sensitive about it."* Finally, a staff member who has worked with PHAI and this service trip for several years commented about how he felt this team responded to the needs of the community with the following: *"Well, when you work in a context of extreme poverty, there are a lot of needs. So as a team,*

and after coming for several years now, you have not only provided health services of high quality, but also seeing the need of leaving behind something that can make an impact to the families beyond medical services. So, the fact that you provide a house for a family. Its life changing for that family. So, you are making a difference by being here. And I know that poverty, it's a complex issue and I don't want to oversimplify with your presence here for a week or so, but I know that the work that you do, even though it might not be extensive in the sense of length of time.. It's addressing needs that we are aware of and have been prioritized by our ministry. And it has an impact in the family you have worked with."

Conclusion

As a result of engagement in this project, participants demonstrated improved ability to perceive the needs of this novel community and respond to those needs appropriately. The CCAI™ effectively captured improvement in personal autonomy and perceptual acuity in our participants, but it did not necessarily capture the reported outcomes of confidence gain and interprofessional collaboration that emerged from the qualitative data. Ideas for future studies include investigation and use of additional tools to track other outcomes such as confidence and interprofessional collaboration with participants. Additionally, continued needs assessment with our Guatemalan partners will be prioritized to ensure a sustainable mutually beneficial relationship continues for many years.

References

- Accreditation Council for Occupational Therapy Education. (2011). *2011 Accreditation Council for Occupational Therapy Education (ACOTE) Standards and Interpretive Guide*. <https://acoteonline.org/accreditation-explained/standards/>
- American Physical Therapy Association. (2004). *A Normative Model of Physical Therapist Professional Education*. <https://www.calstate.edu/app/dpt/documents/ch1.pdf>
- American Physical Therapy Association. (2014). *Blueprint for Teaching Cultural Competency in Physical Therapy Education*. <https://healthdiversity.pitt.edu/sites/default/files/2014BlueprintForTeachingCulturalCompetence.pdf>
- Anderson, K., & Bocking, N. (2008). *Preparing Medical Students for Electives in Low-Resource Settings: A Template for National Guidelines for Pre-Departure Training*. [http://www.old.cfms.org/downloads/Pre-Departure Guidelines Final.pdf](http://www.old.cfms.org/downloads/Pre-Departure%20Guidelines%20Final.pdf)

Arthur, M. A. M., Battat, R., & Brewer, T. F. (2011). Teaching the basics: Core competencies in global health. *Infectious Disease Clinics of North America*, 25(2), 347–358. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idc.2011.02.013>

Audette, J. G. (2017). International “broadening experiences”: A method for integrating international opportunities for physical therapist students. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, 31(1), 49–60. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001416-201731010-00008>

Bessette, J., & Camden, C. (2017). Pre-departure training for student global health experiences: A scoping review. *Physiotherapy Canada*, 69(4), 343–350. <https://doi.org/10.3138/ptc.2015-86GH>

Bimstein, E., Gardner, Q. W., Riley, J. L., & Gibson, R. W. (2008). Educational, personal, and cultural attributes of dental students’ humanitarian trips to Latin America. *Journal of Dental Education*, 72(12), 1493–1509. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.0022-0337.2008.72.12.tb04629.x>

Brown, D. A., Fairclough, J. L., & Ferrill, M. J. (2012). Planning a pharmacy-led medical mission trip, part 4: An exploratory study of student experiences. *The Annals of Pharmacotherapy*, 46(9), 1250–1255. <https://doi.org/10.1345/aph.1Q784>

Buff, S. M., Jenkins, K., Kern, D., Worrall, C., Howell, D., Martin, K., Brown, D., White, A., & Blue, A. (2015). Interprofessional service-learning in a community setting: Findings from a pilot study. *Journal of Interprofessional Care*, 29(2), 159–161. <https://doi.org/10.3109/13561820.2014.934956>

Campinha-Bacote, J. (2002). The process of cultural competence in the delivery of healthcare services: A model of care. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*, 13(3), 181–184. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10459602013003003>

Clements, J. N., Rager, M. L., & Vescovi, E. M. (2011). The value of pharmacy services on a short-term medical mission trip: Description of services and assessment of team satisfaction. *The Annals of Pharmacotherapy*, 45(12), 1576–1581. <https://doi.org/10.1345/aph.1Q328>

Commission on Accreditation in Physical Therapy Education. (2015). CAPTE Position Papers. <https://www.capteonline.org/globalassets/capte-docs/capte-position-papers.pdf>

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2007). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory Third* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2010). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Crump, J. A. (2008). Ethical considerations for short-term experiences by trainees in global health. *JAMA*, *300*(12), 1456. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.300.12.1456>

Crump, J. A., Sugarman, J., & Working Group on Ethics Guidelines for Global Health Training (WEIGHT). (2010). Ethics and best practice guidelines for training experiences in global health. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, *83*(6), 1178–1182. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2010.10-0527>

Dowell, J., & Merrylees, N. (2009). Electives: Isn't it time for a change? *Medical Education*, *43*(2), 121–126. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2008.03253.x>

Edwards, R., Piachaud, J., Rowson, M., & Miranda, J. (2004). Understanding global health issues: Are international medical electives the answer? *Medical Education*, *38*(7), 688–690. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2929.2004.01849.x>

Ekelman, B., Bello-Haas, V. D., Bazyk, J., & Bazyk, S. (2003). Developing cultural competence in occupational therapy and physical therapy education: A field immersion approach. *Journal of Allied Health*, *32*(2), 131–137. <https://www.ingentaconnect.com/contentone/asahp/jah/2003/00000032/00000002/art00012>

Elit, L., Hunt, M., Redwood-Campbell, L., Ranford, J., Adelson, N., & Schwartz, L. (2011). Ethical issues encountered by medical students during international health electives. *Medical Education*, *45*(7), 704–711. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2011.03936.x>

Glickman, L. B., Olsen, J., & Rowthorn, V. (2015). Measuring the cross-cultural adaptability of a graduate student team from a global immersion experience. *Journal of Cultural Diversity*, *22*(4), 148–154. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26817173/>

Hayward, L. M., & Charrette, A. L. (2012). Integrating cultural competence and core values: an international service-learning model. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, *26*(1), 78–89. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001416-201210000-00013>

Hoang, D., & Nguyen, K. T. (2011). Volunteering in Nha Trang, Vietnam: Senior medical students' perspectives of a surgical mission trip. *The Yale Journal of Biology and Medicine*, *84*(4), 461–470. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3238326/>

Jogerst, K., Callender, B., Adams, V., Evert, J., Fields, E., Hall, T., Olsen, J., Rowthorn, V., Rudy, S., Shen, J., Simon, L., Torres, H., Velji, A., & Wilson, L. L. (2015). Identifying interprofessional global health competencies for 21st-century health professionals. *Annals of Global Health*, *81*(2), 239. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aogh.2015.03.006>

- Johnson, A. M., & Howell, D. M. (2017). International service learning and interprofessional education in Ecuador: Findings from a phenomenology study with students from four professions. *Journal of Interprofessional Care*, 31(2), 245–254. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13561820.2016.1262337>
- Kalbarczyk, A., Nagourney, E., Martin, N. A., Chen, V., & Hansoti, B. (2019). Are you ready? A systematic review of pre-departure resources for global health electives. *BMC Medical Education*, 19(1), 166. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12909-019-1586-y>
- Kelly, C., & Meyers, J. (1995). *The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Manual*. Minneapolis: National Computer Systems.
- Kraemer, T. J., & Beckstead, J. (2003). Establishing the reliability of using the cross cultural adaptability inventory with physical therapist students. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, 17(1), 27–32. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001416-200301000-00005>
- Lattanzi, J. B., & Pechak, C. M. (2012). Educating globally minded physical therapist students: Curriculum strategies to equip the next generation. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, 26(1), 55–60. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001416-201210000-00010>
- Logar, T., Le, P., Harrison, J. D., & Glass, M. (2015). Teaching corner: “First do no harm”: Teaching global health ethics to medical trainees through experiential learning. *Journal of Bioethical Inquiry*, 12(1), 69–78. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11673-014-9603-7>
- Matsuda, S. J., & Miller, M. (2007). Impact of cultural contact on intercultural competency of occupational therapy students and international graduate students. *Journal of Allied Health*, 36(1), e30-46. <https://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/asahp/jah/2007/00000036/00000001/art00013>
- Meyers J., Lewak R., Stolberg R., Savarese-Levine. J. (2008). *The relationship of cross cultural adaptability and emotional intelligence*. <http://drjudithmeyers.com/Relationship%20of%20Cross%20Cultural%20Adaptability%20and%20Emotional%20Intelligence.pdf>
- Moran, D., Edwardson, J., Cuneo, C. N., Tackett, S., Aluri, J., Kironji, A., Cox, J., Carroll, B., Lie, E., Fofana, M., Bollinger, R.C., Ziegelstein, R.C., & Chen, C. C. G. (2015). Development of global health education at Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine: A student-driven initiative. *Medical Education Online*, 20(1), 28632. <https://doi.org/10.3402/meo.v20.28632>
- Mu, K., Peck, K., Jensen, L., Bracciano, A., Carrico, C., & Feldhacker, D. (2016). CHIP: Facilitating interprofessional and culturally competent patient care through experiential learning in China. *Occupational Therapy International*, 23(4), 328–337. <https://doi.org/10.1002/oti.1434>

