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## Editorial—Volunteerism and the Citizen-Student: Long Term Impact on Well-Being and Health

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### ABSTRACT

This editorial focuses on volunteerism research completed on older adults and the potential mental and physical health impacts it may have on college-aged students.

*Keywords:* community engagement, wellness, prevention

Student development is a central mission of colleges and universities. Well-being, student engagement, and active citizenship are linked (Zepke, 2013). Further, volunteerism and citizenship support positive well-being and health outcomes (Zepke, 2013, CNCS, 2007). Developing adults that consider how their life and work can positively affect the greater community and thoughtfully act on those impulses – an external good – can provide substantial benefits to the server. Maximizing these social and individual outcomes is in the best interest of higher education and the current and future communities with whom faculty, staff, students, and alumni interact and collaborate.

Volunteering, especially in later life, appears to affect a variety of physical and mental illnesses (CNCS, 2007). Increased longevity (Brown, 2003), and functional ability (Moen et al., 1992) and lower rates of depression (Arnstein et al., 2002). As higher education purposes to develop students for future career and social success we cannot ignore these significant and long-term health benefits of service learning and experiential education.

It would be remiss not to acknowledge the increased pressure higher-education institutions are under to provide

for physical and mental health services on campus. Last year, the Center for Collegiate Mental Health at Penn State University published a report demonstrating a “slow but consistent” growth in students needing help with, among other ailments, depression. It would be simplistic and presumptive to offer community engagement strategies as mental health treatment – most of the research that informed this editorial used older adults as subjects – but investigating service learning, and the potential impact on mental health outcomes in college-aged populations would be a wise course of action.

Finally, I want to acknowledge the contributions of Mr. Weiran Ma, who serves as the *JCEHE*’s Editorial Assistant. Weiran has been instrumental in the functioning of the *Journal* and how we communicate with the public. His publication roadmap, viewable [here](#), is but one example of the impact he has made in describing the process between submission and publication. Weiran will be taking a leave of absence as he completes an intensive military assignment. Please join me in sending Weiran some positive thoughts and wishes for a safe return next year.

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## Development of Community-Based Workshops for Mexican-Origin Rural, Low-Income Study Participants

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### ABSTRACT

This paper documents the process of developing community-based psychoeducational workshops to engage and retain study participants within a comparison research site. The development and adaptation of the workshops followed methods of cultural adaptation and ecological validity (Domenech-Rodriguez & Wieling, 2004; Bernal, Bonilla, & Bellido, 1995). Our work supports the idea that culturally responsive approaches can engage community members and increase the acceptability of researchers in low-income Mexican-origin communities.

*Keywords:* community-based research, cultural adaptations

Previous research suggests that school-based interventions that integrate a prospective design with a comparison group are more likely to be effective (Dobbins, De Corby, Robeson, Husson, & Tirilis, 2009). However, for low-income and high-risk populations the barriers presented in implementing these types of interventions are compounded by the difficulty in recruiting and retaining program participants. Targeting low-income and culturally distinct participants is difficult due to the multiple factors that undermine their capacity to engage fully in short- or long-term interventions (Schnirer & Stack-Cutler, 2012). Moreover, in culturally distinct low-income Latino rural communities, researchers suggest that the first stage to successfully engage communities is to include a culturally responsive approach (Reidy, Orpinas, & Davis, 2012). This approach uses community liaisons and personal contact with participants based on cultural practices such as *personalismo* (warm personal contact), a highly regarded value in Latino cultures.

The dearth of studies focusing on engagement of low-income Latino participants has resulted in few evidence-based methods for researchers to use in the field. As a result, small sample sizes and high turnover rates of participants may limit researchers' capacity to identify statistically significant outcomes from proposed interventions. In light of this paucity of research on the engagement of low-income participants, there is a need for further development of innovative strategies to address engagement for comparison research sites.

This paper presents a community-based approach used to increase participant engagement in the comparison community of a quasi-experimental research study focusing on childhood obesity prevention (de la Torre et al., 2013). The research project was a multi-year study and included an intervention site as well as a comparison site. In the comparison site, a community-based participatory research (CBPR) approach was used to develop alternative engagement strategies for participants. In this paper, we

make the case for collaborative research with low-income comparison communities as a tool for community engagement. We present the methodology used to develop community-based psychoeducational workshops in a rural, low-income community to highlight how collaborative and community-based research can be useful to initiate community engagement and retain study participants. In turn, identification of these best practices may impact the development of locally and culturally grounded interventions.

#### THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY-BASED WORKSHOPS

The study presented here was embedded in a five-year research project aiming to reduce the rate of growth of childhood obesity in California's rural Mexican-origin population (de la Torre et al., 2013). During Year 1 of the project, the original goal was to recruit 400 Mexican-origin children in both the intervention and comparison communities. However, while the intervention community received significant benefits from the research activities, the grant did not provide incentives or activities for the comparison community participants. Consequently, the research team had to meet the challenge of recruiting and retaining a large number of families who would not receive incentives to participate. This potential barrier to the long-term study's success required additional resources and strategies to meet the original enrollment and engagement goals for the comparison site.

To that end, the research team engaged in a community-based approach to work collaboratively with local stakeholders and community members to develop the target program activities. The Cultural Adaptation Process (CAP; Domenech-Rodriguez & Wieling, 2004) and the Eco-

logical Validity Model (EVM; Bernal, Bonilla, & Bellido, 1995) guided the community-based approach. The CAP is a three-phase process that facilitates the engagement of community members and the adaptation and delivery of the intervention. In Phase One of the model, there are three key players: the change agent, the opinion leader, and members of the community. The change agent is a senior scholar leading the intervention. The opinion leader is a community leader, or scholar, who is familiar with the community. The community members engage in the research process from a collaborative perspective. During Phase One, these key players collaborate with each other to identify and develop the activities according to the needs of the community. Phase Two of the CAP consists of the implementation and revision of activities based on the feedback from the community. Finally, Phase Three consists of the finalizing and formulating of plans (Hurwich-Reiss, Rindlaub, Wadsworth, & Markman, 2014; Domenech-Rodriguez & Wieling, 2004). The following section outlines the three phases of the CAP and the subsequent development of psychoeducational activities that engaged participants in the comparison community.

#### **Phase 1: Building Community Relationships and Partnerships**

Before preparing the grant proposal, the research team began to explore a university/school/community collaborative approach that included two California Central Valley targeted communities: San Joaquin and Firebaugh. Both communities have been involved during all phases of the proposed project. Because key members of the team were from the California Central Valley, this greatly facilitated access to community stakeholder groups. Moreover, the opportunity to collaborate on a well-documented and important health concern

impacting a majority of families living in these communities was met with high degrees of interest and excitement at various stakeholder levels.

The principal investigators completed three two-day site visits during the grant-writing phase to provide preliminary data about the two selected communities and secure key community leader commitment to participate in the proposed project. The key elements tackled during the community site visits included the following: (1) completing a comparative community assessment (environmental scan) of Firebaugh and San Joaquin; (2) two town hall presentations (one in each site) that introduced the proposed project; (3) two follow-up site meetings to randomly select intervention and comparison sites; and (4) visits to solidify understanding of the project by key community leaders in order to establish agreements among stakeholders. A year prior to beginning the study, the communities agreed to participate and be randomly assigned as the intervention or comparison site community (de la Torre et al., 2013).

The tool used for the environmental scan for both San Joaquin and Firebaugh was the Neighborhood Observational Checklist (Israel, Eng, Schulz, & Parker,

2005), modified to address important characteristics of rural towns. The instrument allowed the research team to complete a visual screening of the following community environmental elements: (1) street level land use quality, condition, and safety; (2) residential housing; (3) location and type of retail businesses; and (4) quality and availability of parks and other recreational sites. The environmental scan information provided two important baseline functions for the research project. First, it allowed the researchers to match the two communities beyond the U.S. Census population demographic data. The scan also provided an opportunity to match visually the physical and spatial characteristics of both communities on the quality of residential and retail space, specific types of employment opportunities, and living conditions that could result in substantial differences in outcome. Table 1 summarizes the findings of the environmental scan in San Joaquin, the comparison community.

**Community health workers (*promotoras*) as community partners.** As Wallerstein, Duran, Minkler, and Foley (2005) have suggested, one way to begin a community partnership is by identifying partners through previous networks. One

**Table 1.** *Environmental scan observations*

<b>Environmental Variable</b>	
City	San Joaquin
Type	Rural residential, clean streets, moderate trees, no stray animals
Primary Employment within city	Agricultural processing and packing plants
Housing	Mixed use: public housing, residential and apartment
Retail Food Stores	2-locally owned
Public Parks/Recreational Sites	2 parks, soccer field, and community center
Health Centers	1-Federally Qualified Health Center
Elementary Schools	1 primary K-8

key partner for our project was Proteus, Inc., a community-based program that worked with *promotoras* on health- and education-related issues. In our project, *promotoras* served as the lead community members who collaborated with the change agent and opinion leader to engage community members in dialogue and facilitate the overall community engagement (Domenech-Rodriguez & Wieling, 2004; Minkler & Hancock, 2003). Furthermore, local community outreach workers were critical to the engagement of comparison and intervention site participants who were of Mexican-origin, as the outreach delivery model replicated similar service and community methods used by Mexican public health and welfare services; thus, these methods were familiar to most community participants (Ingram et al., 2007; Fernald, Hou, & Gertler, 2008).

**Promotoras worked in both study sites.** They were residents of the target communities, and as local residents their role was to represent and serve the community by identifying needs. *Promotoras* in both of the study sites had the same supervisor and reported their progress to her periodically. Additionally, *promotoras*, their supervisor, and the study site coordinator met on a biweekly basis to review the progress of the program. They attended advisory meetings, and played key roles in the development of engagement activities due to their personal knowledge of community members and leaders. This enabled the research team to continuously adapt strategies in order to engage the comparison participants in the study and increase program participation over time.

A second critical community partnership used in the study was the implementation of a community-based advisory council. The advisory councils were set up for both the intervention and comparison site. The membership composition included

the following common representatives at each site: (1) school district superintendent; (2) school principals; (3) church leader; (4) local health care center representative; (5) city council representative; and (6) *promotoras*. During the meetings, the research team provided a brief program update and asked for specific suggestions to engage the community, such as ways to engage residents in the research project, strategies to enhance attendance to the health fairs, and recommendations for recruitment and data collection activities. Some advisory council members also served as collaborators in the research project by defining activities that were mutually beneficial to the research team and the advisory board member. For example, the city manager played a critical role in co-sponsoring events to promote community engagement in the research project. The co-sponsoring of events created opportunities for community organizations to pool resources in order to offer a wider variety of services. Consistent with the CAP model, the advisory council provided important community leadership to the study, which enhanced engagement of community members and study participants (Domenech-Rodriguez & Wieling, 2004).

**Identifying the needs.** Minkler and Hancock (2003) indicated that one of the most effective ways to identify the community's needs is through community dialogue. This dialogue served as a device for issue identification, but also served as a tool for community engagement. An initial stage of identifying community needs was to engage parents in a discussion of the needs of children in their community. During the beginning of the research study, the research team traveled to the comparison site and met with community members, parents, school officials, and local stakeholders. After several conversations with the different groups, researchers concluded that it was important to develop strategies that linked



the school and the community and to improve families' well-being. After the initial conversations with the school district leadership and informal conversations with parents, parent focus groups were conducted to further explore the topics.

Parents expressed a broad array of issues that impacted education and family well-being. With the assistance of *promotoras*, a preliminary community dialogue was initiated and follow-up community meetings identified strategies for parents to help improve their children's education and family well-being (including stress related to unemployment, depression, and child-rearing concerns) as critical needs for the community. Subsequently, research team members conducted focus groups with community residents to verify and enhance the information obtained from additional participants in order to develop topic themes for community workshops.

**Focus groups.** Phase 1 of the CAP was guided by the implementation of focus groups to understand the needs of the targeted community (Domenech-Rodriguez & Wieling, 2004). As educational barriers and family well-being in the comparison community were highlighted in early discussions with community leaders, the first stage of the research project used focus groups to further explore these specific concerns and develop a plan for workshop topics in the comparison community.

Two focus groups (n=19) were conducted with parents in the community. Participants were recruited using a snowball sampling design. Eight mothers attended the first focus group and 10 mothers and a father attended the second focus group. A parent in the community was initially contacted and asked to invite other parents. This convenience sample started with asking a parent who was active in the community to be the key leader organizing the focus groups. The parent leader invited other

parents who were involved in similar activities to participate in one of the two focus groups. Participants received a \$10 gift card as compensation for their time and travel. Given both, the use of the snowball and convenience sample design may limit the generalizability of the findings. Nevertheless, these findings were a critical first step in exploring key issues of interest and concern for community members.

#### **Summary of focus group results.**

Focus group participants identified a lack of community activities in which they and their children could participate. Parents mentioned that often groups offered English and computer classes, but these are not offered at convenient times and locations or in a manner that engaged them with the material. During the discussion of the educational barriers, all parents agreed that a disconnect existed between community members and the school system. Parents indicated a strong desire to learn ways that they could begin to bridge the gap between the school system and themselves. Also, they identified barriers to health care as a problem in their community. More specifically, parents highlighted that the multiple stressors they experienced and the inaccessibility to mental health care were also creating problems in their community, such as substance abuse. Thus, the focus group information provided insightful information about the specific activities that could be developed to engage participants in the research study while supporting the specific needs of community members.

#### **Phase 2: Development of Community Engagement Strategies for the Comparison Community**

The information garnered from the focus groups was a key element of integrating the CAP model to develop, implement, and revise community activities (Domenech-Rodriguez & Wieling, 2004). To respond

to the areas of need identified in the focus group, Dr. Manzo and Dr. Flores developed workshops focused on education and family well-being for participants in the comparison community. Based on the focus group findings, the research team developed parent workshops focused on the following: 1) educational enhancement workshops that helped parents build an understanding of the U.S. school system; 2) the ways parents could help children with homework, and how parents could foster school-parent partnerships; 3) identification of risk factors associated with mental health issues; 4) how parents could promote family well-being in their community. Table 2 presents the workshop topics. In addition, the focus group data were useful in the development of culturally relevant delivery and presentation methods for the parent workshops.

The second phase of the process called for the integration of the Ecological Validity Model (EVM; Bernal et al., 1995), which took into account the following eight culturally sensitive elements in the implementation of interventions: 1) language; 2)

persons; 3) metaphors (*dichos*); 4) content; 5) concepts; 6) goals; 7) methods; and 8) context.

A primary focus during Phase Two was to improve the delivery method of the workshop information to the parents in order to increase their capacity by 1) engaging participants in activities; 2) increasing relevance of workshop content material to the specific needs of parents with bicultural/bilingual children in a rural community setting; and 3) increasing parent-community engagement in order to enhance educational achievement. Aligned with the EVM was the development of culturally and locally relevant workshops in order to enhance delivery of the information to the parents.

**Educational workshops.** Further analysis of focus group data concluded that families' perceptions of not being welcome in the local schools had the greatest impact on the way they became involved in their children's education. Parents expressed a lack of understanding of the educational system and what teachers and educators expected from them and their children. These

**Table 2.** *Two years of workshops*

Year One Workshops	Year Two Workshops
Study Introduction	Bullying
U.S. Education System	Women's Health
California Education Standards	Parenting
Family Well-being	BMI Report Cards
Challenges to Family Well-being	Educational Trajectory
Family-Teacher Partnerships	Health Care Plans
Migration and Its Impact on the Family	Women's Self-Care and Stress Management
Homework and Academic Achievement	Early Education and College Access
Employment and Unemployment	Men's Mental Health
Year 1 Debriefing and 2 <sup>nd</sup> Year Planning	Early Literacy
	Yoga and Stress Relief
	Children's Mental Health
	Year 1 Debriefing and 3 <sup>rd</sup> Year Planning

findings were consistent with literature on parental involvement that suggests that Latino parents feel alienated from the educational system (Lara-Cinisomo, 2004; Young, 1999). More specifically, many parents wanted to be more involved in their children's education, but did not know how to approach the teachers or make the connections with the school system. Furthermore, they felt they did not know how to help their children attain successful academic outcomes. Again, these results were found to be consistent with earlier literature that claimed that parents face barriers such as language and time constraints that limited their participation (Gibson, 2002). As a result of these parental concerns and as confirmed by areas of concern highlighted by other researchers, the educational workshops focused on topics that would improve parental understanding of how to navigate the school system and identify successful educational strategies to help their children obtain academic success.

The workshops were facilitated in a focus group discussion format. They were offered once a month over two days for 10 months in San Joaquin and three other nearby communities. This means that each of the workshops was guided by a specific topic, but allowed for the parents to engage in discussion with the workshop facilitator and other participants. Information was provided using evidence-based approaches and simple PowerPoint presentations for each of the workshops. The information was adapted to the literacy level of the participants. All workshops were facilitated in Spanish. Also, throughout the presentation,

personal narratives including that of the facilitator were used to help explore the experiences of the parents with their local school system. Use of personal narratives proved to be a useful tool for engaging participants in a discussion of their personal experiences with the local school system.

#### **Family well-being workshops.**

*Promotoras* and focus group participants identified a desire for parents to understand better their children's developmental stages and mental health needs, as well as the ways in which they could support their spouses/partners with unemployment and work-related stress. To avoid any potential stigma associated with "mental health," the workshop series was labeled "Family Well-Being Workshops" (Talleres de Bienestar Familiar). These were designed to provide participants with didactic information as well as invited their participation through the use of personal narratives that could be integrated into the topic discussion. A didactic, interactive approach has been found to be particularly effective with Mexicans and immigrants from rural Mexican communities (Rivera Heredia, Obregon Velasco, Cervantes Pacheco, & Martinez Ruiz, 2014). Central to the overall engagement and satisfaction of participants in the workshops was creating a space of trust where the participants could feel safe to share and learn together. The space and sense of trust were particularly important given the relative isolation of these communities and the concern regarding the confidentiality of the personal information shared in the group. Therefore, norms were established and agreed upon before the first workshop. As

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<sup>1</sup> *Promotoras* provided childcare for younger children and workshops were offered during the day while older children were at school. Two workshops a year were offered on a Sunday after Catholic Mass to engage men. The topics of these were parenting practices and the effects of stress (first year). During the second year, the topics were on parenting adolescents and male mental health.

the facilitator (Dr. Flores) was an outsider to the community, it was essential that she be introduced by the research team member from San Joaquin (Dr. Manzo) whose family still resides in this small community. Using cultural strategies of *personalismo y respeto* (warm personal contact and respect), the facilitator shared her story of migration and the typical challenges faced by immigrant families. In this way, she attempted to normalize some of the potential difficulties participants could have experienced as Mexican immigrants.

