Carrots for the Faculty
Getting the support of fellow educators may mean rewarding them with money, time, professional status, or personal satisfaction.

High-Risk Students Make Big Gains by Arthur Greenberg and Janet Lieberman
A curriculum emphasizing basic skills, service internships, and freedom of choice keeps probable dropouts in high school and sends them on to college.

Nurturing Service-Learners by John S. Duley
If service-learning is to be effective, students must become initiators rather than passivists and faculty members facilitators rather than disseminators.

Principles of Good Practice
I. In Postsecondary Education by Timothy Stanton and Catherine Howard
II. In Secondary Education by Gary Fornander, Lois Fornander, and Leroy Smith
Service-learning educators present their views in a national discussion of what assures quality in experiential education programs.

The Human Resources Bank by Robert J. Falk and Marion Ager
Local agencies, students, and faculty draw on the assets of a student-run volunteer and service-learning program.

Student Ombuds by Gregory Stewart
High school students practice ombudsmanship in five Cincinnati schools.

The Hope Factor by Michael F. Biscoglia, Jr.
Texas A&M volunteers work full time to bring new services and hope to an impoverished rural area.

Community Impact Checklist
With resources scarce and requests plentiful, educators need written criteria for deciding where to place students.

Education for Change—Change for Education

Institutional Change by Jack Lindquist
By applying experiential learning theory and skills to the school or college, educators may bring about organizational change.

Moral Decisionmaking in a Scientific Era by Louis A. Iozzi
A model program prepares students to solve dilemmas on the basis of social desirability rather than scientific capability.

Learning Networks: The Next Step by Arthur J. Lewis and Carol D. Blalock
The authors see service-learning as a step in the evolution toward lifelong learning systems that will include schools, the home, social organizations, and community agencies.

Surviving and Thriving by Jane Szutu Permaul
If service-learning is to prosper, it must become an integral part of the institution—contributing to it, adapting to its norms, and creating institutional change.

Community Apprentices by Esther Reichman
Community service and intensive counseling combine to help 70% of chronic high school truants improve attendance and grades.

Taking Technology to Nepal’s Villages by Madhab Prasad Poudyal
Nepal’s National Development Service extends its program to make graduate students change agents in appropriate technology.

Community Involvement: K-12 by Willis D. Veal and Mary C. Calhoun
Kindergartners begin by working on a problem affecting their class community. Each senior finishes by identifying and addressing a need in the city.

Testing Service as a Career
A college’s model career education program finds its community service placements the most valuable in meeting program goals.

Bringing Refugees to Batesville
College students began by sponsoring one family and ended up helping 40 relatives settle in an Arkansas town.

Service Calls

For the Bookshelf
Someday someone will do a study of service-learning programs that died. It will be a sad but enlightening collection of program post mortems showing fine ideas and good intentions overcome by a range of illnesses—failed finances, moribund morale, clotted community relations, and asphyxiated administration. Surely one of the most prevalent maladies (curable if treated properly) would turn out to be feeble faculty relations. Any program needs at least the good wishes of the faculty, and faculty sweat may be its life’s blood.

Whether speaking on behalf of a program to the administration, recruiting students to participate, granting release time for fieldwork, or monitoring field placements, teachers make programs work. Their enthusiasm and dedication are the sine qua non of healthy programs, and it behooves service-learning educators to cultivate the art of developing faculty support.

What follows is a compendium of ideas from high school and college service-learning educators who have faced the task of building programs by meeting the needs of other educators and turning them into enthusiastic supporters of service-learning. Their advice runs the gamut from general techniques for creating a receptive atmosphere in the institution to devising specific rewards and incentives for faculty who participate.

The Beginning

In many cases, the most difficult phase of developing support is at the beginning, before a service-learning program has had the opportunity to demonstrate its ample benefits to all those who participate in it. Teachers and administrators have a great deal to worry about in the daily discharge of their duties. They are jaded with new educational schemes that promise to cure all their ills. Generating support initially means fighting an uphill battle to credibility.

"You have to have institutional clout," says Robert Clifton, director of the Community Service Development Program at Metropolitan State College, Denver. For service-learning educators who are not major administrators in their institutions, that may mean enlisting the support of people who do have clout. A sympathetic administrator is one possibility. Another is to invite the chairman of an academic department to play a major role in the program, thus shifting some of the responsibility to shoulders that are institutionally broader.

At the high school level, principals are likely targets. They can make or break projects. In Dade County, Florida, Gina Craig manages a system-wide program involving thousands of students in a massive tutoring program. She says, "I have to face the fact that, when confronting the principal of a new school, I have less credibility than another principal. So I get a principal who's sold on it to convince the new principal of the value of the program.""

For answering teacher anxieties about the value of her program to the students, Craig feels fortunate to have two major studies that show the measurable benefits that accrue to students in her program. "But before we had those we would use simple attitude surveys; anecdotal material—anything—to convince teachers that the program worked."

Ruth Bounous, director of the University Year for Action (UYA) project at St. Edward's University, Austin, Texas, says, "If you make teachers part of the planning process for a program, they have a chance to incorporate aspects into the
program that they will enthusiastically support later on.” Also, by being in on the early dialogue, they have a chance to have their misgivings explained away.

Where convincing teachers of the academic validity and high desirability of service-learning activities is not possible, educators should not leave a fledgling program a casualty on the philosophical battlefield. Elizabeth Anne Gilbert, who runs the Haverford Township (Pennsylvania) Career and Community Service Program, suggests making whatever concessions are necessary and possible to avoid generating opposition to a service-learning program’s activities. “Because teachers need to feel that their coursework is not jeopardized, we schedule fieldwork during free periods and during the afternoon when regular classes are over.”

Supplying Incentives

Now that the faculty is waving service-learning banners, singing the program’s praises to the administration, and urging students to become service-learners, how does one get the fans out of the bleachers and onto the playing field? Experienced service-learning educators feel that, regardless of how enthusiastic teachers are about a program in principle, getting them to commit themselves to serious involvement is often a matter of allowing them to see some practical benefit to themselves.

Time or Money. Tom Little, director of The Virginia Program at Virginia State College, Petersburg, describes a number of institutions, including Mary Washington College in Fredericksburg, Virginia, that have financial reward systems. Under some systems, teachers get a sum of money—perhaps $100—for each intern they manage. The money may be routed from a student’s tuition directly to the teacher. Be forewarned that some institutions’ compottrollers will not sanction this system because they feel that the college’s ability to meet overhead is seriously jeopardized when it loses the collective buying power of the mass of tuition monies.

Money, then, may not be available, but time for writing, research, travel, further study, or tending the roses (or the children) is often as good as gold. Where an outright financial incentive is out of the question, Little recommends a voucher system whereby teachers can get a voucher that allows them to get a reduction in their teaching load for the time they spend supervising community service.

Technical Assistance. Talented, potentially dedicated faculty may quail at the idea of taking on participation in a service-learning program because they are not sure that they will be able to handle a new set of tasks and a new way of teaching.

In Miami, Craig stresses the importance of responding to the need for faculty training with workshops tailored to meet the needs of the high school teachers.

Ed Kult, director of the Social Service Program at Creighton Prep, Omaha, says, “We try to take as much of the time load off as possible. That means development as well as management. We provide as much information and assistance as possible to teachers who are getting involved. We set up placements for them. That can really make a difference.”

Barbara Gardner, director of the Joint Educational Project at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, repeats the same refrain in a slightly different key. “Remember that teachers are overworked. If they don’t publish, they languish professionally. So, take away the nitty gritty stuff that wastes their time. They don’t have time to be administrators. That’s what we’re here for.”

Gardner’s view raises a salient point. Barbara Keller, director of the Community Action Program at Niagara University, Niagara Falls, New York, says, “Looking at the areas that contribute to professional faculty growth, research is often emphasized. The service-learning office can assist faculty members in finding a research population for study in a variety of disciplines: health care or social service for all ages from infants to elderly. The service-learning office might even assist a professor in making a grant application for a specific project.”

Patty Brandt, a graduate student working with the UYA program at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, emphasizes that a service-learning program can be a great opportunity for a faculty member. “We keep track of people’s pet research topics. That way, we can approach them when there are field placements relevant to their interests. Or, we can try to find field activities that will match what a faculty member is working on.”

In that way, teachers supervising students in field placements can use the opportunity of the student’s work for their own research. Gardner of USC adds cautionary words. “We don’t allow students just to go out as observers to report back to a faculty member doing research. There has to be a social benefit.”

High School Variations. Because the professional life of high school teachers is different from that of college teachers, incentives are of a somewhat different nature. Research and publishing are not major considerations for the majority of high school teachers, although they may be somewhat more important to teachers in groundbreaking, innovative service-learning programs.

High school teachers are at least as overworked as those in college, and so are at least as likely to be impressed by the notion of being relieved of their paperwork. Gilbert spoke for the Haverford Township program and many others when she said, “One of the biggest things that a centrally run program can do is minimize the paperwork.”

Rejuvenation

Some of the most effective incentives may be the least tangible ones. Whereas a good many college teachers, intent on research and publishing, would jump at the chance to be relieved of administrative tasks, the opportunity to dive into administration may be exactly what a high school teacher wants. To escape the routine of the classroom and make contact with the community can be a bracing tonic for high school faculty, not to mention an opportunity to write a new section in a resume and possibly move on to become an administrator. Gilbert says, “The work of the students connects the community to the school. Teachers can’t help but be favorably affected by that as well.”

Cheryl Willett, who directed a service-learning program that involves every department in two Livonia, Michigan, high schools, says, “Teachers are looking for rejuvenation. For people who have been teaching for 10 years or more, there is very often a need to bring the process back to life, to make it fresh and stimulating again. Teachers who might have been unsure about getting involved can see that service-learning has that effect—
it reawakens them to the purpose of teaching."

That seems to be the crux of the issue in getting faculty involved in service-learning. The innate qualities of service-learning, once made clear to the receptive, committed teacher, stand a better chance of swaying that teacher than all the prerequisites in the world. Service-learning educators overwhelmingly concur that service-learning sells itself because of its distinctive appeal to those teachers who see it as a way to vitalize education and serve society.

In discussing the Virginia Program, Little says, "The faculty who get involved have a value system that is aligned with service-learning; they are student oriented; they feel that knowledge should be useful and that it should have an ethical construct to it." Most conscientious teachers have a strong moral sense, want to be forces for good, and usually get their satisfaction on a deferred basis. They subsist on the belief that, by being morally constructive influences, they are turning out students who may someday contribute to the betterment of society.

But service-learning provides instant gratification for that need to do socially useful work. Payment comes in the form of seeing an immediate good for society. As Little says, "Let's face it, money is tight, so for the most part, extra involvement just comes out of a teacher's hide."

At USC, Gardner concurs. "Those who are seriously committed don't do it for money. And we don't pay people to participate, because then if you lose the money, you lose their participation."

Because of the current of altruism that runs through teacher participation, seeing the demonstrable benefit becomes an incentive for a teacher to push on. In fact, it's worth encouraging field site supervisors to express their appreciation openly from time to time. Any time that appreciation becomes formalized into a testimonial that enhances the teacher's status with the school, so much the better.

The aura of good feeling that surrounds a learning program with a service component affects the students who get involved also. Teachers should be made aware of the enthusiasm that service programs generate in students, and of the infallible radar that students have for relevance. Service-learning can generate a great commitment in students—sometimes when nothing else will. Willett describes a service-learning social studies class in Livonia that has a high percentage of truant, delinquent, and otherwise trouble-some students. "They may skip every other class they've got, but when it comes to that one, they're there every day."

**Maintaining Enthusiasm**

Initial enthusiasm or incentives may carry faculty into a program in its early stages. But for participation to continue, teachers need to receive nourishment along the way. Some of that support is part and parcel of service-learning and the dynamic that it creates—it comes with the territory. Other kinds of encouragement can be supplied by a program coordinator in order to keep enthusiasm high, and make a good program better.

Recognition—from the institution, the media, or the community—is something that gives teachers a special boost. "Tangible recognition means a lot to faculty members, for their ego, their sense of importance, and possibly their career," says Barbara Gardner. That might mean helping a teacher beat the bushes to find a publisher for an article or monograph about service-learning (an effort that can only benefit the program as a whole while it helps the teacher). It might mean trying to place stories with the local press about what teachers are doing, as Willett did in Livonia. Or it might mean publishing a newsletter, as Craig does in Miami. The purpose is not only to publicize the program but also to give credit where credit is due for the outstanding work of participants.

Most program coordinators who reflect on the issue of faculty support or faculty incentives run through the list of things that can be done and end in dwelling on the dimension that, more than anything else, seems to keep teachers going in service-learning.

Cheryl Willett's experience is indicative of how service-learning can have a self-renewing effect on faculty. When Stephenson High School first embarked on a campaign to introduce service-learning into every part of the curriculum, it faced the problem of dealing with a faculty that suffered from bad morale. With enrollments shrinking and faculty being laid off, most teachers initially were uninterested in a new, centrally managed program that was going to bring new people into the curriculum process.

As Willett and the coordinators—running a sustained awareness campaign and teacher-controlled inservice workshops—convinced more and more teachers of what service-learning could do for their students and the community, the teachers also began to see what service-learning could do for them. Willett recalls, "Some teachers never used to get out of their own department offices. With this program, they met faculty from other academic areas in discussions about curriculum. It was very energizing for them to have a dialogue about academics with people that they may never have talked with before. The program gives them stimulating experiences, just like it does the students. Community service attracts some pretty dynamic individuals; our teachers now get to meet and talk with those people. We have had some of those dynamic community leaders in to the school to speak. It gives all of us a shot of enthusiasm. Sometimes the presence of those people even attracts the press, which reflects well on the teacher that initiated the visit."

"When teachers first get involved, sometimes they start with a very modest kind of activity, like a little tutoring program or something. But as they move along, they get more confident. They try something more ambitious. They start making community contacts and building their own networks of associations. In the midst of that, they suddenly become aware of their own development. Service-learning creates an atmosphere that makes them think that way. And when teachers feel that they themselves are progressing and growing, they keep their enthusiasm. They want to keep going."

□
In the winter of 1978, Maria Torres, a former truant and a resident in a drug rehabilitation unit, was a Middle College High School sophomore. During the great snowstorms that closed all public schools for days at a time, Maria continued to report as scheduled for her full-time internship as a nurse’s aid in a pediatric care unit. The hospital’s director of volunteers wrote the school praising Maria’s outstanding performance under conditions that kept many regular hospital personnel at home. Middle College faculty wondered what had motivated this former truant and drug user to travel several miles to the hospital each snowy day. To her the answer was self-evident: “But if I wasn’t there, who would have fed the babies?”

Maria Torres (a pseudonym) represents the class of troubled students who entered Middle College High School on the campus of LaGuardia Community College (part of the City University of New York) three years ago, graduated last June, and are now college students. Contrasted with the distressing rate of failure for most groups of troubled urban youths, the success rate of these former low achievers has been astounding. For example, within the last year New York and Chicago have reported dropout rates among high school students of 46 percent and 54 percent respectively. Middle College, with all high-risk students, recorded a dropout rate of only 14.5 percent.

Middle College average daily attendance rates—84.5 percent last year—also are encouraging. New York’s overall daily attendance was approximately 79 percent. While New York City claims that 80 percent of its high school graduates are accepted into college, 85 percent of Middle College’s graduates—all marked as potential dropouts in junior high—are accepted into college.

To what factors can such success be attributed? What makes Maria’s story turn out so differently from those of so many of her friends? Perhaps the place to
begin is with Middle College’s unusual focus and student body.

**To Reduce Dropout Rates**

LaGuardia Middle College High School is a public alternative senior high school on a college campus. Aimed at creating a continuum between the high school years and the college years, the program features flexible pacing, broad curriculum options, service-oriented career education with required internships for all students, and a college environment. The underlying educational philosophy is the psychosocial truism that 15-year-olds (the tenth grade students) have more in common with the 20-year-olds than with the 12-year-olds and should be allowed to make their own educational choices.

The concept was developed to solve some of the academic problems that the City University faces in its underprepared students. During the planning from 1972 to 1974 (funded by the Carnegie Corporation and the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education), the intent was to design a school that would reduce the urban dropout rate, prepare students more efficiently for work or college, and attract more students to higher education. To facilitate administration and to guarantee financial support, the school became a joint responsibility of the Board of Education and the Board of Higher Education of New York City, an unusual cooperative effort. In 1974 the school admitted 125 students to the tenth grade. The current enrollment is approximately 450 students.

To minimize students’ adjustment problems, the program began much like a traditional high school. As the school developed its own identity, the Middle College expanded its innovative program and fully integrated a cooperative education model featuring community service as its principal component, a development that proved critical to the school’s success.

Students from Queens come to Middle College voluntarily and with parental permission after local junior high schools have identified them as probable dropouts. Current Middle College students interview all potential students and vote on their admission. Students or their families, 78 percent of whom are on public assistance, seek out the Middle College because the adolescents have not been successful as students. Their failure comes from a variety of causes, including alcoholism, drug abuse, school phobia, emotional instability, or poor academic skills.

Whatever their predisposition, the students come to Middle College with a markedly poor self-image, anger at the system, and a reservoir of resentment toward authority figures.

**A Service Sequence Solution**

It was evident to the planners that the ideal would be to make the school a more significant part of the students’ lives while at the same time making their lives more meaningful. The planners decided to direct the students and the school toward the community through an internship program that would prepare each student, once a year, to engage in an experiential learning activity, typically in an area of community service. The planners modified a cooperative education model used successfully by LaGuardia Community College for a similar type of student.

Because of the students’ backgrounds, turning them over to one of the major volunteer coordinating agencies seemed inadvisable. More than most students, these teenagers needed careful preparation for their out-of-school experiences, and careful monitoring while in the field. Now a combination of in-house career education courses and out-of-house field experiences results in Middle College students—all 450 of them—contributing more than 100,000 hours of community service each year.

The goals of the internship program are manifold, but the program’s objectives for the student are to do the following:

- Develop process skills and knowledge of self so that realistic career and life goals can be defined and refined through reality testing.
- Develop educational plans based on the need to acquire academic and vocational skills necessary to achieve career and life goals.
- Develop a realistic sense of positive self-esteem.

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• Develop job acquisition skills (e.g., resume writing, interview techniques, and development of useful references).
• Expose them to the protocols of the world of work and develop and appropriately apply coping skills in the work place.
• Integrate the experiences and skills developed in the Middle College career education program with the goals of the LaGuardia Community College cooperative education program.
• Understand the complex interdependencies of communities, agencies, and individuals.

How do Middle College students achieve these objectives? Examining the sequence of courses and experiences required of Middle College students helps to understand the process.

Each Middle College student spends three years (tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades) in the school, with each year divided into three trimesters or cycles. The sequence of in-school study and out-of-school full- or part-time internships in the community for the typical student is illustrated below.

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One of the great strengths of the Middle College model is that each student is assigned immediately to a career education supervisor who maintains a close relationship, both as teacher and counselor, with that student over the next three years. The same faculty person serves as the student’s teacher of career education courses, internship monitor, seminar leader, and career education counselor. This relationship binds together all the programmatic elements of the sequence, while at the same time establishing the mutually trusting relationship that it is essential to maintain with troubled adolescents. Teachers also find this system professionally and personally satisfying. Middle College has no trouble retaining teachers.

The First Internship

During the fall and winter of the tenth year students take a two-cycle course called Personal and Career Development (PCD). The first cycle of PCD is devoted to the theme of personal identity. The second cycle concentrates on preparing students for the first internship. The objectives of the PCD sequence are to help students, through a variety of in-class activities, to:
• Identify important values;
• Clarify attitudes toward work;
• Make observations about their relationships with others, including their family and peers;
• Identify and examine personal strengths and weaknesses;
• Examine their place in their environment (school, neighborhood, community, city, and worksite);
• Learn the skills needed for internship acquisition.

Sometimes the changes in students as they prepare for their first internship can be astounding, especially to their parents. One parent insisted on seeing the principal to congratulate the school for bringing about a transformation in her son. It seemed that the parents and the boy, a notoriously grumpy dresser, were discussing appropriate gifts for his upcoming birthday. He insisted that only one gift would satisfy him, and then only if he could get it three weeks early. He explained that he just had to have a suit to wear on his internship interview! (The suit was purchased; the boy got the internship.)

Students can select internships from...
three major categories: human services, business technology, and liberal arts and sciences (see Sample Internship Descriptions). Generally speaking, internships are unpaid, but students do receive credit towards their high school diploma. These internships are in a variety of governmental agencies and institutions, nonprofit community agencies, and occasionally businesses.

The range of services that the students provide within just one agency is shown in the report of Beth Margolis, coordinator for the Victim Services Agency, on the students’ contribution to that agency. “Although student interns frequently require so much attention and training that it is not worth having them work for us—this has not been the case with Middle College Interns. The Middle College Internship Program has enabled VSA to supplement its services. Without the assistance of the interns, VSA would not be able to provide as extensive an array of services as we currently offer. The interns have provided particularly valuable assistance in witness management, i.e. finding out correct court information, notifying ADAs of complaining witnesses’ presence and escorting complaining witnesses to court. This has allowed the staff as a whole—interns included—to spend more time interviewing complainants and helping them with their court-related problems and social service needs. In addition, the interns have been a great help in sending out disposition letters to complainants which explain the final outcome of their case. Without the assistance of the interns, VSA would not be able to provide this service.”

The majority of Middle College students have full-time internships; a significant minority have part-time internships. The student and the career education supervisor decide which it will be according to the student’s readiness and competence in basic skills.

Students with deficiencies in basic skills participate in part-time internships, receiving remedial instruction in the early morning before going to their internship site.

Additionally, classes typically taught in sequential fashion have been redesigned, when feasible, along thematically coherent patterns. For example, American Studies, a year-long course that had been taught through a chronological approach, has been refashioned into three distinct, nonsequential, cycle-long classes. The new courses, titled Government and the Constitution, Cultural Pluralism, and American Foreign Policy, can be taken in any sequence, smoothing the way for the student who will be interrupting formal academic study with experiential learning.