Pechak, C., Gonzalez, E., Summers, C., & Capshaw, S. (2013). Interprofessional education: A pilot study of rehabilitation sciences students participating in interdisciplinary international service-learning. *Journal of Allied Health*, 42(3), e61-6. <https://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/asahp/jah/2013/00000042/00000003/art00014>

Potter's House Association-International. (2019, July 2). *Our Programs*. <https://pottershouse.org.gt/programs/>

Reisch, R. A. (2011). International service learning programs: Ethical issues and recommendations. *Developing World Bioethics*, 11(2), 93–98. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-8847.2011.00299.x>

Ryan-Krause, P. (2016). Short-term global experiences: Reflections, themes, and implications. *The Journal of Nursing Education*, 55(7), 379–384. <https://doi.org/10.3928/01484834-20160615-04>

Tervalon, M., & Murray-García, J. (1998). Cultural humility versus cultural competence: A critical distinction in defining physician training outcomes in multicultural education. *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved*, 9(2), 117–125. <https://doi.org/10.1353/hpu.2010.0233>

Trotter, SF., & Dunnivan-Mitchell, S. (2019) *Simulation Enhances Soft Skills Among Inter-Professionals Participating in an International Service-Learning Experience to Guatemala*. Med Ed Publish. May 2, 2019. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.15694/mep.2019.000024.1>.

Umoren, R. A., James, J. E., & Litzelman, D. K. (2012). Evidence of reciprocity in reports on international partnerships. *Education Research International*, 2012, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/603270>

Wagner, L. D., & Christensen, S. E. (2015). Establishment of a short-term global health nursing education experience: Impact on students' ways of knowing. *The Journal of Nursing Education*, 54(5), 295–299. <https://doi.org/10.3928/01484834-20150417-09>

Zong, J., Batalova, J., & Burrows, M. (2019). Frequently requested statistics on immigrants and immigration in the United States. <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/frequently-requested-statistics-immigrants-and-immigration-united-states>

About the Authors

Suzanne Fox Trotter, PT, MPT, ScD is an associate professor of the Doctor of Physical Therapy program at the University of St. Augustine for Health Sciences in Austin, TX. strotter@usa.edu.

Sharon Dunnivan-Mitchell, PT, DPT is the program director and an assistant professor of the Physical Therapy Assistant program at Del Mar College in Corpus Christi, TX. sdunnivanmitchell@delmar.edu.

Nicole Borman, PT, PhD, BS is a contributing faculty member of the Doctor of Physical Therapy program at the University of St. Augustine for Health Sciences in Austin, TX. nborman@usa.edu.

Aimee Kent, PT, DPT is a contributing faculty member of the Doctor of Physical Therapy program at the University of St. Augustine for Health Sciences in Austin, TX.

Brianna Oliva, PT, DPT, is a clinic director at Results Physiotherapy in Kyle, TX.

Acknowledgments: The authors would like to thank our hosts in Guatemala, Potter's House International Association, who inspire us to make a difference in our communities and lead by acts of service. We would like to thank the team at Tesoro Project who organize trips and for the interprofessional participants who implement these service-learning experiences to bring healthcare to the underserved communities. Finally, we would like to thank Jessica Cain for her assistance with referencing.

A Case Study: Assessment of Civic Learning Knowledge amongst Informatics Faculty and Undergraduate Students' Attendees of Civic Workshops at Mercer University

Awatef Ben Ramadan
Mercer University

Feng Liu
Mercer University

Colleen Stapleton
Mercer University

Many of the colleges and the universities in the United States have prepared their students to be effective citizens (Knefelkamp, 2008; Packer, 2016; Sullivan, 2000). The higher education sector has realized the importance of the civic-learning strategies and commits to develop civic and service-learning awareness among the graduates; the commitment's timing and context have varied amongst the different institutions (Packer, 2016; Stanton and Wagner, 2006; Thelin, 2011). Different governmental and non-profit leader organizations in the United States have realized the importance of the community engagement definition and context. These organizations have adopted the community collaboration concept and have tried to involve it in the higher education institutions' missions and strategic plans (Sandmann, Thornton, and Jaeger, 2009). The Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) has been engaged to endorse civic strategies and service-learning concepts and skills amongst the faculty and the students, and there are successful curricular and program strategies that have been conducted to attain these missions across the nation (American Association of Colleges and Universities [AAC&U], n.d.b). The AAC&U states that "In this turbulent and dynamic century, our nation's diverse democracy and interdependent global community require a more informed, engaged, and socially

Abstract

In 2018, the informatics faculty team at Mercer University were awarded an AAC&U mini-grant on Civic Learning in the Major. To meet the grant's requirement, the department conducted different activities. These activities included two intensive workshops.

The study design was before and after quasi-experimental research of two steps:

1. Piloting the study survey on the informatics faculty who attended the first mini-grant workshop.
2. A before and after quasi-experimental trial, on the students and the informatics faculty who attended the second workshop and did not participate in the first workshop.

First workshop: Faculty. There was no significant statistical relationship between the participants' years of teaching experience and the percentage of the questions the participants correctly answered

Second Workshop: Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test used to measure the relationships between before- and after-responses of the participants. There was a significant statistical difference between the studied variables

responsible citizenry” (AAC&U, 2019). The National Leadership Council for Liberal Education and America’s Promise (LEAP), 2007, has defined the most critical learning outcomes to have qualified graduates with a successful career. Two of those learning outcomes were personal and social responsibility, and integrative and applied to learn (Association of American Colleges and Universities American Association of State Colleges and Universities Association for Public and Land-grant Universities, 2010; Jacoby, 2009).

Civic knowledge and learning has defined as " civic engagement is acting on a heightened sense of responsibility to one's communities that encompass the notions of global citizenship and inter-dependence, participation in building civil society, and empowering individuals as agents of positive social change to promote social justice locally and globally” (Musil, 2009). Higher education institutions should tweak this definition and develop applicable civic strategies for their institutions, departments, education majors, and the programs’ missions and visions (AAC&U, 2019a, AAC&U, 2019b). Social interaction and active engagement of the students in colleges are the effective mechanisms of supporting and increasing civic knowledge and skills among the students (Strayhorn, 2008). Civic knowledge is a result of interaction and collaboration between communities, students, faculty, and other entities and individuals (Saltmarsh, Hartley, and Clayton, 2009).

In May, 2018, the informatics faculty team at the Department of Mathematics, Science, and Informatics at the Mercer University were awarded an American Association of Colleges and Universities (AAC&U)’s Grant, which was one out of 24 awarded from the Endeavor Foundation Supports; an AAC&U Signature Initiative, Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement (AAC&U, 2018). To meet the grant's requirement and to help our students to be actively involved in the learning process and be able to possess civic knowledge and skills, the department:

- Conducted several formal and ad hoc meetings amongst the grant’s co-authors
- Conducted two intensive workshops involving a keynote Civic-specialist speaker in the first workshop. Those workshops attended by the informatics faculty and seven undergraduate informatics students
- Conducted a survey, during the workshops, to assess the before and after Civic knowledge among the targeted faculty and students
- Designed a poster, which collected the most important information on the Civic and Service learning for both workshops’ audience
- Presented a panel discussion at the 2018 Transforming STEM Higher Education Conference to disseminate the faculty’s civic learning experience, evidence, and recommendations for the conference’s attendees

For the current study, the investigators aim to assess the two workshops audience's knowledge before and after exposure to the extensive information about Civic- and Service-learning. The current study also aims to assess the workshops attendees’ awareness about the importance and impact of the civic and service-learning strategies on the community, the higher education institutions, and the students.

Methods

The study design was before and after quasi-experimental research of two steps:

1. Piloting (testing) the study's survey on the informatics faculty who attended the first AAC&U grant's workshop.
2. Conducting before and after a quasi-experimental trial, by using the refined survey questions, as a result of the first step, on the students and the informatics faculty who attended the second workshop and did not participate in the first workshop.