The family well-being workshops were focused on the developmental needs of infants and children, the impact of migration on families, parenting strategies to raise bicultural children, and the impact of unemployment on the mental health of men. Each topic was presented in simple language that conveyed psychological theory in terms that were accessible and culturally relevant. Key questions were posed to generate discussion. For example, drawing on the experiences of mothers who brought their babies to the workshops<sup>1</sup>, the facilitator asked what their babies needed at their stage of development. Other mothers chimed in with recollections of their children's temperament and offered cultural explanations for particular infant behaviors. These cultural explanatory models served as the basis for conversation in subsequent workshops.

Participants were introduced to parenting models developed for and about U.S. born bicultural children of Mexican parents (Tello, 1994; Tello, Barrera, Espinosa, & Riojas Lester, 1991) as well as theoretical models that address the challenges faced by families who migrated to the United States (Falicov, 1998, 2014; Flores, 2013; Sluzki, 1979). Participants were invited to share their migration narratives and, in so doing, they offered suggestions and *consejos* (advice) for more recent immigrants. Table

2 lists the workshop topics presented during the first two years of the project.

**Workshop effectiveness.** Twenty-nine parents participated in the workshops in the first two years of the program. Although this is a small number relative to the overall study design, the 29 parents consistently attended the workshops. Their attendance was important as these parents also interacted with other study participants and community members. Through their daily interactions, they shared information they learned through the workshops, and also provided information about the overall study. After each workshop, participants had the opportunity to rate the presenters on the presentation style and evaluate the relevance of the workshop content. These evaluations consisted of a Likert scale ranging from 0 to 3. Process evaluations of these interventions suggested that overall parents were satisfied with the content of the workshops and the presentation style (see Table 3).

### Phase 3: Lessons Learned and Emerging Plans

Based on the first two years of the project, key observations have emerged. The workshop evaluations indicated that our community-based approach to the development of the activities had a positive impact, as participants indicated they were satisfied with the local and cultural relevance of the content presented and the delivery method of the workshops. Table 3 presents the average ratings for the workshops. Similar to other culturally adapted pilot studies (Parra Cardona et al., 2012; Hurwich-Reiss, Rindlaub, Wadsworth, & Markman, 2014), our evaluation results revealed that workshop participants thought the information provided through the workshops was useful for them, that their family benefited from the information, and that they wanted to continue the workshops. The

**Table 3.** Average ratings for the workshops

## Part 1

	<b>Conveyed material at appropriate level</b>	<b>Was knowledgeable about the subject matter</b>	<b>Provided significant amount of new or useful information</b>
Presentation	2.86	2.86	2.90

## Part 2

	<b>Response</b>
Level of material was appropriate for my background	2.85
Teaching strategies were appropriate and effective	2.89
I was able to interact with presenters and other participants	2.85

**0=Disagree; 1=Slightly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Strongly agree**

evaluations confirmed that participants were satisfied with the material presented, and that the content was culturally appropriate. In addition, the workshop format allowed for participants to share experiences and information, and to problem solve and develop strategies together. The facilitators offered information regarding resources, ways to identify problems or health/mental health symptoms, and where they could seek services.

Furthermore, the community-based approach allowed participants to provide feedback on the topics for the workshops and reflected the efforts of the research team to address the needs of the community by providing a space where they could discuss issues of concern. Overall, the engagement of community members in the development of activities for the project proved to be the most effective way to gain community interest and acceptability of the research team. Table 4 summarizes the CAP activities implemented in this study.

### LIMITATIONS

Despite the usefulness of focus groups, this approach also had limitations. Focus groups were structured so that all

participants were able to engage in the discussion; however, some could dominate the discussion more than others (Gibbs, 1997). Also, focus groups yield information that is subjective and contextual (Barnett, 2003). However, the focus group findings were essential to the development of workshops that fostered community engagement and visibility of the research team in the comparison community. In addition, participant responses to the evaluations could be biased because workshop staff were present. Also, due to our small sample size, interpretation of results is not generalizable to the larger Mexican-origin population that did not participate in the study.

### CONCLUSIONS

The use of CBPR approaches to respond to the expressed needs of project participants and a consistent presence of the research team in the comparison site facilitated the engagement of participants. In addition, the community-based approach, in conjunction with CAP and EVM, proved to be effective in responding to the cultural and contextual needs of the community. Our approach facilitated entry to the community by collaborating with opinion lead-

**Table 4.** Cultural adaptation process activities

Phase One: Building Community Relationships and Partnerships	Phase Two: Development of Community Engagement Strategies for the Comparison Community	Phase Three: Lessons Learned and Emerging Plans
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Site visits prior to grant-writing phase elements:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Community assessments (environmental scans)</li> <li>• Town hall presentations</li> <li>• Site visits for random selection of study sites</li> <li>• Site visits to establish agreements</li> </ul> </li> <li>⇒ Promotoras as community partners               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitated community engagement</li> </ul> </li> <li>⇒ Community-based Advisory Council               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provided recommendations for engagement research participants in study activities</li> </ul> </li> <li>⇒ Identifying the needs               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conversations with parents and school district</li> <li>• Focus groups to understand needs and develop topics for workshops</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Development of parent workshops               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Educational and family well-being topics</li> </ul> </li> <li>⇒ Integration of the EVM to develop culturally relevant delivery and presentation methods for the workshops               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evidence-based practices and personal narratives integrated in workshop discussions</li> </ul> </li> <li>⇒ Workshop process evaluations               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rate presentation style and relevance of workshop content</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Continuous workshop evaluations               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrate overall participant satisfaction with delivery methods and content</li> </ul> </li> <li>⇒ Focus group discussions were useful in identifying and developing workshop activities</li> <li>⇒ Community-based approach allowed for participants to provide continuous feedback               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitated participant engagement</li> </ul> </li> <li>⇒ CAP and EVM proved to be effective in responding to cultural and contextual needs</li> <li>⇒ Facilitated development of additional research projects</li> <li>⇒ Engaged community members in the development of additional community activities</li> </ul>

ers, scholars who were familiar with the community (i.e. Dr. Manzo who grew up in the community), and community members. The culturally responsive adaptations employed in our study also engaged community leaders in the development of additional projects.

Since the inception of the original study, Dr. Manzo developed *Puente Cultural*, a culturally nuanced family education program funded by the Fresno Regional Foundation. Dr. Flores initiated a study of the impact of migration on the mental health and family relations of Mexican male migrants, which was funded by the Office of the President of the University of California (PIMSA – Programa de Investigación Migración y Salud). The approach employed in this study also created avenues for en-

agement for community members. For example, two of the *promotoras* who participated in this study are currently collaborating with the city governing board to develop activities such as exercise groups and English classes. In conclusion, when developing intervention studies, researchers need to consider the ways to engage study participants particularly in comparison groups. This study supports the idea that culturally responsive approaches are effective in engaging low-income Mexican-origin communities, and increases the community members and the acceptability of researchers.

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# Assessing Global Citizenship After Participation in Service Learning in Physical Therapy Education

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## ABSTRACT

Promoting a global perspective has become a recent topic in health care education (Frenk et al., 2010). The idea is to produce graduates who are capable of delivering culturally appropriate services to communities in need, both locally and globally. Various didactic components and pedagogies can be used but the outcome of producing a graduate who acts on that education is unclear. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effects of service learning on promoting identified behaviors reflective of a global citizen in graduates from Wheeling Jesuit University's (WJU) Physical Therapy Program. This doctoral program includes service-learning courses that expose students to local, regional, and international experiences. Graduates of the program over the last 10 years were surveyed and the data were analyzed. Results indicate that graduates who participated in international experiences were more likely to respond positively to participation in global outreach programs in the future.

*Keywords:* service learning, global perspectives, global consciousness, citizenship

## INTRODUCTION

In 2010, Lancet published the findings of the Commission on Education of Health Professionals for the 21st Century, which highlighted the disparity in health care services, education, and professionals worldwide (Frenk et al., 2010). The authors state that professional health care education has not kept up with the rapidly changing environment and demands of global health care and recommend a redesign of the current system of education. According to the report, "redesign of professional health education is necessary and timely, in view of the opportunities for mutual learning and joint solutions offered by global interdependence" (Frenk et al., 2010). As reported

by Frenk, "Reform is needed to improve the performance of health systems by adapting core professional competencies" (2010, p. 1,924). In addition to the basic science of health, the future practitioner must also be competent in effective identification and delivery of services that are meaningful to the recipient(s). This learning objective is embodied in a professional program's curriculum because the skills reflect basic behaviors and competencies consistent with a standard professional code of ethics. The American Physical Therapy Association's (APTA) Code of Ethics requires that physical therapists possess a number of behaviors including, but not limited to, compassion, altruism, and trustworthiness (APTA, 2009). These behaviors are important in

health care, as it is the nature of the profession to provide quality care to another individual or community in need. Despite the difficulty of teaching these behaviors in a classroom, research has shown it can be cultivated with service learning (Wise & Yuen, 2014; Hetward & Charrette, 2012).

Service learning is a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities (Bandy, 2013). With the implementation of service learning, a doctor of physical therapy program has the ability to teach professional behaviors to students, while allowing the students to practice what they have learned in the classroom. Research on service learning has shown that the experience can build a student's altruism, compassion, caring, and integrity (Wise & Yuen, 2014; Hetward & Charrette, 2012). Conversely, students who did not participate in a service-learning experience did not show changes in these behaviors (Bandy, 2013). Boissonnault and Bobula (2014) reported that students who participated in an international experience reported that the experience was worthwhile, it should happen again, and they felt good about what they had accomplished. These authors concluded that an experience that provides a service to those in need will result in a feeling of fulfillment, an appreciation for service, and an awareness of the needs of developing communities.

Service learning in Wheeling Jesuit University's (WJU) Doctor of Physical Therapy (PT) program takes place locally in the Ohio Valley, regionally in Appalachia, and internationally in Mexico, Peru, and Haiti. Students are engaged with various local, regional, and international community partners that provide an opportunity for them to practice various aspects of health care delivery, including physical therapy

skills learned in the classroom, with people of various socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds. The experiences last several days and include the provision of an identified service, intentional reflections on the experience, basic cultural education, and the effect that the overall experience had on the individual. After being exposed to the differences in availability, access, and utilization of basic health care and public services, students are asked to reflect on their civic responsibility and role as a health care provider with regard to underserved populations.

Research is still required to assess objectively if those experiences influence behaviors long term, once a student has completed a service-learning experience, graduated, and acquired a position working as a physical therapist. Questions remain as to whether a practicing physical therapist continues to travel to developing countries to collaborate or provide services, or if graduates continue to view other perspectives of a culturally diverse patient population (patient-centered care) in clinical practice. These behaviors are reflected in several definitions of global competency (WHO, n.d.; Hunter, 2004; Schejbal, 2009) and described in several matrices, including the Global Competence Matrix (Council of Chief State Schools EdSteps, 2013), which further describes such behaviors as the ability to investigate other cultures, recognize different perspectives, communicate ideas, and take action on a global scale.

The terms "global competence" and "global citizenship" are not uniformly defined nor mutually exclusive in the literature (Schejbal, 2009). Some common elements that are often cited included knowledge, specific behaviors, effective communication, attitudes, and skills (Schejbal, 2009; Hunter, White, & Godbey, 2006; Widmann, 2008; Downey, 2006). A global citizen as defined by Ronald Israel

(2014) is a person who places his identity with a global community above his identity as a citizen of a particular place. Global competence is defined as “the capacity and disposition to understand and act on issues of global significance” (Israel, 2014). According to the Council of Chief State School Officers’ EdSteps Project (2011), a person acquires certain characteristics when gaining global competence. These characteristics include investigating the world, recognizing perspectives, communicating ideas, and taking action.

Wheeling Jesuit University defines a global citizen as a person who “understands the interconnectedness of human cultures and the dignity and worth of each individual. This realization causes the global citizen to live in solidarity with the human race despite the specific nation state in which he or she resides”(Wheeling Jesuit University, 2010). To further expand on this definition, the WJU Department of Physical Therapy believes that a student who lives in solidarity is competent (knowledge), actively engaged (behavior), and effective (communication) in the provision of entry-level physical therapy services that transcend national borders and reflect an awareness (attitude) of the recipient’s or community’s cultural dynamics and needs.

This framework and definitions are the bedrock of this study that attempted to discover if the curricular design and experiential learning opportunities had a long-term effect on graduates. The survey questions were written to capture the basic elements of global competency. This study surveyed graduates of WJU’s Doctor of Physical Therapy Program from 2003 to 2012, asking participants about their involvement in service learning during their professional education, and about their personal and professional behaviors since graduating from the program. Data were collected in summer of 2013.

The purpose of this research was to identify the effect of participation in service learning on post-graduation behaviors. The goals included establishing a connection between participation in service learning with continued behaviors reflective of a global citizen, as defined by the university and program, and the validation of service learning in physical therapy education in promoting global competency when providing services to others. In conclusion, the authors expected to identify a carry-over of behavior from academia to the professional setting.

## METHODS

Survey design was used to collect data for this research. IRB approval was obtained for a questionnaire the researchers developed consisting of 11 questions including the following general demographics: sex, age, year of graduation from WJU’s Physical Therapy Program, years as a licensed physical therapist, primary area of practice, participation in service learning, and type of service experience, if applicable. “Effective survey questions have three important attributes: focus, brevity and clarity” (Alrech, 2004, p. 89). Every question should focus only on one issue and ask precisely what the researcher wants to know. The questions should be brief and easy to read, since long, cumbersome questions are difficult to interpret. Clarity means the questions should be completely clear and interpreted the same way, by all respondents. Dillman states, “The goal of writing a survey question for self-administration is to develop a query that every potential respondent will interpret in the same way, be able to respond accurately, and be willing to answer” (2000). To develop questions for this survey, the researcher followed eight criteria recommended by Dillman as follows: (1) Does the question require an answer?; (2) To

what extent do survey recipients already have an accurate, ready-made answer for the question they are being asked to report?; (3) Can people accurately recall and report past behaviors?; (4) Is the respondent willing to reveal the requested material?; (5) Will the respondent feel motivated to answer each question?; (6) Is the respondent's understanding of response categories likely to be influenced by more than words?; (7) Is survey information being collected by more than one mode?; (8) Is changing a question acceptable to the survey sponsor? (Dillman, 2000, 32-40).

The survey questions were formulated from the work of Veldhuis (1997), Council of Chief State School Officers' EdSteps (2013), Widmann (2008), Downey (2006), and the learning objectives of the program, to evaluate the program's effectiveness in fostering a global awareness and basic global competency in graduates. Downey (2006) identified learning criteria for global competency, which include the acquisition of knowledge, and the capability and demonstration of effectively applying that knowledge. In the development of the survey questions, the aspects of knowledge, behavior, attitude, and communication were used to reflect the question's ability to capture an aspect of these learning criterions. (The key criteria of global competency are identified in parentheses after each question.) The questions included

1. When in clinical practice, how often do you intentionally seek out information from sources outside the U.S. to gain a different perspective? (knowledge and behavior)
2. Reflecting on the past six months, when working with a person from a different ethnic, socioeconomic, or international background, how often have you modified an aspect of the plan of care due to the person's ethnic, socioeconomic, or international background? (behavior and communication)
3. Do you provide financial support to people, programs, or organizations that address the needs of people living in developing countries? (behavior and attitude)
4. Since graduating from WJU, do you participate in, or have made plans to participate in, any international trips to provide services (physical therapy or manpower) to others? (behavior)
5. Since graduating from WJU, do you participate on a personal level in activities that reflect a global awareness, such as conservation activities, recycling, purchasing fair trade items, or the efficient use of energy? (knowledge, behavior, attitude)

Piloting established the validity of the instrument. Fink recommends that before the questionnaire is made final, it is given to at least 10 people who are similar to the sample population (2003, p. 108). This questionnaire was piloted using a group of experts to determine content validity. The pilot group included six faculty members of a Doctorate of Physical Therapy Program and six doctorate of physical therapy students. The pilot group was instructed to answer the following questions as recommended by Fink: (1) Are the instructions for completing the survey clearly written?; (2) Are questions easy to understand?; (3) Do respondents know how to indicate responses?; (4) Are the response choices mutually exclusive?; (5) Are the response choices exhaustive?; (6) Can the respondents correctly use the commands of the web-based survey?; (7) In a computer-assisted survey, do respondents know how to change their answers?; (8) If there is incentive for the survey, do respondents know how to obtain it?; (9) Is the privacy of the respondents respected and protected?; (10)

Do respondents have any suggestion regarding the addition or deletion of questions, clarification of instructions, or improvements in questionnaire format? (Fink, 2003, p. 109-110). Modifications to the wording of questions were made based on feedback from the pilot group.

Once the survey was finalized, it was sent out through e-mail using Google Drive Survey in June of 2013. The participants consisted of graduates of the WJU's Physical Therapy Program from 2003 to 2012. The invitation to participate in the study, consent to participate, and the survey were distributed through e-mail. Participants were given three weeks to reply to the survey, at which point a follow-up reminder e-mail and invitation to participate in the study were re-sent. The researchers accepted all completed responses of the survey received within the six weeks following the initial invitation to participate. The responses were then analyzed using SPSS software version 20 using an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (for questions 1 and 2) to formulate comparisons and decipher trends of the impact of service learning. A chi-square analysis with cross tabulations (for ques-

tions 3, 4, and 5) was applied to determine the effect of participation.