In order to facilitate individual attention and to cope with significant skills

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**Sample Internship Descriptions**

**Human Services**

**Ridgewood Bushwick Senior Citizens Council**

319 Stanhope Street

Brooklyn, NY 11237

**Social Worker Aide.** This intern will learn about the programs and services provided by the Center and other agencies and assist the social worker(s) in various Center functions. The focus will be on the homebound, with the intern serving as a connection between the homebound individual and the outside world. The intern may help to provide services to those in need of assistance through our Center. This will include working with the “Meals On Wheels” program which will require the intern to work in the kitchen and assist in the preparation and delivery of lunches. This experience will enable the intern to be in close contact with the program and its participants and gain an awareness of their needs on a one-to-one basis. The intern may also help with information and referrals, T.R.S., (telephone reassurance service—intern will make periodic calls to the homebound to chat with them), and make home visits. Often surveys are taken and the intern may assist in gathering data from the homebound/elderly population concerning status and needs of the community.

The program offers a wide variety of interests to the student intern. There is enough flexibility to allow workers a good chance for occupational and educational growth. (numbers open)

**New York Foundling Hospital**

Seton Day Care Center

1175 Third Ave., Manhattan

**Day Care Student Helper.** Intern needed to work with young children from age 18 months to three years in a day care center run by the Foundling Hospital for working parents who live or work in the area. Intern will assist regular staff members to perform a number of tasks, including working with individual children (holding, playing, reading, diapering and changing). Intern will also be called upon to help with cleanup, changing sheets, making bottles, answering phone, making materials, and running errands. The intern will be a Big Sister or Big Brother and is part of the “family” for these children. The children are not orphans but spend a full day in this family atmosphere. Intern must be warm, friendly, willing to learn and observe, respectful, dependable and interested in exploring his/her own career in early childhood education. (2 interns needed.)
Business Technology
City Hospital at Elmhurst

Clerical Clinic. Clerical positions open in a variety of clinics in this large city hospital. Each position would include filing hospital records for medical use, answering phones, making appointments for patients, running errands throughout the hospital, escorting patients, preparing important charts for the doctors’ information about patients, filing important X-rays. Excellent opportunity for both medical and secretarial interests. A TB and blood test are necessary and can be taken at the hospital. Application and working papers necessary. (numbers open)

Liberal Arts and Sciences
District #24
67-54 89th Street
Middle Village

Photographer’s Assistant. Intern needed to work with a new and exciting project in District #24. Intern would work 2 days per week under the direct supervision of a professional photographer at the district office helping to work with groups of students grades 9 through 12 in a workshop photography workshop. Intern would work with small groups of students either in a darkroom or in a workshop classroom. One day per week the student would be responsible for developing film, printing, enlarging prints, etc., in the darkroom. These activities are important follow-up procedures for the student workshops. During this one day the intern will also work on bulletin board displays related to the workshop. Intern would be responsible for ordering supplies, setting up and taking care of equipment, mailing of materials and sign printing. On-the-job training will be provided in all activities. The fourth day the intern will travel through the district to help handle publicity assignments for the district office. Student will be responsible for expensive equipment and must be reliable and self-directed (able to work on their own). Special time 8:30 to 2:30, (two openings)

deficits, Middle College classes are smaller than those typically found in urban high schools. Regular classes have a maximum enrollment of 27 students, and remedial classes have a limit of 15 students per class.

Second and Third Internships
For tenth year students, the internship selection process is still relatively informal and intuitive, guided sensitively by the career education supervisor. To lay the groundwork for a more rigorous selection process, in the fall eleventh graders take a course called Decisionmaking. Objectives include understanding the relationship between decisions and outcomes, translating values into objectives, identifying strengths and weaknesses, relating values and objectives to a career choice, identifying and using information sources, and setting objectives for the second internship.

Taught by a career education supervisor, the course emphasizes a rational decisionmaking process and gives students the opportunity to examine closely, in light of their first internship experience, their personal strengths and weaknesses, aspirations and fears, and skills and potentials. Students may decide to explore a new career cluster area or to delve more deeply into the same area as the first internship. After the second internship, students meet individually with their career education supervisors to select the senior internship.

The internships and concurrent weekly seminars led by career education supervisors help students design a career action plan that almost always includes post-secondary education or training.

During the first internship seminars focus on work values, job satisfaction, and elementary coping skills. The seminars for the second internship stress the application of decisionmaking skills at the worksite, particularly in relation to interpersonal relationships.

In the senior seminars the student draws together insights and skills into a design for the future.

The success of Middle College’s troubled population may be attributed to several elements in the internship program’s design:
- The three-year relationship maintained between individual students and their career education supervisors;
- The careful placement of youngsters in work environments that provide not only interesting work tasks but also coworkers and supervisors with whom students can interact positively;
- Close on-site monitoring of the students by the career education supervisors;
- The staff’s careful development of learning sites through assessing their climate and needs and communicating to them the school’s goals;

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• The reinforcement in seminars of the concepts acquired by students in and out of the classroom;
• The integral nature of the experiential and academic learning, with each reinforcing and giving purpose to the other;
• The careful fit of the internship with the psychosocial needs of students to provide a source of purposefulness, pride, and self-worth and an external affirmation of the students' ability to function in a world previously perceived as unrewarding, hostile, and uncar ing.

Advantages of College Affiliation

A major factor in the success of the Middle College career education program has been the use of resources of the college, which has been concerned about the educational needs of the community as a whole and not just those of traditional college students. Middle College students are fully participating members of the college community, with all its privileges and responsibilities (including compliance with the college code of student conduct).

Incorporating a high school program into a college environment has administrative, instructional, environmental, curricular, and educational advantages that benefit the students, the staff, and the college.

The college's Student Services Office works closely with the Middle College to develop approaches to meeting the needs of troubled students, and the college's Office of Health Services provides health counseling and emergency medical aid.

The aim of the articulated model was to show potential dropouts that they could make it by providing visible peer models. Through the college's Student Services Division college students do peer counseling of high school students in groups and help the younger students acquire training in microcounseling techniques to work with their own peers.

Careful evaluation of the program has uncovered intangible benefits derived from affiliation with the college administration, the president, and the faculty. Tangible rewards accrue in a Hawthorne effect, identification with a successful institution, a bigger recruitment pool for faculty, casual exchanges between faculties of both institutions, and better and more expanded use of facilities.

From an administrative viewpoint, Middle College benefits from sharing the college's space and equipment, including a gym, theatre, a well equipped audio-visual studio, library, word processing equipment, science labs, and two remedial labs.

Incorporating a high school program into a college environment has administrative, instructional, environmental, curricular, and educational advantages that benefit the students, the staff, and the college.

Another important benefit is the opportunity for high school students to take college classes, receiving simultaneous high school and college credit. Middle College students select their own classes, with help from teacher-counselors, from a catalog of the high school and college courses. The opportunity to take college courses is a motivating factor, and their successful completion can shorten the educational process by a year.

As part of the college's curriculum, college faculty teach transitional courses for high school credit so that students can become accustomed to college-style instruction. These courses then can be followed by actual college courses. (The high school teachers also have the chance to teach college courses.) For students who in junior high school never considered high school graduation a realistic possibility, being exposed to college work is a rare opportunity. The experience enhances the sense of self-worth and prestige that accrues to Middle College students just from being members of the college community.

The staffs profit from the new relationship also. Through sharing responsibilities, educators at both levels, usually separated by an artificial educational demarcation, find opportunities to learn about each other. Administrators seek out opportunities to cooperate through sharing facilities and selective use of human resources. College faculty use what they learn about the kinds of preparation students are receiving in high school for college course development. In addition, these relationships facilitate procuring grants that allow for program refinement and enrichment.

The high school students provide a laboratory in which various ideas may be tested. For example, students' opinions are sought regarding college brochures, freshman orientation, and new curricular plans. They, and their families, also form a new potential student population.

Replication Questions

In a recent report entitled Giving Youth a Better Chance (see "Youth Through the Looking Glass," by William Ramsay, Synergist, Fall 1980, page 50), the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education recommended that future urban high schools have smaller enrollments, more formal linkage with postsecondary institutions, and a focused experiential career education program. As a prototype of such future schools, Middle College has encountered and resolved many of the difficult issues that arise in the design and implementation of a career education program based on service-learning for a high school for troubled, underachieving youths. Others who wish to replicate any or all of the Middle College design may want to consider the
following questions in light of the Middle College High School experience.

Can the student be a point of departure? Student needs in the psychosocial adjustment area and in subject matter and basic skills must be the starting point for any program design.

Is community service an option or mandate? Students must be given meaningful choices if experiences are to be meaningful. Our experience, however, has shown that many of our students are frightened by the thought of confronting the real world of work. We advise mandating a community service experience but allowing maximum student participation in decisionmaking from the widest possible range of options.

Can troubled students be trusted? Yes, but . . . don’t expect that students can be thrust out into a culture much different from their own without the proper transition period and training. For this reason, we created the PCD and Decisionmaking classes, the seminars, and the longitudinal student/career education supervisor relationship. Placing a student in a service-learning situation is not in and of itself sufficient to guarantee success.

How do you select internships? Student placement must involve a careful evaluation of the placement’s climate, personnel, and needs, as well as the abilities, personality, and motivation of the sometimes troubled student. Once again, the career education supervisor plays a crucial role in this evaluative guidance process.

How about creature comforts, rights, and privileges? Any program design must take into account such items as transportation to and from internship sites, the obligation to provide free or reduced cost lunches and breakfasts to eligible students, and the responsibility to protect their legal rights to a healthy and wholesome working environment. One untoward incident can doom an otherwise exemplary program.

How do you accomplish agency feedback? It is essential that avenues for formal and informal community service agency feedback be provided not only about the students who are placed with the agencies but also about the overall relationship that agencies have with the school’s internship program. Often an annual meeting with groups of supervisors from placement sites provides insights from the agencies’ perspectives that might go unconsidered otherwise.

What about crisis intervention? Expect success but make contingency plans for the failures that will happen. Students and agency people often can be encouraged to work things out, but sometimes this is not the case. Have options available for students, either in-school or suitable field placements if possible. Don’t neglect to evaluate carefully the causes of the breakdown and to guide the future placements according to the crisis experience.

What is the parents’ role? Parents will naturally have many questions about a program in service-learning. Some grow out of cultural factors, others out of well-founded concerns for safety in the urban environment. Address these issues head on; if your program has been carefully designed, these needs should have been planned for in any case. Communicate frequently with parents through orientations, individual conferences, and written progress reports. Parents can be a tremendous source of support for a program. Often they will provide leads to new sources of internships. Don’t neglect their role and significance.

The Middle College High School of LaGuardia Community College is an important experiment in urban education. As a prototype for schools of the future it is perhaps important in an historical sense. Its greatest value, however, lies in its significance to its students and its community today.

The best verification comes from agencies working in the community. From a city council member, the comment is: [Richard and Susy] “have matured from this experience. They have gained confidence in dealing with coworkers and in maneuvering through a bureaucracy. Also they have learned about neighborhoods outside of their own.”

From the director of a school for the deaf: “Vilma worked hard and was conscientious performing the tasks assigned to her. At the end (of her internship) Vilma was becoming more independent and was demonstrating greater initiative in both the completion of assigned tasks and in following through on tasks she saw needed to be done.”

From the director of the Department of Consumer Affairs: “The students learn concepts which cannot be taught in the classroom. They learn the importance of reliability, dependability, and responsibility in their roles . . . The students quickly develop a working knowledge of City, State and Federal Consumer Laws. Consumers depend on the students . . . to seek resolutions to their complaints.”

Clearly service-learning has special value for the community and troubled disadvantaged urban youth; it capitalizes on their search for identity, their latent idealism, and their need for affirmation of their roles as responsible, respected adults.

For more information or to make arrangements to observe the program, please contact Arthur Greenberg, Middle College High School, Fiorello H. LaGuardia Community College, 31-10 Thomson Avenue, Long Island City, New York 11101; (212) 626-8396.
Nurturing Service-Learners by John S. Duley

If service-learning is to be effective, students must become initiators rather than passivists and faculty members facilitators rather than disseminators.

What service-learning and other experiential education courses does the college offer? What are their educational goals? What needs to be done to make them better for the students, the community, and the faculty? These were the general questions the Learning and Evaluation Services sought to answer by conducting a survey of current practices in the design and management of experiential education courses at Michigan State University, East Lansing, in 1978. The results showed a rapid growth in such courses and a lack of proper preparation for the new roles that these courses demand of both faculty members and students.

Findings and Followup
In addition to discovering an almost 100 percent increase in four years in the number of experiential education courses for undergraduates (from 53 to 103 courses), the survey found that all of the undergraduate colleges except one provided at least one service-learning opportunity. In 1976–77, approximately 6,400 undergraduates were involved in these 103 courses, which were characterized as follows:

- 56 percent were part of preprofessional programs;
- 18 percent were part of research or independent study programs;
- 49 percent were required for graduation;
- 68 utilized part-time field placements;
- 83 percent did not provide any compensation for students;
- 27 percent were part of programs permitting students to earn 10 to 15 credits per term.

The survey found the educational goals of the respondents to be as follows:

- 83 percent ranked “apply theory in practice” 1 or 2;
- 84 percent ranked “acquire specific skills” 1, 2, or 3;
- 82 percent ranked “increase personal growth and development” 1, 2, 3, or 4;
- 69 percent ranked “acquire specific knowledge” 1, 2, 3, or 4;
- 84 percent ranked “learning how to learn” 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5.

Most of the data for this study were gathered through personal interviews that concluded with two open-ended questions: “What are the policy issues and concerns that need to be dealt with to make your work easier and the course better?” and “What do we need to be working on together during the next year or two?” In response to these questions, 10 faculty members indicated that better preparation of students for learning while in the field was a significant need. Not only was no preparation offered or required in 20 percent of the programs, but several faculty felt some inadequacy in their own efforts at preparing students. Because many of the 103 courses involve fewer than 10 students each a term and because 41 percent of the faculty who provide these courses do so without compensation or reduction in load, in many cases it is difficult to develop and offer adequate preparation.

With the need clear, six faculty members submitted a proposal to MSU’s Educational Development Program and received a grant enabling them to design and develop a set of learning modules that could be used either independently by individual students or by faculty members.

John S. Duley is an associate professor, Learning and Evaluation Services, Michigan State University, East Lansing. He has written extensively on experiential education.
as the basis for a preparation seminar. It took a year to identify and describe the skills and then write and field test the modules. During the second academic year the six modules, which are a step-by-step guide to creative problem solving, were modified and edited for publication under the title Field Experience; Expanding Your Options (see accompanying box on this page).

A Radical Shift

The faculty members who developed the modules felt strongly that students must make a radical shift from the behaviors and attitudes that work well for most of them in a "schooling" environment if they are to make a good educational use of the field experience. Since superior performance in the classroom can be, as often is, built upon attitudes of docility, compliance, and dependence and because in most field placement situations the student has far greater control over educational activities than in the classroom, the students need to be prepared to assume the initiative and to take charge of their own learning.

For instance, in the required service-learning/career exploration/cross-cultural term in MSU's Justin Morrill College, students were following the general rule of thumb most of us follow in a strange social environment. They were standing back from things a bit, following a wait-and-see policy, responding selectively to what happened rather than taking the initiative and starting a chain reaction. They did this not only from force of habit but also from inertia, shyness, and an unwillingness to run the emotional risks involved in assuming the initiative and engaging actively in inquiry and interaction.

To prepare them to assume the initiative and be active, the faculty redesigned the preparation seminar to put students in situations that were microcosms of their upcoming field experience and to structure the experiences so they would learn how to learn on their own. The students either were dropped off individually for a day in small towns (500 to 5,000 population) and told to learn what they needed to know to understand that community, or were given the address of a public service agency and told to find it using public transportation and to learn as much as they could by spending three hours in the agency observing the interaction of clients and the agency staff in the public areas and talking with clients. They were to undertake the visit trying to imagine what it would be like to seek help from the agency as a minority head of a single-parent family who does not understand English well.

The other distinctive features of that preparation seminar included observation and recording exercises, practice in self-assessment of skill and personal development, the use of individual learning contracts, group interaction, and staff-student conferences.

New Roles for Students

This type of preparation is necessary because the roles students are expected to perform in service-learning are very different from those they are accustomed to.
in doing superior classroom work. The roles that students need to be ready to play but may not have had experience with in school include the following (published originally by the author in "Field Experience Education," a chapter of On College Teaching, edited by O. Milton. San Francisco; Jossey-Bass, 1978).

Initiator—identifies, seeks, finds, and secures the help and cooperation needed, often in an alien context.

Decisionmaker—functions in an open system, defining and solving the problems as they arise and, in the course of carrying out the project, making decisions that affect the student’s life and the personal lives of others.

Strategist—understands the cultural context in which work is being done well enough to function effectively in it.

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For learning to take place, students must reflect, must speculate about the alternative meanings of what has been seen, felt, or experienced.

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Interactor—relates effectively with faculty supervisor, coworkers, clients, or customers, and is able to stay in touch with them and work through emotionally difficult relationships.

Information source and network developer—develops personal information sources instead of relying on those provided by an instructor.

Free agent—functions independently in a support system where rewards are given for workable solutions to particular and often unforeseen problems rather than for predetermined correct answers to set problems, and in an unstructured setting without the classroom support system of assignment, syllabi, and tests.

Value clarifier—makes value judgments in arriving at these workable (compromise) solutions or decisions that would not be expected in classroom work.

Communicator—communicates effectively through the spoken and written word and through listening and reading non-verbal communication and is able to be emotionally involved in interpersonal interaction.

Recipient—receives and uses criticism constructively.

When comparing these role descriptions with the usual classroom experience, a significant contrast emerges. For most students, the classroom is a familiar environment in which all the needed information is provided in lectures and the textbook or through the reserve shelf in the library. The problems that are assigned in the course usually have predetermined correct answers, and neither the problems nor their solutions impinge directly on the student’s life or the lives of others. In coursework, students have little need to develop interpersonal skills or to learn to work through emotionally difficult relationships. The payoff of the classroom-based course is in grades and credits earned for getting the predetermined work done well and on time. Classroom-related learning places a high value on objectivity and emotional detachment as opposed to active, personal involvement.

Forward to Basics

Since the nature of the learning experience in a service setting often stands in sharp contrast to classroom learning, students—for the sake of those served as well as themselves—need to develop competence in four basic skills.

Observation and recording. Most students have not had much opportunity to develop accurate observation and recording skills. Their tendency in recording events is not to record the facts—what they see, observe, or experience—but to record their impressions. When asked to describe a village in which they have spent the day, students are likely to write that it was a quiet, friendly, pleasant village rather than to give the facts and allow the readers to draw their own conclusions. The ability to record accurate observations is a skill needed in every conceivable type of service-learning program.

Reflection. Accuracy in recording observations is not enough. For learning to take place, students must reflect, must speculate about the alternative meanings of what has been seen, felt, or experienced. We live in an action-oriented, highly stimulating, visual society that does not reward or encourage reflection. We are rewarded for keeping busy and for doing things; to sit and think about something or to reflect on the meaning of things is alien to our activist culture. Is it any wonder that students often have difficulty in imagining alternative meanings for what they have experienced or observed? They have had little opportunity to develop the capacity for reflection.

Gathering information orally. Students need help in developing this skill. In the past they have depended almost entirely on print and visual sources of information that have been provided by a teacher. In most courses the teacher gives students a

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Resources


Individualized Education Through Contract Learning, by Neal Bertie, et al. (1975, 186 pp., $13.95), University, Alabama: The University of Alabama Press (Drawer 2877, University, Alabama 35486).

Student Competencies Guide: Survival Skills for a Changing World (1977, 44 pp., $2.75), Portland: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (710 S. W. Avenue, Portland, Oregon 97204).

Student Guide to Writing a Journal (1977, 16 pp., $2.25), Portland: Northwest Regional Laboratory.

text and a bibliography of readings conveniently placed on the reserved shelf in the library.

If students are to gather information on their own, it is necessary for them to learn the skills related to information source development. In most situations in which one is trying to gather information, it is necessary to phrase and ask the questions in a manner that invites elaboration and not simply yes or no answers.

A second subskill in gathering information orally is listening, which includes the ability to restate what is heard in order to make sure it has been understood correctly. In addition, other information source network development skills are needed. These include such things as asking for suggestions of other possible contacts and being able to identify appropriate and key informants in unfamiliar social environments, and knowing where to turn for information.

Value clarification. Most students in the 18- to 22-year-old category have inherited their values from their parents and the social environment in which they have grown up. They have not as yet made these values their own. This is, in fact, part of the process of becoming aware of the values that form their behavior, evaluating their appropriateness for their present stage in life, and determining whether or not they wish to continue to place emphasis and priority on these values.

This process of identifying and clarifying one's own values is related to many dimensions of experiential learning. It is related to cultural and environmental understanding. You have to know your own values before you can compare them with those of other people. It is often in cross-cultural or strange environmental circumstances that students become aware of their own values because of the contrast between what they believe to be important and what those with whom they work or live value. Clarification of values is also very important for self-understanding, decisionmaking, problem solving, and effective functioning in task-oriented placements.

### Continuum of Pedagogical Styles in Experiential Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty Role</th>
<th>Student Role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disseminator and evaluator</td>
<td>Assimilate information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor and evaluator</td>
<td>Apply knowledge and skill under supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor and evaluator</td>
<td>Receive instruction, observe demonstration, practice under close supervision in worksite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleague (with) mutual involvement and evaluator</td>
<td>Participate jointly with faculty in research, study, or action projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designer or identifier of learning environment and evaluator</td>
<td>Apply knowledge and skill in simulations, role play or field placement and analyze experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultant, adviser, and evaluator</td>
<td>Design and carry out learning plan for research, independent study or action projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator, trainer, evaluator</td>
<td>Develop self-understanding, awareness, interpersonal skills or knowledge of transferable skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource person and evaluator</td>
<td>Conscious effort to apply experiential learning theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluator</td>
<td>Action, reflection, documentation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The learner's role shifts from a dependent and passive one to one of greater independence and activeness.