The First AAC&U Grant Workshop/ September 6-7, 2018:

The first workshop conducted on September 6-7, 2018. In this workshop. We invited an AAC&U Civic Learning awardee, led the informatics faculty in a two-day workshop that involved discussions on how to incorporate civic learning in the major, how to assess civic learning, and shared resources in civic engagement. In addition, she presented professional information and checklists on practicing civic and service-learning strategies within the higher education institutions, discuss how to collaborate with the community organizations and entities to enhance the learning process and the social responsibility of the university students, and she leads discussions with the workshop audience along the workshop's two days. The keynote speaker successfully has lead students to civic-learning outcomes, she Received Texas Public Power Association Award 2017 (Texas Lutheran University [TLU], 2017a; LTU, 2017b; ACC&U, n.d.a). The audience was the informatics faculty of the Department of Mathematics, Science, and Informatics of the College of Professional Advancement (COPA) at Mercer University, in addition to the other two faculty from Communication Department and Liberal Studies Department. Before the workshop started, we distributed a survey of ten questions for the informatics faculty to assess their basic knowledge and awareness about the civic and Service Learning. The survey also explored the faculty's perspectives of civic strategies and how these approaches are important for the education institutions, how to affect the learning process's outcomes of our non-traditional students, and how to impact the community. Five of the department informatics faculty responded and answered all the survey questions.

The Second AAC&U Grant Workshop/ October 2018:

Another AAC&U grant workshop was conducted at Mercer University on October 15th. We disseminated the invitation to attend the workshop to our informatics students through the faculty members. All informatics faculty attended the workshop in addition to seven undergraduate informatics students. We conducted a tweaked survey, which we tested on the previous workshop's faculty audience, on the participants of the second workshop. We distributed the survey before the workshop started to the workshop's audience and we disseminated the same survey on the same audience at the end of the event. We got five participants anonymously answered the survey questions before the

workshop started and six of the participants answered and returned the survey at the end of the workshop.

Results

The first workshop's results:

Demographics:

The participants were five faculty members. As the following Figure shows, most of the participants' age (60%) was between 45-54 years old. Twenty percent of the participants' age was between 35-44 years old, and the remaining (20%) participants' age was more than 55 years old.

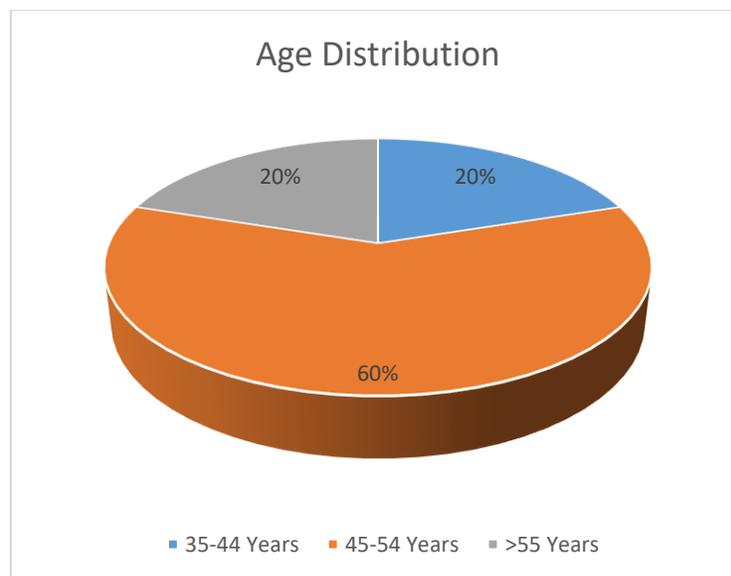


Figure 1. The age distribution of the participated faculty

As the following figure shows (figure 2), three (60%) of the participated faculty were males, and the other two (40%) were females.

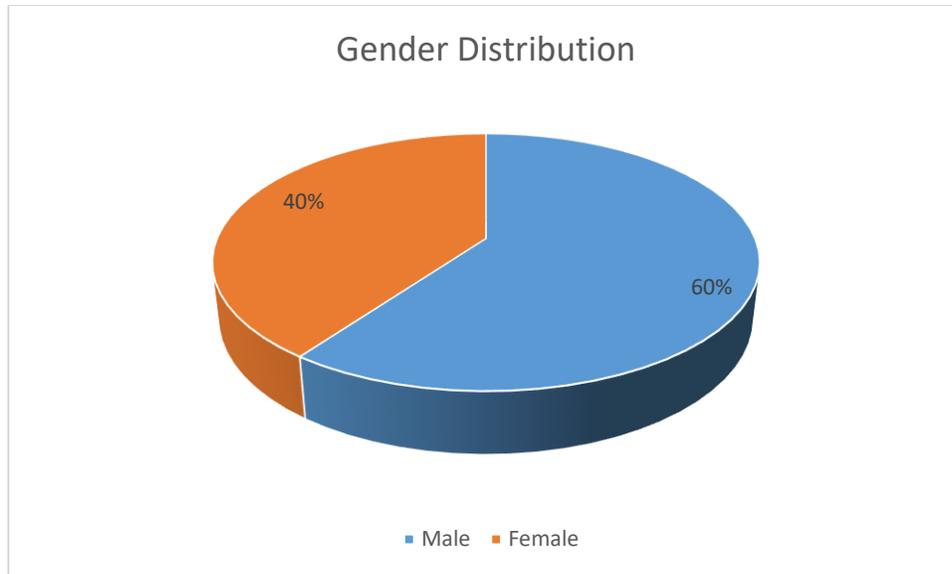


Figure 2. The gender distribution of the participated faculty

The following table demonstrates the race distribution of the participated faculty. Three of the faculty (60%) were Asian, and the other two faculty (40%) were White.

Table 1. The race distribution of the participated faculty

Race	Participant Number (%)
White	2 (40%)
Asian	3 (60%)

We measured the descriptive statistics of the total teaching experience years of our participants. The following table illustrates the distribution of the faculty's teaching experience. The measurements were as following: the range = 9-29 years, the mean = 15.6 years, and the median = 13 years.

Table 2. Total Teaching Experience years of the participated faculty's descriptive statistics

Total teaching experience years' range	9-29 Years
The mean of the teaching experience years	15.6 Years
The median of the teaching experience years	13 Years

We measured the descriptive statistics of the total teaching experience years in undergraduate and graduate courses and programs for all the participants. The distribution of the undergraduate experience was as follows: The range = 9-29 years, the mean = 15.6 years, the median = 13 years. While the graduate experience

distribution was: the range = 9-12 years, the mean = 4.2 years, the median = 10.5 years.

Table 3. Total Teaching Experience years in Undergraduate and Graduate Programs of the participated faculty's descriptive statistics

Teaching Experience	Undergraduate	Graduate
Range	9-29 Years	9-12 Years
Mean	15.6 Years	4.2 Years
Median	13 Years	10.5 Years

The Percentage of the Right Answered Survey Questions of the participated faculty were as the following figure shows.

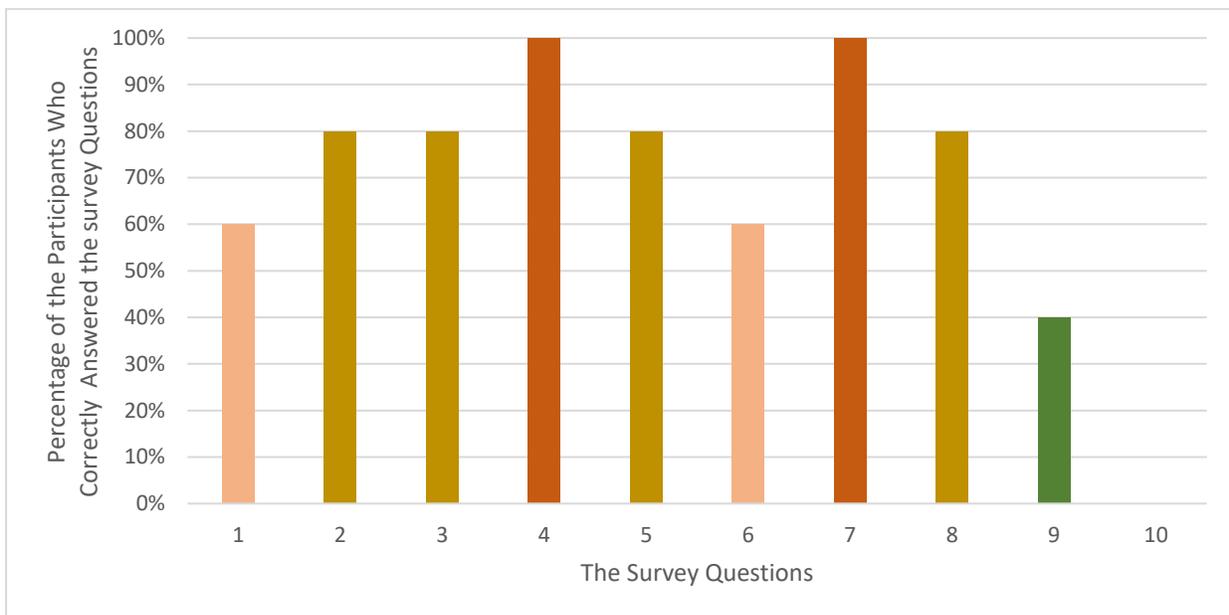


Figure 3. Percentages of the faculty who correctly answered the survey questions

Only two questions, questions number 4 and 7 out of the ten asked questions, correctly answered by the faculty participants. Questions number 2, 3, 5 & 8 (40% of the survey questions) correctly answered by eight (80%) of the participants. Questions number 1 and 6 Correctly answered by two (20%) of the participants. Question number 9 was answered right by four (40%) of the participants. Question number 10 was not answered right by any of the participants.