RESULTS

Surveys were sent to 276 graduates with 110 responding (39.8%). The respondents included 58 women, 51 men, and one who did not specify. The majority of the respondents reported practicing in outpatient settings (52), skilled nursing facilities (27), and home health (11) (see Figure 1). At least one type of service learning (local, regional, or international) was completed by 95 (86%) of the respondents while in physical therapy school, whereas the remaining 15 (14%) did not participate in a service-learning experience while enrolled in the WJU PT program. Out of the 95 that participated in service learning, 50 (53%) participated in only local service, 12 (13%) participated in local and regional service, 12 (13%) participated in local, regional, and international service, 16 (17%) participated in local and international service, and five (5%) participated in only international service. A total of 33 (35%) respondents participated in international service learning (see Figure 2).

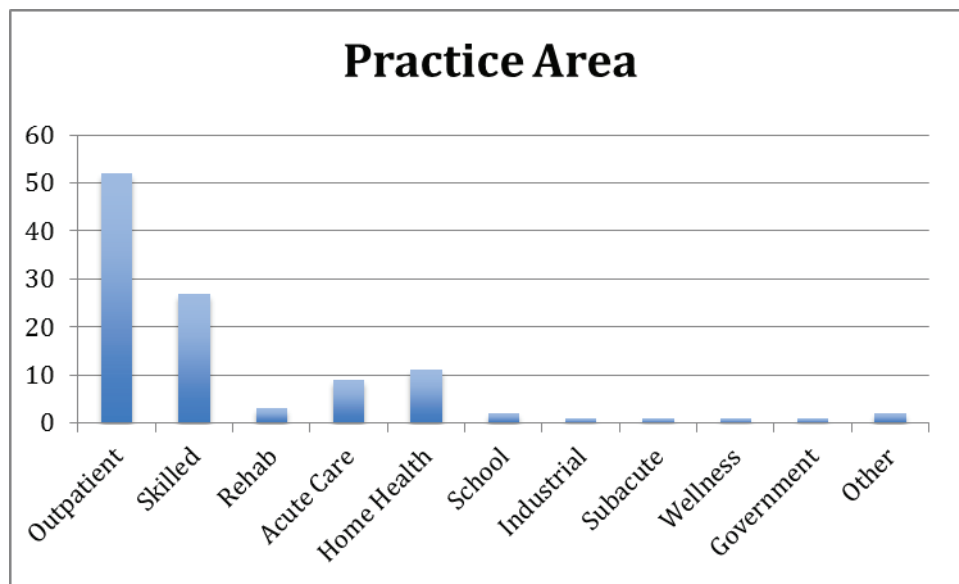


Figure 1. Practice Area Demographics

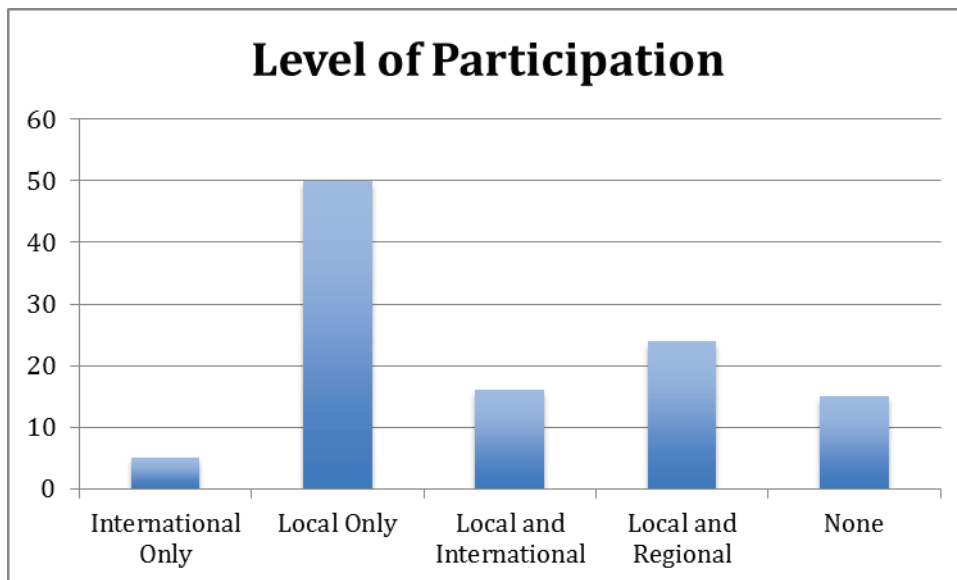


Figure 2. Level of Service-Learning Participation

Data were analyzed using SPSS software version 20 by completing chi-square analysis with cross tabulation (for questions 3, 4, and 5) or an ANOVA (for questions 1 and 2). The responses for questions 1 and 2 were ranked as always (1), often (2), sometimes (3), and never (4). Chi-square analysis with cross tabulation was performed on questions 3, 4, and 5 with yes or no responses.

ANOVA was calculated to compare demographic variables for questions 1 and 2. The first question was, “When in clinical practice, how often do you intentionally

seek out information from sources outside the U.S. to gain a different perspective?” The mean overall response for this question was 3.16, or “sometimes” (see Figure 3). The independent variables of sex, facility type, and service-learning experience were not significant factors for question 1.

The second question was, “Reflecting on the past six months, when working with a person from a different ethnic, socioeconomic, or international background, how often have you modified an aspect of the plan of care due to the person’s ethnic, socioeconomic, or internation-

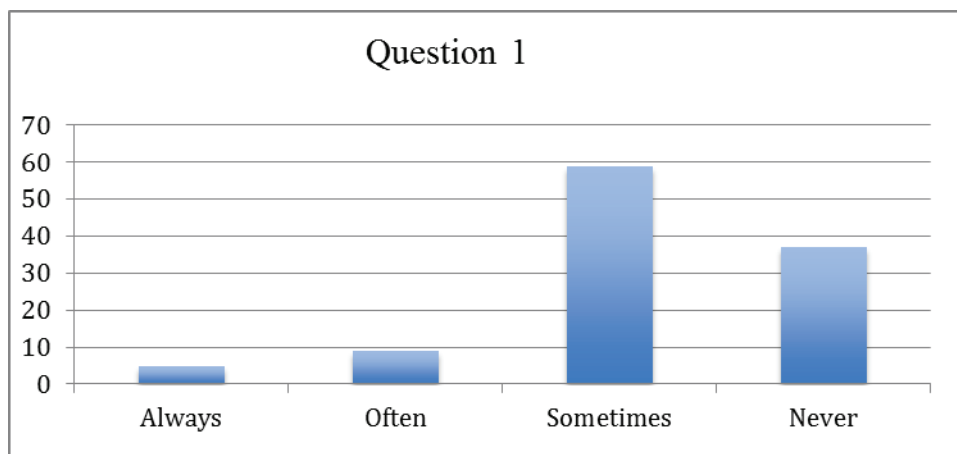


Figure 3. When in clinical practice, how often do you intentionally seek out information from sources outside the U.S. to gain a different perspective?

al background?” The mean overall response for question 2 was 2.4, which falls between “sometimes” and “often.” The ANOVA revealed that the independent variables of

sex, facility type, and service-learning experience were not significant factors for question 2 (see Figure 4).

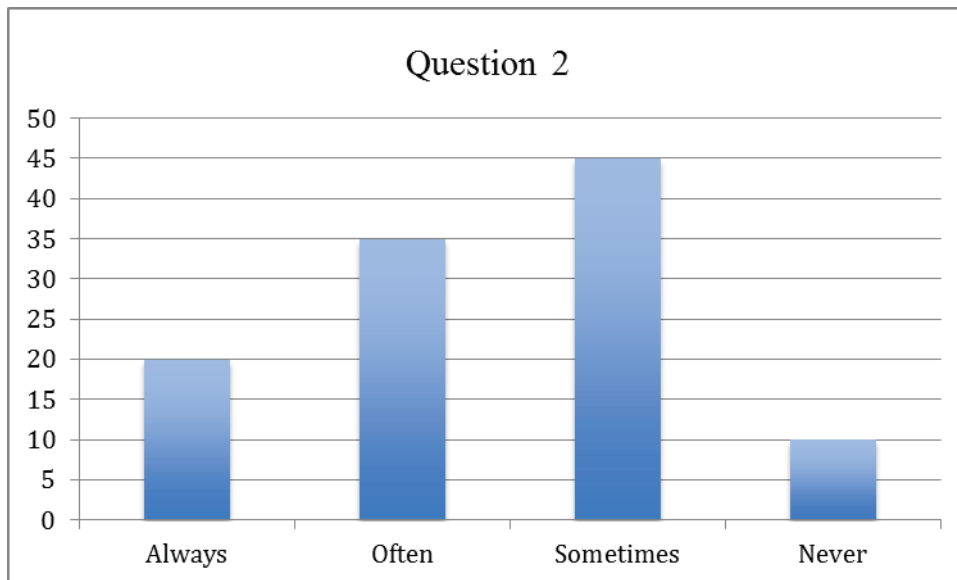


Figure 4. Reflecting on the past six months, when working with a person from a different ethnic, socioeconomic, or international background, how often have you modified an aspect of the plan of care due to the person’s ethnic, socioeconomic, or international background?

Chi-square analysis was calculated for question three: “Do you provide financial support to people, programs, or organizations that address the needs of people living in developing countries?” 30% respond-

ed “yes” to this question while 68% answered “no.” Significant differences were not found for demographic variables of sex, practice area, or service-learning experience (see Figure 5).

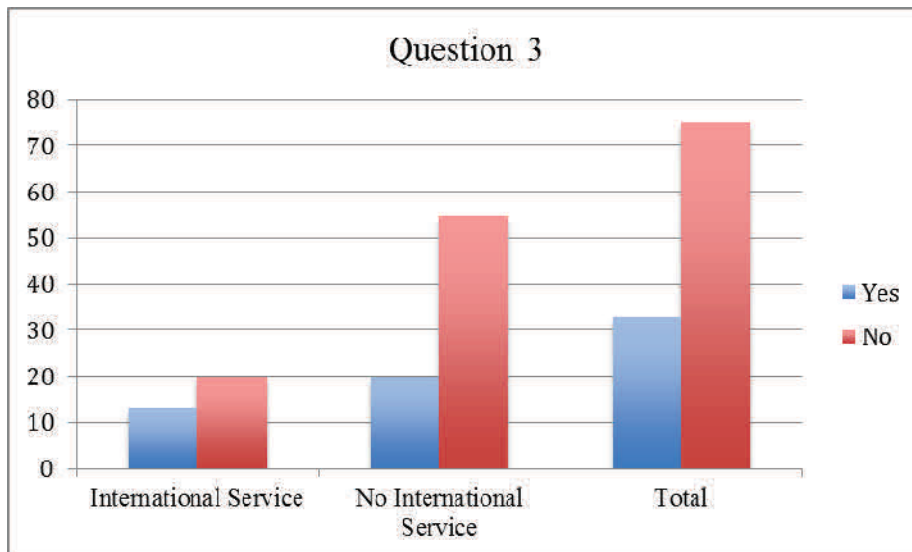


Figure 5. Do you provide financial support to people, programs, or organizations that address the needs of people living in developing countries?

Chi-square analysis with cross tabulation was used to compare level of participation in service learning with question 4: “Since graduating from WJU, have you participated in, or have you made plans to participate in any international trips to provide information, attend conferences, or provide services to others?” The data revealed that for those who participated in only local service learning, five responded “yes” (10%), while 45 responded “no” (90%). Of those who participated in local and regional service learning, 0 responded “yes” (0%), while 12 responded “no” (100%). Of those who participated in local, regional, and international service learning, four responded

“yes” (33.3%), while eight responded “no” (66.7%). Of those that participated in local and international service learning, seven responded “yes” (43.8%), while nine responded “no” (56.3%). Of those who participated only in international service learning, two responded “yes” (40%), while three responded “no” (60%). Level of service-learning participation as a student was found to be statistically significant for graduates’ response to question 4 with a p-value of 0.004. Analysis reveals that those involved with international service learning were more likely to participate in or make plans to participate in international service learning, attend conferences, or provide ser-

Question 4 Cross Tabs P=.004		Yes	No	Total
No Service Learning	Count	1	14	15
	%	6.7%	93.3%	100%
Local SL only	Count	5	45	50
	%	10%	90%	100%
Local and Regional SL	Count	0	12	12
	%	0%	100%	100%
Local, Regional, and International	Count	4	8	12
	%	33.3%	66.6%	100%
Local and International	Count	7	9	16
	%	43.8%	56.3%	100%
International Only	Count	2	3	5
	%	40%	60%	100%
Any International	Count	13	20	33
	%	39.4%	60.6%	100%
No International	Count	6	71	77
	%	9.0%	91%	100%
Total	Count	19	91	110
	%	17.3%	82.7%	100%

Figure 6. Since graduating from WJU, have you participated in, or have you made plans to participate in any international trips to provide information, attend conferences, or provide services to others?



vices to others (39.4% answered “yes”); in comparison to those who participated in only local or regional service learning, or those who did not participate in service learning (8.5% answered “yes”) (see Figure 6).

Respondents replied “yes” 85.5% and “no” 14.5% to question 5: “Since grad-

uating from WJU, do you participate on a personal level in activities that reflect a global awareness, such as conservation activities, recycling, purchasing fair trade items, or the efficient use of energy?” Chi-square analysis did not reveal significant differences for any of the demographic variables (see Figure 7).

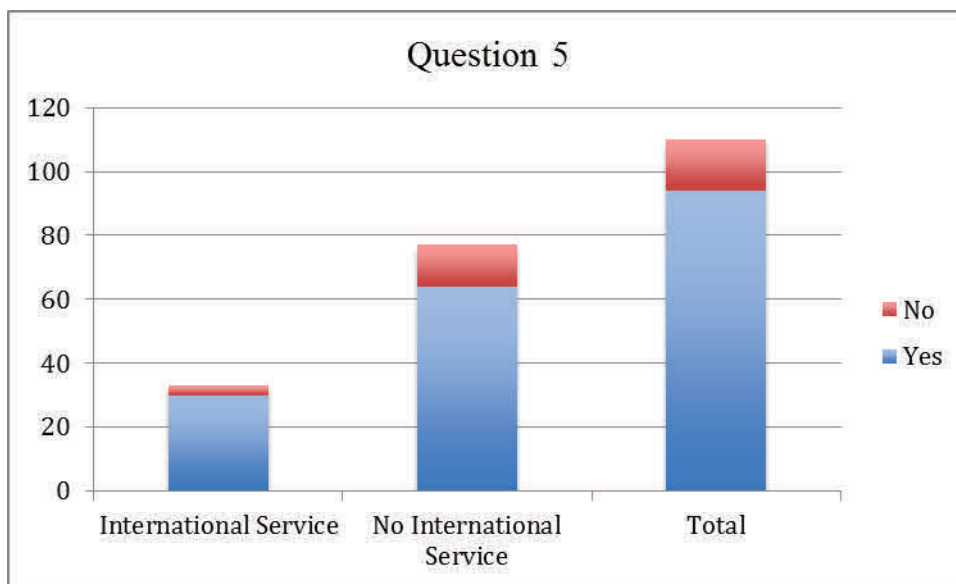


Figure 7. Since graduating from WJU, do you participate on a personal level in activities that reflect a global awareness, such as conservation activities, recycling, purchasing fair trade items, or the efficient use of energy?

### DISCUSSION

The results of this research showed a significant correlation between having previously participated in international service learning, with planning to participate in global outreach programs in the future (p=0.004 for question 4: Since graduating from WJU, have you participated in, or have you made plans to participate in any international trips to provide information, attend conferences, or provide services to others?) Graduates who had participated in an international service-learning experience while in physical therapy school were far more likely to answer yes to question 4 at 39.4% than were graduates who had not participated in an international experience

at 8.5%. This result is consistent with the Council of Chief State School Officers’ EdSteps Global Competence Matrix (2011), which describes that becoming globally competent requires investigation of the world beyond a person’s direct environment. This aspect is also reflected in other models of global competency that include components of actively seeking to understand others (Hunter, White, & Godbey, 2006; WHO, n.d.; Schejbal, 2009; Hunter, 2004). Additional studies by Batchelder (1994) and Myers-Lipton (1998) have demonstrated a correlation with service learning or a positive response on a global scale. Batchelder (1994) found service learning correlated to a greater awareness of social problems and Myers-Lipton (1998)

reported an increased civic responsibility from students that participated in a service-learning program. Elam (2003) concluded that there was a positive impact of service learning on medical students' intent to volunteer in community-based clinics in the future. However, these studies analyzed immediate results, not long-term effects.

There was also an overall positive response to question 2: Reflecting on the past six months, when working with a person from a different ethnic, socioeconomic, or international background, how often have you modified an aspect of the plan of care due to the person's ethnic, socioeconomic, or international background? The majority of the responses indicate that graduates are considering their clients' cultural backgrounds when determining treatment plans. The majority of graduates responded positively to this question with 20 answering "always," 36 "often" and 44 "sometimes." Only 10 replied "never" to this question. While significant differences were not found between the groups that preformed service learning and groups that had not completed service, the overall positive response to this question is an indication that graduates in our program consider a client's cultural background when designing and implementing a treatment plan. This finding is consistent with the results from Casey (2008), which concluded that service learning in general supported development of cultural sensitivity to learn about caring for people in different cultures. Similarly, Green (2011) concluded that international service-learning experiences increased participants' ability to provide culturally congruent care. However, the results from this question are in conflict with the findings from Noles' (2005) conclusions that service learning had a negative impact on cultural competence scores.

A limitation of this study is the survey design. Psychologists typically study

and write about human behavior to attempt to explain why human beings behave as they do. The observer can explain the behaviors, or another way to assess humans' behavior is to ask them. This study focused on identified behaviors reflective of a global citizen in graduates of a physical therapist education program, and assessed those behaviors by questioning the participants via questionnaire. Limitations are that the questions were closed-ended and the responses are confined to the available choices. Therefore, the researcher may not capture issues that are relevant to the sample. Also, as with any survey, respondents may answer in a socially appropriate way, instead of what they actually believe. While the sample size was large enough to attain statistical significance with one of the chi-square analyses, the sample of 110 respondents is not large enough to establish external validity for the study. The results, while relevant to the Physical Therapy Program at Wheeling Jesuit University may not be generalizable to the population.