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**One of the difficulties confronting teachers who try to prepare students adequately for learning through service is that faculty members require different skills from those they are accustomed to using in the classroom.**

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**New Roles for Faculty**

One of the difficulties confronting teachers who try to prepare students adequately for learning through service is that faculty members require different skills from those they are accustomed to using in the classroom. To shift some of the responsibility for the direction of the learning from the faculty member to the student, faculty members have to be willing to move from being information disseminators to becoming enablers or facilitators. The focus has to be changed from the content of a subject matter area to an interactive process of structuring experiences for students that will enable them to acquire the skills necessary to function adequately in their new roles. In the accompanying "Continuum of Pedagogical Styles in Experiential Learning" (published originally by the author in "Field Experience Education," a chapter of The Future American College, edited by Arthur Chickering, San Francisco: Jossey Bass, Inc., 1980), the styles that the faculty member needs to use in the preparation of students are those of designer, consultant, and facilitator.

It is only when both faculty members and students learn to extend themselves in ways not required—or encouraged—by traditional education that they and the community can reap the maximum benefits.
Principles of Good Practice

Service-learning educators present their views in a national discussion of what assures quality in experiential education programs.

The National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (NSIEE) is initiating a discussion to identify and describe the principles and practices that assure quality in all types of experiential education programs.

Last Spring in the Society’s newsletter, John S. Duley, an associate professor at Michigan State University, East Lansing (and author of the preceding article), opened the discussion with the following.

Let me lead off by presenting what quality assurance means from the perspective of a faculty member and invite comments and responses from members of all three groups (students, supervisors, and faculty members) within the Society. I think that to most experiential education faculty members, quality assurance means making sure that the program:

1. Provides placements in which students are given real work to do, and significant learning, professional and personal development opportunities.
2. Matches the interests, abilities, and needs of students with compatible placements.
3. Prepares the student well before departure.
4. Clearly states what learning should be accomplished.
5. Provides for a clear statement on the work expected of and the resources to be committed to the student by the receiving agency.
6. Has a process for monitoring the student’s progress and providing feedback to the student.
7. Can determine what the student has learned at the conclusion of the placement.

Synergist has asked secondary and postsecondary service-learning educators to give their views for publication here. All others who wish to make their views known are invited to send their comments to: Principles of Good Practice, National Society for Internships and Experiential Education, 1735 Eye Street, N.W., Suite 601, Washington, D.C. 20006.

I. In Postsecondary Education

by Tim Stanton and Catherine Howard

Most experiential learning programs have as their primary goal the enhancement of students’ career, academic, or psychosocial development. While appreciating the impact of students’ participation in community affairs, experiential educators value off-campus involvement as an effective means of achieving educational objectives for individual students.

Service-learning stands out within this large and varied field because its practitioners, while strongly valuing personal or educational outcomes for students, also emphasize the quality and impact of students’ efforts in the community.

It is with consideration of the consequences for communities that arise from the establishment of service-learning programs that we respond to the principles of good practice in experiential education proposed by John Duley. As former co-directors of a community agency, we agree with those principles but suggest a different emphasis in some of them to reflect the need of the community to have

Tim Stanton is director of the Field Study Office and a lecturer in human ecology in the New York State College of Human Ecology at Cornell University, Ithaca. Catherine Howard is a lecturer in human development and family studies at Cornell. In the early 1970’s they were directors of The Switching Yard, a student-community involvement center in Marin County, California. They are active members of the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education.
students complete real tasks that contribute to the work of the agency.

We offer eight principles of good practice in postsecondary service-learning. Six differ from Duley’s points only in emphasis, but two—reflection (number 6) and continuity (number 8)—are new.

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**Clarifying roles and responsibilities early on ensures the quality of the program in the eyes of the community as well as the high school or university.**

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The program provides an ongoing partnership among educators, community members, and students.

No matter how astute, sensitive, or knowledgeable practitioners may be, they must work in partnership with those to be served by a service-learning program. In order to avoid troublesome misunderstandings that easily develop in campus communities with problem-ridden town-and-gown relationships, and to ensure that the program’s service objectives are met, these partnerships must be based on mutual trust and mutual gain.

Community members and agency staff are the experts on their problems and needs. They can best determine appropriate roles for students and assess their probable impact and effect. Students are usually most knowledgeable about their individual interests and abilities and can help focus their efforts. Having served in the program, they acquire an experience-based understanding of service-learning in a particular setting and can provide invaluable assistance and consultation to a program.

Theories of community development and community organization demonstrate the importance of involving those to be served in defining the service. Effective service-learning must do no less for the students and the community, both of whom are its clients.

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The program clearly defines the roles and responsibilities of the partners: educators, students, and community members or agency staff.

Obviously at times the students’ desire for learning and personal growth may conflict with the agency’s need for work to be done. The drudgery necessary to carry out a nutrition education project may not seem educational to students or professors, but it is vitally necessary if the project is to be of value to a community. Students who are studying urban housing issues and running a recreation program in a housing project may wonder how important it is to follow through with their commitment to residents once they have learned all they feel they can about housing issues in the area. Their sponsor, the project manager, will not be much interested in these students’ academic learning, but will care deeply that the recreation program be completed. A clear definition of responsibilities and expectations from the very beginning will help to keep such conflicting needs in balance.

Students need to feel that the community understands and accepts the extent and limits of their commitment. Practitioners need to feel confident in the community’s or agency’s ability to involve them effectively and help them obtain the resources necessary to complete the assigned tasks. Community supervisors need to know that their work requirements, once agreed upon, will not be interfered with by the university or high school.

Perhaps most importantly, agency supervisors need to know what support they can expect from the school in supervising students and dealing with problems when they arise. With the recent explosion of experiential learning programs and the increasing acceptance by academe of the notion that the community is the classroom, community members’ attitudes toward educators, and particularly experiential educators, may become emblazoned. Legions of interested but ill-prepared, unsupervised, and naive students can cause more problems than they solve.

The training and supervision required to enable students to do needed and desired work tends to drain resources away from more important tasks. Community members and agency staff begin to think that they are providing students’ education when that job belongs to institutions, many of which are publicly supported.

Clarifying roles and responsibilities early on ensures the quality of the program in the eyes of the community as well as the high school or university.

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The program provides opportunities for students to do real and needed work that is desired by the host community or agency, in addition to offering significant educational, professional, and personal development opportunities.

Student internship or field placement experiences can often provide rich, varied, and intensive learning in spite of the seeming insignificance of the work accomplished. Students placed in a large human service agency may rotate from department to department observing and working with the different professional activities and learning a tremendous amount about human service delivery, a community’s problems, and their own personal and professional inclinations without doing any consequential work. Such experiences may well meet the objectives of many experiential education programs. Students’ efforts are often not needed, desired, or valued by anyone except as they are seen as a means of learning.

In our experience, service-learning and other quality experiential education programs are committed to action, not just observation. Students’ field experiences are focused on real problems and needed work. It is these activities rather than the students’ or schools’ educational objectives that provide the focus for student learning.

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The program matches the interests, abilities, and needs of students with the interests, needs, and program goals of host community or agency placements or projects.

A good match between student and project activity is crucial to ensure that both the student’s objectives and the community’s needs are met. An equal
partnership of practitioner, community member, and student requires that all three play a role in determining appropriate placements for individual students.

The reflective component in a program helps students link the two. Seminars, support group meetings, individual conferences, correspondence, reading, and writing, or some combination of these and other elements, enable student participants to step back from their field activity on a regular basis in order to truly learn from their experiences. From the agency’s point of view, a student who is involved in such activities is often a more confident and thoughtful worker than one who is not. The regular contact with a faculty member and/or other students provides support for students that they otherwise would have to get from agency staff or do without.

The program provides a continuity of service or action in selected communities or organizations.

Students come and go, but communities and agencies have needs and problems that continue. They do not operate on an academic calendar, and thus are not well served when students whose school year ends on June 1 stop volunteering at a special education program that runs until June 15. A community needing a nutrition education program is not well served when the students setting it up graduate and are not replaced. While being responsive to the changing interests, needs, and limitations of students served by their programs, practitioners must find ways to insure long-term service commitments to their community partners.

II. In Secondary Education

Who should bear the weight of responsibility for the initiation and execution of a service-learning experience? John S. Duley has written an outline of principles of good practice for experiential programs without specifically addressing this important question. We believe that an important component of a good service-learning program is promoting student initiative and personal responsibility. While it is clear that students can assume some degree of responsibility as participants in a teacher-designed project, a more meaningful opportunity for personal responsibility is presented when students initiate and design the project for themselves.

Frequently service-learning programs are organized and structured almost exclusively by the staff for the student. The staff establishes general program goals (and in some cases specific learning objectives) for the student, identifies and cultivates the agencies available for placement, and coordinates the mechanics of the program (setting schedules, arranging transportation, and so on). While staff input and direction is desirable and necessary in any program, and while the kinds of staff direction described above may increase the efficiency and smooth functioning of a program, important benefits of the service-learning program are lost when the opportunities for students to take initiative and assume personal responsibility are neglected.

Fundamental Skills

Significant learning and the development of some basic life skills can come not only from the volunteer experience itself but also from the detailed process of designing, organizing, and evaluating such an experience.

While most service-learning programs offer students some choice in their place-
ments (e.g., “Would you rather work in a nursing home or a preschool?”), such choices often give no more than a brief and superficial opportunity for decision-making by the student. Moreover, students have little opportunity for individual initiative. In a successful service-learning program, students ought to be expected to identify and articulate their own needs, abilities, and interests; to find a suitable placement that will meet those needs and use those abilities; to contact the agency and set up the placement; and to be responsible for evaluating their experience. The desirable student outcomes of a service-learning program should include what we believe to be fundamental skill development in personal initiative and responsible behavior. At the minimum a good program should challenge students’ abilities in these areas.

We have many reasons for advocating this approach. As Duley’s list suggests, a key factor in a successful program is to identify and match each student’s abilities, interests, and needs with his or her own placement. When students are actively encouraged to reflect upon, articulate, and take responsibility for their own particular needs and abilities and then are given the opportunity to find an appropriate placement for themselves, the chances for a good match are enhanced.

Another advantage is that when the project is designed by individual students, they have a more accurate perception of the opportunities the experience has to offer them and of the extent of their personal responsibilities. Similarly, when students have input in deciding what they want to learn, and how and where they will learn it, they will feel a greater commitment to their experiences; hence, they will have a more positive attitude. This increased awareness and commitment can help ensure the success of the experience. Research in other forms of experiential programs—Foxfire’s cultural journalism, Experience-Based Career Education (EBCE), and Outward Bound’s outdoor adventure education—has demonstrated that the larger the share of initiative and responsibility assumed by the learners, the greater and more personally meaningful will be their accomplishments. (See “Experiential Education: A Search for Common Roots,” by Greg Druijan, Tim Owens, and Sharon Owens, The Journal of Experiential Education, Vol. 3, No. 2, Fall, 1980.)

Another important advantage of requiring students to make their own decisions and assume a larger share of responsibility in serving the community is that doing so facilitates the accomplishment of a major goal of all secondary education: to prepare the student to deal effectively with the responsibilities of adult life. Successful adults are by necessity self-directed. For example, few authoritative figures are available to tell adults what kind of job they want or where such jobs will be found, or how to design an interview. When the student has control of and responsibility for the service-learning experience and must live with the consequences of the decisions taken, the experience closely approximates situations the student will confront as an adult.

**Administrative Advantages**

Emphasizing student initiative also has some practical advantages. By allowing students to structure their own experience, many conflicts (e.g., “I have to take care of my little brother on Tuesday afternoons.”) will be eliminated. Moreover, students and their families frequently have contacts for potential placements that go unrecognized in a program dependent upon staff resources alone. Often these contacts reach beyond the immediate school community and enable students to meet needs of which the teachers are unaware.

When the student and family participate in the decisionmaking, they are also more likely to work cooperatively on incidental problems, which include transportation, placement negotiations, and scheduling difficulties. This serves to reinforce the student’s original commitment and further improves chances for serving the community well.

In our program, Senior Seminar (see box), as few as three staff members work full time with as many as 60 students throughout the semester. When each teacher must juggle program and teaching responsibilities, it is impossible to research, contact, and arrange placements tailored for each of 60 very different individuals and personally investigate their progress. Promoting student initiative and personal responsibility, then, is beneficial from the standpoint of making the best use of scarce resources.

During the three years the Senior Seminar program has had a service-learning component emphasizing student initiative, difficulties involving student motivation, the inability of students to articulate their needs and ideas, supervision of students, and mechanical considerations have emerged, but we have achieved solutions to many of those problems.

Assuming that other secondary teachers share the dilemma of scarce time and resources to devote to a service-learning program, we believe it is important to examine the issue of what minimum set of principles are crucial to having a worthwhile, albeit imperfect, program. We regard an emphasis on the basic life skills of initiation and assumption of responsibility as one of the most essential components.

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**Senior Seminar**

Based at Mitchell High School and drawing students from all high schools in the Colorado Springs Public Schools, Senior Seminar is a semester-long program in interdisciplinary experiential education. General program goals include mastering methods for self-directed learning, effective human interaction, group problem solving, positive attitudes toward learning, improved self-concept, and increased acceptance of responsibility.

In the service project component of Senior Seminar, students must identify some area of human need in the community that they believe they can help meet and specify what meaningful learning will occur as a result.
Local agencies, students, and faculty draw on the assets of a student-run volunteer and service-learning program.

by Robert J. Falk and Marion G. Agre

As a city council member I find that much of what I learned in HRB and Students' College has made it possible for me to have a better understanding of the needs of the community and what I can do to help.''
—A former leader in the Human Resources Bank of the Students' College, who, since graduation, has become a member of the Duluth City Council

"I had heard about autism, but I finally found out what it was when I worked at Jefferson School and actually learned how to help those kids. It really takes patience."

—A freshman psychology major

"Through working in a day care center I made the decision to major in Early Child Care."

—A student who had vacillated in choosing a major

"What I learned in HRB I've been able to use in my agency, especially how to write proposals."

—A former HRB director now managing his own day care center

The program drawing these endorsements is the student-run Human Resources Bank (HRB) of the University of Minnesota, Duluth (UMD). An off-campus service program, HRB is one of the original sustaining programs of the UMD Students' College, a multidisciplinary program administratively housed in the College of Education (see accompanying item on the Students' College). In the past eight years

Robert J. Falk, associate professor of psychology, University of Minnesota, Duluth, created the Student Tutorial Project and the Students' College. Marion G. Agre, student personnel worker in the College of Education, has worked with the Students' College for seven years.
HRB has placed approximately 6,000 service-learners, most earning credit, in more than 100 agencies in Duluth (population 100,000) and throughout the country. With the students as resources for the community and the faculty as resources for the students, this unusual bank enriches students and community.

The idea for the Human Resources Bank and Students’ College was that of the senior author, a psychology professor. He had worked with undergraduate students in a tutorial program designed to help disadvantaged students and foresaw the possibility of students managing a campus-community helping program. About 10 years ago he involved groups of students from several classes in developing and writing the proposals for these programs, which began under the auspices of the University College of the University of Minnesota.

The students who manage the UMD Students’ College also operate HRB. These students, who receive credit for their work, carry out all the management functions required in any human service delivery system.

The HRB director is usually a student who has had experience as a volunteer, as an assistant in the HRB office, or as both. The director reports to the student dean of the Students’ College and serves on the Students’ College Council. The College also has a staff member trained in communications and counseling. She provides guidance to both the managers and the students who wish to work with one of the College’s programs.

Originally the Human Resources Bank had a director and a student project leader in each off-campus agency. The attention to organization in those early years was important in building a solid record of service and a community support network of satisfied customers. When an attempt was made to do away with the Students’ College by withdrawing the University’s financial support, community leaders aided students in the rescue. Students, with the help of the community, persuaded decision-making groups on campus that both community and students were benefiting. A typical student comment was, “This is the most important part of my education. I feel this has meant more to me than many if not most of my classroom experiences.”

Matching Resources and Needs

HRB provides service in a variety of situations and agencies, including those serving children, youth, adults, the aged, and probationers. Among the programs with which students have worked are: the Jefferson Elementary School program for autistic children; Indian Education on the Cloquet reservation; Sandstone Correctional Institute tutorial program for Native Americans; United Way Activity Center for adult retarded people; Hillside Day Care Center; Lighthouse for the Blind; Nat Polinsky Rehabilitation Center; the Senior Citizens Center; the Sheltered Workshop; Volunteers in Probation; Alternative Crisis Intervention; and Harmony House for former mental patients re-entering the community.

Students, the human resources, and community needs are brought together in a number of ways. Sometimes students come to the HRB office, located centrally on a well traveled corridor, and indicate the type of experience, agency, or people in which they are interested. If a student is unsure, the HRB director, assistants, or staff member will explain the opportu-

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**The Students’ College**

The Students’ College of the University of Minnesota, Duluth, began as a spinoff from the Student Tutorial Program established to provide organized tutorial help for academically disadvantaged freshmen, many of whom were first-generation college students and were minority, economically disadvantaged, and disabled persons.

The tutorial program demonstrated that students were quite capable of managing, teaching, and advising other students. The Human Resources Bank was the College’s first and largest program, and the one that has had the greatest impact on the community. Other major programs include Free Univer-City (courses taught by volunteers, including students receiving credit), the Students’ College Internship Program (credited on-campus and community internships, primarily in personnel, management, or research), and Student Problem Solvers (a small think tank working on campus problems). The Students’ College also provides credit for major groups of on-campus volunteers, including campus tour guides, orientation group leaders, undergraduate residence assistants, and teaching assistants.

Since the program is not part of any single academic discipline, it is possible to be innovative and to credit almost any experience that a student or faculty member wishes credited. The courses include the following:

- **Voluntary Service Delivery**—no credit; one hour of volunteer work per week required;
- **Human Services Delivery**—credit arranged (maximum of 15 credits) for work under faculty supervision in on- and off-campus service agencies;
- **Preparing for Human Services Delivery**—one to five credits in preparation for service-learning experiences;
- **Students’ College Management**—three to 15 credits with credit and grading negotiated with the Students’ College Council and faculty member; both a written report and seminars required;
- **Directed Research**—one to five credits with a maximum of nine for research on various aspects of Students’ College, such as program evaluation, as contracted for with the Students’ Management Council and the Faculty Advisory Group.

A student may take up to 30 credits, the equivalent of two academic quarters, in Students’ College courses. Since each student is required to have a faculty adviser, more than 200 of UMD’s 350 faculty members have been involved at one time or another.

For the students the developmental benefits are many. They include development of self, career, leadership talents, and social responsibility.

For five years the Students’ College was an experimental program of the University College of the University of Minnesota. A faculty-student administrative task force that included faculty from the Duluth and Minneapolis campuses reviewed and unanimously endorsed the program. It became a full-fledged academic program thereafter, largely because of the support of community agency leaders and faculty advisers.

Students’ College is truly a synergistic organization serving both the helpers and the persons assisted.
nities available and the skills that the agencies need. Once the student makes a decision, HRB refers the volunteer to a person in the appropriate agency.

HRB does not just sit back and wait for students to drop in. Recruiting tools include posters, banners, ads in the student newspaper, a bulletin board, contacts with faculty, an information desk in the student center, and a desk at the registration center. Some faculty members use a form of contract grading in which students can work for a part of their grade by going through HRB to serve in the community.

Since a large backlog of agencies is always interested in students, contact can be made at any time.

Once an agency accepts a student, HRB takes additional steps to be sure this will be a valuable learning experience. The student, a site supervisor, and a faculty supervisor prepare a learning contract. The faculty member is sometimes a member of a department related to the work being done by the student, but for many students, especially freshmen, the faculty member is the student’s regular academic adviser. Because of this, many faculty members have become quite familiar with HRB and have become avid supporters of it and Students’ College.

Each student is responsible for submitting to HRB a learning contract that includes the student’s objectives, procedures to be used to achieve those objectives, and indications of how it will be known that the work has been completed successfully. Occasionally the faculty supervisor will recommend reading or additional work for the student. Certain agencies require that the student go through their training program.

The psychology department, the School of Social Development, the communications department, and the department of professional education have a number of courses that can help students develop interpersonal, teaching, and group facilitation skills they need to work in the community. The faculty advisers or the Students’ College staff person make students aware of these courses.

The students keep a record of the hours worked at the agencies. They earn one academic credit for working three hours a week or 30 hours a quarter. Some faculty members require that the student keep an anecdotal record of log of all activities; some require periodic meetings, usually weekly, between the student and adviser; others require a summary paper. Some faculty advisers do all of these things and maintain contact with the site supervisor.

The site supervisor may be required to sign off for the student and provide a performance evaluation before the faculty member will submit the final grade.

The psychology department, the School of Social Development, the communications department, and the department of professional education have a number of courses that can help students develop interpersonal, teaching, and group facilitation skills they need to work in the community.

which may be a regular grade or a pass-no credit evaluation. Faculty members may handle the grading as they see fit or use the process recommended by the Students’ College.

The Human Resources Bank is truly a program in which everyone benefits, students as well as disadvantaged and needy people in the community. Students benefit in a number of ways in addition to the satisfaction in performing humanitarian services. The university committee that reviewed the Students’ College, including the Human Resources Bank, made it very clear that the program provided for the development of life skills, career awareness opportunities, and interpersonal and helping skills. Because of this, the institution continues to provide support, both with regular budget money from the administration and with office space on the campus. The program has been supported as a credited unit authorized by the campus assembly, the administration, and the College of Education.

One of the major stated goals of the University of Minnesota, Duluth, is the development of leadership and social responsibility among its students. The Human Resources Bank, more than any other unit on campus, serves to accomplish this goal.

An HRB student and a former HRB student who is now an agency supervisor counsel children with disabilities at the Northwood Children’s Home.
Student Ombuds

by Gregory Stewart

Because of the size and complexity of many high schools, a student often finds it difficult to communicate a problem and cut through red tape to get it solved. The Student Ombudsman Program was developed eight years ago to counteract this, to "provide an opportunity for students to make a significant contribution to the system that is educating them, through their efforts in dealing directly with personal and intergroup problems." The objectives are: to develop leadership potential; to develop an individual identification of citizen/student rights and responsibilities; to provide the school with a student tension-alert base; to foster better human relations in the school; to promote increased student participation in the school operation; to allow students an opportunity to develop an in-depth understanding of an institutional system; and to establish an avenue through which students can appeal to fellow students for help in resolving problems.

Created in cooperation with the Cincinnati Public Schools, the program is a project of the Southern Ohio Region of the National Conference of Christians and Jews (NCCJ). Withrow, Woodward, Western Hills, Taft, and Aiken high schools take part in the program.