The following table demonstrates the percentages of the questions the participant faculty correctly answered.

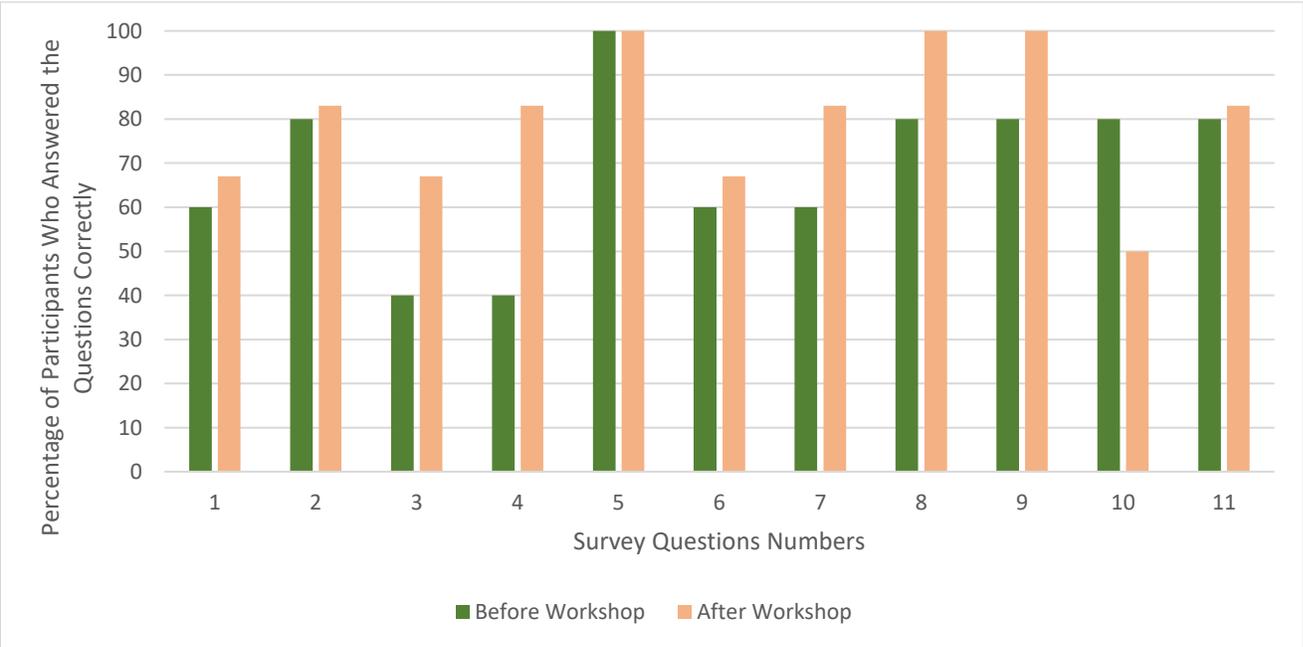
Table 6. Percentages of the questions the faculty answered them correctly

The Teaching Experience Years of the Participant	% of the Questions the Participant Answered Them Correctly
18 Years	50% (5 out of 10 questions)
29 Years	90% (9 out of 10 questions)
13 Years	70% (7 out of 10 questions)
12 Years	90% (9 out of 10 questions)
15 Years	40% (4 out of 10 questions)

The investigator conducted the simple regression test to explore the statistical relationship between the teaching experience years of the participants as an independent variable and the percentage of the questions the participants correctly answered as a dependent variable. The *P*-value was (0.63), so there was no significant statistical relationship between the two measured variables ($\alpha = 0.1$).

Second Workshop Results:

The following figure illustrated the before- and after-second workshop audience’s responses to the survey’s questions



Before- and after-workshop audience's responses on the disseminated survey

As the figure shows, the percentages of the participants who answered the survey questions correctly improved for all the questions except question number 10, which was on the students' benefits of the service-learning strategies.

We used the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test to measure the statistical difference between before- and after-responses of the participants. The measured statistic was (-1.83) and the *P*-value was (0.06) which is $< \alpha 0.1$. There is a significant statistical difference between the participants before and after the answers to the survey questions.

We used the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test instead of the t-test because it does not require "random sampling, normality, equal variances" which are not available and guaranteed by the studied samples.

Discussion

In the first workshop, the participants' demographics were diverse and the teaching experience range for the same sample was wide. Therefore, we were able to assess the civic learning knowledge amongst participants who have variant teaching experience, representing different generations, and maybe having diverse background and points of view regarding the teaching process, student engagement and success, collaboration between higher education institutions and their communities, and understanding the social responsibilities and the active citizenship.

All the participants are correctly answered questions # 4 & 7, which were about the service-learning definition and the higher education institution benefits of service-learning. This indicates that our faculty are alert and aware of the importance of involving the students in activities that address their own communities' current issues and problems and help, through internships or capstone projects, in solving and/or resolving these difficulties. The participated faculty also realized the benefits the higher education institutions could get through applying and adopting the service-learning activities, which they are going to apply to engage their students in their societies, meet their courses' learning outcomes, and get new opportunities for faculty in teaching and research disciplines.

Eighty percent of the participated faculty answered the questions regarding the civic learning definition and strategies, the students' benefits from the service-learning strategies, and they were alert enough about the citizenship characteristics, which the service-learning strategies are aiming to develop and how these strategies enhance the social responsibility amongst the students. Sixty percent only of our faculty answered correctly the questions about the civic learning vision and the communities' benefits of service-learning strategies. We assume that all the participated faculty now be able to answer all the questions correctly after they exposed to the information from the workshops.

The participated faculty could not answer correctly the survey question on the college departments' benefits of the service-learning strategies. This was disappointing but made our department think of developing new interventions and strategies to inform and educate our faculty about these benefits. Our department leaders have realized the

essentiality of enhancing the learning environment and student engagement, supporting collegiality and collaboration with other departments and the society, and creating new opportunities in teaching and research for faculty and students. The department leadership has encouraged faculty to design and teach civic- and service-based curriculum in our undergraduate and graduate courses and capstone. The leadership has supported and sponsored different community-based workshops and scholarship activities, and it has always encouraged involving our students in these activities. I will give examples of both the teaching and the scholarship civic- and service-based opportunities that the department has supported. The teaching examples are several but I will focus on the following examples: this AAC&U's civic-based grant and the grant's related workshops; the undergraduate and graduate capstone's community-based projects; study-abroad projects; in addition to the panel discussion, we conducted as informatics faculty in 2018 Transforming STEM Higher Education Conference in November 2018, about the high impact practices (HIPs) we had used to enhance the learning environment of our students. The research example is that our department sponsored four faculty to attend and participate in the Professional Grant Development Workshop to get the necessary skills and knowledge to target community-based national funding opportunities. Two of the participated faculty submitted, in October 2019, a community-based grant-application as Primary Directors/Primary Investigators (PDs/PIs) to the National Institute of Health (NIH) targeting the under-served Somali immigrant community at DeKalb County of Georgia. The grant applicants have included undergraduate and graduate informatics students in the grant's application; they have cooperated with colleagues from other schools of the University; and have collaborated with community partners.

Before we started the study, we assumed that the faculty with more teaching experience would correctly answer the survey questions than the less experienced faculty. We tested our assumption and it was incorrect. Based on the results we got, we think that because civic and service-learning concepts are emerging concepts and recently have adopted in the higher education environment and all the faculty have exposed to these concepts at the same time. So, the previous teaching experience does not add towards realizing these evolving notions' impact on the individuals, higher education sector, and communities.