## CONCLUSION

The conclusions of this study show that students who participated in an international service-learning experience did exhibit different behaviors as graduates than those who did not participate or only participated in other levels of service learning. This was demonstrated with a significance of 0.004 (N=110) calculated from a chi-square with cross tabulation from responses to question 4, which verified that students who have participated in international service learning were more likely to indicate willingness to do so again in the future. The majority of graduates (100/110; 91%) also indicated that they consider their clients' cultural backgrounds while designing and implementing a client's plan of care. These global characteristics are encouraged by the American Physical Therapy Association

(APTA) and are necessary traits of physical therapy students and graduates (APTA, 2011). Future research that explores specific components of a service-learning experience and its ability to transform a student's beliefs and behaviors would continue to develop our understanding of this pedagogy as it is used in health care education in the United States. It could allow for more standardization and efficiency, allowing for the delivery of the specific components through less costly venues. In addition, the impact of service learning on the community partner would broaden our understanding of this type of community engagement and illuminate the value or detriment of such experiential learning on a broader array of stakeholders.

With more than one billion people in the world living with some form of disability (WHO 2011), it is evident that higher education in physical therapy is in need of a clear definition, structure, and outcome measurement on global competency to determine if we truly are educating men and women who have an appreciation for global issues and behave, albeit in a limited fashion, as global citizens

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## A Qualitative Assessment of the Impact of a Service-Learning Course on Students' Discipline-Specific Self-Efficacy

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### ABSTRACT

Investigators employed a multi-method qualitative approach to determine the impact of a service-learning course on students' discipline-specific self-efficacy. The majority of students reported an increase in discipline-specific self-efficacy after participating in this service-learning course. Analysis resulted in three major themes: (1) constructive criticism and self-reflection improve self-efficacy; (2) experience breeds confidence; and (3) service-learning encourages students to obtain more knowledge and experience in areas of deficiency after the service-learning experience.

*Keywords:* constructive criticism, self-reflection, nutrition, student teaching, critical reflection essays, individual interviews

In an effort to improve student learning outcomes and engage students in defining their own learning, some instructors are implementing more student-centered pedagogies in their courses, including service learning. Defined by the integration of academic learning, service to the community, and critical reflection, service-learning experiences provide students an opportunity to learn and grow in three common areas: academic enhancement, personal growth, and civic learning (Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005; Felten & Clayton, 2011). Pertaining to applying knowledge and skills learned in the classroom to the service-learning experience and vice versa, academic enhancement can lead to an increased understanding of academic content, as well as students' identification of "gaps" in their knowledge and abilities (Ash, Clayton, & Moses, 2008). Civic learning includes the understanding of how

individuals and groups work together to achieve a common goal (Ash, Clayton, & Moses, 2008). For example, students working in a group to serve a community partner may identify how differences in priorities between their community partner and themselves affect how each approaches the task at hand and how that approach ultimately impacts the success of the project.

Through service-learning experiences, students can also grow personally and professionally by identifying strengths, weaknesses, assumptions, and convictions, as well as their goals for the future (Ash, Clayton, & Moses, 2008). As a result of this growth, students may develop a stronger understanding of their self-view and personal identity, how their thoughts and actions impact interpersonal relationships, and how their view of others and themselves influences their actions and outcomes. Embedded within personal growth is the con-

struct of self-efficacy, an individual's belief about his or her ability to perform a specific task (Bandura, 1997, p. 3).

In his book, Bandura (1997) posits that self-efficacy, an individual's belief in his or her ability to succeed (or not), greatly impacts performance when faced with specific tasks. For example, if a student believes she is good at working in the community (high self-efficacy), she will be more likely to persevere when faced with obstacles while working in the community because she believes she has the skills to overcome these obstacles. Through perseverance, the student will use her skills more, likely increasing her self-efficacy related to those skills, as well as increasing her actual objective ability. Thus, providing students opportunities to prepare for and practice discipline-specific skills in a safe and supportive environment (e.g. service-learning courses) may lead to increased student discipline-specific self-efficacy. Of note, the concepts around self-efficacy can be applied generally or to discipline-specific skills. This paper focuses on discipline-specific self-efficacy.

While evidence suggests that application of a service-learning pedagogy positively impacts student learning outcomes in numerous categories within each common learning area (Conway, Amel, & Gerwien, 2009; Yorio & Ye, 2011), less is known about how service-learning experiences impact student self-efficacy around discipline-specific skills. In the pre-service teaching literature, the discipline with the most information on service-learning and self-efficacy, researchers have found varying effects of service-learning on teaching efficacy, with most identifying positive outcomes associated with service-learning experience (Nelson, Tice, & Theriot, 2008; Root, Callahan, & Sepanski, 2002; Stewart, Allen, & Bai, 2011; Stewart, 2012). In nutrition and dietetics, Holston and O'Neil

(2008) found that students' self-efficacy related to medical nutrition therapy knowledge, and communication skills increased after participating in a service-learning project focusing on those academic constructs. Additionally, students reported seeing growth in their professional development skills as a result of their service-learning experience. Holston and O'Neil believed that the self-reflection component of the experience was critical to students' growth and development. Others in soil science have found that service-learning students are more confident in "career-related" (i.e. discipline-specific) skills than those who do not engage in service learning (Smith et al., 2014).

Because self-efficacy plays a critical role in how individuals perform, evaluation of specific service-learning courses aimed at increasing students' discipline-specific self-efficacy is needed to identify best practices for cultivating stronger learning outcomes in students. Thus, in the current study, researchers aimed to qualitatively examine the impact of a service-learning course on students' self-efficacy and identify components of the course that facilitated this impact.

## METHODS

### Study Design

Investigators employed a multi-methods qualitative approach to determine the impact of a service-learning course on students' discipline-specific self-efficacy related to teaching nutrition in the community. To address the study aim, researchers analyzed critical reflection essays written by students in three semesters of a community nutrition course. Additionally, in the third semester of data collection, research assistants conducted pre- and post-experience interviews with students, discussing their self-efficacy about and experi-

ences with teaching nutrition in the community.

### **Course Design**

The four-credit, service-learning Community Nutrition course was comprised of three one-hour lectures (Monday-Wednesday-Friday) and one four-hour lab (Wednesday or Thursday) each week. During the lecture times, students learned how to design, implement, and evaluate a simple nutrition program in the community. The course instructor and graduate teaching assistant (TA) designed the laboratory portion of the course as a service-learning experience in which students worked as a team of five to teach nutrition to low-income members of the community at local community partner sites. Based on their preferences and stated skills, students were assigned to one of five positions within their group. While students were assigned specific roles (e.g. classroom manager, chef, nutritionist, gardener, and food runner) and responsibilities within the group, all students were expected to assist each other in teaching while in the community.

During the first six or seven weeks of laboratory time (depending on the semester taught), groups engaged in weekly training sessions, preparing to teach nutrition in the community. These sessions included hands-on experiences with lesson planning, basic classroom management skills, and teaching techniques for working with different aged audiences. Additionally, students practiced basic knife skills and food preparation. Students were given opportunities to practice teaching lessons to build self-efficacy. During the last six weeks of the laboratory, student teams taught a series of lessons to a group of low-income children, teens, adults, or senior adults in the community, using a nationally-recognized pre-packaged curriculum (Share Our Strength, 2012). These participant-centered lessons

lasted approximately two hours and included nutrition, cooking, and food safety content.

During the Friday lecture time of the last six weeks of the semester, the course instructor and TA led students through group reflection, discussing strengths, challenges, and areas for improvement with the groups. With the timing and amount varying by semester and phase of data collection, students also wrote individual critical reflections to summarize and apply their learnings from the experience. Finally, three times throughout the service-learning experience, the course instructor and TA provided students individual- and group-specific written feedback regarding their teaching abilities, using a list of best practices to guide the graded evaluations (see Table 1). For example, one student may have been told she needed to smile more while teaching because smiling makes the children feel more welcomed and more willing to ask questions. Another student may have been told that he needed to be prepared for teaching by wearing a watch because he was responsible for keeping track of time in the class.

### **Participants and Recruitment**

In general, students enrolled in Community Nutrition during the data collection period were typically female Nutrition Science majors who had an interest in public health and/or who wanted to become a Registered Dietitian. Researchers did not collect specific demographic data for participants in this study. During phase 1 of the research, students of Community Nutrition (n=58) wrote critical reflection essays analyzed in this study. These essays were completed as part of the graded student evaluation for the course. North Carolina State University's Institutional Review Board exempted the protocols used in this phase of the research from informed consent.



**Table 1.**

*Community partner- and instructor-identified categories and examples of best practices for teaching nutrition in the community*

<b>Category</b>	<b>Example</b>
Safe Handling and Preparation of Food	Instructor enforces proper hand washing practices.
Choosing, Making and Eating Healthy Foods	Instructor discusses healthy food substitutions.
Encouraging Preparation of Low-cost Foods at Home	Instructor discusses budgeting tips with participants.
Encouraging Preparations of Meals at Home	Instructor asks participants about meals they prepared during the week.
Discussing Course Material	Instructor refers to the participant book during all parts of the lesson and activities.
Engaging in Food Preparation	Instructor makes sure all participants are active during food preparation and that each participant has a role.
Family Meal Time	Instructors and participants sit down and eat the meal together.
Facilitated Dialogue	Instructor asks open-ended questions.
Building on Previous Knowledge and Reinforcing Key Content and Skills	Instructor reviews concepts from previous classes at the beginning of each class.
Team-teaching	Instructor is engaged in all parts of the lesson (talk, nodding, eye contact).
Knowledge of Subject Matter Being Taught	Instructor is confident in saying "I don't know" when the question is outside of his or her scope of expected knowledge.
Arriving Prepared and Organized	Instructor arrives with all materials needed to teach the lesson.
Time Management	Instructor sticks to the lesson plan to avoid misusing time.
Respect and Cultural Sensitivity	Instructor uses culturally appropriate examples.
Building a Welcoming Atmosphere	Instructor greets participants.
Managing Inappropriate Behaviors	Instructor establishes expectations and rules.
Teaching Skills	Instructor shows flexibility in teaching.

As part of phase 2, 16 students also participated in individual interviews during the first two weeks of the semester and the last two weeks of the semester. At the beginning of this semester, the course instructor gave all students enrolled in the course the opportunity to earn extra credit by either participating in two interviews or writing two reflection essays discussing their experiences around teaching nutrition in the community. The instructor informed students that data from the individual interviews would be included in a research study on student teaching in the community. Sev-

enteen of the 20 students in the course participated in the pre-experience interviews; one of those 17 did not complete the post-experience interview. No students opted to write the two reflection essays in an effort to earn extra credit. North Carolina State University's Institutional Review Board approved all protocols used in this phase of the research.

### **Data Collection**

In phase 1, Community Nutrition students completed graded critical reflection essays, focusing on personal growth,

academic enhancement, and civic engagement (Ash, Clayton, & Moses, 2008). During the service-learning portion of the first two semesters of data collection, students completed three critical reflection essays each, one for each of the foci mentioned above (n=38). During the third semester of data collection, students chose to either write one long critical reflection essay at the end of their service-learning experience (n=15) or six shorter critical reflection essays, one at the end of each week of experience (n=5). Regardless of the assignment frequency, when reviewed together, student reflections encompassed all three foci of learning. Reflection prompts for all semesters are available upon request.

In phase 2, two undergraduate research assistants conducted pre- and post-experience phone interviews with Community Nutrition students. Prior to data collection, the research assistants completed in-depth qualitative interview training, including mock interviews. At the beginning of each phone interview, research assistants reviewed the consent form with and obtained verbal consent from participants prior to proceeding with the interview. Data collectors then asked students to discuss

their self-efficacy in and experiences around teaching nutrition in the community, using a standardized interview guide. During the post-experience interviews, researchers also asked students to discuss how their ability for each skill had changed as a result of taking the Community Nutrition course. Table 2 outlines specific teaching skills addressed in the interview guide. The complete interview guide with introductory statements, required probes, and optional prompts is available upon request. All interviews lasted between 30 and 90 minutes and were digitally audio-recorded. Students only received course extra credit if they completed both pre- and post-experience interviews.

### Data Analysis

Research assistants transcribed interviews verbatim. After final grades were distributed to students, the course instructor and TA analyzed transcripts and critical reflection essays to determine dominant emergent themes around student self-efficacy related to teaching nutrition in the community. Each researcher analyzed half of the transcripts and half of the critical reflection essays, recording key findings and

**Table 2.**  
*Teaching skills addressed in interview guide*

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General ability to teach in the community
Ability to teach nutrition in the community
Ability to stay up-to-date on current nutrition topics
Ability to manage disruptive behavior in a teaching setting
Ability to handle unexpected events and solve problems that arise when teaching in the community
Ability to engage participants and create a positive classroom environment when teaching in the community
Ability to self-reflect on individual teaching performance and make changes based on that reflection
Ability to evaluate student learning and adapt lesson plans accordingly
Ability to select and use appropriate materials when teaching
Ability to teach to different ages and audiences

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memoing their own reflections in the margins of the printed data set. After the investigators each analyzed one pair of pre- and post-experience transcripts or one group of critical reflection essays, they discussed the initial findings from those data sources, noting common and divergent experiences and outcomes. They repeated this process for each data source. After analyzing pre- and post-experience interview transcripts from 10 participants, researchers formulated a coding schema and the dominant emergent themes presented in the results. While remaining open to new emergent themes, investigators refined their explanations related to each theme, integrating student quotes into the descriptions, as data analysis progressed. After the results were drafted, the course instructor reviewed all transcripts to confirm the reported findings reflected the overall intent of the students' essays and interviews.

To increase the trustworthiness of the findings, the course instructor attempted to solicit feedback about the findings from all 58 students who provided data for the project. Of the 58 e-mails sent, six bounced back to the sender because the e-mail address no longer existed. Additionally, because many of the students had already graduated when e-mailed at their university-linked e-mail address, some of the students may not have actively monitored their e-mail addresses and thus may have never read the request. Only three students responded to our request. Two indicated they agreed with the results and had no revisions; one agreed with our results but requested that we add an example quote to one of the paragraphs that did not include one originally. After the feedback was incorporated into the findings, the course instructor reviewed all transcripts a final time to confirm the reported findings.

## RESULTS

Overall, the majority of students reported an increased self-efficacy related to teaching nutrition in the community after participating in this service-learning course. Analysis of transcripts and critical reflection essays resulted in three major themes: (1) constructive criticism and self-reflection improve self-efficacy; (2) experience breeds confidence; and (3) service-learning encourages students to gain more knowledge and experience in areas of deficiency.

### CONSTRUCTIVE CRITISICM AND SELF-REFLECTION IMPROVE SELF-EFFICACY

Students reported, while sometimes painful to hear, they believed constructive criticism improved their skills when working in the community. Most students appreciated receiving constructive criticism from peers and superiors; they looked at these comments as opportunities for growth and made adjustments accordingly. One student stated,

*Being able to get feedback from [the course instructor and TA] but also [from] my other team members ... being able to take those comments and that feedback and trying to improve each week has been a really good learning experience.*

Another wrote,

*At first this reflection [sic] seemed like a mundane task, and I did not think the information would be valuable. When it came to writing the first feedback...I was able to see how this information was helpful... Instead of just overlooking small problems that have occurred, we had to acknowledge them, which allowed us to see where we could make improvements.*

Some students admitted to struggling with how to deal with constructive criticism, initially challenged by identifying ways to improve skills. Their first reactions toward the constructive criticism were often negative. However, most of these students stated that over time they learned how to process feedback to improve their performance. One student described this transformation:

*So, my ability to take feedback and change what I was doing definitely improved over the course of the semester. It wasn't like I was able to just take the critiques and change exactly what I was doing. It definitely took me like the full six weeks to change my behavior.*

Unfortunately, a small number of students continued to negatively internalize constructive criticism, responding to the comments by withdrawing from the experience and/or feeling frustrated and defeated. These students seemed to have an unrealistic expectation of themselves, viewing any negative comment about their performance as an indication of failure. For example, one student wrote,

*[This] class was overwhelming for me and I didn't know how to handle the different obstacles in mine and my groups way. I didn't realize that I was the one making it so overwhelming and difficult because of my inability to adapt to and for the class.*

Students also believed that self-reflection and constructive criticism helped them become stronger teachers. Students felt that self-reflection was an important part of the service-learning process. For example, one student said, "I've always been okay at self-reflecting, but I've never had to do it with such intensity. ... I feel ... more equipped to really step back and evaluate myself now." Students reported benefiting

from both individual and group reflection, with one stating, "We were really encouraged to reflect in multiple ways. ... [W]e were able to learn our strengths and weaknesses and ... be able to reflect on different kinds of levels and from different kinds of perspectives."

#### EXPERIENCE BREEDS CONFIDENCE

Prior to the service-learning experience, students had a wide variety of teaching experiences, yet few had substantial experience teaching nutrition in the community. Based on the data gathered in pre-experience interviews and reflections, those who perceived themselves to either have an innate ability to perform well at a task or who had previous experience with a task were more likely to express higher self-efficacy related to those specific teaching skills prior to the experience. For example, one student said, "I have a really outgoing and energetic optimistic personality, so I love being able to get students excited about learning no matter what it is."

Prior to their service-learning experience, many students reported being uncomfortable with teaching nutrition in particular, partly because they believed they had not taken enough nutrition courses. "I've learned a lot in my classes but I still don't feel completely prepared to go out and teach all of these specifics because I'm still learning myself."

While overall teaching self-efficacy improved in students after their service-learning experiences, the students reported greatest improvements in self-efficacy related to the skills in which they originally lacked confidence the most. Students attributed this newfound confidence to their service-learning experience. One student reflected, "At first I was not as confident in how I could handle disruptive behavior, but after going through the class I kind of real-

ized that I could do that and I did have the ability.”