The students, who are called Ombuds, spend most of their volunteer time handling personal problems and grievances. Students come to their office with a variety of needs, including an Algebra tutor, advice on how to tell parents of an unexpected pregnancy, a referral to a drug rehabilitation agency, and assistance in filing a complaint accusing a teacher of verbal abuse. The majority of the cases involve problems or complaints relating to disciplinary action, services to students, the accessibility of administrators, staff and faculty conduct, or the condition of school facilities.

Problems in the academic area are fewer—four to five a grading period—but require greater delicacy in handling. When students complain about capricious grading practices or unfair course requirements, they are attacking their teachers' integrity and professionalism. Ombuds frequently have resolved such matters through mediation, through bringing the student and teacher together.

Designed to equip a team of 12 students (seniors, juniors, and sophomores) at each school with the skills of ombudsman, the program is an approved elective course open to volunteers approved by a representative school committee. Initially the students meet two times a week for instruction. They receive at least an introduction to ombudsman, rights and responsibilities, mediation, grievance processing, problem solving, juvenile justice, communications, and human relations.

After about two months of training the Ombuds negotiate with the principal an operational agreement that defines their responsibilities. They then open an office, publicize their hours, and commence their services. As problem-solving generalists, Ombuds may perform several roles. The most common ones are: listener—allowing an aggrieved or concerned person to air views before a sympathetic, neutral party; mediator—assisting parties in reaching a mutually acceptable resolution to their problems; advocate—advancing a cause or position on behalf of another person; watchdog—overseeing the manner in which school officials administer school policy; systems change agent—identifying and reporting any weaknesses in school policy and bureaucracy.

Three persons—a program coordinator, a collegiate intern, and an on-site adviser—provide direct support to the Ombuds.

The program coordinator, an NCCJ staff member, provides the overall supervision, trains the Ombuds, trains and supervises the collegiate interns, schedules resource persons to meet with the Ombuds, and does most of the paperwork.

The collegiate intern in each high school supervises the Ombuds' work at least 10 hours a week. The interns come from area colleges and receive academic credit, stipends, work-study funds, or a combination. Their responsibilities include giving supplementary instruction, keeping a log, and reporting regularly to the NCCJ coordinator and on-site adviser. Among the benefits to the interns are the opportunity to meet and work with numerous community and professional leaders, the chance to explore the group process as a technique for goal achievement, and experience with group/youth work and educational programming.

The on-site adviser, usually an assistant principal or counselor, reviews Ombud cases, explains school policy to the Ombuds, and represents the administration in selecting the Ombuds and in negotiating the operational agreement.

Near the end of each school year a review team composed of a school administrator not directly involved in the program, a faculty member, an elected student representative, and a parent evaluate the activities and performance of the Office of Student Ombuds. The team usually reviews the caseload, the number of client referrals directed to and forwarded by the Ombuds, service activities, responses and action resulting from Ombud recommendations, the principal's evaluation, and a student-run survey of the student body.

Over the last eight years review teams have given the Student Ombudsman Programs high marks for the services performed.

For further information on the Student Ombudsman Program, contact Gregory Stewart, NCCJ, 1331 Enquirer Building, Cincinnati, Ohio 45202; (513) 381-4660.

Winter 1981/Synergist 23
Texas A&I volunteers work full time to bring new services and hope to an impoverished rural area.

by Michael F. Bisceglia, Jr.

Texas A&I University, Kingsville, sits in the middle of what used to be the Great Horse Desert. The scorching summers come in early April and last until mid October. The streets and empty spaces are layered with dust, and the tenacious scrub trees provide little shade or beauty.

Although several large ranches offer the winter tourists, called snowbirds, the chance to photograph vast herds of cattle, the area is sadly lacking in industry to provide steady jobs to the 28 to 49 percent of the population below the federal poverty guidelines. The majority of the permanent residents—up to 86 percent in some communities in the six-county region—are Mexican Americans. Few have incomes of more than $6,000 or have more than eight years of schooling. Household heads, among them many migrants and immigrants from Mexico, often are unable to read or write or speak English. This restricts their access to jobs and pushes their children into the work force before they have acquired marketable skills. Consequently the pattern of chronic poverty and low-level employment continues from one generation to the next.

Most of Texas A&I’s students come from this area. One half receive financial aid. Three years ago, through a University Year for Action (UYA) program, A&I began to put students into impoverished communities to work with service agencies and individuals. Functioning as grassroots change agents, these full-time student volunteers are bringing hope to people who had lost it, while preparing for a life of work and community service, and giving the University a new mission.

Starting Out
In 1977 Texas A&I received an ACTION UYA grant providing most of the funding needed to put students into the community for a full year (see box headed University Year for Action). Working full time and taking courses at night or doing independent study, these students make it possible for service agencies to provide services that have not been provided by staff members. In the first year, A&I sent 35 students to work in 15 agencies in the region. Last year 61 students worked in 24 agencies and school systems. Of that 61, 43 were women, 47 were Mexican Americans, the majority came from low-income families, almost all lived in the region, half were psychology/sociology majors, and a quarter were education majors. Many of the students received credit through the Social Service Sequel, the undergraduate social work program initiated because of UYA.

At Texas A&I UYA students start their year of community service with a rigorous two-week preservice orientation that provides the basic training for them to function as change agents. They then have an intensive two-week agency inservice training program. The training includes everything from techniques in motivation and organization to an awareness of the Mexican heritage. Students learn that they are to be more than service providers, that as project facilitators they are helping the community to be involved in shaping its own destiny. Student-initiated projects stand a better chance of survival when residents share the commitment toward what they help to establish.

As a result of this approach, both direct and indirect service to agencies' clients has improved. Also, clients and their families are taking more of an active role in decisions that will affect their lives. The agencies have been pleased, valuing the immediate results and regarding the program as an effective training experience for potential staff. (Some 50 UYA alumni now are staff members of participating or affiliated agencies.)

Change Within Guidelines
All of the students have been exposed to the problems and frustrations of the
people with whom they work and are seeking to bring constructive change while working within the guidelines of the sponsoring agencies.

An outstanding example of what a student can do is the work of John Langley, who spent three years in UYA while earning a degree in sociology. Working with the Rural Economics Assistance League (REAL) in Alice, he was instrumental in getting better housing for the elderly, who make up almost 40 percent of the population of the six counties.

Langley was assigned to REAL in the fall of 1977. After months of frustrating work—made especially difficult because he was an Anglo in a Mexican-American community—he learned of the possibility of obtaining a $5,000 grant through the state ACTION office. He obtained the grant, but the money was not in hand until January 1979.

The ACTION office also helped him contact a group that could act as a catalyst for the community weatherization project that he wanted to carry out. In July 1979 the American Jewish Society for Service (AJSS), based in New York, sent 24 AJSS volunteers to Alice. The volunteers spent 40 hours a week each for seven weeks helping weatherize and refurbish 50 homes.

Langley then contacted various local civic and social groups, and they formed the Community and Social Action Committee (CASA). The Noon Lions, the Evening Lions, the Rotary Club, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, and other civic groups became involved in project supervision and other forms of assistance. A local store and the Alice Community Action Project pledged sizable funds for tools and materials. Recently the Alice Lions' Clubs took over the project on a permanent basis, assuring that Langley's work will continue without him.

Because of his work in this community self-help project, this student was nominated for the Winthrop Rockefeller Award for Distinguished Rural Service.

Other UYA students tell similar success stories. Pat Villreal and Eddie Ortega, sociology majors, worked with the Kingsville Department of Human Resources (DHR) in developing a Big Buddy program that, with the help of DHR's advisory board, became the Kingsville chapter of Big Brother/Big Sister. The students recruited volunteers to spend time with children who are part of single parent families and coordinated their activities.

Villreal also wrote the proposal and helped to establish a local Reading Is Fundamental (RIF) program. This meant finding an agency to put up funds to buy books, getting matching funds from RIF, and distributing books to children.

As part of Larry Amaro's work with DHR, he headed a research project to identify factors preventing those who need food stamps from obtaining them and to find ways to correct the problem.

Student John Langley, the author, and a resident of Alice inspect a home in need of weatherization.
The state is considering using his project as a model for food stamp distribution.

UYA students work with every age group in a variety of other community service programs. These students have been the key personnel in numerous projects that did not exist prior to the program. More and more agencies request students. Area merchants and civic groups contribute generously to UYA and agency-sponsored projects. Out-of-state students transfer to Texas A&I in order to be part of UYA.

Valdemar Leal, Kingsville’s Adult and Community Education director and the chairman of the UYA advisory board says, “It’s an outstanding program. It provides service at no cost to the community. We work with five percent of the poorest people in this area and we’d have to cut down our services if I had to hire professionals."

**Impact on Texas A&I**

The benefits to the community are well substantiated. What about the impact on the students and the university as a whole?

The personal growth of the students participating in UYA has been remarkable. They appear to have a much more mature and realistic view of poverty and societal problems than do their campus-bound counterparts, and the grades of UYA students have gone up. Furthermore, in a region in which memories of discrimination are fresh and expectations of positive personal or community change have not been realistic, UYA students have gained confidence in their own futures and in those of their neighbors. Hope has become a factor in their lives, and it will make many other advances possible.

The students came back to campus—either during their UYA experience or after completing it—with a blend of enthusiasm and savvy that impressed professors who had been skeptical of the academic value of field experience. As a result, several academic departments developed new service-learning courses.

The support of students, community, and faculty have encouraged Texas A&I to take several steps toward making UYA an integral part of the university that will not disappear when the ACTION funding ends. At the beginning of the 1979-80 program year, the University’s Financial Aid Office combined federal Work-Study funds with UYA program funds. Six of the 61 students were paid primarily by Work-Study funds. This year Work-Study funds are subsidizing 10 students. The university and participating agencies also have made in-kind contributions that are needed for program maintenance.

A proposal for the establishment of a Cooperative Education Program (CEP) was approved last summer and now some 75 students are involved in an off-campus credited work-experience program. UYA and CEP are dovetailing their operations in several ways. Since UYA now works with 24 sponsoring agencies and has numerous contacts throughout the region, this merger is beneficial to both programs.

UYA will also align itself to the University graduate psychology program, allowing for practical experience for students in crisis intervention. In addition UYA may be working in conjunction with the graduate education program to enable students to assist the community with adult and community education.

In recognition of what the UYA program accomplished in its first three years, Texas A&I granted the program the right to become the Center for Experiential Learning. This will enable the program to cultivate the concept of service-learning by further developing valid and realistic schemes for increased University involvement in the community.

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**NCSL Seminars for Service-Learning Educators**

NCSL currently has openings in five tuition-free training seminars. Those interested in attending should contact NCSL to reserve places as soon as possible.

Two seminars are for high school or postsecondary educators with new service-learning programs. These seminars are as follows.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>High school:</th>
<th>College:</th>
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<tr>
<td>February 1-3</td>
<td>March 29-April 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado Women's College, Denver</td>
<td>Sinclair Community College</td>
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<td>Dayton, Ohio</td>
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Three seminars are for those who have worked with service-learning programs for several years in either high schools or colleges. These are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Building Program Support:</th>
<th>Program Evaluation:</th>
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<tr>
<td>January 25-27</td>
<td>February 22-24</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of Nebraska, Lincoln</td>
<td>Pacific Lutheran University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 15-17</td>
<td>Tacoma, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vanderbilt University, Nashville</td>
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26
Recognize this scene? You’ve just returned from a three-day NCSE workshop anxious to try out some of those recently acquired ideas. While you were gone, you had so many telephone calls and visitors that messages cover your desk like confetti.

After dealing with a few urgent calls, putting aside others to be handled next week, and delegating a heap of messages to your staff in the name of time management, you are left with a stack of notes and letters reflecting the deep-seated, too often ignored problems that sent you to the workshop.

Here is a sampling from that stack.

- Urgent pleas from four agencies that heard about your program recently and want 10 students each. (And you can’t even provide enough volunteers to the agencies you’re currently working with!)
- The County Home wants five more students this year than they had last year, doing what they did last year. (And as far back as you can remember.)
- The students who work at the housing project are clammering that they are “only being band-aids” and not working on the residents’ “real problems.” (Who’s to say which problems are more real than others?)

With resources scarce and requests plentiful, educators need written criteria for deciding where to place students.

Setting Criteria

Perhaps one way that some of these problems can be dealt with is to do an exercise used at the workshop. In the exercise, a small group developed a checklist of criteria for determining the agencies with which a service-learning program might work most closely. The group listed qualities that an agency should have if a high school or university program is to agree to work with it. The exercise was based on the idea that a service-learning program has a finite number of resources—people, skills, budget, facilities—and that these should be used discriminatingly and effectively to meet both the service and learning goals.

Of course, not everyone agreed on what should be included in the lists. One workshop group decided to separate the criteria into two general categories—service (or community issues) and education (or student-centered issues). The final lists reflected only the criteria on which everyone agreed. Each item was worth a possible 5 points. The closer an organization complied with the criteria, the higher the score it would receive for that item. Organizations that consistently ranked high on both sets of criteria were the organizations that the service-learning program would work with most closely.

Using this assessment system probably means cutting down on the number of organizations in which a service-learning program places students or, to put it another way, it may mean decreasing the quantity in order to increase the quality. It also nudges a service-learning program to choose serving and learning areas to emphasize. The program no longer will try to respond to every social need; rather, the program will focus on a few community issues.

The workshop participants decided that this checklist system could offer several benefits, some administrative and others programmatic. Among them were the following.

- The entire staff could be involved in developing the checklist. This would give everyone a part in making program policy. It would standardize policy so that agency placements could be made more objectively.
- The criteria list can be evaluated and changed each year. If the criteria prove unrealistic, the staff can eliminate or modify the list.
- The list will help agencies understand your service and learning goals.
- The organizations with highest scores will be the ones to which you direct the most resources; their goals will be supporting your goals, and vice-versa.
- Organizations that scored low on the checklist can be included in a catalog of miscellaneous placement opportunities. You don’t end up turning agencies completely away.

Limiting the numbers and types of organizations with which you work does not necessarily mean limiting the numbers and types of placements. If your staff members have decided to work on senior citizen issues and the Senior Center ranks high on your criteria checklists, many projects are possible within this one organization, e.g., drama club, continuing education courses, a handbook on bargains for people over 65, a beauty salon, an income tax service.

The Criteria

The workshop participants—all secondary and postsecondary educators—found it easier to come up with items in the education column than in the service column. They decided that in order for a service-learning program to devote a lot of its
resources toward working with a particular agency, the agency had to support the students by: providing orientation and periodic training sessions; either making transportation available or reimbursing the students for public transportation; providing developmental placements, i.e., volunteers would have more responsibilities and more complex duties in their second term than in their first; completing an evaluation form or writing a letter of recommendation after the students finish their placements.

The service or community list took longer to develop and was more controversial. A few of the items decided upon are listed here, along with the reasons for including them.

Are those for whom the service is intended part of the decision-making process?

The participants unanimously agreed that the answer should be affirmative, yet they were able to name a dozen organizations that make decisions for other people. Deciding on the problems of and the solutions for others without involving them is, the educators felt, a bit paternalistic. Too often they had seen suburbanites making decisions for urban dwellers, whites making decisions for blacks, the young making decisions for the elderly, and the middle class making decisions for the poor.

To determine who takes part in the decision-making, the educator may ask the following questions. Are community members part of the agency’s staff? Are they on the organization’s advisory board? Members of evaluation teams? Does the agency have citizens’ committees or planning councils? Does it have public hearings or policy meetings? These are all indicators of how really community centered the organization is. High scores should go to agencies that can answer yes.

Is the organization addressing an issue your service-learning program is working on?

If an organization isn’t doing this, it probably won’t be able to help you meet your goals. The group felt that a program should beware of spreading its resources too thin. It’s better to make a small impact in a few areas than flounder around in many. Again, many types of placements can be developed within one good agency.

Are the organization’s mission, goals, and objectives clearly stated, and is it periodically evaluated on the basis of these goals and objectives?

By developing your checklist (and your mission, goals, and objectives), you are being up front about your business. Are they? The workshop group complained about the time and effort it takes to write these up, but in the end agreed that they are necessary for a well run service-learning program or agency. Stated, measurable goals are easy to evaluate.

The following questions are relevant. Who evaluates the agency? Are previous evaluations available for you to look at? How were the goals and objectives chosen? (This goes back to who makes the decisions.) Do they have readily available descriptive material that clearly states their purpose? These are indicators of

The group finally decided that highest scores should go to agencies providing both direct service and advocacy opportunities. The educators agreed that it’s important—and cost effective—to attack a problem, but it’s also important to meet immediate needs.

where they are going. Then you can decide whether or not you want to join them in going there.

Are the organization’s services easily available to its target group?

What good is an agency with excellent services if it requires five forms (in triplicate), a four-month waiting period, and approval by three other organizations? This is an indication of how responsive the agency is to the community’s needs. You may want to check on whether the agency has bilingual services, materials written in large type, and well publicized, easily accessible services. Accessibility earns high scores.

How is the organization funded?

One workshop participant told of a neighborhood clean-up campaign funded principally by a local factory—a factory that had more than 12 court injunctions pending against it for pollution violations. His service-learning program soon found out that the campaign was concerned with the trash in the neighborhood parks but not with the more important issues of trash in the neighborhood air and water supply. Participants noted that whoever gave the funds, controverted how this bounty is spent.

Is the organization working on both the causes and the symptoms of the community problems?

The workshop participants discussed this point at length. Some felt that the best service-learning programs aim at changing the status quo, at making institutional changes. Others felt that a service-learning program should be a service provider, not a change agent. Emotionally charged arguments ranged from “Give people control over their lives” to “As outsiders we shouldn’t meddle in their lives,” from “We’re just helping to build a dependency upon these agencies” to “Our students aren’t sophisticated (or skilled) enough to deal with the sources of problems.” The group finally decided that highest scores should go to agencies providing both direct service and advocacy opportunities. The educators agreed that it’s important—and cost effective—to attack a problem; but it’s also important to meet immediate needs.

Working with agencies that use both approaches allows a service-learning program a wider variety of placements for students with a range of interests and skills. Developmental placements can be designed for those students who wish to move into new areas within the same agency, much as a good organization has developmental positions for its paid staff.

These criteria and rationales were listed during one checklist exercise. The staff of every service-learning program will come up with a different set, but that’s fine. Your final product will be a mutually agreed upon yardstick for measuring just how involved you will become with any organization. If you decide that an agency can receive up to five points for each item and you have listed 20 items, you may decide that you’ll work with those organizations that have gotten at least 50 out of the possible 100. Or perhaps you’ll decide to work with the top 10 scorers.

The important point to remember is that you have valuable resources to provide some organizations within your community. You and your staff have the responsibility for choosing the best agencies to receive them. The checklist is a tool for deciding how to distribute your resources objectively and equitably and to ensure that you are working toward your community service goals.

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Institutional Change

By applying experiential learning theory and skills to the school or college, educators may bring about organizational change.

by Jack Lindquist

Imagine a small service-learning program hanging precariously on the edge of a school or college. Its leaders, and a few friends, know the value of learning by doing and of doing for others. But the rest of the educational world seems a menacing jungle, full of monsters who somehow know that serious learning cannot occur in any setting but a traditional classroom. Sound familiar?

What can a service-learning educator do? Fortunately, emerging change theory offers a promising strategy: Regard your educational institution as a field experience setting for its staff, with you and your friends as the unsolicited mentors. Put your own experiential learning theory and skill to work for your program as well as in it.

Sure, you say, but how do I know experiential learning makes any sense as an organizational change strategy, and how could I do it starting Monday? This article serves as your orientation for going out there to make the world safe for service-learning. For more detail, refer to the references listed.

The process of individual and organizational change can be simplified to stages reminiscent of John Dewey’s problem-solving cycle and David Kolb’s more recent derivative, the experiential learning cycle. I put the process in terms of four D’s: Diagnosing, Designing, Deciding, and Doing. We assess our students’, or our institution’s, goals and the problems in achieving them. We make decisions on specific alternatives. And we implement those decisions, with evaluation becoming both the last step in this cycle and the first diagnostic step in the next round of student or school development.

The fundamental change question is: Who decides? Who determines the students’ or the institution’s goals? Who develops the most appropriate learning experiences or teaching practices? Who approves them? And who determines how to implement these decisions and how well they have been implemented?

The polar answers to this basic question are familiar to anyone who has wrestled with educational or organizational leadership. On one end, the authorities
decide, without much input by those who must carry out the change. The leaders' job is to tell us what our goals as students and staff should be, where we need improvement, how we will go about improvement, and how well we did. Why? Because the authorities are the most expert and/or the most formally responsible. Research and development centers, bureaucracies, and traditional administrative and teaching practices all represent this change strategy: We experts and formal authorities direct your learning and organizational problem solving. Malcolm Knowles' definition of pedagogy, from the Greek for the instruction of children, captures this approach.

It is not a bad model under certain conditions: dependent students or staff, persons unfamiliar with the task at hand, persons who accept these particular authorities, the need to act quickly, little immediate need for fostering self-direction. Most students who are at dependent levels of development or who expect education to be directed, as indeed many otherwise self-directed adults do, benefit from the authority model. Students who are quite independent but desire, for the moment, to be dependent because they are taking a totally unfamiliar subject (e.g., the poet taking a night course in auto mechanics or the mechanic taking up poetry), might seek the authoritative/authoritarian model as well.

At the organizational level, early in the development of the organization or early in a leader's tenure, the authority model is often necessary because the leader is working with a dependent staff that expects the leader to take charge and that has not developed its ability for collaborative or self-directed problem solving.

At the other pole is the permissive model: the students or staff must do their own problem solving with little input from formal authorities or outside experts. Authorities become available resources at best, abominable obstacles at worst. The argument is that if those carrying out the change do not own it as their solution to problems they perceive in pursuit of their goals, they will not have the necessary commitment. If they are not the principal problem solvers, they will not understand what they are doing and why. If they do not assume this responsibility, they will never become self-directed.

This strategy also has its advantages. If faculty and students are, or have strong need to be, self-directed, this model meets their expectations. If an authority's goal is to foster self-direction even at the cost of immediate inefficiency, the non-directive strategy has virtue. The model does call for very active and skillful leadership, but in facilitating the problem solving of others rather than in doing the problem solving oneself. Many leaders who initially favor this anadregy—from the Greek for helping adults learn—sour on it because it did not work in the absence of skillful facilitation.