In the second workshop, the percentages of the participants who correctly answered the questions were higher at the end of the workshop than the percentages of the correctly answered at the beginning of the workshop, except for the question, which was about the student benefits of the service-learning initiatives. We are assuming that the participants benefited from the information they got from the workshop presenters, the grant designed poster, and the discussions amongst the workshop attendees. Based on the results, we recommend that the students need educational sessions within their classical courses about the importance and impact of civic and service-learning on the learning process and their success and citizenship (The Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement National Task Force, 2011). We also recommend that the higher education entities might have to think seriously about developing more civic-based and service learning-based classes and/or seminars for the college freshmen and undergraduate students (New, 2016). These classes might help these institutions to

educate the students on how to advocate for social change in their societies, how to be ethically and socially responsible, and how to be actively involved and interacted in the learning process (New, 2016; The Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement National Task Force, 2011; U. S. Department of Education, 2012). In our department, some faculty have started adopting civic- and service-learning components into their undergraduate and graduate courses in addition to their Capstone projects, which have been very promising. We recommend that we have to encourage our entire full-time and adjunct faculty to consider and include more civic- and service learning strategies in their curriculum and motivate them to assess the impact of these strategies on our students' success and on the students' understanding of their social responsibility.

Conclusion

From the two workshops' findings, the study investigators concluded that the participants benefited from the material they exposed to during the two workshops. The investigators recommend that the students and the faculty need to be exposed to civic interventions (lectures, webinars, workshops, flyers and brochures,) to be able to realize the impact and the importance of these strategies on the communities, students, and the higher education outcomes. To teach civic skills and habits, faculty need to develop curriculum including course-based service-learning strategies such as cooperative education, field studies, or internships (Battistoni, 2000; Eyler and Giles, 1999; Moely, 2002).

Faculty need to be well educated on civic learning, leadership, and democracy to be able to engage their students in civic related tasks and responsibilities and developing responsible citizens (U. S. Department of Education, 2012). Current literature shows that by having faculty who have created great collaboration between the higher education institutions and community entities, the student knowledge and values of the different races and ethnicities have been increased across the nation since 2005 (DeAngelo, 2009). Faculty also need to be actively involved in civic learning research, and in building robust evidence on the civic learning and democracy's best practices and strategies in higher education (U. S. Department of Education, 2012). The study also recommends that the faculty should apply for civic grants and participate in different on-campus, national, and international civic related activities and events (i.e. workshops, seminars, panels, conferences, webinars), and they should be able to modify the knowledge and implement it into their courses' curriculum.

Civic personality and identity are related to both the moral and intelligent development of the individuals within their communities (Knefelkamp, 2008). We recommend that to develop lifetime civic skills and commitments, we need to engage our students in community activities and peer interaction (Hatcher, 2011; Youniss, McLellan, and Yates, 1997; Strayhorn, 2008).

References

Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U). (2018). AAC&U Awards Twenty-Four Grants to Spur Civic Learning in Student Majors. Retrieved from <https://aacu.org/press/press-releases/aacu-awards-twenty-four-grants-spur-civic-learning-student-majors>

Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U). (2019a). Civic Learning. Retrieved from <https://www.aacu.org/resources/civic-learning>

Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U). (2019b). Civic Prompts: Civic Learning in the Major by Design. Retrieved from: <https://www.aacu.org/civic-prompts>

Association of American Colleges and Universities, American Association of State Colleges and Universities, Association for Public and Land-grant Universities. (2010). *Rising to the Challenge: Meaningful Assessment of Student Learning Outcomes*. Washington, DC: American Association of State Colleges and Universities, Association for Public and Land-Grant Universities, 2010. Retrieved from: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED519804.pdf>

Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U). (n.d.a). Texas Lutheran University: Social Innovation and Social Entrepreneurship (SISE). Retrieved from: <https://www.aacu.org/node/18514>

Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U). (n.d.b). VALUE: What is Value. Retrieved from: <http://www.aacu.org/value/metarubrics.cfm>

Battistoni, R. "Service-Learning and Civic Education." In S. Mann and J. Patrick (eds.), *Education for Civic Engagement in Democracy: Service Learning and Other Promising Practices*. Educational Research Information Center, Indiana University, 2000. Retrieved from: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED447065.pdf>

DeAngelo, L., Hurtado, S., Pryor, J. H., Kelly, K. R., Santos, J. L., & Korn, W. S. (2009). *The American college teacher: National norms for the 2007-2008 HERI faculty survey*. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA.

Ehrlich, T. (Ed.). (2000). *Civic responsibility and higher education*. Greenwood Publishing Group. Retrieved from: [https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=4gOpzfEqE4C&oi=fnd&pg=PR5&dq=Sullivan,+W.+Institutional+Identity+and+Social+Response+TO.+Ehrlich+\(ed.\),+Civic+Responsibility+and+Higher+Education.Phoenix,+Ariz.:+Oryx+Press,+2000&ots=L4D81dneX2&sig=Kb1CrsIY-RQbYclqFRpU-9KIY-g#v=onepage&q&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=4gOpzfEqE4C&oi=fnd&pg=PR5&dq=Sullivan,+W.+Institutional+Identity+and+Social+Response+TO.+Ehrlich+(ed.),+Civic+Responsibility+and+Higher+Education.Phoenix,+Ariz.:+Oryx+Press,+2000&ots=L4D81dneX2&sig=Kb1CrsIY-RQbYclqFRpU-9KIY-g#v=onepage&q&f=false)

Eyler, J., & Giles Jr, D. E. (1999). *Where's the Learning in Service-Learning?* Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series. Jossey-Bass, Inc., 350 Sansome St., San Francisco, CA 94104.

Hatcher, J. A. (2011). Assessing civic knowledge and engagement. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 2011(149), 81-92. Retrieved from: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.1002/ir.382>

Jacoby, B. (2009). *Civic engagement in higher education: Concepts and practices*. John Wiley & Sons. Retrieved from: <https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=SVFVDwAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PR5&dq=Civic+Engagement+in+Higher+Education:+Concepts+and+Practices.+San+Francisco:+Jossey+Bass,+2009.&ots=BJuGrIKFPk&sig=UVBoWd7x1p2rP5eCVXnGI8I1CM8#v=onepage&q=Civic%20Engagement%20in%20Higher%20Education%3A%20Concepts%20and%20Practices.%20San%20Francisco%3A%20Jossey%20Bass%2C%202009.&f=false>

Knefelkamp, L. L. (2008). Civic identity: Locating self in community. *Diversity & Democracy*, 11(2), 1-3. Retrieved from: <https://www.aacu.org/diversitydemocracy/2008/spring/knefelkamp>

Moely, B. E., Mercer, S. H., Ilustre, V., Miron, D., & McFarland, M. (2002). Psychometric properties and correlates of the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ): A measure of students' attitudes related to service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 8(2). Retrieved from: <https://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/p/pod/dod-idx/psychometric-properties-and-correlates-of-the-civic.pdf?c=mjcs!;idno=3239521.0008.202;format=pdf>

Musil, C. M. (2009). Educating students for personal and social responsibility. *Civic engagement in higher education: Concepts and practices*, 49-68. Retrieved from: https://uwosh.edu/usp/wp-content/uploads/sites/30/2019/12/Jacoby_CivicEngagement_31.pdf

New, J. (2016). Inside Higher ED: Civic Learning. Retrieved from: <https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2016/05/10/colleges-placing-increasing-importance-programs-promoting-civic-engagement>

Packer, A. (2016). Education Week: Creating Informed Citizens Should Be Education's Goal. Retrieved from: <https://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2016/03/16/creating-informed-citizens-should-be-educations-goal.html>

Saltmarsh, J., Hartley, M., and Clayton, P. *Democratic Engagement White Paper*. Boston: New England Resource Center for Higher Education, 2009.

Sandmann, L. R., Thornton, C. H., & Jaeger, A. J. (2009). Institutionalizing community engagement in higher education: the first wave of Carnegie classified institution. *New directions for higher education*.

Strayhorn, T. L. (2008). How college students' engagement affects personal and social learning outcomes. *Journal of College and Character*, 10(2). Retrieved from: <https://naspa.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.2202/1940-1639.1071>

Stanton, T. K., & Wagner, J. W. (2006, April). Educating for democratic citizenship: Renewing the civic mission of graduate and professional education at research universities. In *Stanford Symposium on Civic Engagement and Graduate Education at Research Universities*, Stanford, CA.