However, if students lacked self-efficacy in one skill at the beginning of the service-learning experience and did not receive much practice using that skill during the experience, then their self-efficacy tended to remain low. For example, one student said,

*I guess I feel like I'm very confident in my ability to teach to teens and children but as far as teaching to adults I never had the experience to, so I don't know if that would be as effective.*

#### SERVICE-LEARNING ENCOURAGES STUDENTS TO GAIN MORE KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE IN AREAS OF DEFICIENCY

Reflecting on those weaknesses not fully addressed during the service-learning experience, students expressed a desire to improve on those skills through future experiences. They discussed general and specific ways in which they could obtain training. One student wrote, “I hope to expand my teaching techniques... especially focusing on using creativity as a tool for learning. ... These skills could be gained through experimentation in the teaching environment.”

In addition to the desire to obtain new skill sets, students also discussed a newfound motivation to improve their nutrition knowledge as a result of the service-learning experience. Many students were motivated to engage in self-led education (e.g. reading journals, watching the news) to ensure that they were knowledgeable enough to help those they were teaching. For example, one student said, “[Teaching in the community] kind of encouraged me to keep up to date on my own information

so that I could help them more. So, my ability hasn't changed but my motivation has.”

#### DISCUSSION

While investigating the impacts of a service-learning course on students' discipline-specific self-efficacy, not surprisingly, we found that when students had previous experience with certain tasks or skills, they had higher self-efficacy related to those abilities. As students gained more experience in the service-learning course, their self-efficacy increased. Additionally, repeated experiences with self-reflection and constructive criticism provided students opportunities to improve their performance and thus led to an increase in self-efficacy among the vast majority of students. Finally, encouraged by their successes in the service-learning course and seeing the need to continue to improve upon their discipline-specific abilities and knowledge, students expressed a newfound motivation to continue their learning.

Although critical reflection is a vital part of service-learning to facilitate growth in all areas of learning (Eyler 2002), some students may struggle with key elements of critical reflection, including higher levels of critical thinking (Molee, Henry, Sessa, & McKinney-Prupis, 2010). Group reflection (Johnson & Johnson, 2009) and instructor feedback (Lee, 2011) can facilitate deeper learning and help students improve their own critical reflection skills. Overall, the majority of students in this study affirmed the benefits of engaging in both individual critical reflection and group reflection, along with receiving instructor constructive criticism.

In this study, some students in this study appeared to already possess the skills to adequately identify and address weaknesses revealed by critical reflection and peer and instructor feedback. However,

demonstrating that learning how to accept and apply feedback is a process that takes time (Evans, 2013), others in the course initially rejected feedback but over the six-week service-learning experience grew to appreciate the outcomes that could arise from critical reflection and constructive criticism. Students reported that varied and repeated forms of experiences with critical reflection led to greater learning and increased self-efficacy in their teaching and discipline-specific skills, supporting the theories and findings of others that emphasize that multiple opportunities for critical reflection lead to deeper student learning (Cone & Harris, 1996; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Molee, Henry, Sessa, & McKinney-Prupis, 2010).

While only a small minority, some students failed to develop the ability to react positively to feedback provided by peers and instructors. Ackerman and Gross (2010) acknowledge, "Some students are more sensitive to critique than are others," and their reaction may be due in part to their stage of emotional maturity and intellectual development, which may impact how they interpret the feedback (Ackerman & Gross, 2010; Dweck, 2000; Yorke, 2003). It is possible that the group of students in this study who reacted poorly to constructive criticism viewed feedback that was aimed at task-specific performance as person-directed criticism (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000). Thus, believing their instructors and peers were criticizing their character, the students withdrew from the experience (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000). While an instructor cannot fully control for this unintended reaction, in an effort to minimize negative internalization of constructive criticism, Ackerman and Gross propose limiting feedback to a few key concepts with clear and specific points of action (2010).

## IMPLICATIONS FOR SERVICE-LEARNING RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

As hoped, students reported the service-learning experience increased their self-efficacy in teaching and discipline-specific skills. Others from multiple fields of study have also reported short-term (post-course) gains in learning outcomes after students participated in a service-learning course (Casile, Hoover, & O'Neil, 2011; Deeley, 2010; Holston & O'Neil, 2008; Yorio & Ye, 2011). However, few have investigated the long-term implications (post-graduation) of engaging students in a service-learning experience (Bowman, Brandenberger, Lapsley, Hill, & Quaranto, 2010), and to our knowledge, none identified and explored the long-term implications of student service-learning on performance in the workplace. With the potential to increase the justification and support for engaging in such labor- and time-intensive teaching efforts as service learning, researchers should follow alumni after graduation, investigating the long-term impacts of service-learning experiences on knowledge, skills, and self-efficacy within the workplace.

Consistent with Bandura's (1997) views of how an individual's self-efficacy impacts his or her likelihood to pursue a skill, students in this study expressed increased motivation to improve their discipline-specific knowledge and teaching abilities in the future. As a result, instructors are challenged to find ways to maintain this motivation, encouraging students to act on their motivation. While some instructors may never again interact with a group of students once they have completed a course and thus may have limited potential to impact the students further, through critical reflection exercises, prior to course completion, these instructors can encourage stu-

dents to set future goals and create action plans for these goals. Additionally, curriculum coordinators should identify opportunities to encourage students to build on their knowledge and skills from one class to another through embedding student-centered courses throughout the curriculum.

### LIMITATIONS

While the outcomes of this study support engaging students in service-learning experiences, readers should be cautious when generalizing the results to all service-learning experiences. First, all critical reflection essays analyzed in this study were submitted as part of graded assignments. Additionally, while students who were interviewed for this study were told that the course instructor and TA would not read the de-identified transcripts until after final grades had been submitted, some students may have been worried about how the interview answers would impact their grade. As a result, some students may have been less likely to highlight the negative outcomes of the service-learning experience, thus skewing the findings. Furthermore, students spend an extensive amount of time (six to seven weeks of laboratory training) preparing for their service-learning experience. This training time and the effort required from the instructor and TA may not be feasible for instructors in other courses and thus may impact the outcomes of the service-learning experience. Additionally, while students were encouraged to submit critical reflection essays that accurately portrayed both their positive and negative experiences in the community and in their learnings, students may have biased their responses to reflect what they believed the instructors wanted to read. These biased responses could have skewed the results toward the positive.

### SUMMARY

In this qualitative examination, students who engaged in service-learning experienced increases in self-efficacy related to skills applied in the experience, as well as increases in motivation to build on their knowledge and skills in the future. When students engaged in critical reflection throughout their experience received feedback from peers and instructors, they were able to identify areas for improvement in their teaching skills. Thus, over time, students reported improvements in their self-efficacy related to these skills. Based on these findings, instructors who choose to teach via service learning should engage students in guided critical reflection early and often. This critical reflection should be accompanied by opportunities to receive constructive criticism from both instructors and peers. Finally, both critical reflection and constructive criticism should lead to opportunities for students to set goals and action plans to improve upon their identified weaknesses.

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## Faculty Feel It Too: The Emotions of Teaching Through Service-learning

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### ABSTRACT

The authors used Coles' (1993) framework of emotional satisfactions and hazards to examine the experiences of faculty members teaching service-learning classes for the first time. Seven faculty from two institutions completed monthly reflections and focus groups for one year. Qualitative analysis indicated that faculty experienced several of Coles' emotional satisfactions and hazards, were prone to emotional contagion, and depended on colleague mentoring to navigate the experiences of using service-learning pedagogy for the first time.

*Keywords:* service-learning, faculty, emotions

Faculty members, like their students, are learners. Foster (2007) suggests that teaching and learning are interdependent, and as such, students can be agents of change in their teacher's lives. Nowhere is this opportunity more apparent than in a service-learning context, where transformative learning opportunities abound (Cazzell, Theriot, Blakey, & Sattler, 2014). Marbury (1996) considers service-learning to be the strongest teaching strategy to elicit educational transformation. With faculty working alongside students in the community, levels of learning are heightened due to the unstructured learning environment, out-of-classroom interaction, and the stake they have in community outcomes. However, these same opportunities for growth and learning can be intimidating and overwhelming, eliciting strong positive and negative emotions in faculty, especially those new to service-learning.

Faculty members who are just beginning to integrate service-learning pedagogy into their teaching must master a wide

range of largely unfamiliar tasks, such as collaborating with off-campus partners and assessing student learning through reflections. These new tasks provide faculty with multiple opportunities for learning across disciplinary, interpersonal, and civic domains, and have the ability to "refocus the lenses through which faculty make meaning of their work, its connections to the world around them, their students, their institutions, and themselves" (Clayton, Hess, Jaeger, Jameson, & McGuire, 2012, p. 247). Often viewed as opportunities for growth, this process of "making meaning of their work" can also challenge faculty beyond their comfort zones to an emotional place that has not yet been fully explored in the service-learning literature. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to identify and provide a baseline of the emotions experienced by faculty teaching service-learning courses, both positive and negative. In doing so, it is the hope that the positive emotions experienced can be encouraged and fostered while proposing strategies for mitigating the

negative emotions associated with teaching service-learning courses. As Jay Cooper (2014) stated, "To more broadly institutionalize and sustain service-learning, it is essential to better understand the issues facing faculty utilizing service-learning" (p. 416).

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Learning theories that underpin service-learning pedagogy emphasize the importance of an ongoing cycle of action and reflection (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985; Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1983). Emotions play a critical role at multiple points throughout this cycle. For example, educational philosopher John Dewey (1895, 1938) believed that emotions act as behavioral interruptions where two possible courses of action conflict with one another. Emotional responses such as surprise, puzzlement, and confusion cue the learner to existing problems in their environment and serve to motivate them toward a solution that, once achieved, provides the learner with a sense of calm, comfort, and satisfaction. In this way, emotional experience, according to Dewey (1938), resides at the very core of learning and rational behavior. Schön (1983) also situates emotional experience as central to his reflective practice cycle, while Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985) propose a reflective process that requires the learner to return to (i.e., vividly recall) the lived experience and to attend to both the positive and negative emotions that were/are present in that experience.

A large body of empirical research now exists to support this theoretical connection between emotion, learning, and task performance, first demonstrated by Yerkes and Dodson (1908). The well-known Yerkes-Dodson's Law holds that task performance is improved in conditions where low levels of emotional arousal exist, and that performance declines once emotional

arousal rises beyond an optimal level. Across the past century, the exact shape and function of this relationship between emotional arousal and task performance has been extensively researched and debated; however, the existence of the relationship is now rarely questioned (Diamond, 2005). Most recently, research investigating the possibility that individuals can improve their own task performance through the use of self-talk that mediates emotional responses has shown positive early results (Vine, Freeman, Moore, Chandra-Ramanan, & Wilson, 2013).

Given the critical role emotions play in learning, it is surprising that research on emotions in teaching, particularly higher education teaching, is scarce. In their review of the literature on K-12 teachers' emotions, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) describe the range of emotions that elementary, middle, and high school teachers often experience and the conditions under which these emotions arise. Common positive emotions include pleasure and satisfaction, particularly related to student learning and engagement (Hatch, 1993; Jackson, 1968; Nias, 1989). Common negative emotions for teachers include frustration and anger, often related to uncooperative students and/or colleagues (Bullough, Knowles, & Crow, 1991; Hargreaves, 2000; Jackson, 1968; Nias, 1989). Sutton and Wheatley (2003) also overviewed early research that demonstrates students' awareness of and reactions to their teachers' negative and positive emotions (Kounin, 1977; Lewis, 2001; Thomas & Montgomery, 1998; Wentzel, 1996).

Recent research has begun to provide empirical evidence of this interconnectedness between teachers' and their students' emotions. For example, Frenzel and her colleagues used multilevel structural equation modeling to demonstrate the positive relationship between teacher and stu-

dent enjoyment across 71 different mathematics classes (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrum, & Sutton, 2009). The effect of teacher enjoyment on student enjoyment in this study was mediated by teacher enthusiasm (Frenzel et al., 2009). Becker and her colleagues asked 149 high school students to rate their teachers' emotions (joy, anger, and anxiety) and instructional behaviors as well as their own emotions across an average of 15 lessons in four different subjects. Intra-individual, multilevel regression analyses revealed that the students' perceptions of their teachers' behaviors significantly predicted students' emotions in those classes, above and beyond the teachers' instructional behavior (Becker, Goetz, Morger, & Ranellucci, 2014). Teachers' emotions in this study explained incremental variance in students' emotions, a pattern that supports the hypothesis of an unconscious emotional contagion at work between teachers and their students (Becker et al., 2014).

Only four studies could be found that address the emotional experiences of university-level teachers. Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011) interviewed 97 university teachers in Finland to identify descriptions related to emotions and confidence. Qualitative analysis indicated that teachers who characterized themselves as more learning- and student-centered in their approach to teaching expressed the most positively charged emotions regarding teaching, while teachers who self-described as being content- and information-transmission focused in their teaching approach expressed more neutral or negative emotions. Trigwell (2012) found similar results in a quantitative study of 175 Australian university instructors. Hagenauer and Volet (2014) interviewed 15 experienced instructors from two Australian universities at two different time points, approximately four months apart. Qualitative analysis identified annoyance and insecurity as the most frequently mentioned negative emotions, and joy and happiness/

satisfaction as the most frequently mentioned positive emotions. Teachers' emotional experiences often related to whether or not students' behavior met their expectations.

Meanwell and Kleiner (2014) analyzed the content of 86 reflection papers written by graduate student instructors in the sociology department of a large American university across the 10-year period spanning 1997 to 2006. The authors note that "the sheer emotionality of first-time teaching is one of the most striking aspects of our data" (Meanwell & Kleiner, 2014, p. 20). Ninety-five percent of the instructors explicitly discussed the emotional demands of teaching in their reflections, using emotional terms on average 38 times per reflection. Beginning instructors in their sample used a greater variety of negative emotion descriptors (167 unique negative emotion terms versus 83 different positive emotion terms), but expressed negative emotions in their reflections equally as often as they did positive emotions. Approximately half of all reflections included references to the emotion of surprise.

No studies of university-level teachers' emotional experiences in teaching service-learning classes have been published to date. However, two recent studies have explored the relationships between emotions and students' experiences in service-learning classes. In his 2000 conceptual paper, Yob proposes that community-based service activities within a music education class can provide a context for exploring the emotional effect of music.

Carson and Domangue (2013) followed 42 university undergraduate students who had participated in the same service-learning program over the course of three consecutive semesters. The researchers framed the students' emotional experiences within Robert Coles' (1993) conceptual model of emotional satisfactions and hazards in service. Coles (1993) created a conceptual model that describes the emotional

“satisfactions” and “hazards” associated with serving others based on his own service experiences as well as on the themes that emerged from a series of interviews he conducted with Peace Corps members and volunteers in hospitals, schools, prisons, and nursing homes. Coles’ (1993) model of satisfactions and hazards are outlined in Ta-

ble 1.

Service-learning aroused a wide range of emotions, even opposite emotions, in the college students who participated in Carson and Domangue’s study (2013). Many students described feeling a roller-coaster of short-lived and fluctuating emotions during their service-learning project.

**Table 1.** *Emotional Satisfactions and Hazards*

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### **Emotional Satisfactions**

1. Something done, someone reached: the pleasure and privilege of completing benevolent service acts that enhance the lives of those involved.
2. Moral purpose: the service encounter is a mutual moral activity; it answers a moral call in the world while strengthening the moral beliefs and values of those volunteering (i.e., providing a sense of purpose in life).
3. Personal affirmation: the service enables one to rediscover the inherent gifts one has to offer the world that are usually taken for granted.
4. Stoic endurance: a mix between being fully committed to the work and those served, yet remaining somewhat detached (i.e., keeping in perspective what can and cannot be accomplished).
5. Boost to success: the service work is also self-serving, providing distinguishing experiences that aid career advancement (e.g., purposefully highlighted in job interviews).

### **Emotional Hazards**

1. Weariness and resignation: service work, over time, proves to be psychologically draining and increasingly disinteresting to providers who begin thinking of doing something else or, at the very at least, taking an extended break.
2. Cynicism: a gloomy doubtfulness about the world, people, and their potential that skeptically overshadows any sense of hope for the service work; results in serious questioning of whether the service work is even impactful.
3. Arrogance, anger, and bitterness: a growing feeling of outrage by the problems the service work is trying to resolve, sometimes enacted on others who are assisting in the work, and becomes embittered with how people in power do nothing; eventually the service provider believes they are the only ones who are doing anything.
4. Despair: a deepening sadness for the impermeable misfortunes of others, making it difficult to notice anything positive from the service work besides the advantages accrued to the service providers.
5. Burnout (depression): a general sense of utter disappointment, hopelessness, or exhaustion that arise with the arduous duties of service work; a depressive condition takes over the spirit and brings with it devastating feelings of “going through the motions” (with nothing left to give) or “terminating the work altogether.”

(Coles, 1993)

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When the researchers mapped the students' emotions against Coles' (1993) conceptual model of emotional satisfactions and hazards, they found that students varied considerably as to whether they began their service experience with emotional satisfactions (as Coles suggests) or with emotional hazards.

The current study extends Carson and Domangue's (2013) work by applying Coles' conceptual model of emotional satisfactions and hazards of service to faculty members who are just beginning to integrate service-learning pedagogy into their teaching. The research questions included:

1. In what ways do Coles' emotional satisfactions impact new service-learning faculty?
2. In what ways do Coles' emotional hazards impact new service-learning faculty?
3. In what other ways do emotions play a role in faculty members' lives in reference to teaching service-learning courses?

Coles' conceptual model of emotional satisfactions and hazards was selected as a

framework in which to ground this study. Coles' (1993) framework provides a clear definition of the positive (satisfactions) and negative (hazards) emotions associated with service work generally. However, other than Carson and Domangue's work (2013), it has yet to be fully explored and extended to service-learning.