Between the poles is a third strategy, the persuasion and political models. Here both parties decide. The leader has a change in mind but must convince others of its merits. The idea is that good models already exist, and we leaders know our school needs at least our favorite model. The problem is convincing staff or students or executives or board that we have the solution to their problem. Leaders here become not problem solvers or problem-solving facilitators but linkage agents. They must become highly skilled in the delivery of change messages in ways that perk the interest of otherwise unenthusiastic students, staff, executives, or agency supervisors. Persuasion and politics certainly have their place in educational change, especially when one's organization is neither sufficiently dependent to trust authority nor sufficiently self-directed to do our wishes without our bidding.

My own and other research suggests that educational change, in the long run, is decided by those who must make it, students for their learning and faculty for their teaching. In part it's because you cannot force students to learn well or teachers to teach well. You can put them through the motions, but the commitment and understanding bred of pursuing their own solutions to problems they see concerning aspirations they hold cannot be legislated. It comes from within. Such understanding and commitment can be spurred, however, by accepted or forceful authority. It can be stirred by effective persuasion. And it can be guided by artful facilitation. Indeed, in the absence of such external influences, few students or staff will put themselves through the unavoidable discomforts of change.

This adaptive development is a demanding change strategy for leaders, but recent theory and practice point to it as necessary if we seriously hope to get more than a few colleagues committed to service-learning.

The FLOOR
Once we see that our main job as change leaders is to stimulate, facilitate, and prod colleagues in their active problem solving, their experiential learning, we have a general focus. We do not, however, have a plan of action. One of the first, and ongoing, parts of that plan is the creation of a firm organizational foundation for active problem solving, just as development of self-directed learning skills is an early and continuous agenda item in experiential learning. Planned change research suggests at least the following foundation ingredients in effective adaptive development in organizations.

One factor is the presence of an active and skillful Force for improvement. In most schools and colleges, nearly all resources are committed to implementing the status quo. Unless some time is given to improvement, it will not happen. An informal network of concerned persons, a little money and time for staff and program development, and some support at the top become not necessary preconditions for change but short- and long-term organizational development objectives.

A second ingredient in the renewing organization is Linkage of two sorts: informational and interpersonal. Those whose support and action are needed to implement service-learning need to be well connected to information about their current effectiveness, about alternatives to present practices, about social-political-economic pressures on their organization, about their own developmental needs, about their organizational system, about their students and colleagues. We often have next to no information we can trust. Faculty rarely are connected in effective ways to administrators, or students and board to staff, or all to their counterparts in other educational institutions. In consequence, we defend our turf against those unknown, presumably evil forces, and we receive none of the stimulus and support they might provide us.
Openness itself becomes the third pillar in our renewal foundation. We must get beyond "My door is always open," which means you—not I—must do the reaching out, to an active effort to get out of our comfortable ways of thinking so that we really hear and appreciate information suggesting our ways are not perfect and another's argument just may have some merit.

The fourth organizational renewal ingredient and long-term objective of our change effort is Ownership. It is not simply a matter of giving problem-solving ownership to staff and students and keeping none for oneself. Change leaders must feel the change is theirs, too, or vital initiative and guidance are lost. Early on, before staff or students are far along in self-directed problem solving, a good deal of ownership may need to reside with the teacher regarding students and the change leader regarding colleagues. But as leaders genuinely open themselves to others, ownership of changes increases. Indeed, some owners become part of the Force.

The fifth ingredient is Rewards. Why be a student or teacher or principal if I do not get anything out of it? Initially, rewards for educational change tend to be intrinsic or interpersonal. I enjoy this committee or workshop, I'm learning something, I think my teaching is improving, I even get a note of thanks from the dean, I feel more included than before. Eventually, material rewards will be needed to sustain all the energy change needs. I got promoted; they built service-learning into my course load, my resume has become more marketable. Change leaders must attend to those intrinsic and interpersonal rewards all the time while starting early to get the kind of personal policies and practices that reinforce changed behavior.

The Force, Linkage, Openness, Ownership, Rewards: they spell the FLOOR beneath adaptive development attempts. As you read other articles in this issue, you might ask yourself, "How can I introduce such ideas into my school or college in ways that honor and develop its problem-solving capacities?"

Problem-Solving Specifics
Just what might a service-learning educator do Monday to get adaptive development rolling? One answer is to call others with similar interests and arrange an evening or even a weekend together to consider how to build a FLOOR and get problem solving going. A first item on the agenda might be the creation of another list of opinion leaders and political or bureaucratic gatekeepers your group knows, with an asterisk for the ones you think are open to service-learning. The group might divvy up these leaders and make personal contacts in order to inform them of educational and social problems for which service-learning may be part of the solution. If you are an executive, setting up a task force to make such linkages and share such information could begin the movement.

In diagnostic data gathering and feedback, certain action-research principles should guide the budding Force's work. In particular, study should be done with one's audience from first decisions on what questions to ask. Also, data should be validated against staff and student experiences, say by asking small workshop groups to compare the data to their experiences and thereby identify key improvement needs. Finally, such public validation should be followed by equally public action-planning concerning who will do what by when.

In linking people to information about alternative practices, certain other principles are helpful. For one, emphasize informal, interpersonal interactions when sharing information. The more formal and impersonal the delivery, the less likely anyone is to pay attention. For another, stress such matters as the new practice's relative advantage over current ways from the perspective of your audience. Avoid complexity in messages, for it confuses or overwhelms. You might try divisibility, as in encouraging small, easy changes or stages.

Two other diffusion factors, observability and trialability, are good experiential learning ingredients. Show the alternative to the audience and let members try it out, whether in a brief workshop simulation or in a small pilot program. And encourage adaptability so that others can build their own alternative with the stimulus and guidance of your model but without having to swallow your idea in all its particulars.

In formulation and decisionmaking concerning new practices, build on this shared learning about needs and alternatives. Invite others' thinking, try out your group's ideas in draft form, go out and listen to your audience and show how you have used its thinking in your plan. Again, encourage informal and interpersonal discussions of proposals well before those starchy governance meetings. Practice skills in recruiting support among opinion leaders, gatekeepers, and key groups.

Remember that a formal decision to change may represent very little real understanding or commitment, so community learning about problems and alternatives must continue long after your proposal has passed. In part, such education can be the staff development of implementers, but here another important principle needs adherence: Do not get so busy implementing a small start that others are not learning with you just how the new thing works. Advisory committees, more interpersonal networking or circuit riding, occasional reports to the larger system, invitations to others to serve as adjunct staff or formative evaluators—these are some bridging tactics.

By such activities, always remembering the FLOOR factors, the organization slowly becomes more knowledgeable, more concerned, more skilled in collaborative problem solving, and more involved in service-learning. It is a fragile formula that needs years of constant nurturing, for organizations change fundamental attitudes and behaviors very slowly. But such experiential learning can get you beyond the fringe if you hang with it. For your students' sakes, I hope you do.
Moral Decisionmaking In a Scientific Era

by Louis A. Iozzi

Scenario I
Pete, a high school junior at Washington High School, Mountainville, was telling his class about a disturbing newspaper story he had read. Two men each desperately needed a new kidney soon. The hospital finally located a kidney—only one—and it probably would function equally well in either patient. "So now," Pete reported, "the doctors have to select one of the two patients for the kidney transplant. How can the doctors decide? How can they choose who will live and who will die?"

Mr. Andrews, Pete’s teacher, had read the same article. "It seems obvious to me," he said, "that this is a problem we could never resolve here. I guess all of you realize that there really is no correct answer to the problem. I can tell you this, though, a kidney transplant can be very expensive, and you are never really sure if it will work. We still have a long way to go in perfecting transplantation techniques of all kinds." He went on to tell the class about some of the many problems associated with transplanting organs. When the bell rang, a few students, especially those interested in medicine, had gained some understanding of the technical problems associated with transplants. Most of the students forgot the lecture before the next class.

Scenario II
Debbie, also a junior at Washington High School, was in a health class that was part of a service-learning project focusing on medical care delivery. Working in a county hospital, she became acquainted with the kidney patients about whom Pete had read. During class Debbie described the situation and asked, "How should the doctors decide which patient should get the kidney?"

Debbie’s teacher, Ms. Cook, responded, "That’s a very tough question to answer, Debbie. What do you think?"

"I wouldn’t know whom to choose. Both are nice men, always pleasant and cheerful. I met Mr. Harris’ wife and children. If they lost him, I don’t know what they would do."

Frank joined in, "I’ve also worked with both men. Mr. Gilbert is a great guy—but Mr. Harris seems to be an old crank. I don’t care too much for him."

"Should the doctors give the transplant to the patient they like most?" questioned Tommy.

"Does Mr. Gilbert also have a wife and children?" asked Cathy.

"A wife, no children," said Debbie.

"Why does that matter?" asked Tommy.

"Maybe it does matter," said Cathy.

"After all, Mr. Harris has more people depending on him than Mr. Gilbert has."

"Maybe so," said Debbie, "but does that make him less important than Mr. Harris? Your life shouldn’t have to hinge on how many children you happen to have."

"What do you think, Billy?" asked Ms. Cook.

"Well, maybe Mr. Gilbert has more responsibilities than Mr. Harris has. I understand that he has helped a lot of kids who have been on drugs."

The dialogue continued throughout the class period. Before class ended, Ms. Cook—who had anticipated the discussion—distributed to each student copies of articles about transplants and the problems involved. She also asked the class to think about what the doctors should do and why. In addition, she suggested that her students discuss the dilemma with their parents and those with whom they worked.

"During our next class," she concluded, "we will meet in small groups to discuss what each of you thinks should be done, and why. Debbie, you will be responsible for reporting to us the doctors’ decision and the reasons for their decision."

Both teachers seized upon the opportunity to add an issue of contemporary concern and interest to the students, but with different approaches and results.
Mr. Andrews provided information about kidney transplants, focusing almost exclusively on conveying facts that will rapidly become outdated and providing few opportunities for student participation. He was preparing students for the present, at best. Ms. Cook took the opportunity to help her students develop their critical-thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making skills. She emphasized initially the affective/moral aspects and then the cognitive aspects of the problem, challenging the students to think, discuss, and learn to use information and knowledge. Ms. Cook provided ample opportunity for student participation. She was preparing students for the present and, more importantly, for the future.

**Educatng for Decisionmaking**

Ms. Cook was integrating students’ service experience with socio-scientific reasoning, which is the incorporation of the hypothetico-deductive mode of problem solving with the social and moral/ethical concerns of decisionmaking. The Institute for Science, Technology, Social Science Education at Rutgers has developed a Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model and 14 curriculum modules (but adaptable to many more) for use in grades seven through 12. This model, which is particularly effective when integrated into service-learning programs, is calculated to make education more relevant and to prepare youth for the future.

Educators have professed these goals for centuries. By and large, however, education has fallen short of the mark. Marshall McLuhan, for example, has compared current educational practices to speeding down a superhighway looking in the rearview mirror. In the Fall 1979 *Synergist*, Jean Houston commented, “For the most part—in terms of the incredible complexity and sheer intensity of information and problems of our times—we are being educated for about the year 1825. We use a tiny fraction of our capacities...less than five percent of our mental capacities.”

In view of the accelerating rate of change and rapid growth and accumulation of knowledge in all fields (Toffler, 1970), reliance on traditional programs of instruction and teaching methodologies that emphasize facts and information transfer is, in reality, teaching for obsolescence.

Service-learning programs provide educators with a rare opportunity to make education relevant and to meet community needs. The students gain valuable experience and self-satisfaction while making real contributions to society. Essentially, service-learning both complements and adds another important dimension to schooling.

Service experiences alone cannot prepare students for the kinds of problems and situations they will encounter in the future, though these experiences prepare students to deal rather well with the world as it exists now! This is a great improvement over what commonly occurs in schools today, but is it really enough? Are we really optimizing the possibilities offered by service-learning?

**Emerging Issues**

In addition to making service-learning programs available to secondary school students, what else might schools do to prepare today’s youth to function effec-

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**Modules for the Model**

*Preparing for Tomorrow’s World consists of 14 curriculum modules:*

- Casual Decisions: Difficult Choices—grades 7 and 8.
- Technology and Changing Lifestyles—grades 7 and 8.
- Space Encounters—grades 7 and 8.
- Future Scenarios in Communications—grades 7 and 8.
- Food: A Necessary Resource—grades 8 and 9.
- Perspectives on Transportation—grades 8 and 9.
- People and Environmental Changes—grades 9, 10, and 11.
- Future New Jersey: Public Issues Affecting the Quality of Life—grades 9 and 10.
- Environmental Dilemmas: Critical Decisions for Society—grades 10 and 11.
- Dilemmas in Bioethics—grades 11 and 12.
- Beacon City: An Urban Land Use Simulation—grades 11 and 12.

The Institute for Science, Technology, Social Science Education developed the modules to be interdisciplinary. Each can be used in a number of courses. Presentation time is flexible, but teachers generally take four to six weeks. Each module includes teaching materials, objectives, activities, and a list of complementary courses.

The modules range on a continuum from those that are highly structured sequentially to those that contain discrete, independent activities. The modules for the lower grades tend to be more structured, with subsequent activities building upon skills learned in prior activities.

A summary description of one module follows.

**Energy: Decisions for Today and Tomorrow**

Issues surrounding energy production, consumption, and conservation are explored using examples from three energy sources: petroleum, nuclear power, and coal. Problems and concerns arising from the utilization of these three energy sources are highlighted in dilemma discussions and role play simulations.

Materials—teacher’s guide, student’s guide, student handouts, and transparencies.

Objectives—to develop knowledge about energy and its issues, analysis skills, decision-making skills, and awareness of energy concerns and their social, political, and economic interactions.

Student activities—graphing and data analysis, critical reading and analysis of issues, small and large group discussions, and role playing.

Complements—social studies, general science, earth science, and health education.

Approximate time requirements—three to four weeks/flexible.

For more information on the Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model or *Preparing for Tomorrow’s World*, a free VHS videotape, contact the author at the Institute for Science, Technology, Social Science Education, The Center for Coastal and Environmental Studies, Rutgers—The State University of New Jersey, Doolittle Hall, New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903.
tively in the world of the future? How can we begin to prepare our most important resource—our students—to deal with problems and conditions that have yet to appear? How can we forecast the types of skills and knowledge needed by problem solvers and decisionmakers in the future? Several scholars and futuroists (Shane, 1977; Schwartz, Teige, and Harmon, 1977) have agreed that the major problems of the next quarter century will be in the areas of food allocation, energy allocation and depletion, biomedical technology, social unrest and conflict, environmental quality and modification, application of existing and emerging technologies, mental health, natural resource use, land use, and science/technology/society conflict.

Of major importance, moreover, will be the impact of science and technology on society. Science and technology will give future generations awesome power. Clearly decisionmakers are cultivating today will be required to solve problems and to resolve conflicts that we encounter only in our wildest dreams, or, in some cases, only in our most frightening nightmares.

We are rapidly approaching the day when questions regarding who should get the new kidney will become everyday occurrences. Such questions will be among the simpler ones that tomorrow’s decisionmakers would have to resolve. I foresee the following in the not too distant future.

- The question will not be can we replace the defective organs in humans after their own have failed, but rather, should we?
- The question will not be can we colonize outer space or the ocean depths to relieve the pressure of overpopulation, but rather, should we?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Models</th>
<th>Characteristics of Model Relevant to Secondary School Students</th>
<th>Curriculum Strategy Provides Students Opportunities to:</th>
<th>Curriculum Activities</th>
</tr>
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| Piaget: Logical reasoning development in sequential, invariant, stepwise stages. Change via restructuring of thought processes through assimilation and accommodation. | Transition from concrete to formal logical thought operations. Reason by hypothesis, ability to deal with logical propositions—probability, implications, correlations, compatibility, thinking about things from the abstract, not limited by concrete relationships. | • Reason hypothetically-deductively  
• Generate possible alternatives  
• Distinguish probable and possible events dealing with reality and abstraction  
• Consider consequences of alternatives  
• Isolate variables to test validity of proposition, controlling variables  
• Relate one idea to another  
• Reflect on own thinking | • Projection of future possibilities  
• Individualized research of problems/issues  
• Case studies from wide range and variety of materials  
• Active experimentation/systematic analysis  
• Debates and discussion—developing logical arguments |
| Selman: Social role taking develops in sequential, invariant, and stepwise stages. Change in perspective taking occurs through social interaction. | Transition from mutual role taking to social and conventional system role taking. Understand nature of social relations in terms of a social system. | • Integrate personal experience into greater social whole "decentration"  
• Consider perspective of other persons  
• Partake in variety of social interactions  
• Recognize role of self and society | • Simulations  
• Role playing and exchange of roles  
• Communications in small and large groups  
• Partake in democratic processes |
| Kohlberg: Moral/ethical reasoning develops in sequential, invariant stages, and advances to higher stages by resolution of dis-equilibrium caused by recognition of inadequacy of own reasoning. | Transition from conventional to principle level of reasoning. Decisions based on principles that have validity, consistency, and application apart from authority of groups and individuals, guided by self-chosen ethical principles and concerns for universal social justice and individual rights. | • Interact with peers at more advanced stages of reasoning  
• Experience diversity of alternative ideas  
• Consider basis of personal value system and judgment  
• Evaluation of information, judgments, and opinions  
• Prioritizing preferences | • Moral dilemma discussions  
• Role playing  
• Values clarification and analysis  
• Student directed activities |
| Socio-scientific: Integrates the developmental ideas of the above model to promote more effective decisionmaking and problem solving in the realms of science, technology, and society. | Transition from problem solving in a limited context to problem solving encompassing more extensive parameters and multiple interacting variables. Problems are dealt with in a holistic system. | All of the above plus:  
• Explore problems from perspective of different disciplines  
• Generate and test hypothesis  
• Consider short-range and long-range effects and implications of decisions  
• Explore different problem-solving strategies  
• Deal with complex interactions of problems | All of the above plus:  
• Future forecasting methodologies and strategies (prepare scenarios)  
• Case history investigations and multimedia learning  
• Creative problem solving/planning/decisionmaking |
The question will not be can we modify weather, climate, and other components of our environment, but rather, should we?

The basic assumption of the model is that effective problem solving requires simultaneous development in the realms of logical reasoning, social role taking, and moral/ethical reasoning. Purely objective scientific thinking cannot be applied in the resolution of most of the probable future conflicts without regard to the impact of those decisions on human needs and human goals. A technological solution, for example, may be feasible and logically consistent. From a societal perspective, however, one must question whether or not it should be applied. How to best prioritize our needs and evaluate trade-offs with a concern for the needs of future generations involves logical reasoning and critical thinking, but now with an added dimension, a social moral/ethical reasoning dimension.

1. The question will not be can we harness the almost limitless power of nuclear fusion to provide energy despite its extreme dangers, but rather, should we?
2. The question will not be can we create a Brave New World, but rather, should we?

Scientists and engineers can deal effectively with questions of the “can we” variety because such decisions are based on technical facts. Questions of the “should we” type require the consideration of another dimension—a values dimension. Values-based questions must, I maintain, be answered by society. Knowledge about the capabilities of science and technology must be coupled with analysis of their impact and implications on such issues as justice, equity, dignity of life, and individual rights.

These comments should not be interpreted as an attack on science and technology. Quite the contrary. Science and technology will continue to provide society with unique powers and opportunities. The problem, however, will focus on whether society can handle such power in a responsible manner.

Basic Skills for the Future

If schools are to prepare students for their individual and communal future, educators must emphasize the development of another group of basic skills: problem solving, decisionmaking, and analytical and critical thinking. Moreover, a moral/ethical dimension must be included as part of such development if today’s students are to deal responsibly and humanely with tomorrow’s problems.

Educators, then, must begin to view education as developing those skills necessary for complex problem solving and decisionmaking. More specifically, education should strive to develop in students:

1. Increased logical reasoning skills in dealing with problems containing multiple interacting variables;
2. Increased decisionmaking/problem-solving skills incorporating socio-moral-value considerations and a wider societal perspective;
3. Increased knowledge of the broad issues emerging and projected at the interfaces of science-technology/society.

In an attempt to accomplish the aforementioned goals, we at the Institute developed the Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model. This model—which combines the theories of Jean Piaget (logical reasoning/cognitive development), Lawrence Kohlberg (moral/ethical reasoning), and Robert Selman (social role taking) with research conducted by the author—has served as a guide in the development of Preparing for Tomorrow’s World, a series of educational materials to help junior and senior high school students advance to higher levels of thinking and reasoning capabilities.

While this model has guided our curriculum activities, it is easily generalized and adaptable to nearly all educational settings and programs. That is it particularly appropriate for and complementary to service-learning programs—including many on the postsecondary level—will become readily apparent.

While the complexities of the Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model and the theories of Piaget, Kohlberg, and Selman preclude a full discussion of them in this article, an understanding of certain fundamental ideas associated with these theories is helpful.

Logical Reasoning. Piaget (Piaget, 1970; Gruber and Voneche, 1977) views the development of logical reasoning as progression through a series of stages. At each successive stage, the logical reasoning ability of individuals takes on a broader perspective and incorporates the ability to deal with greater numbers of interacting variables of increasing intellectual complexity. Each stage of thinking builds upon the previous one, but takes on a new structural form. Growth in cognition, from this perspective, can be facilitated and nurtured through appropriate educational experience.

In explaining growth in logical reasoning, Piaget refers to the processes of assimilation, accommodation, and equilibration. Assimilation occurs when the learners incorporate new ideas and situations into their existing thought structures. On the other hand, learners also encounter objects and events that do not fit into their existing thought structures. In these contradictory situations, children have essentially two options: They must either enlarge their existing structures or create a new category or structure. Piaget defines this as the process of accommodation.

Intelectual growth, Piaget postulates, occurs when the individual attempts to resolve the tension between the interaction processes of assimilation and accommodation by developing new thoughts and responses that are more suitable or adequate. Equilibrium is re-established when thought structures are altered, producing new accommodations that enable the individual to assimilate the new situations. Intellectual growth, then, occurs through internal self-regulation processes that lead to new, higher levels of equilibration.