Texas Lutheran University. (2017a). Professor Receives Texas Public Power Association Award. Retrieved from: <http://www.tlu.edu/news/news-professor-receives-texas-public-power-association-award/>

Texas Lutheran University. (2017b). Social Entrepreneurship Nationally Recognized as a Model Program. Retrieved from: <http://www.tlu.edu/news/social-entrepreneurship-nationally-recognized-as-a-model-program/>

The Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement National Task Force. (2011). A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future, A report to the Nation. Retrieved from: <https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/research/pubs/college-learning-democracys-future/crucible-moment.pdf>

Thelin, J. R. (2011). *A history of American higher education*. JHU Press. Retrieved from: https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=Pmlx20KR_z0C&oi=fnd&pg=PP1&dq=Thelin,+J.+A+History+of+American+Higher+Education.+Baltimore:+John+Hopkins+University+Press,+2004.&ots=bkAwoj94tP&sig=bUUuywEFC4gY8i154NlzDnxgaK8#v=onepage&q&f=false

U. S. Department of Education. (2012). Advancing Civic Learning and Engagement in Democracy: A Road Map and Call to Action. Retrieved from: <https://www.ed.gov/sites/default/files/road-map-call-to-action.pdf>

Youniss, J., McLellan, J. A., & Yates, M. (1997). What we know about engendering civic identity. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 40(5), 620-631. Retrieved from: https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/0002764297040005008?casa_token=i5nTX4W6BYAAAAA:NGUiAPtNw3yeLvatr7Iz0mUsxjEoQok5uQnzaC6XSc0JGjFVX-z3t79LxQK1-MLq73EXxMFN2po

Author Information

Awatef A. Ben Ramadan, Ph.D, MPH, MBCh. Assistant Professor, Health Informatics. Department of Mathematics, Science, and Informatics. College of Professional Advancement / Mercer University. P. (678) 547-6240 benramadan_aa@mercer.edu

Feng Liu, Ph.D, M.S., B. E. Professor, Informatics. Department of Mathematics, Science, and Informatics. College of Professional Advancement / Mercer University. liu_f@mercer.edu

Colleen Stapleton, Ph.D, M.A, B.A. Professor of Science. Chair Department of Mathematics, Science, and Informatics. College of Professional Advancement / Mercer University. stapleton@mercer.edu

Redesigning a University Class in Classroom Behavior Support: Social Emotional Learning and Positive Behavior Support Strategies Taught Through Service-Learning

Robert Shapiro
Fitchburg State University

Overview

Service-learning has been defined as “a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities” (Seifer & Connors, 2007). Benefits of this approach include allowing students to connect their coursework to their roles as citizens, as well as to apply what they are learning to the world outside of the classroom; these benefits have the potential to better equip students to become active, valued members of their community and workforce.

One area where service-learning could be especially valuable for both students and the community is in classroom behavior support. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, for the 2015-2016 school year, 43 percent of public-school teachers agreed or strongly agreed that student misbehavior interfered with their teaching.

At Fitchburg State University, all undergraduate Education majors are required to take a course in Classroom Behavior Support, which is primarily focused on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS). Traditionally, this course has been taught in a traditional format, including lecture, discussion, and small group work. Evaluation of student progress was conducted by measuring performance on a variety of analogue assignments, created to mimic situations students might be expected to encounter in the classroom environment as teachers. However, in the Summer of 2017, Fitchburg State University’s Center for Teaching and Learning and the Crocker Center for Civic Engagement co-sponsored a Civic Engagement Faculty Institute. This was an opportunity for faculty to gain a deeper understanding of civic engagement, contextualize civic engagement within Fitchburg State University, and redesign an existing course to contain a civic engagement element. Through participation in this

Abstract

Service-learning provides an opportunity for students to gain hands-on experience while simultaneously benefiting their local communities, thus gaining insight into their context in society. This paper details the process of redesigning an existing didactic university-level course in classroom behavior support designed for teacher candidates to instead be taught in a primarily service-learning based manner. In this process, teacher candidates interacted directly with public school students and teachers, collaborating to design a system of positive behavior support. Outcomes for the public-school teachers and students, as well as the university teacher candidates, are explored.

institute, the Classroom Behavior Support class was completely redesigned, to be primarily focused on service-learning.

Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

According to Horner & Sugai (2015), Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) is “a framework for delivering both the whole-school culture and additional tiers of behavior support intensity needed to improve educational and social outcomes for all students.” It is focused on providing supports in three different tiers. Tier 1, which all students experience, is proactive and focuses on teaching clear behavioral expectations, having explicit outcomes for students meeting or failing to meet expectations, providing consistent supervision, monitoring, and data collection, and organizing the school environment/culture to allow for success; these interventions tend to be effective for approximately 80% of students. For those students who do not experience success with Tier 1 interventions alone, more intensive interventions focused on providing additional structure, more prompting, more frequent encouragement, or more training (Tier 2 interventions) or individualized assessment and a comprehensive behavior support plan (Tier 3 interventions) can be implemented.

Social Emotional Learning

According to Jones et al. (2017), Social Emotional Learning (SEL) is “the process through which individuals learn and apply a set of social, emotional, behavioral, and character skills required to succeed in schooling, the workplace, relationships, and citizenship.” Largely, they organize SEL into the domains of cognitive regulation (such as attention control), emotional processes (such as perspective taking), and social/interpersonal skills (such as conflict resolution). In classrooms that are infused with a SEL component, these skills are often taught as part of formal curricula, with those skills then being practiced, modeled, and reinforced throughout the school day. According to the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, using evidence based SEL programs has been shown to lead to a variety of positive student outcomes, including increased academic achievement and improved behavior.

Classroom Behavior Support at Fitchburg State University

At the university where this course redesign took place, Classroom Behavior Supports was a course typically taken by third-year Education majors. One major assignment in this class was to create a sample version of a Tier 1 system of Positive Behavior Support. Students were expected to engage in the following activities as part of completing this assignment:

- Develop a list of 3-5 ‘big picture’ expectations for students to adhere to
- Operationally define what meeting each of these expectations look like in each setting students will encounter during the school day
- Create sample posters that outline ‘big picture’ and setting-specific expectations
- Create a lesson plan for teaching students about these expectations
- Develop a system of reinforcement/incentives for students who meet expectations
- Develop a comprehensive, differentiated response grid for when students are not meeting expectations

- Design a system of data collection to track student progress and evaluate success or need for remediation at the individual and class-wide level

The goal of this assignment was to help students gain the skill set necessary to develop and implement a Tier 1 system of positive behavior support, that they might be able to use as classroom teachers following graduation.

Classroom Behavior Support Redesign

In an effort to infuse this course with a service-learning component, the instructor met with the administrative personnel of a local elementary/middle school prior to the beginning of a school year. This group discussed service-learning and the needs of the Classroom Behavior Support class, as well as the needs of the elementary/middle school. This group identified one specific team (3 classrooms) that would most benefit from a service-learning project centered on developing and implementing a Tier 1 system of positive behavior support. This team was identified based on the behavioral presentation of the grade as a whole as measured from the previous year (a general classroom culture that was negatively impacting learning), as well as teachers who could both benefit from consultation/support around classroom behavior support, and who were likely to be receptive to this consultation/support. Once this was identified, the instructor met with the teachers to discuss the project, and to strategize and resolve any concerns prior to the start of the semester.

As this course was scheduled once per week for 2 hours and 45 minutes, this class time was divided into three roughly equal parts. The first part was directly interacting with/observing the students in the classroom; the second part was meeting with the team teachers to strategize and analyze data; and the third part was traditional classroom-based instruction.

	First Part	Second Part	Third Part
Early Semester	Student Observation	System Development	Overview of PBIS Strategies
Mid/Late Semester	Student Interaction/Teaching	Data Analysis/Critical Decision Making	Preparation for Next Student Interaction

Table 1. Outline of student activities throughout the semester.

As can be seen in Table 1, during the early part of the semester, teacher candidates spent the first part of class simply observing the classroom, learning about the current culture and getting to know the students. During the second part of class, teacher candidates met with the teachers and the instructor, and together this group designed a system of Positive Behavior Support. During the third part of class, traditional classroom instruction focused on Positive Behavior Support in general, ensuring that teacher candidates had a thorough understanding of the principles and techniques they would be employing. As the semester progressed, teacher candidates were able to take a much more active role in the first part of class, interacting with the students and teaching specific lessons around specific classroom expectations as well

as various Social Emotional Learning lessons following a formal, evidence-based SEL curriculum. Likewise, the second part of class shifted to analyzing the data of specific students as well as the classes and team as a whole and making decisions about revisions to the system or the need for additional supports on a student-specific basis. The third part of class shifted from an overview of PBIS to preparing teacher candidates for their next student interaction, either by preparing specific lesson plans or developing more intensive student supports for those students who needed this.

Results – Student Outcomes

Over the course of the semester, the overall percentage of student points (reflecting meeting classroom behavioral expectations) averaged over 90%, and these gains maintained across the semester. While it is not possible to evaluate to what degree the implementation of our system of positive behavior support impacted this positive outcome, it is important to remember that this group of students was specifically selected due to pervasive difficulty with meeting behavioral expectations the previous school year. See figure 1 student outcomes, graphed by day.