## METHOD

### Sample, Methodological Approach, and Data

Throughout the 2013-2014 academic year, the research team followed seven first-time service-learning instructors from various disciplines, across two higher education institutions. One of the institutions was a large public research institution with strong institutional support for service-learning, while the other was a small private liberal arts school which encourages its faculty to integrate service and learning, but offers few formal supports to service-learning instructors. The seven participants were chosen from a pool of all instructors at each institution who were teaching a service-learning course for the first time. The participants included three males and four fe-

**Table 2.** *Subject Demographics*

Subject (Pseudonym)	Gender	Discipline	Academic Rank	Years Teaching	Institution Type
Mary	F	Education	Assistant Professor	3	Private
Georgia	F	Health & Physical Education	Instructor	2	Public
Theo	M	Communications	Instructor	6	Private
Ronald	M	Psychology	Associate Professor	10	Public
Amanda	F	Family & Consumer Sciences	Instructor	6	Private
Jessica	F	First Year Seminar/ Core Education	Assistant Professor	13	Public
Frank	M	Business	Associate Professor	35	Private

males who ranged in academic rank from instructor to tenured, associate professor. They had been in academia from as little as two years to more than 35 years. See Table 2 for a complete listing of the participants. Pseudonyms were used to prevent participant identification.

The researchers employed a type of participatory methodology in analyzing the data, which is believed to provide an in-depth, holistic understanding of participants' lived experiences (Newell & Frynas, 2007). Newell and Frynas (2007), in exploring the topic of corporate social responsibility, note that participants engaged in the work being done or studied must be consulted through all levels of the process (design, enforcement, and evaluation). This allows participants' realities to be fully realized throughout the research process. The authors did this by working with service-learning faculty throughout the research, ensuring that they felt a fully integrated part of the study, rather than simply a subject. Some of the ways this was done included consulting them on the frequency of journals, when to add guided prompts, and how often focus groups were needed.

Data collected consisted of monthly reflective journals and written responses to guided prompts, as well as transcripts from two focus groups that were held at the end of the fall semester, one on each campus. All seven faculty members participated in a focus group that was held on their own campus. During the first semester of the study, participants were instructed to keep open-ended reflective journals related to their experiences teaching a service learning course. These journals were collected monthly. Analysis of the journals revealed themes that were developed into prompts so that during the second semester, in addition to continuing their open-ended reflection journals, participants also responded to guided prompts. An interview protocol was

designed and used to provide structure to the focus groups. Focus groups loosely followed a 10-question interview guide and lasted approximately one-and-one-half hours in duration.

The theory of interpretivism was used to properly measure the subjective reality of the participants in a way that is meaningful for the participants themselves. Interpretivism guided the research team in the development of focus group questions and guided reflection prompts that accompanied the monthly journals (Crotty, 2005; Lin, 1988). Each participant has a unique experience with distinct attitudes, emotions, and preconceived notions. The researchers attempted to extract the distinctiveness of each individual's reality, and relate it to the existing theoretical framework.

#### **Data Analysis and Trustworthiness**

The focus group recordings were transcribed verbatim. The two primary investigators independently coded and analyzed the transcripts. Inductive analyses were utilized, and the researchers followed a process of open, axial, and selective coding (Jones, 2004). First, the reflective journals and transcribed focus groups were systematically read and grouped. Recurring words, phrases, and ways of thinking within each group were then identified and labeled as coding categories. Related codes were then synthesized into broader codes. Lastly, overarching themes were determined from the relationships among codes that were analyzed.

By adopting participatory methodology, the researchers used method and researcher triangulation by questioning the same group of subjects in multiple ways, utilizing various methods of data collection (reflective journals and focus groups), and enlisting a multi-member research team in the process (Blaikie, 1991; Fossey, Harvey, McDermott, & Davidson, 2002). Credibility



and dependability were addressed through member checking and audio-recording the focus groups. In addition, extensive notes were kept describing the data collection process, categorization, and how decisions were made.

### Researchers' Stance

According to Merriam (1998), it is imperative that the researcher attempt to remove or at least become aware of prejudices, viewpoints, or assumptions regarding the experience under investigation. Of the three-member research team, two were faculty members and colleagues of some of the participants (one at each institution). The third researcher serves as the director of service-learning at one of the institutions. To lessen the possibility of bias and social desirability among participants, the director of service-learning was not present during the focus group interviews. Without influencing the participants in any way directly, the research team used their own experiences in regard to service-learning to relate to and understand the standpoint of those included in the study.

## RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to explore the emotional components of teaching service-learning courses for first-time service-learning instructors. One hundred percent of participants in this study described emotional satisfactions and 86% described emotional hazards in their journals and focus groups during the course of the study. Emotional responses were then categorized according to Coles' (1993) theoretical model of service-related emotional satisfactions and hazards.

Of the five emotional satisfactions defined by Coles, two were reflected prominently in faculty participants' journals and focus groups: (1) something done, someone

reached, and (2) boost to success. The "something done, someone reached" and the "boost to success" satisfaction themes were each mentioned by a majority of participants at least once throughout the year. Some key terms that reflected positive emotions and appeared frequently throughout participants' journals included pride, excitement, giving or serving, and depth of learning. Only one of Coles' satisfactions, stoic endurance, was not mentioned by any of the participants.

Of the five emotional hazards defined by Coles, the most prominent for faculty included (1) burnout, and (2) weariness and resignation. Key terms reflective of negative emotion that occurred commonly throughout participant journals were stressed and disappointed. The provision of formal supports for service-learning from the faculty members' university appeared to diminish some of the emotional hazards experienced by these new service-learning instructors. Coles' other three hazards (cynicism, arrogance, and despair) were not mentioned by any of the faculty participants.

Additionally, the following themes emerged from faculty members new to service-learning pedagogy: 1) emotions tied to participating with students in the service experience, 2) emotions related to the administrative and instructional activities associated with teaching a service-based class, and 3) emotions transferred to the faculty member from their students, or the idea of emotional contagion. Within each of these themes both positive emotions (satisfactions) and negative emotions (hazards) were expressed; however, the satisfactions largely outweighed the hazards.

### Emotional Satisfactions

*Something done, someone reached* was one of Coles' emotional satisfaction categories commonly expressed by faculty

members. Although their students were doing the major service work, the faculty members shared a sense of benevolent accomplishment. Comments such as, “It is exciting to actually be in the process of completing our project” (Theo) demonstrate faculty members’ shared commitment to the actual service being accomplished through the class. Furthermore, faculty satisfaction for reaching someone extends beyond the population served through the service project to reaching the students themselves. Faculty commitment to service-learning, despite the administrative and other hazards, is philosophically tied to engaging students in citizenship and character development, thus enhancing their lives as well as those they are serving. Recognizing the idealism and reality of this goal, one faculty member commented that:

*In my utopian view it helps them [students] make a connection or commitment to something other than a class assignment, it makes them think about the real world and that’s what I like about it. It also gets me back out into the community and gets me more engaged, I get to hope again (Frank).*

Another faculty member, Theo, also commented that, “Being a part of this made me want to do more in the community, I’ve started to volunteer more (tutoring with community partner) and I’m more passionate about the agency.” These quotes reflect a common theme that many new service-learning faculty expressed: a new or renewed personal commitment to using their gifts for good in the community. This is an extension of something done, someone reached but also tied to Coles’ emotional satisfaction of *personal affirmation*, defined as “the service enables one to rediscover the inherent gifts one has to offer the world that

are usually taken for granted” (Carson & Domangue, 2013, p. 142).

*Boost to success* is another of Coles’ emotional satisfaction categories that revealed itself in the comments of the faculty members in our study. Coles defines ‘boost to success’ as service work that is also self-serving and, while this may be true for some faculty, the boost for the instructors in our sample was related more to improved teaching and less to career advancement or other personal gains. Excellence in teaching and pedagogical practice is often the reason why faculty members initially decide to teach a service-learning course, so it is fitting that improved teaching was a common emotional satisfaction for our participants. This positive emotion is captured in reflections such as:

- Something that we often overlook in teaching is the need to feed our own drive for learning. I know that I teach so much better when I am being challenged and fulfilled myself, and also am more in-tune with the challenges of my students when I wear the “learner” hat in addition to that of the teacher (Jessica).
- So far, students have been pretty enthusiastic about their service projects, and I have been amazed at some of the ideas they’ve come up with. I think that incorporating service-learning into this course was exactly what was missing from my own teaching and enthusiasm/enjoyment of it before, and I look forward to seeing how everything unfolds (Amanda).

### Emotional Hazards

*Burnout* represents one of Coles’ emotional hazard categories and is defined as a general sense of disappointment or exhaustion with the service work (1993). This study focused on faculty teaching service-learning courses for the first time so we did

not expect burnout to appear as a common hazard; however, after only one semester, a few of the participants expressed comments that related to Coles' emotional hazard of burnout. These responses related to two primary factors: disappointment at student engagement in the project (related to emotional contagion, or the idea that emotions transfer to faculty from students) and frustration with the complicated administrative tasks associated with teaching a service-learning course. One faculty member (Mary) expressed that "the infrastructure we have here isn't very good...You just kind of do it [service-learning] at your own will. There's no kind of support and not a lot of encouragement to do it. It makes me less excited about it." This comment was followed by confirmation that she would teach a service-learning course again, but not right away and not every semester. Two other faculty members stated that "the logistics were hard—I'm usually very organized and have a plan, for me it was frustrating, things kept changing" (Theo) and "the first struggle I had with this class meeting was preparing for it" (Amanda). These types of thoughts were echoed by multiple faculty members, especially those from the institution with little formal support for service-learning, perhaps foreshadowing more rapid burnout. Stress related to student engagement and the administrative logistics of teaching a service-learning course were undeniably evident in the comments of the instructors.

*Weariness and resignation*, another of Coles' hazard categories, were also expressed by participants in this study. Issues that related to weariness and resignation were similar to the issues related to faculty members' expressed burnout. Specifically, issues of poor student attitudes and of increased administrative responsibilities were at times overwhelming and related to emotions of weariness, resignation, and burnout

for a number of the first-time service-learning instructors in the sample. Poor student attitudes that related to faculty members' weariness and resignation included students' resistance to completing the class service activities. Faculty participants reported feeling a need to "sell" the service-learning project to their students throughout the semester. Faculty participants commented that, "there was a lot of resistance to the idea of community service being a required part of the course...I won most of them over during the semester, but it took a lot of mental and emotional energy" (Jessica), and "I wish that my students would have *wanted* to participate in a service-learning project. Instead I feel like they treated it just like any other assignment or paper" (Mary). Some faculty members felt a sense of pressure and responsibility for students to embrace the project and complete it at a high standard, since there was an outside agency involved. One (Theo) specifically said, "I'm taking full ownership of this project, I need to make sure it isn't horrible because it's gonna be presented to all these people." This self-imposed pressure is unrealistic and unsustainable when working with a student population and contributed to participants' feelings of weariness.

### Significant Themes

One common theme that was mentioned by most participants was *faculty satisfaction with the opportunities afforded through service-learning courses to connect with students in positive ways*. This trend was consistent across participants from both universities. Georgia commented that, "it's important for us as faculty to lead by example, it's not just an assignment, it's real life and we can serve together." Faculty also commented on the instructional value of interacting with students outside of the traditional classroom walls. They got to know their students in a more meaningful way,

and this knowledge helped the faculty members facilitate open dialogue and diverse learning experiences that are not often experienced in the classroom.

Another prominent theme to emerge in participant journals and focus groups was the *emotion related to administrative and instructional activities associated with teaching a service-based class*. The emotions related to this theme could be exclusively defined as hazards. Faculty from across disciplines and institutions repeatedly echoed the challenges associated with planning, coordinating, and implementing service-learning courses. Faculty expressed the belief that the amount of time and effort required to teach a service-learning class exceeded the amount of time and effort required for more traditional pedagogical styles. Theo summed it up this way: “There are so many unknowns, unexpected challenges, and things to think through in a service-learning course compared to teaching our ‘regular’ courses. It can get emotionally draining.” One specific challenge mentioned by these first-time service-learning instructors was the challenge of coordinating learning and service activities with community partners who are often understaffed and not accustomed to planning on a semester schedule. Two faculty members echoed this sentiment in the following ways: “It is also stressful in the sense that, though I have talked with the organization representative a number of times, we usually don’t have things finalized until the day or two before they occur... when I do it again I need to have a more specific plan at the start” (Theo), and “It was stressful coordinating with my community partner; the project didn’t turn out as comprehensive as we had planned, we didn’t plan far enough in advance” (Georgia).

Although faculty members from both institutions experienced emotional hazards associated with the administration

of teaching a service-learning course, these negative emotions were tempered by university-based support structures that were both formal and informal. Faculty who felt supported by a service-learning office or from faculty colleagues expressed less intense emotional hazards in general, and fewer negative emotions specifically related to course planning and administration. One faculty (Mary) commented that, “I have in the past sought out guidance from the directors of our service-learning office, which has proved very valuable.” There were as many positive emotions surrounding colleague support as there were regarding support from a service-learning office. For example, one commented:

*To be honest, if it wasn’t for my colleagues laying the groundwork for service-learning and continuing to support my efforts, I am certain that I would never have taken the step to teach a service-learning course in the first place. In that sense, I think that collaboration with other faculty is not only a key factor, it is essential to the success of a service-learning course (Amanda).*

A final theme, emotional contagion, was the most prominent emotional theme in the data with all participants mentioning it. Emotional contagion refers to “the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person, and, consequently, to converge emotionally” (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992, pp. 153-154). *Emotions transferred to the faculty from students* were both positive and negative. When faculty members felt that students were embracing the service-learning experience and learning something from it, they expressed very positive per-

sonal emotions such as excitement, pride, and enthusiasm. Amanda summarized her experience this way: "They [the students] got something out of it so I was satisfied." Faculty members were also able to recognize that not all students would embrace the service-learning experience, but found emotional satisfaction from those that did. For example, Georgia commented that, "For those students who did participate it renewed a sense of good-doing for both them and me!"

There was an equal amount of negative emotional contagion from students to faculty expressed in comments such as: "I wanted students to love it but they didn't, so I didn't" (Frank), and "I get let down once in a while... it's the idea that they need to take away something bigger from this project. I thought it was gonna be great but they didn't embrace it" (Mary). These sentiments were a recurring theme and faculty participants were astute in connecting their emotion to student feelings about the project. Faculty speculated on various reasons that students felt positive or negative emotions, but regardless of the reason, faculty members recognized the impact of emotional contagion on their own overall view on service-learning as a pedagogy.

## DISCUSSION

This exploratory study of university faculty members' emotional experiences in teaching a service-learning course for the first time provides clear evidence of the central role that emotion plays. All of the participants described strong emotional components of their teaching, a finding that is consistent with both theory (Dewey, 1938; Schön, 1983), and empirical research involving K-12 teachers (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and university-level graduate teaching assistants (Meanwell & Kleiner, 2014). First-time service-learning instruc-

tors in our sample often described positive emotions in connection with the increased opportunities service-learning afforded them to connect with students in positive ways. This finding aligns with the large body of K-12 teacher research that situates teacher satisfaction and positive emotion with teachers' opportunities to develop positive relationships with their students and to witness their students' learning, growth, and development (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

The novice service-learning instructors in this study did not express all of the themes proposed by Coles' (1993) conceptual framework of emotional satisfactions and emotional hazards in community-based service. In fact, of the proposed 10 categories (five emotional satisfactions and five emotional hazards), only six were repeatedly represented in the data. Coles' (1993) framework for emotional satisfactions fit the data better than did his framework for emotional hazards, as all but one emotional satisfaction (i.e., stoic endurance) was mentioned by the novice service-learning instructors in our sample.

Of Coles' (1993) five emotional hazards, three were not mentioned at all by the novice service-learning instructors in this sample. These were the emotional hazards of "cynicism," "arrogance, anger, and bitterness," and "despair." As with the emotional satisfaction of "stoic endurance," we propose that these three emotional hazards may be evident in data collected from more experienced service-learning instructors. In particular, a sample of university faculty members who have tried teaching with service-learning pedagogy but are intending to stop or who have stopped using the pedagogy may be an ideal sample in which to search for these three emotional hazards.

One of the most prominent themes to emerge from our data was the tendency of all faculty members in the sample to be-

come either uplifted by their students' positive emotions or discouraged by their students' negative emotions, or the concept of emotional contagion. Emotional contagion theorists hypothesize that individuals vary on their susceptibility to 'catch' and 'spread' emotions (Verbeke, 1997), that positive emotions are more likely to be 'caught' than negative emotions (Bhullar, 2012; Totterdell, 2000), that higher levels of emotional arousal can increase the likelihood of 'catching' another's emotions (Bhullar, 2012), that women are more susceptible to emotional contagion than men (Doherty, Orimoto, Singelis, Hatfield, & Hebb, 1995), and that individuals can learn strategies to help themselves resist emotional contagion (Rempela, 2013).

While emotional contagion in the educational setting has been previously established, it has not been explored within the service-learning context. Although this finding was outside of our original hypotheses and the Coles' framework, its prevalence among the participants leads us to hypothesis regarding the relationship between service-learning and emotional contagion. If one assumes that learners (i.e., both instructors and students) who are engaging in nontraditional or counternormative pedagogies are more likely to operate in an emotionally aroused state than are learners who are engaged with traditional pedagogies, and evidence exists that shows emotional contagion is more likely to occur when individuals are in states of elevated emotional arousal (Bhullar, 2012), then emotional contagion is likely to be elevated in learning environments that employ nontraditional or counternormative pedagogies such as service-learning. We believe that the emotional contagion construct holds particular promise for both researchers and instructors of service-learning (Howard, 1998), and suggest further direct exploration of this concept.

A second theme that was prominent in our data was that faculty participants believed that service-learning classes required them to take on additional administrative or logistical tasks. These tasks were associated with negative emotions for the new service-learning instructors in our sample and were sometimes connected with Coles' (1993) emotional hazards of "burnout" and "weariness and resignation."

When faculty participants in our sample specifically described the types of additional administrative tasks they encountered in teaching service-learning versus non-service-learning classes, they mentioned challenges related to coordinating learning and service activities with off-campus partners and vague notions of having to be prepared for so many more unknowns and unexpected challenges. Although teaching a course with service-learning may involve an increase in administrative tasks over teaching the same course without service-learning, this is not always the case. In analyzing participants' comments, we hypothesize that the new service-learning instructors' description of this stress as administrative may in some cases be a misattribution, which could be more likely attributed to either the instructor's relative lack of knowledge about the community partner culture, or the shift in level of instructor control over students' learning outcomes that must occur in service-learning classes.