Moral/Ethical Reasoning. While there are several approaches to values education, the most encouraging one in the cognitive developmental approach offered by Kohlberg (1976) (Gibbs, et al., 1976).

Kohlberg’s moral/ethical development theory is an extension of Piaget’s cognitive development theory. Kohlberg views moral development as progression through a series of stages (Figure 1). Each stage is characterized by a very different way of perceiving and interpreting one’s experiences. At the higher steps (principled), reasoning takes into account concerns for the welfare of others and includes concerns for human dignity, justice, equality—the same principles upon which our Constitution is based. Lower stages, in comparison, consider satisfying personal, self-serving, and less encompassing needs. The needs of others are usually considered only if it is convenient to do so.

Following Piaget, Kohlberg views development as change in thinking
capabilities—the structures of thought processes. In the course of development, higher-level thought structures are attained and result in the extension of an individual's social perspective and reasoning capabilities. Applying higher levels of thinking to problems results in problem solutions that have greater consistency and are more generalizable.

**Social Role Taking.** The research of Robert Selman (1976) indicates that social role taking ability is a developed capacity that also progresses in a series of stages from early childhood through adolescence. Role taking is viewed by Selman in terms of qualitative changes in the manner children structure their understanding of the relationship between the perspectives of self and others.

Selman has identified and defined stages 0 through 4. Each of Selman's stages relates closely to and parallels Kohlberg's moral reasoning stages.

The social role taking stages are viewed as a link between Piaget's logical reasoning stages and Kohlberg's moral reasoning stages. Just as Piaget's logical reasoning stages are necessary but not sufficient for attaining the parallel moral reasoning stages, a similar necessity but not sufficient relationship appears to exist between social role taking stages and parallel moral reasoning stages.

As Selman has pointed out, "... the child's cognitive stage indicates his level of understanding of the nature of social relations, and his moral judgment stage indicates the manner in which he decides how to resolve social conflicts between people with different points of view." (1976, p. 307.)

Hence, the Socio-Scientific Model consists of four interacting components: logical reasoning, moral/ethical reasoning, social role taking, and information. Since the content or information component will vary, so too will the concepts of the component. In our curriculum modules—which do not include the invaluable element added by community service—we have concentrated on issues in science/technology/society. Of course, service-learning educators may use the techniques developed in the model to help students think through any dilemma that arises.

Development is both vertical and horizontal. Vertical development is from lower to high stages; horizontal development relates to the requirements that must be satisfied as one moves from logical reasoning through social role taking to moral reasoning capabilities. The goal, then, is to help each individual achieve more adequate problem-solving and decisionmaking capability. "More adequate" refers to the idea that when applied to problem solving, the higher stages of reasoning result in solutions that are more encompassing and generalizable; they enable students to deal with greater complexity and make more equitable judgments.

**Disequilibrium and Growth**

The application of the Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model centers on identifying those experiences important for assisting students to become more effective and capable decisionmakers and problem solvers in a highly scientific and technological world. Service-learning provides numerous opportunities for such experiences, and the model can add an essential dimension to processing those experiences.

The main strategy underlying the socio-scientific reasoning approach is based on Piaget's concept of equilibration. By creating cognitive disequilibrium, active restructuring of thought takes place. This active restructuring leads to growth in logical reasoning and, we contend, growth in social role taking and in moral/ethical reasoning capabilities as well.

Restructuring of existing cognitive structures occurs when the individual feels internal disequilibrium. New experiences and inputs that are not readily comprehensible challenge the individual's existing mode of thought by revealing inadequacies or inconsistencies in that problem solving strategy (Tomlinson-Keasey, 1974). Arrestment at a given stage is partially explained by the developmental theorists as the lack of opportunities that create conflict or dissonance so that the individual needs to assess a particular mode of thinking.

Service-learning certainly provides those opportunities.

The cognitive conflict or dissonance so necessary for growth is facilitated when students are exposed to a rich background of diverse experiences. I know of no better way for schools to provide such experiences than through service-learning. Service-learning clearly expands the sphere of learning opportunities from the vicarious and often sterile boundaries of the individual classroom to encompass the rich diversity of experiences of the community, state, nation, and world.

Exposure to a wide variety of community service experiences provides only one—albeit significant—part of the necessary essentials for growth. Such activity serves to trigger the disequilibrium discussed previously. Socio-scientific reasoning and the activities we have identified and will discuss later provide the necessary essential for the re-establishment of equilibrium and synchronous growth in logical reasoning, social role taking, and moral/ethical reasoning. In short, the Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model addresses the learning component of the service-learning experience.

For example, both Pete and Debbie asked about a disturbing incident. Pete learned about the problem by chance while Debbie became personally involved in it through her service-learning experience. The kidney transplant dilemma stimulated interest and concern, and initiated a degree of cognitive dissonance. Mr. Andrews ignored the students' real issue of concern and lectured about organ transplants. Ms. Cook, on the other hand, skillfully captured the opportunity to explore the fundamental issue through open discussion in a nonthreatening classroom environment.

In attempting to resolve the kidney transplant dilemma, some of Ms. Cook's students experienced increased cognitive conflict because they were exposed to points of view that reflected a higher stage of reasoning than the stage at which they were functioning. These students experienced dissonance because they could not assimilate the higher stage arguments into their existing thought structures. As the lively classroom dialogue continued, however, these same students began to restructure their thinking (accommodation) and, in the process of attempting to re-establish equilibrium, increased their reasoning and decision-
making/problem-solving capabilities. Ms. Cook was employing aspects of the socio-scientific reasoning approach in her service-learning teaching.

Using the Model

What then are some of the strategies utilized in the Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model? How might such strategies be applied in service-learning programs?

The Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model has served as our guide to develop a supplementary educational program that has documented the effectiveness of both the strategies and the materials used in helping to increase cognitive achievement and advance students toward more mature moral reasoning. Each of the 14 curriculum modules comprising the Preparing for Tomorrow's World program provides—through a variety of activities—abundant opportunities for students to:

- Encounter a variety of viewpoints in a nonthreatening classroom environment;
- Experience higher level reasoning;
- Take the perspective of others;
- Examine and clarify one's own ideas;
- Examine the consequences and implications of one's decisions;
- Defend one's position;
- Evaluate the range of possible alternatives;
- Consider and recognize the role of the self in society.

Reflect on one's own value systems.

One particularly effective educational activity that incorporates many of these elements is the classroom dilemma discussion like the one that took place in Ms. Cook's class. This activity is most commonly associated with the approach employed by Kohlberg and his colleagues and can be readily applied in service-learning programs.

In using the dilemma technique, care must be taken to ensure that the students understand the dilemma and what they are being asked to resolve. Most important, in attempting to resolve the dilemma—a situation with no apparent wrong or right answer—students must express not only what they feel should be done, but why. We also have employed such other formats as role playing, simulations, futures forecasting, and analysis methodologies.

Critical to our approach is a dynamic student-to-student interaction, for each classroom contains a variety of stage reasoning models. Through discourse, students are exposed to divergent viewpoints and different levels of reasoning. Students taking different positions question and challenge why a particular stance is held. They reflect on their own thinking, clarify their own arguments, and evaluate their own reasoning.

As a result of participating in service-learning programs, students are exposed to a wealth of situations—dilemmas—that can and should be dealt with in the program's classroom phase. Obviously, genuine, unexpected dilemmas that demand immediate consideration may arise in virtually all community service settings. Service-learning educators also may prepare scenarios posing the types of dilemmas that they know their students are likely to encounter. Of course, the dilemmas most likely to develop the basic skills enumerated earlier are those that stem directly from experience.

Although dilemma discussion is only one of many approaches we have employed, it is the one most easily adopted and most highly effective. In using this approach, it is extremely important for the teacher to include a knowledge or information base. Meaningful discussion cannot take place in a vacuum. While general discussion can and should occur during the initial discussion phase, information and/or data—including from articles, library research, films, the agency supervisors—also should be available.

The Socio-Scientific Reasoning Model that has guided our curriculum development efforts is an effective and relevant model for educating youth for today and tomorrow. Emphasizing simultaneous development in the intellectual and moral/ethical realms, this curriculum approach may prepare students for decisionmaking about current issues and issues projected to be of importance during the next quarter century and beyond. Understanding the ways that students structure knowledge at their different thinking levels, we can then develop those instructional materials and service experiences that will help advance their level of thinking.

I am confident that the merger of this model with service-learning will contribute greatly toward promoting one of education's major but elusive goals—to prepare youth to function more effectively and less selfishly in a constantly changing and increasingly complex world.

References


The authors see service-learning as a step in the evolution toward lifelong learning systems that will include schools, the home, social organizations, and community agencies.

Learning Networks: The Next Step  
by Arthur J. Lewis and Carol D. Blalock

A major problem in communities of poor and disadvantaged people is a breakdown of the educational environment. The schools are but one component of this environment, which includes the home, religious organizations, the social life within the community, and various community agencies. Ralph Tyler points out that "the out-of-school parts of our educational system have been sharply eroded." As an illustration, he cites the way that television has taken much of the time that children previously spent communicating with parents. (See "Stimulating an Informed Dialogue on Educational Issues," Educational Technology, April 1980, pp. 38-39.) Erosion of any part of the educational environment has an adverse effect on other elements in the environment, on the total fabric of the community, and on members of the community.

Deliberate efforts are needed to reconstruct educational environments through the emergence of self-directing or auto-coordinated networks of learning systems. Such networks probably will emerge from an evolutionary rather than a revolutionary process. Because service-learning provides a vital link between formal educational institutions and the community, it may represent a significant step in this evolution.

Why is it particularly important to reconstruct educational environments in poor and disadvantaged communities through establishing mutually supportive networks of the elements in the environment? One obvious reason is the increasing need for education. In this post-aquarian age of information, more than ever knowledge is power. The amount of training required to enable students to compete effectively for employment that can lead to upward mobility continues to increase. Thus, while changes in occupations require skilled workers to be retrained four or five times in their careers and while professionals maintain their skills and knowledge base through continuing education, the gap between the information haves and have-nots will increase unless something is done. This de facto educational disenfranchisement will continue until means are found to bring education to these groups through an improved educational environment.

Citizenship Education

A problem faced by young people, particularly in poor and disadvantaged neighborhoods, is how to make the transition from childhood to responsible adult citizenship. This transition is aided as young people gain experience and compete in work roles and as they have opportunities to assume responsible community and family roles. Service-learning provides for such opportunities. One function of a network of learning systems would be to extend the concept of service-learning and assure that all youth have appropriate experiences to aid them in the difficult transition to adult roles.

An area of particular concern is that of citizenship education. Tyler points out, "Relatively little attention is being given to the area of citizenship education, in which nationally there is evidence of serious decline." Effective citizenship education takes place in the community as well as in the school. Students need opportunities to learn about constructive roles of citizens through actually working at community endeavors. The value of this approach has been convincingly demonstrated through countless service-learning projects.

Establishment of a comprehensive community program for citizenship education could be an important goal for a network of learning systems. The cooperative endeavors required to establish such a comprehensive program may provide a catalyst for social change throughout a community. Solution of one community problem, for example, educa-
tion for citizenship, may provide both a framework and a stimulus for other social action programs.

Children and youth in poor and disadvantaged neighborhoods need appropriate community-wide educational experiences to enable them to compete equitably for careers, to aid them as they make the transition from youth to adult, and to become competent citizens. Even as this need for quality education increases, however, securing adequate financial support becomes more difficult. Because of a variety of economic and social trends, financial resources will not be available to meet the increased need for education unless ways are found to make maximum utilization of all resources. These trends include: balance of trade deficit, long-term inflation, increased cost for health care and welfare, and the shift to an older population.

Creativity and imagination will be needed to do more for less money, using both existing and new educational resources without sacrificing humanistic values. For example, electronic technology combined with telecommunications can provide a powerful resource for education whether provided in the home, the school, or in another community agency. Testifying before a House of Representatives Education and Labor subcommittee in 1979, Earl Joseph, a computer expert and futurist, foresaw a “technology for education which includes embedding increasingly capable, but physically small, micro-processor logic, digital storage/memory, sensors, communications circuits and links, and eventually voice actuated and reply mechanisms for creating convivially smart machines—which are more humanistic for students.”

Another example. Nutritional and other biomedical advances hold out hope for the development of technologies that promise changes as profound as those already taking place as a result of the revolution in electronic technology. Children of the poor may be denied access to these new developments unless a network of learning systems enables their community both to capitalize on existing resources and develop new vehicles for education.

Basic Assumptions

The possible nature of emerging networks of learning systems becomes clear as we examine the assumptions underlying such a network.

Learning takes place throughout the community. Each human communication is potentially a learning interaction. Every day most members of the community spend time exposed to news media that may or may not provide information useful in the life of their community. Many individuals participate in other types of educational activities provided by formal institutions and by other agencies and institutions. In many cases the sources of information or skills are other community members. An effective network of learning systems would seek cooperation among the various activities within a community and would recognize the particular relevance of community-based information processing.

Each member of the community is both a learner and a resource person. One assumption underlying a network of learning systems is also a basic tenet of service-learning, namely, that each person in the community can contribute skills, energy, and personal experience in providing educational experiences for others and also benefit from educational experiences provided by others. This is particularly true for members of minority communities whose daily concerns may effectively alienate them from the priorities of the greater society.

Learning, in this broad community sense, is controlled by the learner. It is important that user perceptions help shape resources provided by the network rather than have such decisions made by a central administrative staff. The application of this assumption needs to be tempered with a realization that viable approaches and valuable resources may be ignored due to lack of awareness of their existence or to cultural inertia. Thus, a carefully designed counseling service is necessary.

Learning networks should meet the needs of all individuals. Individuals have a variety of personal educational interests and needs. For example, in their careers most individuals need to continually update their skills and knowledge as technology and the state of the art advances. Also, the young, particularly the culturally disenfranchised, receive the major part of their socialization from community interactions. The learning system must accommodate the diverse needs of all individuals for educational development in various fields—as well as personal growth—while nurturing the capacity for self-direction in learning.

Learning networks should assure equality of access and opportunity. To the extent that all members of the community are touched by the community’s educational network, the network encourages but does not assure equality of access and opportunity. A key component of any learning network will be individuals and groups who have as their specific charge the support and development of the poor and of the culturally disadvantaged minorities.

Learning networks should meet society’s needs. In order to perpetuate itself, society requires that education effectively provide for socialization of its young. This process includes learning the norms and values of the society and developing respect for and a belief in the democratic form of government and a commitment to work toward the common good. Any network of learning systems must contribute toward meeting these needs of society as well as the needs of individuals.

Learning networks need to be adaptable. Effective community-wide learning networks will change with evolving social and economic patterns; hence, a strong research and evaluation component is necessary. There already exists in every community a number of single purpose special interest groups. In the past such groups have often banded together to form issue-oriented coalitions that dispersed when the issue they addressed was resolved. Long-term relationships need to
be and can be maintained by making the network dynamic, thus enabling it to respond to changing educational needs and interests with appropriate resource development and allocation.

The Cardinal Principles
The need for some type of cooperative network of the various elements in an educational environment has been stated. Assumptions underlying such a network have been made explicit. Furthermore, a number of service-learning programs reported in Synergist have demonstrated that it is possible to link two or more elements in the educational environment and thereby enhance the quality of learning.

How could one go a step further and establish a cooperative network of learning systems? Before outlining a series of steps leading to a network that would enhance the educational environment, it is necessary to describe the expectations from an educational environment.

Sixty-three years ago the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education summarized the purposes of education in seven cardinal principles: health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home-membership, vocation, civic education, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character. In 1977 Harold G. Shane checked on the continuing relevance of these seven purposes of education by interviewing 46 national and international leaders and 95 high school age youth. (See Curriculum Change Toward the 21st Century, National Education Association, Washington, D.C. 1979, p. 42.) An overwhelming majority reaffirmed these purposes. Although their exact wording might change, the seven cardinal principles still provide a useful guide.

Several panel members observed that "the original cardinal principles did not distinguish between the general responsibilities for education and those that were best assumed by or shared with agencies such as the church, the community and the family." The failure to clarify relative responsibilities for education has provided a legacy of deficits. As the influence of the church, the community, and the family weakened, schools were asked to assume more and more of their responsibilities—without the accompanying resources. The result was inevitable; schools simply are unable to meet all the educational needs within a society.

Meeting all of society's educational needs is a particular problem in poor and disadvantaged communities where non-school agencies in the community, the church, and the home have minimal educational influence. Thus, schools are particularly hard pressed as they attempt to take over some of the functions of the home and other agencies. For example, many schools are now serving breakfasts. Some educators advocate that the school focus its attention on more narrowly defined purposes. Such a refocusing may be desirable, but only if other agencies and institutions supplement the school's efforts to assure that all of society's educational needs are met.

The chief purpose of a network of learning systems, then, is to foster an educational environment that will meet all of society's educational needs.

Steps in the Evolution
A first step in the evolution of the network will be the development of an awareness that education and schooling are not synonymous—that schooling is but one, albeit a very important one, of the many educational processes within our society. Many educational leaders recognize this; the general public and many educators either do not recognize this fact or fail to see its import in practice. Evidence that it is understood will come when educators and the public respond to a new educational need by asking: Where within our community can this need best be met? Those that work in service-learning have already taken this step. They have recognized that out-of-school experiences make a valuable contribution to learning.

One of the next steps will be a recognition that the effectiveness of various educational agencies can be improved through cooperation. The educational influence of each agency is enhanced when its goals are congruent with those of other agencies. Consider, for example, the influence of the school, the church, the community, and the home in pioneer communities of the nineteenth century where all groups held essentially the same values. We are beginning to see some recognition of the importance of cooperation between the home and school. Clearly, service-learning depends upon similar goals between schools or colleges and the participating agencies.

Cooperation between agencies can improve the educational environment in other ways. For example, cooperation could lead to an awareness of agencies that need strengthening and of programs that should be initiated.

An understanding and appreciation of the value of cooperation can lead to another step: the formulation of a network of learning systems. At the outset the group might adopt a more modest title, such as Council for Educational Opportunities or Cooperating Agencies for Education. The group could be started with representation from only two or three interested agencies and institutions. The group should be self-generating, not coordinated by anybody but rather generating its own coordination, thus providing auto-coordination.

Initiation for such a network could come from any place within a community. A public school or community college teacher, administrator, or counselor might start the ball rolling. A community education person would be in an advantageous spot to provide the leadership. Directors of service-learning activities would be in ideal positions to initiate programs because of their contacts with the community and their recognition of the importance of cooperation. Initiators of networks will be successful when their motives are viewed as improving the educational environment, unsuccessful when they appear to be interested in enhancing their own institution or personal reputation. Auto-coordination is like a fragile
flower; it will not bloom in an atmosphere of domination.

The original goals of the fledging network should be modest. An initial activity could be to develop a catalog of educational experiences available within the community. The network's first catalog could apply only to one type of learning resource—for example, a list of vocational-training opportunities. This activity would provide an informal assessment of the educational facilities within the environment without making any qualitative judgments. A by-product of this activity would be to familiarize educational agencies, as well as the public, with the existence of the newly formed network.

The next activity of the network could be to provide counseling services to community members to link learners to educational opportunities. Poorly educated adults want and need more assistance in identifying resources for learning. Counselors need to be available where the people are—in shopping centers, factories, and store front offices. Hiring a core of expensive counselors is neither practical nor necessary. Sweden, for example, has had very good results using peer counseling for adult education programs. Thus one or two professional counselors could be used to assist volunteers who would provide educational counseling.

As the fledging network gains strength, it might undertake a community educational needs assessment. By comparing this assessment with the earlier survey of available educational resources, the network could determine areas where new agencies were needed or existing agencies should be strengthened. Some agencies might use the results of such a study as the basis for program priorities.

Networks of learning systems, as they mature, will make provision for mutual support services that may include:

- Curriculum and instruction—to assist agencies in designing new and redeveloping old programs;
- Educational technology—to make available to community agencies appropriate educational hardware and software, to aid members of the network to prepare software, and to instruct personnel in the use of educational technology;
- Evaluation—to assist community groups as they design evaluations to examine the total consequences of their educational programs, as they collect data, and as they interpret the results;
- Research—to encourage studies to examine the strengths and weaknesses of the total educational environment and its impact on clients;
- Teacher education—to improve the teaching skills of anyone who teaches—from volunteers in Red Cross training programs and Sunday schools to professionals in schools and colleges;
- Counseling—to assist personnel in various agencies to gain needed counseling skills; this could include training of peer counselors and assisting parents in their relationships with their children.

A major, but not the sole, resource for these support services will be professionals in schools, colleges, and universities. Thus, as some responsibilities assigned to schools are reassigned by home and community groups, educational professionals may have time to provide support services. Teachers, counselors, and administrators will generally find it necessary to upgrade their own skills and knowledge as they undertake this exciting new role.

Self-Directed Learning

An effective educational environment is characterized by appropriate educational opportunities and clients who take advantage of these opportunities. The evaluation of an auto-coordinated network of learning systems has been described as a means of enhancing opportunities for learning; but these better opportunities are worthless if unused by potential clients. Encouraging citizens to avail themselves of educational opportunities is a particular problem in poor and disadvantaged neighborhoods where education is often not valued and where, too often, encounters with education have been negative experiences. As we move into a period when lifelong education shifts from rhetoric to reality, what can be done to prevent an ever-increasing deficit for the poor and disenfranchised?

Lifelong learning requires that individuals become self-directed in their learning. Self-direction requires such basic skills as the ability to read and write. The coming of an information-communication age may make computer literacy a new basic skill. But having the skills needed to gain new information and knowledge is useless without an accompanying desire to learn. Helping students, particularly in poor neighborhoods, to develop positive attitudes toward learning may be more difficult than teaching basic skills. But such attitudes can be developed through a total educational environment approach. Witness, for example, the positive attitudes toward learning often engendered through service-learning activities.

This article has briefly sketched the possibility of a network of learning systems and possible steps in its evolution. At this point demonstration projects are called for, and these will need the assistance of federal and foundation funding. Tyler suggests that the Secretary of the new Department of Education should "commission studies of the total educational environment for children and youth in several different kinds of communities." He adds that reports of such studies "would be helpful in arousing community concern for the total education of their children, and the recognition of the need for both good schools and adequate educational opportunities out of the school." If funding such projects becomes a possibility, an application from an auto-coordinated network of learning systems is certain to have high priority. The needed demonstrations may emerge from such initiatives.