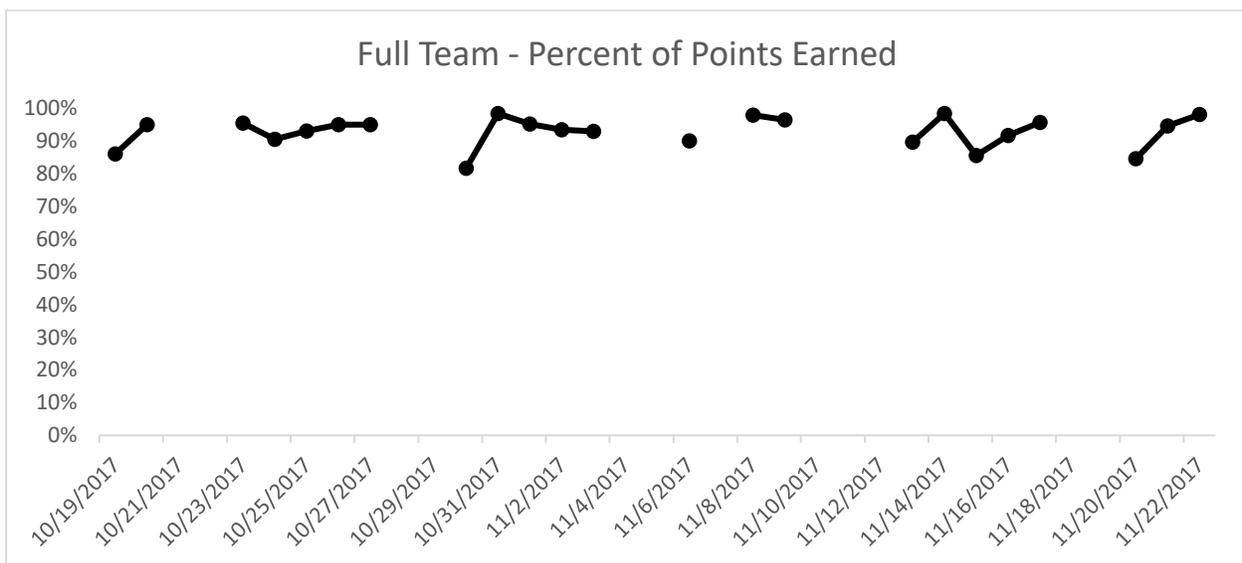


Figure 1. Teamwide response to system of Positive Behavior Support. Percent of points earned teamwide is graphed on the Y axis, and dates across the semester are graphed on the X axis.

Likewise, individual student data tended to improve over the course of the semester, coinciding with the intensification of supports and the implementation of Tier 2 interventions targeting those students. Graphs depicting the progress of two such students are included as figures 2 and 3. Student 2 initially had multiple days in which there were no points earned (indicating this student was not meeting any of the behavioral expectations), and by the end of the experience was consistently meeting most or all of the expectations. Student 3 showed similar improvement; while there were few days initially with no points earned, typically only one out of three standards

were met per day, while at the end of the experience two or more standards were met per day.

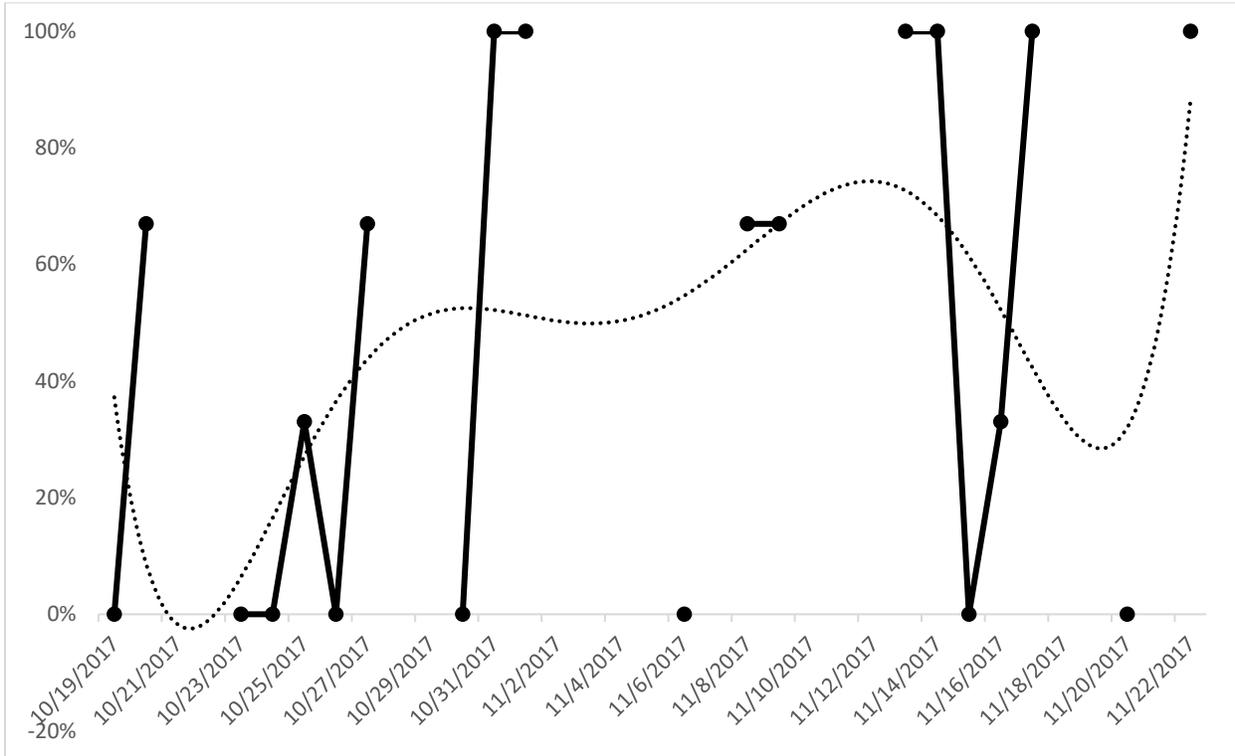


Figure 2. Student 1 response to system of Positive Behavior Support. Percent of points earned teamwide is graphed on the Y axis, and dates across the semester are graphed on the X axis. Dotted line is a polynomial trend line showing improvement over the course of the semester.

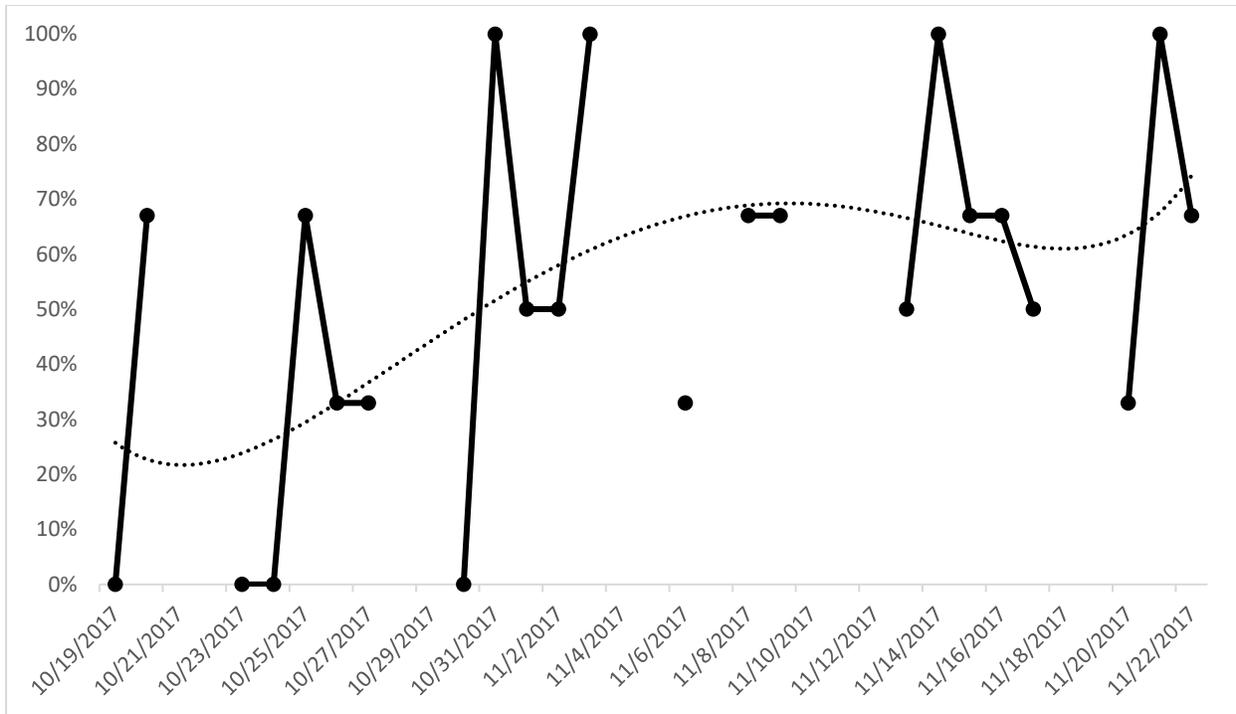


Figure 3. Student 2 response to system of Positive Behavior Support. Percent of points earned teamwise is graphed on the Y axis, and dates across the semester are graphed on the X axis. Dotted line is a polynomial trend line showing improvement over the course of the semester.