The final prominent theme in our data was the important role that university-based supports, both formal and informal, played in buffering the negative emotions that new service-learning instructors experienced during their first service-learning teaching experiences. Instructors in our sample reached out to administrators in their university's service-learning office and talked with faculty colleagues whenever they hit bumps in their teaching experi-

ences. These campus mentors provided the basic knowledge and resources that enabled the new service-learning instructors to create their first service-learning course and provided encouragement and suggestions during the teaching semester when problems arose. The first-time service-learning instructors in our sample perceived these supportive peer-mentoring collaborations as essential to the success of their service-learning courses. Hou and Wilder (2015) determined that faculty members' perceived cons of service-learning decrease across stages (over time); therefore, the peer-mentoring and administrative support may be more important for first-time service-learning faculty than others.

This study represents one of the first explorations of the emotions experienced by university faculty members who are teaching their first service-learning course. However, a number of limitations may be noted and used to suggest future directions for research. The number of instructors in the sample was small, and future research should increase both the number of participants and the number and variety of higher education institutions participating. The current study did not include data on either students' or community partners' emotions. Future research in this area should simultaneously investigate the emotional experiences of all involved stakeholders. Future research should also involve both experienced service-learning instructors as well as instructors who have given up teaching with service-learning pedagogy.

The results of this study suggest several important implications for practice. Most importantly, the results indicate that universities and colleges interested in growing high-quality service-learning on their campuses would be well advised to provide supportive peer-mentoring networks to the faculty members who are adopting and using service-learning pedagogy. These net-

works may be either formal or informal, but should be continuous and readily accessible. Easy access to expert service-learning instructors, from their own or from other campuses, enables novice service-learning instructors to gain the knowledge and confidence to initiate a service-learning class and to navigate through the challenges of teaching with a counternormative pedagogy (Howard, 1998).

The results of this study also indicate that campus service-learning and civic engagement office administrators should include the topic of emotional contagion in their service-learning professional development offerings. Research by Rempala (2013) provides preliminary evidence that emotional contagion can be decreased when individuals employ a dissociation strategy (e.g., the instructors imagine that they are sitting in a movie theater, where a movie is being shown of themselves watching a film clip [of themselves interacting with their disengaged/angry students]). New and experienced service-learning instructors who are introduced to the concept of emotional contagion and given strategies to protect themselves from negative student emotions may be better equipped to sustain their use of service-learning pedagogy over time.

In conclusion, the findings from the present study indicate that new service-learning instructors experience a wide variety of both positive and negative emotions as part of the service-learning teaching process, are prone to emotional contagion from their students, and seek out and benefit from peer-mentoring. Studies of the emotional experiences of service-learning instructors, students, and community partners are of critical importance because the findings from these investigations can inform strategies for increasing positive emotional experiences and buffering negative emotional experiences in service-learning classes. If effective, these strategies could im-

prove students' learning outcomes and increase the probability that instructors who try service-learning pedagogy will continue to use the pedagogy in the future.

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## Community-Based Research and the Historian's Craft

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### ABSTRACT

This paper discusses a community-based research project that paired undergraduate history students with local community partners in an exploration of the antislavery movement in Canada and the problem of its erasure from local historical memory. The article outlines the project's background and method, examines the wide-ranging importance of the community classroom it helped to create, and reflects on the importance of undergraduate research in the setting of a liberal arts university as a bridge between classroom and community.

*Keywords:* digital history, public history, liberal arts, antislavery movements

This paper is about an undergraduate history research project to digitize, transcribe, and contextualize the fragile manuscript correspondence of a 19th-century abolitionist named Hiram Wilson. Penned in a difficult and hurried hand, Wilson's letters—some written aboard steamships crossing the waters of Lake Erie and Lake St. Clair, some written from remote Upper Canadian settlements of black abolitionists and refugees from American slavery—record his travels as he crisscrossed the region of the lower Great Lakes for more than two decades on behalf of the American Missionary Association. Over a two-year span, students in a third-year course on historical methods and historiography—considering theoretical approaches to the study of the past—created the Wilson Letters project. Wilson's letters are important to an understanding of the antislavery movement in Canada, but despite their significance, the letters have remained largely

unknown, tucked away in archival repositories far from the communities of southwestern Ontario where much of his life was spent. Many of the letters are part of the manuscripts collection at the Oberlin College Archives, in Oberlin, Ohio. Additional Wilson Letters are part of a large research collection of American Missionary Association materials at the Amistad Research Center, Tulane University. Both the Amistad Research Center and the Oberlin College Archives granted permission to reproduce digital images of the letters themselves, and to publish online transcriptions of them. We worked with over 60 letters, applying emerging skills in historical method and exploring the digital humanities as we presented the results of our research to a wide public audience through our digital archive.

In addition to its value as history, the Wilson Letters project holds lessons about the power of community-based re-

search and student-faculty research collaboration. Our project was part of a large Community-University Research Alliance (CURA) funded by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada, between 2007-2012 (de b'Berl, 2013). A range of community partners helped set the research agenda, guided student researchers to sources and materials (or toward a knowledge of lacuna in sources and materials), and shared knowledge that is otherwise localized and difficult to integrate with other research. These community partners included local community development organizations (Dresden.ca), the Lucan Area Heritage and Donnelly Museum, local secondary schools in the Lambton-Kent District School Board, representatives from the First Baptist Church, Chatham, members of the London Black History Month Coordinating Committee, members of the Black Student's Association at Western University, the Middlesex Centre Historical Society, the Ontario Genealogical Society (Kent Branch), the Municipality of Chatham Kent, representatives from the Josiah Henson Historic Site, and other groups working through the Promised Land CURA's Community Coordinator, based in the city of Chatham. Community partners visited the classroom and participated in the public events held to launch the completed research website, and to bring project results to an international and community audience through the public symposia held as part of the Promised Land CURA.

The Wilson Letters project was a remarkable collaboration with significant research results and an important role in the long-term community engagement that helped to reshape the relationship between the small town of Dresden and its ambivalent past. In the 19th century, Hiram Wilson and the black abolitionist, Josiah Henson, founded a school and settlement for free black emigrants and refugees from Ameri-

can slavery. This important work drew much attention, in part because Josiah Henson's autobiography had furnished material used by Harriet Beecher Stowe for the title character in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. By the mid-20th-century, Dresden's black abolitionist past had been subsumed by this association. Josiah Henson's home and the site of the abolitionist settlement became known simply as "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and the town drew national attention in the 1950s and early 1960s for its racially segregated downtown businesses. In 1949, it became the only town in Canada to actually put segregation to a referendum, in which voters rejected a bylaw that would have barred business owners from continuing their openly segregationist practices. This notorious history of Dresden has been documented in two films available from the National Film Board of Canada—*The Dresden Story* and *Journey to Justice*—both of which were used in class.

This article will outline the project's effort to address both the research mandate of the community partners, and the fraught racial background that shaped it. The local setting made the research among 19th-century abolitionist materials particularly resonant, and brought home to students the idea that the study of the past is bound up with contemporary concepts of identity, responsibility, and justice. Because student-faculty research collaboration was at the center of our work in class, we have chosen to collaborate on this article, mirroring in our scholarship on teaching and learning the same principles that guided our community-based research.

## BACKGROUND

The Hiram Wilson Letters project started as a response to a teaching challenge: What could be done to breathe new life into a staple course in historiography

and historical method? The course, “The Historian’s Craft,” suffered in student estimation from its status as the only required course in an otherwise very open set of History degree programs. As one student noted, the course “began as a riddle for me, a course that in an otherwise liberating degree program stuck out as ‘required.’ I approached it with apprehension” (L. Wilson, personal communication, April 2010). Even the course title, drawn from Marc Bloch’s widely influential book, no longer resonated as it had with an earlier generation of students (Bloch, 1954). Instead, the idea of “the craft” raised other associations, most of them caught in a narrow stereotype about what historians do. In thinking about the term “historian’s craft,” someone with little exposure to the discipline might imagine a harried professor in a windowless basement room poring over documents that have seemingly little to do with the world outside. This observer might believe the study of history itself to be impractical, perhaps imagining that a field that focuses on the past must not be relevant to the present or future, and makes little contribution to human progress. Yet a historian could explain to this observer that the notion of social progress is in itself based on contingent historical ideas, and would be quick to point out that while many practicing the craft may indeed spend time poring over documents, there are as many ways to practice history as there are historians. The Letters project was designed to demonstrate not only the adaptability of the discipline, but also its continued relevance beyond academic study.

At the same time, the project also dovetailed with the challenge of the instructor’s research program as co-investigator on the Promised Land Project. The mandate of the Promised Land Project CURA was to study African Canadian history in southwestern Ontario, to explore the relevance of

that history for discussions of race and multiculturalism in 21st-century Canada, and to engage in research across the university-community divide. The point of the grant was to recognize that knowledge would flow both ways between the community and university partners; in practice, the program architecture required a balance of interests that was difficult to find. The framework of community-based learning provided the solution. The undergraduate History classroom became the point of contact, and initiatives like the Wilson Letters project created important common ground where the community-based research envisioned by the granting agency could find footing. Among the community partners for the Promised Land CURA were local service clubs who had tried to purchase copies of the Wilson Letters in the hope of making them available at the local library, or at the reading room of the Josiah Henson historic site. At the time this initial fundraising effort was made, spearheaded by the local Rotary Club, questions of copyright and access made the project unfeasible. Using the channels of digital history and class work, we were able to address directly the community partners’ desire to access the available archival record, and to enrich the discussion of interracial activism as a backdrop to the Josiah Henson story. By bringing academic research funding and student research skills to the project, our community-based research centered in the undergraduate classroom provided one of the most important innovations of the CURA. We added to the tangible and lasting connections between the grant’s community partners and Huron University College, one of four Canadian universities that made up the academic side of the grant alliance.

## WILSON'S LETTERS

To meet the challenge on the teaching and research sides of the project, the first step was to take the course on the road. After a brief introduction to the idea of community-based research, the class boarded a bus for Ohio, travelling to the Oberlin College Archives to see Wilson materials firsthand. The visit was designed to help us re-envision the archives as places open to hands-on research, as well as open to the sort of theoretical questioning raised in class discussion of history, philosophy, and postmodernist critiques of historical method. The trip to Oberlin, where Wilson had been educated, allowed us to see his letters in the setting of the town of Oberlin, which still holds tangible connections to its abolitionist past.

Once the archival visit was completed, students shared the tasks of transcription, annotation, and communicating the results of the project to as wide an audience as possible by creating supporting materials for the project website. Publishing materials such as the Wilson Letters exemplifies the transformation in both the way history is practiced, and its scope as a discipline. While the materials presented on the Hiram Wilson website are now used by academic researchers, our work with the letters introduced us to the related but distinctive disciplinary expectations of public history. The classes hosted public events that showcased the research, and brought Oberlin College archivist emeritus, Roland Baumann, and current Oberlin archivist, Ken Grossi, to speak at Huron. These events brought the project to a wide community audience. Throughout the life of the project, students documented the process of the community-based research, conducting interviews and producing blogs and video about participant views of community-based learning and research. The Wilson Letters project con-

cluded each academic year with students submitting final papers reflecting on their participation in the project and drawing connections to other course material and texts on historical method and historiography. Beyond the classroom, the Wilson Letters project was explored throughout the life of the Promised Land grant and became an exemplary part of the CURA's impact in the "Promised Land" communities, documented in the final report (de b'Berl, 2013).

## THEORY AND PRACTICE

The many research outcomes of the letters project—from the database of letters, to maps, explorations of social media platforms, public lectures, films, workshops, blogs, and images—point to the interwoven strands of the project methodology, drawn from related developments in recent scholarship in the digital humanities, and community-based research/learning. The study of Wilson's letters was grounded in the conceptual framework of scholars who note that research outcomes, as well as engagement in the classroom, are profoundly enhanced through collaborative research among university students and community members. Community-based learning adds "immediacy and relevance" to the research, even as it acts as "a powerful catalyst for historical research and scholarship" (Harkavy et al., 2005, p. 1; Billig & Furco, 2002; Butin, 2005; Dallimore et al., 2010; Elyer et al., 2001). Our project certainly demonstrated this effect. Students at Huron live within an easy hour's drive of some of the most significant black abolitionist communities in 19th-century Canada—in the heart of the region to which Wilson had dedicated his life's work in opposing slavery. At the outset of the project, some students were familiar with the black abolitionist Josiah Henson, and the association between Henson and the title character

in Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, but none recognized the link to Hiram Wilson, who had been Henson's partner in establishing a school and settlement commemorated at the historic site that stands today. Some aspects of the narrative of the underground railroad often stand in for African Canadian history in its full complexity, and for a largely mythologized version of white Canadian response. The class project opened that familiar narrative to critical investigation, both from the point of view of academic historians, and from the point of view of public history and heritage. The project was also shaped by the theoretical precepts that shape the emerging field of digital history. Local community partners did not have ready access before the project to the primary sources that the class had taken on. Inquiries from researchers who helped with student projects, and from those who read about the research results on the student-created websites, confirm that the relevance of the work extended well beyond the scope of the course.

Beyond the question of access, the Wilson Letters project also focuses on the complexity of historical analysis and the suitability of digital technologies to open up new ways of engaging in a multi-layered and engaged interpretation. While it makes historical data more accessible, it also makes data easier to search, manipulate, reconfigure, and "mine." From reading Hayden White (1975), we learned in class that the writing of history is necessarily guided by the historian's assumptions, and by the tendency to shape historical material in narrative form, sometimes without intention. As researchers, we had to confront the fact that how we told the story and the choices we made about how to interpret the Wilson Letters would shape public perception. Edward Ayers (1999) has argued that digital media encourage historians to "acknowledge more frankly the limitations

of simple narrative or monographic abstraction" in favor of a "more satisfying engagement with the complexity that we know characterized the past" (p. 2). This is one of the most important learning outcomes of the project. We came to understand both the value, and the limitations, of the knowledge we were helping to create through the process of contributing to a scholarly community, and to public discussion.

The project also relied on the insight that digital technologies offer a "vision of the scholar as part of an engaged community of learners occupying the nexus between the preservation of archival texts and the production of knowledge about those texts" (Norcia, 2008, p. 90). Over a decade ago, when the methodology of digital history was just emerging, historian Robert Darnton (1999) predicted that it would add new dimensions to the most traditional scholarly work of writing history, showing in direct ways the "crisscrossing" of themes that might lie outside any single narrative account of the past. Such work, he argued, would "open up new ways of making sense of the evidence, new possibilities of making available the raw material embedded in the story, a new consciousness of the complexities involved in construing the past" (p. 3). The project explored some of those new ways to interpret evidence. Our research website combined text, images, mapping, interactive timelines, and experiments with social media to help visualize the abolitionist network and the world of Hiram Wilson. All of this helped us to rethink the concept of an archive, envisioning "digital archives" not only as repositories, but also as "interpretive models open for reading and inquiry" (Thomas, 2004).

## CLASSROOM TRANSFORMED

Even before we stepped into the archives and began clicking the digital cam-

era to capture the first images of Wilson's letters, the class had long left behind the familiar confines of the class and the textbook, and entered the world of crisscrossed connections that Robert Darnton had in mind in his metaphor of digital history. The Wilson materials from the Amistad Research Centre, for example, were a reminder that the American Missionary Association had supported the defendants in the Amistad mutiny trial made familiar in Stephen Spielberg's film, *Amistad*. While we were dealing with primary source material, that material was embedded in a public and popular understanding of American slavery, and an equally important public *invisibility* of Canadian antislavery. In addition, primary sources can constitute evidence that initially we might not imagine as evidence at all. They can reveal details of the past the author did not intend to reveal, or inform other areas of historical study. Similarly, the trip to Oberlin College provided the opportunity to conduct archival work, but it also made us think about the link between the study of history and a sense of place. We were retracing Hiram Wilson's footsteps. Part of the challenge, which students met with the application of social media, maps, and timelines, was to explore how the "social network" of Hiram Wilson was constituted, and to present the Wilson Letters as primary sources surrounded by this sense of context. In the course of answering such questions in research alliance designed to promote the flow of knowledge across the community-university divide, the undergraduate classroom was transformed. It *became* the bridge.

The project was also a bridge between an understanding of the past and an understanding of our own time. The study of 19th-century antislavery movements in Canada was the project's point of origin, but while researchers were immediately drawn into the rich materials of the past,

those materials opened a pathway to a wider discussion of race, identity, and multiculturalism in contemporary Canada. In public events, for example, where the project was introduced to high school students from the local community, we could see the immediate effect of new ideas on students who had spent their lives in close proximity to the site of Wilson and Josiah Henson's British American Institute without any knowledge of the story of interracial activism that Wilson and Henson had embodied in their work. In this research paradigm, historical study was valued not just for the answers it might provide, but for its ability to shatter expectations and raise new and unsettling questions. Who creates knowledge, who appropriates it, who owns the past, how and when and why are particular histories valued, hidden, highlighted, buried, excavated, honored, and defiled? As Marc Bloch noted, it is dangerous for historians to fall into the "modern poisons of routine learning and empiricism parading as common sense" (Claus & Marriot, 2012, p. 33). This statement describes the overall purpose of the Wilson project. Students are given the opportunity to work with their peers in a group project that does not aim to begin and end with empirical results, but seeks to investigate a deeper and thicker meaning. Research exploring primary documents was just a first step toward exploring the meaning of the past. We worked with an eye to both discovery and context, and were asked as collaborators to think about the uncertainties as well as the power of the knowledge we were helping to create. Throughout the project, we were aware that our research opened outward in several directions at once. To the libraries and archives that hold the original material, this was a welcome effort to open access to other researchers. To our community partners, such as local historical societies, community development associations, churches, and



local sites, our research fed into efforts to promote broader public understanding of local history. To students engaged in the study of “The Historian’s Craft,” the research demanded that we think critically, not just about the events of the past, but about the ways that identity, culture, political interest, and community all shape the way that history is presented and interpreted.