Individuals who take the leadership for demonstration projects will recognize the importance of the total educational environment, will understand the potential educational contribution of various community agencies, and will believe in strong citizen participation in shaping their own destiny. Service-learning advocates share these attributes; leadership for taking the next step toward a network of learning systems may well come from this group.

For more information, request a copy of Toward a Network of Learning Systems by Arthur Lewis, Carol Blalock, David Harrison, and Paul Kajdan (1979, 33 pages), from Fred Daniel, Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida 32304.
Surviving and Thriving by Jane Szutu Permaul

How do you institutionalize service-learning programs? Few programs initially enjoy total institutional support. Most begin with one or more committed individuals and funding from outside grants. When the grants run out, some enterprising individuals are fortunate enough to get new grant support. Others bring pressures on the institution’s administration by presenting lists of accomplishments and letters of support. Someone among the decisionmakers may see the light, and authorize funds to enable the program to limp along for another year. Still other programs rely on the personal and professional contacts of their directors, who somehow manage to scavenge bits and pieces of support from various sources.

These three approaches—getting new grants, courting a patron, and hustling here and there—require constant effort. The fight for survival goes on from day to day and year to year. The program continues to be a guest of the host institution rather than a member of the household. The energy that could be going into innovation and expansion instead is expended in meeting basic needs. Instead of becoming institutionalized, the program dies a slow death.

On the other hand, Established Traditional University (ETU) now has more than 1,000 students a year involved in service-learning and other forms of experiential education. They come from throughout ETU, housed and supported by academic departments, placement and career planning centers, special interdisciplinary programs, and research units. It is not exactly what a University Year for Action director envisioned when she got an ACTION grant six years ago to put students into the community as full-time volunteers for a full year.

At that time, service-learning had no academic status on campus. The mechanisms for determining hours of credit for learning gained by performing a service did not exist. To get the program going, the director managed to convince a couple of instructors to volunteer to sponsor a temporary experimental course in addition to their regular class load. This was the beginning. With ingenuity, creativity, and determination, the director, assisted by the instructors and field supervisors, developed a service-learning program.

Once she felt confident in the quality of the program, she began a campaign of educating key members of the faculty and administration. Having successfully piqued the curiosity of these people in service-learning, she consulted them on the form of service-learning that would most likely be accepted by the faculty and administration at large. They gave her constructive but critical and realistic advice that was invaluable in modifying and refining the service-learning program to be more compatible with university standards and practices. In the process, her advisers became more educated about the pro’s and con’s of service-learning.

The moment of truth came when she submitted the service-learning program to the Academic Senate for review. The Senate did not like everything but respected the director’s good faith efforts and the comments from faculty supporters and administrative advisers. The verdict was to continue the program, subject to further modifications. That gave the green light for the director to involve the Senate in establishing the service-learning program at ETU.

With official acceptance from the Senate, doors were open for institutional support. Temporary funds came first, but with a plan for phasing into regular funding. Today, those 1,000 plus students are supported by regular instructional, research, and student services funds.

The story about Established Traditional University is true, although the name has been changed to protect against congratulatory letters pouring into the institution. There are many other success stories. They have served as the basis of a strategy for integrating service-learning into institutions of higher education. The accompanying chart outlines that strategy.

An Institutionalization Strategy

The strategy for institutionalization emphasizes institutional integration and is based on three simple, but well established, social science principles. The first is the age-old principle of survival of the fittest. With service-learning or any other educational innovation, the program and its product must possess a quality that can withstand and compete against traditional
and other programs supported by the institution. Too frequently, the service-learning director—in the role of guest—fails to realize or acknowledge other legitimate educational demands on the institution, such as teaching English composition, providing financial aid, performing basic research, and offering courses in humanities and the arts. Who is to decide one function is more important than the other when institutional resources are limited?

This is where survival of the fittest comes into play. Those programs that can contribute the most to institutional goals are most likely to survive and be nurtured. A well designed service-learning program should withstand the harshest of educational challenges, for it is a vehicle of learning in many academic disciplines, of community service, and of research.

A second principle underlying the strategy deals with acculturation and assimilation. Colleges and universities are in many respects subcultures of the American society. Each campus has its own set of social norms and values. For the new kid on the block, namely service-learning, to be accepted, it must adapt to the established norms and values. To become assimilated, however, does not require total submission. It does require compatibility.

The institutionalization problems encountered by many University Year for Action administrators highlight the importance of acculturation and assimilation. UYA was established to mobilize university students to serve communities and people in need in the same way VISTA volunteers do. While this goal is laudable, UYA did not give equal consideration to the prime mission of colleges and universities, namely education. Nor did it acknowledge that students are students because they want to learn. For both the university and the student, community service is at best second or third in priority. Consequently, few UYA programs survived in their initial form after termination of ACTION support, which is limited to five years. Many other service-learning programs sprouted on campuses, however, as an outgrowth of UYA programs.

A third principle deals with the phenomenon of organizational change. Change implies a fundamental difference or a substitution of one thing for another. For the new kid on the block, the motiva-

These conditions are not necessarily undesirable. Tension provides the incentive for the establishment of change in order to resolve the discomfort caused by the conflict. This phenomenon frequently forces communication to take place between the new kid and the old gang. In turn, communication enables the estab-
lishment to find out what service-learning can contribute. If service-learning has something substantial to contribute, chances for its adoption are good.

Let’s consider another story, a less happy one. Four faculty members in a small rural university took advantage of a grant to start a program that enabled students to earn up to 12 academic credits for learning gained from work or any other life experience. The program remained small and funded only by the grant. It ran smoothly without any major obstacles, until the time came to institutionalize. The program was not up to standards, too expensive, not academically oriented, and vocational rather than professional.

How could the university possibly consider funding such a program? The program faculty was at first shocked by all the objections. After all, the program had been in operation for two years and no one had objected. That is incorrect! The truth is that no one had cared because the program did not infringe on the establishment. Now it wanted a piece of the pie. The establishment was threatened. Tension mounted and lots of people became concerned. People wanted to know about the program, if for no other reason than to formulate a counterattack. Communication thereby can be established. Institutionalization now depended on the quality of the program, which is as it should be.

**Implementation**

Applying the three principles of this strategy of institutionalization involves three phases. The first, the developmental phase, focuses on producing a quality program. The second phase involves understanding institutional norms, insuring compatibility between the program and the institution. The final phase deals with institutional integration and adoption. This last phase ultimately should lead the program to become a part of other institutional programs, or to work cooperatively and collaboratively with them, or to do both.

As noted earlier, the goal of the developmental phase is to develop a program that can compete with other demands placed on the host institution. During this phase, attention should be given to fundamental program concerns, such as objectives, delivery system, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, logistics, and participants. Who, what, when, where, and how. It is essential to have ample time to test the program and refine it according to what is learned from an ongoing evaluation. This is the phase for creativity and autonomous growth.

Once the program takes shape and becomes stabilized, the second phase begins. In this phase, program objectives, policies, practices, and standards need to be articulated and compared with institutional norms. The program and institutional norms need not be the same, but they must be compatible. Where they are not, make program adjustments and modifications—without sacrificing the central reason for the program’s being. The program usually has more flexibility than the institution and, therefore, can be modified more easily.

While the program is not expected to be a carbon copy miniature of the institution, compatibility must be demonstrated in at least four areas. One is academic credit: how much, for what, given by whom. Most institutions have policies on these matters to which the program must conform. If not, then try getting an exception or changing the policies through established channels.

The second area has to do with curricular implications: Do program credits apply to satisfying general education, major, or elective requirements, and for which degree. Once again differences need to be resolved.

The third area deals with quality assurance: Who governs, administers, and evaluates the program, and what are the criteria.

Finally, there is cost and a budgetary consideration: Who pays, how much, and for what. Service-learning programs generate many outcomes: service to community, academic learning, career exploration, and personal development. Support for these outcomes comes from different institutional sources, all of whom should be asked to contribute.

When compatibility is achieved in these four areas, and possibly others unique to a particular institution, the program is ready to enter into its last phase submission of the program for institutional review by established channels. This is perhaps the most difficult step for most innovative program personnel to take. It is also the most critical. Without submitting the program to the test, it will always remain on the fringe, wondering if it is acceptable to the institution. Taking this last step will enable the program to be accepted or rejected. In most cases, those programs that are thoughtfully planned, administered, and monitored—compatible with institutional norms ultimately are accepted.

The Established Traditional University experienced all phases of the strategy. The UYA director first concentrated on getting a service-learning program going. Then, through information and education, she gained the counsel of a group of advisors who understood the institutional norms. This enabled the UYA director to adjust her program to meet those norms. Finally, she submitted the program to be judged by the establishment. Though not totally acceptable, the program had substance and was compatible enough for the institution to want to nurture its growth. From that point on, it was a cooperative and collaborative joint effort to improve the quality of the program.

Institutionalization does not occur automatically at the end of a grant, and it is not a matter of surviving from day to day wondering from where the support will come next. Institutionalization is the total integration of the program into the mainstream of institutional concerns and operations. It is becoming a part of the college or university. The key ingredients to successful institutionalization are program quality that can withstand the established standards for acceptability, compatibility with institutional norms, and successful use of concepts in organizational change. These ingredients can only be produced given adequate time and a well designed strategy. Thus, institutionalization begins on the very first day of the design of a new program.
Community service and intensive counseling combine to help 70% of chronic high school truants improve attendance and grades.

Community Apprentices

by Esther Reichman

Recognizing that chronic absenteeism and cutting of classes are the twin nemeses that lead to student failure and eventual dropout, Sarah J. Hale High School, Brooklyn, has developed the Community Apprenticeship Program (CAP). It serves a school population that is 70 percent black and 29 percent Puerto Rican and comes primarily from low-income families.

The purpose of the program is to provide an alternative education system that will help high school students regain interest in school, develop career goals, and assume greater responsibility for meeting academic, personal, and community needs. The success of the program is based on careful structure, close school-community interaction, and intensive counseling of the students and their families.

CAP began two years ago with 10 students. Last spring 55 took part. Two thirds were sophomores, one fourth were freshmen, and the rest were juniors and seniors. Approximately 70 percent of the CAP students have improved their grade point average significantly and no longer are chronic truants. The following tells how and why this change occurred.

Getting Started

As coordinator of a drug abuse prevention program called Student Prevention of Substance Abuse Through Rehabilitation and Knowledge (SPARK), I interviewed several cutters and long-term absentees to ascertain their reasons for absenteeism. They most often cited lack of interest, little perceived relationship between schoolwork and career expectations, personal problems (including family, drugs, peers), and disenchantment with school and with life in general.

Principal Bernard Wolinez and I then developed the general guidelines of the CAP program to address each of the four problems and presented these guidelines to the staff for discussion, some of which was quite critical. Later parents and agency supervisors also commented, some with considerable cynicism.

Basically the program specifies that students spend four of the seven periods in regular academic classes and three periods in CAP. Four days a week the students serve in community agencies. On the fifth day they spend the three CAP periods in group counseling. In addition, every student is involved in individual and family counseling and is referred to outside agencies, such as drug rehabilitation centers, as the need arises.

Twelve hall wanderers were interviewed for the pilot program, and 10 who indicated an interest—and received their parents’ written permission—were enrolled in the program.

Since students receive credit, attendance and progress records are important. Before the program began, therefore, we established a documentation system consisting of parent letters permitting the student to take part, a letter introducing the student to the agency, evaluation forms completed by the agency, performance contracts signed by the students, weekly attendance sheets, student identification cards, and letters reporting absenteeism to parents (sent if the student misses one day at the agency).

The next step was contacting directors of local hospitals, day care centers, senior citizen centers, and public schools to find...
those willing to give the program a chance. Most were, particularly since the policy then as now is for each agency supervisor to interview the students who have expressed a preference for that agency before accepting or rejecting them.

The first group of students started working in September 1978, and soon the original skepticism turned into cooperation and commendation. As the program became more popular, students began to apply at the participating agencies on their own. This helped introduce students to job search techniques.

The school-agency relationship is an integral part of the program. The agencies take an interest in and monitor carefully the students’ progress. In return, CAP students provide an invaluable service. In fact, many CAP students get paying summer jobs at the agency at which they have volunteered.

The CAP coordinator’s monthly visits help foster agency-school cooperation—and help students understand that the school regards what they are doing as important and that their performance, both positive and negative, will be reflected in their grades.

**Intensive Counseling**

Though the school and community agencies form the framework of the program, its existence and success are based on the support that students receive through group, individual, and family counseling services.

In group counseling, students meet weekly in groups of 10 to 13. Through group therapy, they learn to better understand their behavior and to accept others’ perceptions of their actions. For example, Altia’s inability to accept directives from supervisors was creating a serious conflict at her agency. Group members helped Altia realize that her rejection of authority stemmed from her anger at her mother, who was always ordering her around. In the supportive group environment, Altia was helped to accept her anger, to learn to deal with it, and to stop viewing everyone in authority as her mother.

CAP students also discuss their personal problems and the reasons they are having a difficult time in school. They support each other when family and school issues become too difficult to cope with alone. A common problem faced by these teenagers is abusive, emotionally neglectful fathers. By helping each other realize that others in the group have similar problems, members have learned to support each other. As one student whose mother allowed her almost no independence said, “Without this group I could never have had the courage to face my mother.”

The group sessions also are used to discuss feelings about working in agencies and to explore career options and goals. Students study the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* for job opportunity projections and examine career decisions by completing attitude scales and informal interest inventories.

Individual and family counseling is provided to students as needed. Whenever a student’s academic progress or emotional adjustment indicates that problems may be family based, I call or write the parents and encourage them to come to school and meet with me. In cases where parents cannot come to school for ongoing sessions, the student is referred to a neighborhood mental health facility. The family counseling is especially important because it helps students resolve, or at least better understand and cope with, family conflicts and problems.

Parental involvement has served to highlight the family’s role in helping adolescents cope with emotional problems. Most parents claim they learn a great deal about their children and become more effective at helping them work out their problems. For example, a mother had never realized that her son’s attachment to herself was so strong that he could barely function—even do homework—on his own.

Another component of the counseling is the agency-student-coordinator meeting that takes place whenever a student has a difficult time with an agency supervisor. These meetings have helped students resolve problems with authority issues and address problems caused by unsuitable working conditions. In addition, these meetings have helped students realize that when a problem arises, it is not desirable to just quit and run, that often a problem can be resolved once communication channels are open.

**Evaluation**

When students have failed to complete the program (which happens with about 25 percent of them), the primary reasons were limited parental support and the student’s inability to cope with program rules and group regulations, such as regular attendance.

One sign of success is that 70 percent of the students pass more courses during their CAP semester(s) than they did previously and have a lower absentee rate. (No student is allowed to participate in CAP for more than two terms.) Another mark of success is the positive response from the agencies. A typical case is that of Iris, a 16-year-old sophomore who had been an excessive truant before being assigned to work in a kindergarten. The assistant principal wrote: “She has been extremely helpful as well as dependable. The teacher to whom she was assigned lauded her intelligence and good humor. I am also certain that she benefitted by the association with the rules and regulations in her work experience at the school.”

Several civic groups—including the Mayor’s City Wide Volunteer Action Committee and the American Business, Labor, and Education Coalition—have commended the program. One CAP student, Jennifer Washington, was selected from students across the city to speak before congressmen and others as a representative of high school volunteers. What Jennifer told that group summarizes CAP’s accomplishments. She said, in part, “Before I worked in the CAP program, I cut most of my classes and really wasn’t too interested in school. My volunteer experiences in the day care center helped me realize that there are many skills I need in order to get a good job. I started attending classes and passing them, and to top it all off, the day care center liked my work so much that they offered me a summer job. This gave me the feeling that I could do anything I wanted to, if I really put my mind to it. . . . it is important to keep in mind that there are children all over the world, and in New York City especially, who need special services in the areas of nutrition, recreation, and emotional sustenance. It is unfortunately impossible to fulfill the needs of all the children. But, the little bit that everyone can do in the area of volunteer services serves at least to help some others who need our assistance.”
Taking Technology to Nepal’s Village

by Madhab Prasad Poudyal

One of the most important features of Nepal’s National Education System Plan for 1971-1976 was the creation of the National Development Service (NDS) program under Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu. According to the scheme, all postgraduate students have to spend one academic year in the rural areas working full time as change agents in education, agriculture, health, and construction (see “Nepal’s National Development Service,” by Tulsi Ram Vaidya, Synergist, Spring 1977, page 16). Thus the main purposes of NDS are to fill the need for teachers and grassroot development workers there.

In spite of strong student protests in 1974 and 1975, now the program is accepted by all concerned. Because students have been successful in many aspects of village development, the villagers, whenever necessary, go to them to sort out and solve any kind of problem.

The concept of overall change agent has come into practice. In this regard, Tribhuvan University has taken another significant task on its shoulders, i.e., an experiment in spreading appropriate technology in the rural areas through the NDS participants.

The people in the rural areas of Nepal still do not accept new, simple, and comfortable technology. For example, during my tour in the Karnali Zone I found a woman kneading the mustard and preparing oil from the seeds. Another was husking the mustard paddy by hand. I suggested making a simple wooden mustard crushing machine (called kolin nepoli) and a foot-operated wooden husking instrument (called dhiki). She and the other villagers surrounded me and rejected my proposal. They feared God would punish them for adopting a new mechanism. It would have taken two days to construct and would have saved countless hours. Even today we find deeply rooted superstition in most of the villages.

Often technology common in one region is rare in another. We find plenty of grinding mills using water resources in the western parts of the country, but the housewives of the eastern hills—though water is plentiful—grind their corn by hand with a small, round grinding stone. The transfer of technology within the country obviously can save the people money, time, and energy. The main obstacle remains superstition, but it can be overcome within a few years if a continuous effort is made.

In Nepal, the establishment of the National Council for Science and Technology was a landmark in the history of the search for appropriate technology, i.e., technology that is suitable, labor intensive, simple, small scale, and inexpensive. The scientists involved have invented and modified appropriate technology for Nepal’s rural areas. NDS participants seemed the proper channel for spreading these innovations. In 1979, therefore, Tribhuvan University, with the encouragement of His Majesty King Birendra, started a pilot project involving 29 students.

Training and Assignments
The National Council for Applied Science and Technology provided training for

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selected NDS participants. The content of the 10-day, 60-hour course was as follows:

- Concept of technology—appropriate, traditional, and village technology; aims, objectives, and activities carried out in different countries in different fields (three hours);
- Alternative energy and energy conservation—design and uses of solar driers, cookers, heaters, evaporators, greenhouses, gobar-gas plants, and hydraulic crams (15 hours);
- Construction material development—clay and brickmaking, pottery, roofing material insulation, and sources for construction materials (10 hours);
- Post-harvest technology—fundamental principles of preservation, storage techniques, drying and dehydration techniques, traditional foods and improvements required, insect infestation and rodent control methods, nutrition and nutritious food formulations (17 hours);
- Miscellaneous—beehivekeeping and water filtration (10 hours);
- General discussions and data collections (five hours).

Students were assigned to district headquarters in the six districts selected by the Council and the NDS directorate. The problem areas they are working on include water supply and purification, energy conservation, mineral exploration, construction materials, the leather industry, bridges and irrigation, brickmaking, gobar-gas plants, soapmaking, slate utilization, transportation, health and hygiene, sugar manufacture, utilization of citrus, livestock farming, potato cultivation and storage, meat drying, fruit processing, beekeeping, ghee production, and fish processing.

Problems and Prospects

Lack of money for demonstrations is a problem for the students, who are not able to invest from their own pockets. Without demonstrations it is not possible to convince the rural people. If a donation is requested, the local participation falls to zero. Then nobody listens to the students.

The administrative procedure to grant the funds from different tiers of government offices takes time. The alternative, at least initially, is for the University to ask for a separate budget from His Majesty's Government.

A related problem is lack of workshops. A possible solution is asking the District Education Officer, the Chief District Officer, and local leaders for help.

Another problem is that NDS students are assigned to work at the school a nominal time. The situation of some schools is so poor that the NDS students feel morally bound to devote additional time there, which affects their other activities. Some headmasters and teachers withhold cooperation simply because the NDS students are assigned to the school only part time. Teaching should be optional instead of compulsory.

Early experience has indicated that it would be better for students to move around within the district spreading minor technologies and to use the district headquarters or other centers for exhibitions of simple technologies. Furthermore, the students should attend each and every fair to give exhibitions and meet the people.

The performances of the first months have shown that the NDS group is popular in all districts and that the University should make the experimental program on appropriate technology a permanent part of the National Development Service.
Community Involvement: K-12

by Willis D. Veal and Mary C. Calhoun

Kindergartners begin by working together on a problem affecting their class community. Each senior finishes by identifying and addressing a need in the city.

One of the major objectives of any educational system is to prepare youth to be inducted into adult society. Over the past several years attacks on the performance of American public schools in failing to reach this objective have become more frequent. Students and adults alike are charging that the schools seldom present realistic problems in a way that will allow students to work to resolve them, or to develop civic skills that they will use all their lives.

In response to these criticisms, the Social Studies Department at the Developmental Research School, Florida State University, Tallahassee, is developing a required K-12 experiential civic education program. This program is attempting to identify and to correlate with classroom work meaningful experiences that will help students develop skills and values vital to becoming effective participants in social, political, and economic life.

The development of the program rests on four assumptions. First, all of us are members of a variety of groups (or communities). Individuals receive certain benefits from each group and have responsibilities to each group. Second, the objective of civic education is to teach students how to function within groups and institutions. Third, individuals—through their behavior—determine the character and nature of the group. Fourth, schools can teach certain skills that will enhance the individual's ability to influence the group's productivity.

As students progress through the program, both their concept of groups or community and their participatory skills will become more fully developed. Among the major goals of the civic education program are to counteract alienation, job dissatisfaction, the rising crime rate, and the decline in the ability of public institutions to respond to and solve problems.

Three Levels

This program started in the tenth grade American Society course six years ago and expanded first into grades seven to 12 and subsequently down through the lower grades to kindergarten. The K-12 community involvement program encompasses a three-level sequence that begins with teacher-directed school-based units and ends with student-controlled community-based projects.