Subjectively, the students were provided with a survey at the end of the semester, to evaluate their satisfaction and feedback regarding the experience. Their feedback, on a scale of 1-3 (1 lowest, 3 highest) is included in table 2.

I enjoyed having the college students as part of our classroom	2.82
I did my best to follow the classroom rules	2.54
I think my classmates behaved better because of the system	1.89
I understood what was expected of me	2.75
I knew whether I was meeting expectations even before my teachers told me	2.10

Table 2. End-of-semester student survey responses.

Results – Teacher Candidate Outcomes

Teacher candidates were also given a survey at the end of the semester, to evaluate the degree to which they found the experience valuable. They provided several comments, such as, “learned so much and we got to actually see ourselves helping others,” “loved the interaction, it was great to feel like we were supporting the

community,” “I liked the opportunity to learn in a classroom rather than from just books and work,” and “I felt like my learning increased more than in other classes.” There were also critical comments, including “I wish I could have been in a classroom with students the age that I want to teach,” and “I wish we had more of a traditional classroom setting. Like maybe more lectures.” Their feedback, on a scale of 0-100 (0 lowest, 100 highest) is included in table 3. Additionally, the students participated in a pre-practicum survey administered at the department level specifically related to this course, and their feedback is included in table 4.

I learned about classroom behavior support from this class	82
It was valuable getting to interact with the students and teachers	79
It was enjoyable getting to interact with the students and teachers	78
I feel more confident in my ability to manage a classroom based on what I learned in this course	76
I would have preferred this class to be in a more traditional format, without the interaction with the students	21
What we did this semester was important	90

Table 3. End-of-semester teacher candidate survey responses.

	Agree/ Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The experience made connections to what was covered by my professor during class	100%	18%	82%
I received high quality feedback that improved my practice	82%	36%	45%
The experience helped me improve my teaching	100%	9%	91%
The experience helped build my readiness to teach on my own	100%	9%	91%
I benefited from the relationship that my professor had with the classroom teacher	100%	18%	82%

Table 4. End-of-semester teacher candidate department-level survey responses.

Results – Teacher Outcomes

The teachers involved in this process reported positive outcomes; overall they reported a high degree of satisfaction with the process and were able to continue implementation of the system following the semester. They spoke positively enough about the process with their colleagues that the instructor began getting requests from

other teachers in the school who wanted the process implemented with their classrooms as well.

Discussion

Honnet and Poulsen (1989) outline several principles of good practice for combining service and learning. With regards to this experience, each of these principles is addressed in turn:

1. An effective program engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good:
 - In this experience, the team took on the challenge of improving the classroom culture and learning outcomes in a school in our local community; doing so benefited our teacher candidates, as well as the local community.
2. An effective program provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience:
 - In this experience, teacher candidates completed reflection papers every week. Initially, these reflection papers were general and less structured, but following feedback they have been revised to reflect the implications of the service being provided as well as to specifically relate to assigned readings.
3. An effective program articulates clear service and learning goals for everyone involved:
 - In this experience, the service goal was to improve the classroom culture and behavior of students, while both teaching and learning from the existing classroom teachers. The learning goal was to gain practical experience in the implementation of a system of positive behavior support and a social emotional learning curriculum.
4. An effective program allows for those with needs to identify those needs:
 - In this experience, teacher candidates worked directly with a team within a school that had identified needs and worked with those teams to define and respond to what those needs were. This specifically led to the infusion of the social emotional curriculum, which had not previously been a component of this course but was a needed component for the team.
5. An effective program clarifies the responsibilities of each person and organization involved:
 - When starting this process, the responsibilities of the classroom teachers, teacher candidates, and the instructor were clearly defined; however, as the process developed it was clear that the roles of the administrators and other school personnel likewise need to be defined to ensure resource management and effective implementation.
6. An effective program matches service providers and service needs through a process that recognizes changing circumstances:
 - Throughout the course of this experience, the teacher candidates and teachers worked together to modify and redesign our system of classroom

behavior support, providing resources when necessary. Future iterations of this process will focus on different teams as the need arises.

7. An effective program expects genuine, active, and sustained organizational commitment:
 - Throughout this process, there was a high level of buy-in from the university (in terms of training and allowing the course redesign) as well as the partner school. This must continue for continued success.
8. An effective program includes training, supervision, monitoring, support, recognition, and evaluation to meet service and learning goals:
 - Throughout this process, the instructor was present at all times when teacher candidates were present in the classroom, provided guidance during the team process, and specifically trained all teacher candidates in positive behavior supports and social emotional learning; this ensured that the teacher candidates were prepared, and that the process unfolded in a productive manner.
9. An effective program ensures that the time commitment for service and learning is flexible, appropriate, and in the best interests of all involved:
 - The ultimate goal of this process was to improve student and teacher outcomes, while providing practical experience and learning for our teacher candidates; the time commitment was molded to meet the needs of our partner school. Future iterations of this experience might benefit from multiple course sections, to be able to place teacher candidates with partner classrooms that closely mirror the student population those candidates envision themselves working with as professionals.
10. An effective program is committed to program participation by and with diverse populations:
 - This service-learning experience took place in a school district supporting a highly diverse population; the majority of the students in our partner school are non-white, 35 percent have a first language other than English, 10 percent are English Language Learners, 21 percent have an identified disability, and 57 percent are classified as economically disadvantaged. These figures are presented in table 5. Ultimately, this service-learning experience provided needed resources to a population that is often underserved and marginalized.

	Percent of School	Percent of District
African American	8.4	5.9
Asian	5.4	4.9
Hispanic	47.4	50.5
White, non-Hispanic	31.5	31.4
First Language Not English	35.2	32.7
English Language Learner	10.0	13.8
Students with Disabilities	21.2	23.9
Economically Disadvantaged	57.2	61.9

Table 5. Demographic information of partner school and district.

Next Steps

The infusion of a service-learning component into a course in classroom behavior supports has been successful, improving outcomes for both the school that was partnered with and the teacher candidates who provided the service-learning. Moving forward, the plan is for this partnership to continue. Areas to target for potential improvement/enhancement include moving to other teams, based on the needs of the partner school; continued revision of the reflection papers (and course requirements in general) to enhance student learning; adding a hybrid/flipped classroom component, so that students can have access to more traditional learning strategies without sacrificing the service-learning component; and dividing the class into multiple sections, which would allow us to work with a greater number of teams/grade levels, while also allowing teacher candidates to interact with students who are at the grade level they are planning on teaching as professionals.

While resource-intensive in the early going, the feedback on this process was quite positive, and providing this kind of experiential learning to teacher candidates will help prepare them to be effective teachers with a solid set of classroom management and culture building skills.

References

- Honnet, E. P., & Poulson, S. J. (1989). *Principles of good practice for combining service and learning*. (Wingspread Special Report). Racine, WI: The Johnson Foundation. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/0c35/d6a82355833089fef4414bcf9ff58b07fc23.pdf>
- Horner, R. H., & Sugai, G. (2015). School-wide PBIS: An Example of Applied Behavior Analysis Implemented at a Scale of Social Importance. *Behavior analysis in practice*, 8(1), 80–85. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5048248/pdf/40617_2015_Article_45.pdf
- Jones, S., Brush, K., Bailey, R., Brion-Meisels, G., McIntyre, J., Kahn, J., Nelson, B., & Stickle, L. (2017). Navigating SEL from the Inside Out. Boston, MA: Harvard Graduate School of Education. <https://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/Documents/Navigating-Social-and-Emotional-Learning-from-the-Inside-Out.pdf>
- Seifer, S.D. and Connors, K., Eds. (2007). Community Campus Partnerships for Health. Faculty Toolkit for Service-Learning in Higher Education. Scotts Valley, CA: National Service-Learning Clearinghouse. <https://community-wealth.org/sites/clone.community-wealth.org/files/downloads/tool-LSA-serv-learn.pdf>

About the Author

Dr. Robert L Shapiro is an assistant professor at Fitchburg State University, where he chairs the graduate programs in Applied Behavior Analysis and Autism Spectrum Disorders. He is also the founder of Shapiro Educational & Behavioral Consultants, an agency providing home- and center-based Applied Behavior Analysis services to children and young adults with Autism Spectrum diagnoses. He can be reached at rshapir3@fitchburgstate.edu