Because the course also followed a parallel track of textbook readings and seminars, students were encouraged throughout the course to reflect on, and to write about, the connections between their work as historians and the course material on historiography. Both the material contained in Hiram Wilson’s letters, and the transcription and publishing of the letters themselves, relate to numerous aspects of recent shifts in historiography. The subject matter draws our attention to the letters as social and cultural history, and to the development of social history as a field. It also speaks to the rise of both digital history and public history and how their new types of methodology and research transform not only the material they treat, but also the historian’s craft as a whole. Howard Zinn’s (1980) call for a “value-laden historiography”—a term at the center of a recent and very public debate about history and teaching—describes how historians practicing this field consciously try to set aside the myth of objectivity and acknowledge the link between personal politics and the historian’s interpretation of the past. We were able to bring this theoretical debate home to our own work, noting that the study and publication of Wilson’s letters could be read as a “value-laden” practice. The antislavery movement in the United States that Wilson participated in represented a watershed moment for African Americans whose own narratives had been ignored for so long by mainstream historians and writers; the project’s scope made us

think about the importance of refusing to settle for a history that manages to maintain the same discriminatory qualities present in the societies it describes.

At the end of the project, students were asked to write a paper analyzing their participation in the class project. Students’ descriptions of their experience distinguished the project from the writing of a traditional essay. The most frequent theme that emerged from the papers was relevance—the way that the project created what students termed “real researchers” or “real historians.” The course required several written assignments about the project, including the final reflection paper, but while the activity was the same, the context was different. To the students who participated in collaborative research, traditionally assigned essays appeared to be exercises that derived value and meaning within the parameters of the course. The writing for the project opened outward, and the idea of reaching a wider audience through the project made it matter. As the American Association of Colleges and Universities’ rubric for high-impact practices notes (Kuh, 2008), undergraduate research involves students in “actively contested questions, empirical observation, cutting-edge technologies, and the sense of excitement that comes from working to answer important questions” (p. 2). The benefits of developing research skills, community connections, and confidence in one’s own voice as a scholar, were important. They were also just the beginning of the project’s impact. The remarkable result: What began as a class effort to practice the historian’s craft in the workmanlike way that Marc Bloch described, turned into a project in the public humanities with its expansive reach and for public engagement in the process of research.

In his assessment of the community engagement at the heart of the Wilson Let-

ter project and the wider Promised Land CURA of which it was a part, Community Coordinator Devin Andrews argued that the research outcomes were only part of the story. “I recommend success be gauged instead through participation and exposure. Perhaps my response is influenced by my role as the Community Coordinator,” he noted in his final community engagement newsletter,

*but a core argument made to SSHRC in the PLP’s application explaining why a project such as this one was (and still is) needed, was that this segment of Canadian history has been marginalized and ignored and, as such is not only underappreciated but unknown amongst the general public. In this respect, the Promised Land has been worth the investment. It has fulfilled its promise. Of course there is still much work to be done in this regard, but it is estimated that 5,000 people participated and were directly exposed to the Promised Land Project’s work and events, including hundreds of youth, and students. Hundreds more participated in our symposia, across this country. Attendees came from across the continent. And no they were not all the usual suspects and individuals already versed in the history. A great many people would stop me in amazement and say ‘I had no idea.’ (Andrews, 2012)*

The Wilson Letters project’s community impact was amplified beyond measure

through the exposure afforded by the Promised Land CURA.

Since the Wilson Letters project concluded, the lessons learned through the process have been applied to the creating of other community-based projects at Huron University College, centered on the theme of local antislavery movements. While student reflection on the outcome of the work is gathered as part of the course, it is harder to assess community outcomes and the perceptions of community participants, beyond the level of anecdotal evidence, and the continued willingness to partner with a new class of students. After the Wilson Letters project, new components were added to our community-based research proposals in an effort to place more emphasis throughout on documenting the process of community engagement, using social media, video, and images that record how community members and students interact and work together. With the conclusion of the Promised Land grant, research has moved to the immediate community of London, Ontario, which makes it easier to bring the students and community partners together in both formal research settings, and in informal settings that provide the soul and context for research. In a recent project, for example, students partnered with a local group (Fugitive Slave Chapel Preservation Project) that raised funds to save an 1850s African Episcopal Church structure in London from demolition. Using connections to the archives forged through the Wilson Letters project, students created a research site housing digital copies of manuscript letters and other documentary evidence to which the local community had had no previous access—but the students also attended and filmed the remarkable scene on “moving day” as the church structure was loaded onto a truck and transported to a new location. They attended community open houses, church music nights, and fundraisers; spear-

headed a social media campaign; and hosted a large public event featuring a speaker from Historians Against Slavery, in the effort to link the study of the past to contemporary discussions of modern slavery. Student engagement in the local community, as well as community interest in the research, has become a central part of the documented project outcomes.

In its reliance on faculty-student-community research collaboration, the Wilson Letters project challenges the idea that research is a process of extracting knowledge from the sources, refining it, like sugar, and pumping it back into the classroom for student consumption. We did not think of research as an activity that was done somewhere else, by someone else. Although part of the process involved archival work, the archive was not really where the action was; rather, the classroom was transformed. It became the *site* of research. Most importantly, as a model of student-directed scholarship, community-based research, and faculty-student collaboration, the Wilson Letters project depended entirely upon the setting of the small liberal arts university, and the reverse economies of scale that collapse the distance between teaching and research. In this respect, the project's model holds tangible power to counter the pressures of a consumer model of higher education that would pry research from teaching, unhinge the goal of student preparation for the workplace from its moorings, and set students and faculty and their local communities adrift on separate seas.

The project met expectations that a liberal arts education should hone the ability to think critically about argument and evidence—things that prospective employers will find eminently useful. In the process, it pointed toward the larger civic value of a liberal education—a value suggested in Rebecca Chopp's call for liberal arts colleg-

es to foster the “art and science of a moral imagination.” As Chopp (2012) defines it in the context of higher education, “the moral imagination is our ability as a society to be guided by the good and the just, to envision our life together in ways in which we may flourish individually, and together” (p.1). The letters of an antislavery missionary written over 150 years ago were certainly animated by the moral imagination of their author. Does his history matter to us now? Why has the history of 19th-century Canada's most powerful social justice movement fallen into caricature and obscurity? How and why could the Letters project serve as a “site of memory” and become the focus for contemporary questions of race, justice, and social experiment? Such research questions open outward into the field of the moral imagination that Chopp describes. The Hiram Wilson Letters project asked us to dive into the methodical, systematic, and scholarly study of the past while keeping an eye to the context in which our knowledge of the past matters. The most vital research outcome of the project was not contained in our painstaking transcriptions or in a clarified image of ink on paper; it was the realization that the dust-and-archives work of the historian's craft is animated by the critical virtues of historical empathy, and speaks, like the undergraduate classroom, to a world beyond itself.

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## Sycamore Readers: All Stakeholders Win

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### ABSTRACT

Sycamore Readers is an after-school tutoring program that serves struggling elementary students from local schools. It is housed at the local library in their Lifelong Learning Center. The program has positively impacted the library through increased usage, the community by increasing high school graduation rates, the parents by providing free help and support, the tutors through experiential learning, and the students who receive one-on-one help and improved literacy skills. The biggest impact on students has been an increase in their reading levels and their improved attitudes toward reading.

*Keywords:* tutoring, struggling readers, college students, public libraries, community partnerships

For the past 14 years, the Sycamore Readers after-school tutoring program has served struggling readers from local elementary schools. The program is set in a small Midwestern city with a population of about 60,000. The community has a high rate of unemployment and poverty. Most of the students served are on the free and reduced lunch program. Sycamore Readers is a partnership between a local university's elementary education program and the local public library. Is such a partnership of benefit to the community it serves? This reflective article attempts to answer that question.

There is a plethora of research that lends support to the benefits of a tutoring service such as Sycamore Readers. Deeney (2008) believes that "supplemental tutorial service can be a critical intervention for a struggling reader" (p. 218). Even though the exact element of one-on-one tutoring is not clear, "research has consistently supported the effectiveness of adult-instructed, one-to-one tutoring programs" (Burns, Senesac, & Silbergliitt, 2007, p. 28). Furthermore, classroom teachers have identi-

fied adult-led tutoring as "the ideal practice" (Elbaum, Vaughn, Hughes, & Moody, 2000, p. 605). Students who spend more time reading improve in their reading skills.

### BENEFITS OF AFTER-SCHOOL TUTORING PROGRAMS

After-school tutoring programs offer a wide variety of benefits to many different people in the community, such as struggling readers, schools, parents, colleges and universities, and local employers. Tutoring programs not only help the struggling students who are receiving services, but they can help the local schools by "providing additional support for critical content areas" (Saddler & Staulters, 2008, p. 207). Parents benefit from after-school tutoring programs by knowing that their children are receiving instruction from a tutor who is caring, capable, and dedicated. Local colleges and universities can benefit from after-school tutoring programs by providing an avenue for active participation in the community by faculty and students. Local em-

ployers benefit because they have a more highly qualified work force from high school graduates. However, the biggest benefit of tutoring programs belongs “to the tutors and their students” (p. 207).

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Research shows that when students spend more time reading, they build literacy skills. The greater the array of literacy skills, the greater are students’ scores on high-stakes tests. Greaney and Hegarty (1987) found that when students spent more time reading, they demonstrated gains in reading comprehension, verbal skills, vocabulary usage, and background knowledge, as evidenced by higher achievement test scores. Other researchers have confirmed those results (Anderson, Fielding, & Wilson, 1988; Watkins & Edwards, 1992). Tunnell and Jacobs (1989) completed a meta-analysis of numerous studies over the past 60 years and found a statistically significant relationship between independent reading and school achievement. Additionally, Watkins and Edwards (1992) found that less able readers read less and rank lower on reading skills assessments and in other content areas of academic performance.

Helping students learn to be better readers so they can build literacy skills and motivation to read are benefits of participation in after-school tutoring programs. One after-school tutoring program that served fourth grade students in an inner-city school is an example of an effective program. Saddler and Stalters (2008) used university students as tutors in their after-school program. These tutors were trained in several components of reading instruments, which included an interest inventory, an informal reading inventory (IRI), and how to monitor and record student progress. Saddler and Stalters found that many of the students in

the one-year program increased their reading abilities approximately one grade level as measured by the IRI. Furthermore, the tutors themselves improved their teaching abilities. One of the tutors in this after-school program reported, “Seeing how my reading partner has grown and benefited from working with me has given me confidence in my abilities to actually make a difference” (p. 208).

A two-year research study was completed that asked two important questions regarding college students tutoring struggling readers (Allor & McCathren, 2004). These questions were first, “Could college students with only minimal training and assistance fully implement a highly structured tutoring program designed to increase the early reading development of at-risk first graders?” and secondly, “Would implementation of this highly structured tutoring program effectively increase the early reading development of at-risk first graders?” (p. 117). Their results showed that college students did execute the tutoring program “with reasonable degrees of fidelity, even though they received only a very minimal amount of training” (p. 124). Furthermore, the results of this study revealed that the very structured tutoring program was effective in raising the first graders’ early reading development. The researchers pre-tested and post-tested the first graders using the Woodcock Johnson Revised test, the Test of Word Reading Efficiency, and Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS).

Finally, Invernizzi, Juel, and Rosemary (1997) reported on their three-year volunteer tutoring program for first graders in Virginia. This particular tutoring program is completely volunteer run. The tutors are trained three times a year during two-hour long preparation sessions. The tutors are assigned one child per tutor, and each one works with this child twice a week

for 45 minutes. This tutoring happens during the school day and is scheduled to coincide with seatwork time, music, art, library, or other specials. Each child was pre- and post-tested to measure growth and provide feedback for program changes for the next year. For the three years reported in this study, there were statistically significant gains “on measures of alphabet, phonemic awareness, and word recognition” (p. 308). Furthermore, some tutors were interested in working with their child again the next year, and since the researchers found that some children needed another year of tutoring, second graders were included in the program the following year.

#### SYCAMORE READERS TUTORING PROGRAM

The Sycamore Readers program has a long-standing partnership with the local public library in a mid-size city in the Midwestern United States (Knaebel, Bauserman, & Quatroche, 2013). Our program takes place in the Lifelong Learning Center, a library department, which is provided free of charge as our tutoring site. The public library supports the Sycamore Readers program by offering day and evening staffed telephone service for program inquiries. The Lifelong Learning Center Staff supports the program by supervising during reading tutoring hours and checking out books for the tutors, children, and their families. The library also offers a Large Young People’s Department for use by families as they wait. There is a large selection of books, computer labs, educational software, Internet access, Wi-Fi, and browsing areas. Furthermore, the Lifelong Learning Center staff accepts applications to the program and e-mails or faxes them to the Sycamore Reader office at the university. In addition to providing a site and supervision for the Sycamore Readers tutoring program,

the library provides materials (books, manipulatives, software, magazines), office supplies, and tutoring supplies.

The Manager of the Lifelong Learning Center is the library liaison for the program. She communicates program business with the Sycamore Readers program director and the coordinator. The Manager purchases materials specifically for use in the Sycamore Readers program, such as office supplies and tutoring supplies for the reading coaches to use. The Manager also conducts the Introduction to the Library site training for reading tutors each fall semester. She supervises materials collections with funding provided by the Friends of the Library.

Most students in the program attend various elementary schools in the local metropolitan school district. In partnership with the Sycamore Readers, the local school system distributes online flyers to the classroom teachers advertising the free tutoring services available through Sycamore Readers. These classroom teachers then pass the information in the flyers to parents of struggling students who seek the free tutoring services from the program. Knaebel, Bauserman, and Quatroche (2015) give more specifics of the structure of the tutoring sessions.

#### BENEFITS OF THE PARTNERSHIP

The Manager of the Lifelong Learning Center was interviewed about the benefits of the tutoring program for the community. In the interview, she indicated there were five beneficiaries to the Sycamore Readers program: the public library, the community, parents of the children being tutored, the reading tutors, and the students being tutored.

The benefits to the public library were an increase in parents signing up for library cards, an increased use of library

materials, and an increase in repeat use of the library. The benefits to the community included increasing graduation rates, which have steadily increased from 73.4% in 2007 to 92.2% in 2013, now one of the top rates in the state. Struggling readers are intercepted early and provided help. Tutoring provides opportunities for educational success, thereby increasing the literacy abilities of graduates, which impacts the quality of the workforce, cost of local health care, support for a sustainable environment, and financial wellness for the community.

On a more individual basis, the parents of the children being tutored benefit from getting free help, seeing their child's improvement, and learning from the tutors how to support their child's learning at home. In addition, the tutors, who are primarily elementary education majors, benefit by getting much-needed experience working with struggling readers. The tutors experience rewarding work that will influence the outcomes for a child in school. The tutors gain from experiential learning and community engagement, which are important in developing a sense of contributing to society, preparing for a job, and understanding the importance of community partnerships to achieve larger goals.

Finally, and most importantly, the enrolled students benefit from the one-on-one tutoring the most (Bauserman & Melliere, 2011). They make gains in their reading abilities as evidenced by a 2.58 increase in student reading levels, (Knaebel, Bauserman, & Quatroche, 2013). They also show an improvement in higher order comprehension skills (Knaebel, Bauserman, & Quatroche, 2015), and an improvement in reading attitudes as reported in end-of-year Student Surveys. In addition, they become more competent readers, library users, and members of the community. The Sycamore Reader tutors do more than help struggling young readers reach grade level. In focus-

ing on literacy, they help prepare young students (and themselves) for personal growth and civic responsibility.

#### WINNING COMMENTS FROM LIBRARY STAFF AND PARENTS

One of the library staff who works in the Lifelong Learning Center each evening with the Sycamore Readers program said in her end-of-the-year summary: "We are very fortunate to have the Sycamore Readers partnership. The program went very well this year, and we had many compliments from the parents saying what a benefit it was to their children in helping them better their reading scores and actually inspiring them to want to read on their own at home. One parent told the ISU tutor that their child now reads road signs as they are traveling down the road. We had one boy from China who did not know many English words at all and through his tutor's help, he was able to read *Fly Guy* at the end of this year's tutoring session!" (L.R. Cameron, personal communication, May 4, 2015).

Parents have made many favorable comments about their child's tutor and the Sycamore Readers program in general (A. Kuhn, personal communication, May 8, 2015):

- "Love it! We'll be back."
- "English is my son's second language. Through Sycamore Readers program, he made much progress not only in his reading skills but also his oral and written English. His academic report for reading is 95/100 in the 4th grading period now (from previous D level in the 1st grading period). Thank you!"
- "We have had great success with Sycamore Readers. They have all helped with her reading."
- "Took the time to encourage them."



The Manager of the Lifelong Learning Center said about the program: "Struggling readers are sometimes also reluctant learners. I have seen Sycamore Readers tutors turn reluctant attendees into eager participants in two sessions. It is truly a benefit to children in our community to have a college student as a reading tutor who can also serve as an inspiration and to attest that going to college is the 'norm.' The partnership with the public library is a win-win situation for all involved and supports our mission to be the site to 'Learn. Connect. Grow. Your place to discover the possibilities.'" (S. Jakaitis, personal communication, January 26, 2013).

### CONCLUSION

The thriving partnership between the Sycamore Readers after-school tutoring program and the local public library has been a testament to the potential of experiential learning and community engagement. This partnership also helps fulfill one of the university's missions to encourage experiential learning and community engagement among its faculty and students (Bauserman & Mellièrè, 2011). The university was recently named by the *Washington Monthly* College Guide as the top university in the country for its achievements in experiential learning and community service. Indeed, as Knaebel, Bauserman, and Quatroche (2013) state: "A partnership with the local public library to tutor struggling readers can bring rewards to all involved: the local library personnel, elementary students in the community, and those providing the tutoring" (p. 24). As can be seen from the data concerning student learning and the comments from parents and library staff, this partnership provides positives for all involved. It can truly be said: All stakeholders win!

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