In the first phase of Level One (usually kindergarten through third grade) activities center on the class and are planned in the classroom by or under the direct supervision of the teacher. The students decide in their groups (the whole class or portions of it) how they can improve their own community, usually defined as the classroom, the area of the school designated as their work and play area, and the family. Kindergarten children, for example, have carried out a beautification project on the playground, concentrating on clearing away litter.

In grades four through six, the heaviest emphasis remains on the classroom, but most activities extend beyond the class into the home and sometimes beyond. One of the most outstanding service-learning projects at this level has been a junior executive operation organized by fifth graders. The children formed a corporation to raise funds (mostly by selling items to family and friends) and donated the profits to a civic project that the class selected.

At Level Two, starting in the seventh grade, students begin to take on activities planned and initiated by adults outside the school. All seventh graders must contribute 10 hours of participation as a member of a group outside the school. The objective is to demonstrate how an effective group member carries out responsibilities. Students may divide their hours into four categories as follows: family—two hours; friends—two hours; neighborhood—two hours; and community—four hours. During this time, the coursework emphasizes individual roles in group activities, how groups function, and the roles of groups in our society.

The eighth grade social studies program requires each student to contribute 10 hours to the community. Students may choose to work as individuals rather than in a group but are encouraged to participate with an organized agency.

The school does not require a social studies course in the ninth grade. Instead, students may elect to complete their ninth and tenth grade community involvement requirement during the ninth grade, during the summer between the ninth and tenth grade, or during the tenth grade. This is the introduction to Level Three, in which students plan activities with little or no adult supervision other than monitoring.

Tenth grade students have to take American Society to fulfill the American

Members of the Social Studies Department of the Developmental Research School, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Willis D. Veal and Mary C. Calhoun work with the K-12 community involvement program. Veal initiated the program in the tenth grade course and Calhoun developed the twelfth grade portion.
History requirement. This course, the first and most developed in the sequence, includes a community involvement assignment that requires students to devote 60 hours to a community, civic, social, or political organization.

Prior to starting the 60-hour community involvement activity, the students take a career aptitude test and a career interest test. In addition, they complete a form indicating what they perceive to be their own strengths and weaknesses and the skills that they have that they think are of value to others. They then are expected to identify areas in which they would like to improve. This exercise helps students to identify and select the community organizations with which they want to work. Although this is primarily each student’s responsibility, teachers are available to assist in the identification of appropriate agencies. The local Tallahassee Voluntary Action Center also provides a valuable and effective referral service.

To receive credit, students should identify precisely their projects and get them approved by a member of the Social Studies department before starting work. A number of factors influence the organizations that students select. The major one seems to be the clients served. The next is convenience to the student’s home. The third is the task that the organization wants done.

**Students’ Evaluations**

In the evaluation of the community involvement project, tenth grade students are asked a number of questions dealing with their attitude, gains, and accomplishments. Asked to “identify the personal accomplishments of which you are proudest,” a student answered, “I was the proudest when I just realized that people were depending on me.” Another said, “My most significant personal accomplishment was learning how to work with those who are disabled mentally and physically.” A student who worked in physical therapy in the Easter Seal Rehabilitation Program responded, “I accomplished a feeling of self-worth I had never had before. I had finally taught someone less fortunate than myself and helped them. It gave me a real good feeling.”

Students also are asked to identify their greatest failure. One student wrote, “I think my greatest failure was when the person I was trying to explain something to simply could not understand what I was trying to explain to him, and never did until my supervisor came to my aid and explained it in a very different way. I finally had the feeling that some teachers have.”

A third question asked of students in the evaluation process is to identify the happiest moment in the assignment. One student, working with an elderly couple, said that this moment for her was “when they trusted me enough to let me go through and balance their checkbooks and bills.” A Candy Stripper chose the moment “when I got two elderly people who refused to talk to each other talking and sharing their experiences.”

Students are asked to identify three important opportunities that their assignment offered. Among those cited were the

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**Each senior identifies a specific problem or need within the community, researches its background, and develops a plan of action for its resolution.**

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Following. “It made me know I can be important to other people.” “It made me realize that I am responsible enough to carry out responsibilities assigned me and they trust me to do.” “It made me do something I wanted to do all along.”

**The Last Step**

The Community Action Project, which began last year, gives seniors greater freedom and responsibility in choosing and carrying out projects than younger students have. Each senior identifies a specific problem or need within the community, researches its background, and develops a plan of action for its resolution. Each completes an individual project that may range from efforts to influence public decisionmaking to providing needed services to the handicapped.

Students are encouraged to select projects that require them to exercise critical thinking, decisionmaking, and organizational skills as well as personal and social skills. Students work toward meeting the goals they have set rather than putting in a specified number of hours.

Initially, students complete a personal assessment by which the coordinator may become acquainted with the individual and, thereby, assist in the selection of a compatible project. Students then identify and analyze problems that they would like to attempt to solve. Each student states the problem, isolates factors creating it, and envisions the solution.

Last year 72 students worked on projects ranging from designing and painting an entry to the Developmental Research School’s kindergarten to assisting with the passage of a bill in the Florida Legislature. Other projects included fundraising for community organizations, providing radio public service announcements on such topics as child abuse and teenage pregnancy, arranging for the clean-up of local parks and lakes, organizing a Black Students’ Business Club that will be affiliated with the Florida A & M University Club of the same name, and conducting a drug abuse workshop in conjunction with the Apalachee Mental Health Center.

The agency personnel and persons with whom students worked gave only positive evaluations.

The students’ personal evaluations also were extremely positive, with 21 rating the program excellent and 42 rating it good. The coordinator used as a guide an instrument published in Synergist (see “Study Proves Hypotheses—and More,” by Diane Hedin and Dan Conrad, Spring 1980, p. 8; reprint 210).

Students also explained their ratings. Among the comments were the following. “I learned that if I see a community problem, what to do about it.” “You learn how to get stuff going instead of sitting back wishing it was done.” “Knowing that even high school students can help out when some grownups say it is impossible or, at times, the good feeling that you are doing something useful.”

Those six students who felt that the program was poor to terrible or who noted that they had experienced failure said that they “did not get going on time,” or had “selected a project that was too simple.”

Some students complained that the program lacked structure and that the coordinator (who was accessible daily) did not supervise closely enough. What they did not understand is that part of the design of the program is to lessen dependence on the teacher and to encourage students to seek resources, develop organizational plans, and work toward solutions on their own as well as they could. By allowing students to set their own goals and time schedules and to complete the project as they see fit during the final year of the K-12 sequence, the school aims to help them understand more fully the processes that a concerned and active member of society must go through in solving problems.
Testing Service as a Career

A college's model career education program finds its community service placements the most valuable in meeting program goals.

Two Doane College juniors sit gloomily in a room bathed in the pale winter Nebraska light. For a whole semester they have been trying to start a Big Brother chapter in Crete (population 5,000), which is where Doane is located. They are at a low ebb, having met with frustration in all their efforts.

The students are working on the project under the auspices of Doane's Career Development Center, a program that eventually affects the life plans of almost all of the 700 students. The Center has turned career development into a four-year dialogue that doesn't necessarily end when the students pick up their diplomas, and that definitely isn't limited to the workplace. The program seeks to make career education a matter of personal values development. In the process, it involves more than half of Doane's students in community service.

The career program offers a choice of 250 credit-bearing field placements, long-term counseling, and courses in life planning. Students provide rehabilitation training and care in health facilities, counsel in youth agencies, and help community organizations, some of which the college itself started.

The two students in the Big Brother project have been talking to merchants and farmers in the area and attempting to build support for their project.

"They all listen to us very nicely, nod their heads in agreement and smile, but when we ask 'em for help, they all throw up their hands and say they can't do it," says one of the boys. The two are understandably ambivalent; having invested so much time, they are reluctant to give up. And yet little has happened to lead them to believe that success is imminent or even likely.

Wondering why they let the internship coordinator talk them into the project, one of the students says, "I've been interested in community service for quite a while. I'll probably get into some kind of service-oriented job when I graduate. What I'd really like to do is get the Big Brother program rolling while I'm still in school and then work with it full time when I get out."

The Selection Process

To give career plans ample time to develop, Doane starts asking students about their career interests as soon as they walk into the admissions office. Ellen Anderson, the program's guidance counselor, sees all students periodically over their four years to monitor developing attitudes. In the sophomore or junior year, she turns them over to the placement coordinator to arrange for internships.

A nominal progression ordinarily occurs in the two or three internships that each student takes. They may use one or two for exploration after discussing their interests with the counselor. Then they may enroll in one or two to test a career area and get some practical experience. Early placements may be only a few hours a week. Later ones may be almost full time. By students' junior year, they should have had a couple of rewarding internships in a field related to their career ambitions.

But it does not always happen. The second student in the Big Brother effort asserts, "I'm not gonna work in community service when I graduate. My whole family's into community service. But not me. I'm into money. I wanna work in public relations. I just took this course because I figured it was easy. And I needed the credit."

Ron Hager, the psychologist who coordinates field placement, is undismayed by the student's apparent duplicity. Hager says, "That student doesn't really know for sure that he doesn't want a career in service. I doubt that he knows enough about himself at this stage to be expressing a valid choice. I suspect that there is a good deal more going on in his mind with regard to that project than he is letting on."

Ed Watkins, founder and director of the Career Development Center, is deeply concerned that young people are prepared to make career choices. "Many of our students come from very small towns and rural areas. They are pretty poorly informed about careers outside the rural
environment. And, they’re uninformed about larger social issues. Their ideas about what they want to do with their lives might be based on what their parents want them to do or what they’ve read in a magazine about the hot career areas.”

Without special assistance students may make career choices based on unclarified values, parents’ wishes, or society’s misplaced priorities for wealth and achievement. They may not have ever scrutinized themselves to find out if what they’ve chosen is what will make them happiest in the lasting sense, or what they will be best at. Through internships and counseling Doane seeks to provide a proving ground before students commit themselves to careers.

Watkins believes that the state of career preparation in this country affects society in general and community service in particular. "Job dissatisfaction in this country is up, productivity is low; we should be drawing the social impulses out in people. Career planning in this country is so bad that people who might have ended up in helping jobs just haven't. Many who might have had the talent and interest in making a contribution just never got there."

The goal at Doane is to ask not only "What are you going to do after college?" but also "Why are you going to do it?" To help students answer those questions, Hager provides courses, including one on uses of leisure time, that are designed to complement the internships and to capitalize on the experiences they provide.

Hager also conducts an internship seminar. In that seminar, an important aspect of community service emerges. In addressing the goal of overall development, Hager has found that service placements lend themselves more to the career program’s goal than do any other placements. “Dealing with the people in service settings is more likely to bring students to grips with aspects of their own development. Those experiences lend themselves more to the growth of maturity and self-awareness.” Additionally, Hager feels that the service agency supervisors are the ones most likely to be tuned into the developmental needs of the interns and best able to augment the internship experience.

Hager feels that service-learning experiences can have an important effect on students even when they don’t go into service careers. “For instance, if they go into manufacturing, they should have some idea of where the products go, what they do, what kind of effect it has on people’s lives.”

The Advantage of Choice
A major reason Doane has managed to involve half its students in service-learning is the flexibility of the program, which bases credit on the time spent in the field. Another is the availability of internships during the summer or the mid winter mini semester. One student who had long wanted to work with the mentally disabled had two internships at the Beatrice State Development Center, an institution in Lincoln. She wondered whether she might prefer to be a physical therapist. The coordinator found her a placement with a therapist during the mini semester. The student soon decided that her true vocation lay in working with the mentally disabled.

The Career Development Center offers a rich assortment of service-learning opportunities. Doane has about 250 different internships from which students may choose. A number are with local businesses and agencies, some are in Lincoln (24 miles away), and a few are in Omaha (77 miles away). Doane also has internships in Washington, D.C.

In the beginning (six years ago), the college created its own service agencies through students working full time for a year in a University Year for Action (UYA) program funded primarily by ACTION. From UYA students’ efforts sprang a sheltered workshop for the retarded, a community teen center, a transportation system for the elderly, and several other projects. Most are still functioning; some are directed by former Doane students and still provide placements for current students.

Another valuable resource has been the Beatrice State Development Center. Beatrice and the college have an agreement under which Doane provides as many as 60 interns a year and Beatrice subsidizes the salary of Doane’s placement coordinator.

The Doane Guarantee
Doane has evolved a three-sided approach to life preparation for the students. The college remains committed to the belief that a traditional liberal arts education is the best academic foundation for later life. The opportunity for career exploration and building marketable experience counteracts the traditional complaint that liberal arts provide no practical preparation for most careers. The apex of the Doane triangle is the commitment of the college to assure—through seminars, counseling, and special courses—that career choices reflect the talents, expectations, and interests of the students.

On top of that, Doane offers its students an unusual guarantee. If, within two years of graduation, students find that they are not properly prepared for a suitable career, they can return to Doane for a fifth year, free of charge, to take more courses, do more internships, and receive counseling to prepare for another career. For a fee, Doane also will perform these services for any former student.

It appears that the notion of building on a basis of self-understanding and solid values does more than create more caring, aware college graduates. It also creates an increased number who think that a life of service is the most rewarding one of all.

The money-hungry Big Brother advocate reflects on how what he's doing might relate to being a public relations executive. "We've gotten some radio public service announcements. We had the mayor make a statement for the paper about Big Brother." His brow furrowed with concern, he adds, "There are a lot of kids in this area who just sort of hang out with nothing to do. They could really use a program like Big Brother."

The student is rocking on the fulcrum of what the Doane program is all about. He may opt for a career in public relations, but he could never honestly deny that he felt, at least for awhile, the pull of community service.
Bringing Refugees to Batesville

College students began by sponsoring one family and ended up helping 40 relatives settle in an Arkansas town.

When the University Year for Action (UYA) program at Arkansas College, Batesville, got some supplemental funding from ACTION, the students—who are full-time volunteers—decided to use it for something that would really last. They didn’t realize that their efforts eventually would bring Nhieu Tran and his 41 children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren to Batesville.

Anne Summers, the UYA director, said, "We wanted a total college effort. So the UYA students conducted a survey on campus that told us there was sufficient support for us to sponsor a refugee family from Southeast Asia." Joining forces with one of the local churches, the UYA program contacted the Catholic Refugee Service in Little Rock, Arkansas. "They said, 'We've got two families; can you take them both?'" The UYA program decided to sponsor one family and the church agreed to sponsor the other.

A short time later, the Refugee Service called to say that they had four more families related to the first two. Could the college and the church take them too? "We said we couldn't," said Summers, "but we rounded up other churches and an ad hoc citizen's group to sponsor them."

Spearheaded by the UYA students, the college organized the Batesville Refugee Fund to undertake the housing, health care, education, and employment of the entire extended family. The family consisted of Nhieu Tran, five of his children, their spouses and children, and the husband and six children of a daughter who died in a refugee camp. They had all lived in a coastal village and derived their livelihood from fishing. When the time

Resources

Government Agencies
The following government agencies are directly involved in the process of resettling refugees, either by coordinating aspects of the settlement process or by providing information to aid resettlement.

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, Department of Education, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20004.

This program provides federal financial assistance for educational services, focusing primarily on English language instruction, to meet the special educational needs of refugee children enrolled in public and nonprofit private elementary or secondary schools.

Office of Refugee Resettlement, Department of Health and Human Services, 330 C Street, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20201.

The Office provides a wide range of services to refugees, including cash benefits, language training, career counseling, health care, and interpretation. (continued next page)
Voluntary Resettlement Agencies

The Indochina Refugee Action Center (1025 15th Street, N.W., Suite 600, Washington, D.C. 20005) provides basic information to persons working in the resettlement field. It works with public and private agencies in developing programs in such areas as orientation of refugees and sponsors, the needs of refugee children and youth, and technical assistance to local social service agencies.

Working through the coordinating services of the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service, Inc., the following organizations are responsible, through official agreements with the U.S. State Department, for the resettlement of virtually all refugees entering the United States. Each organization has chapters or offices around the country and will provide information about resettlement opportunities.


The national organization for a network of 30 community-supported social service agencies that serve refugees, this organization resettles refugees directly through its member agencies and affiliated organizations.


The Fund was organized in 1948 to help resettle Eastern European refugees. Since 1975, it has been resettling Indochinese refugees as well.


The newest of the resettlement agencies, the Buddhist Council specializes in training refugees at its headquarters prior to assisting them in resettlement elsewhere in the country.

Church World Service, 475 Riverside Drive, Room 666, New York, New York 10027 (212-870-2164).

This organization is one of the largest resettlement agencies for refugees in the country. It works through non-Catholic churches, which recruit sponsors locally. The sponsors receive continued support and assistance from Church World Service.


The Society deals mainly with the resettlement of Jewish refugees but lately has undertaken the resettlement of other refugees.


Active since 1933, this organization resettles refugees through 10 regional offices. It is most active in California but has offices in five other states.


This group uses the network of 35 regional Lutheran Social Service Agencies around the country as the apparatus for resettlement.


The Tolstoy Foundation traditionally has aided non-Jewish refugees from the Soviet Union and its satellites. Recently the Foundation began to aid refugees from other areas, primarily by locating relatives already in this country as sponsors.


The largest single resettlement agency for Indochinese refugees in the country, the Conference finds sponsors through the local parishes.


The YMCA directs a national program of services for refugees through its local chapters. It also cooperates with other national voluntary and government agencies.

came to flee, they escaped together by boat to Indonesia.

"The medical problems have been immense," said Summers. "We have had to cope with malaria, worms, lice, tuberculosis, diabetes, and ulcers." So complicated was the situation at one point that the college contacted the Disease Control Center in Atlanta, Georgia, for assistance.

When the arrival of the first family was imminent (December 1979), the Catholic Refugee Service sent an expert on Southeast Asian refugees to Batesville to speak to an all-college convocation about what to expect in terms of work and special needs when the refugees arrived. As her full-time UYA project, one of the stu-
Service Calls

HERO Is Not Just a Sandwich

Holyoke, Massachusetts—For 10 evenings in the spring, the restaurant careers class at Enrico Fermi High School runs a gourmet restaurant where one can get filet mignon, shrimp scampi, and an eye-opening look at the services these home economics students are performing throughout the school year.

According to Elizabeth Nicholls, the teacher, "Students from this program could get jobs in the restaurant field, but often couldn’t keep them because of lack of motivation or poor attitude. There has been a lot of marijuana use in this area, and a lot of ignorance about how to adjust to the community as a whole. We needed to deal with the problems of life and work, both for our students and for other young people."

As a result of that perceived need, the students in the restaurant class spend about 100 hours in the two-year course, plus many hours of homework, developing workshops and information projects to aid other young people (and consequently themselves). During the 1979-80 school year, the class developed workshops in teenage parenthood, marijuana and alcohol use, and personal communication. They ran the workshops at six youth conventions of various kinds around the state, reaching about 60 students per convention.

The class of 60, including 11 special education students, also stockpiles information about family planning, hotlines, counseling, and other youth services for its own school population. The class invites community leaders to come to the school and address topics that, in the students' opinion, are of relevance to all students.

While operating the restaurant, the class posts material explaining the breadth of their activities in community service. "A lot of people who come here to eat are shocked to find out all the things that home ec students do," said Nicholls.

All of the students in the course are members of Home Economics Related Occupations (HERO), a national organization affiliated with Future Homemakers of America. Anyone seeking further information about the activities of HERO chapters should write to HERO, National Headquarters, 2010 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Eighth Graders Write To Elderly in Home Before First Visit

Richmond, Virginia—For the first two years that eighth graders came from St. Catherine's School's community service program to the Beth Sholom nursing home in Richmond, they accomplished little. The students from the private school for girls either roamed the building aimlessly or bunched together and talked to each other, too inhibited to interact with the elderly residents in what was supposed to be a friendly visitor program.

In the third year, the nursing home's volunteer coordinator, Rae Cumbie, developed a more structured—and far more effective—program. First she went to the school to orient the volunteers to the needs of elderly people and life in a nursing home. Then she matched up pairs of students with groups of four senior citizens. The key new element was the letters that the coordinator told each girl to write to her elderly companions prior to the first trip to the home. The volunteer coordinator suggested that each girl write informal, personal notes telling a little about herself and saying that she was looking forward to visiting.

Cumbie said, "The residents were delighted to get the letters. When the volunteers came, there was already the beginnings of a rapport. Instead of the girls coming in and saying, 'Hi, I'm so-and-so, and I'm going to be visiting you,' they could say, 'I'm the one who wrote you that letter.' The residents already felt that they knew the students, and were excited about meeting the ones who had already written to them.

"Young volunteers don't have a lot of confidence," Cumbie pointed out, "and in eighth grade, you have a problem because some of them are already fairly mature while others are still basically children. It's hard for them at that age to take the lead and introduce themselves to senior citizens, about whom they may have real inhibitions. Putting it on a personal basis—by matching them up and using the letters of introduction—really breaks the ice."

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For the Bookshelf

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This book is an investigation of the pro's and con's of England's vocational training system for technicians and skilled industrial workers. By focusing on one institution (Western College) and using large segments of verbatim dialogue, the book explores issues of potential interest to the American educator: Would technical students profit from more academic education? Does an institutionally based vocational training system develop the proper attitudes in students? Does the present relationship between the learning institution and industry tend to perpetuate policies and conditions that the institution should be trying to change?


Written primarily for community organization directors, this workbook deals with the skills of program management. The topics covered include assigning responsibility for paid staff and volunteers, estimating time, identifying resources, and setting goals.


An outgrowth of a series of seven hearings held in 1977 and 1978 by the National Commission on Youth, this report advocates the establishment of a White House youth office, a national youth policy, and a cabinet-level special assistant for youth affairs in every state. The report discusses the traditional isolation of the school from the community, versus the concept of community-based instruction. Subsequent chapters discuss the possibility of a National Youth Service policy, youth unemployment, delinquency, and youth health problems.


The authors outline a unified system of the values clarification process and present 86 separate, sequential exercises that high school teachers may use in the classroom to work on values clarification.


This book is the transcript of an intensive two-day workshop for educators dealing with disabled college students. The purpose of the workshop was to teach educators how to use existing information systems to acquire information beneficial to their students and to disseminate material of their own. The book includes an extensive list of organizations, publications, and information sources.

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