WHAT WENT MISSING: A CASE STUDY OF FACULTY AND

ORGANIZATIONAL ELEMENTS NECESSARY TO SUSTAIN

UNIVERSITY-BASED SERVICE LEARNING PROGRAMS

BY

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

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Purpose

Service learning, an innovative program that combines community service with academic course content, has achieved a new vibrancy under President Obama. Over 1,100 colleges and universities are now involved in some form of community service, an increase of over 50% in the last 10 years. Despite the reported positive impact of such programs by faculty and students, little research is available on how to create and sustain a service learning program. This qualitative case study sought to understand some of these implementation issues through an examination of a failed service learning program at a regional university in the Northeast.

Research Questions

1. How do faculty members describe their participation in the service learning program at Korbet University?

2. How do faculty members describe the organizational context for service learning at Korbet University?

3. From the faculty descriptions, what contributed to the failure of the service learning program at Korbet University?

Methodology

This case study utilized interviews with a purposeful sample of 15 faculty and reviewed documents to build an understanding of why the service learning program failed. To analyze the data record, a number of phases were utilized, including coding and subcoding, looking for evidence and relationships across the codes to develop categories that reflected the literature and research questions, and finally, "selecting data excerpts" (Hatch, 2002, p. 159) to illuminate the final themes.

Findings

The failure of service learning in this site was attributed to several interrelated factors. These factors were changing leadership, the undermining of organizational structures, and declining resources to support the implementation of service learning. As the organizational context became less supportive of service learning, faculty participation decreased until service learning was a program in name only. The findings corroborate those of organizational change experts that suggest it is the phase of implementing or continuing a new program rather than the innovative stage that typically leads to its demise.

Significance

Although this study is limited by the case of one service learning program, it is significant, in part, because it is based on issues surrounding programmatic decline and failure rather than success. It is noteworthy because it tried to understand from those involved in the program what went wrong. The study is also significant in that it

examined organizational change and how innovations impact participants and

organizational context.

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Problem Statement

Service learning is both a program and a "moral philosophy of education that reflects a particular epistemology and set of values" (Kendall, 1991, p. 18). As a philosophy, service learning is an awareness of the knowledge and understanding of what it means to be a citizen in a democracy (National Commission on Service Learning, 2002). In higher education, service learning is a program where service and learning are combined in the classroom and extended into the community. Service learning allows students to integrate academic course content with service in the community to gain a better understanding of their responsibility as citizens.

Service learning is a particular response to a growing sense by the general public that higher education has neglected one of its central tenets: that of preparing young people to participate in a democratic society (Checkoway, 2001; Gabelnick, 1997; Stanton, 1990). By creating programs in colleges and universities that help student participants become more aware of their community and its problems, service learning may be a significant step toward enhancing the notion of public service and responsibility. When taking on service learning, students volunteer at community organizations, performing a wide range of appropriate tasks under the direction of both faculty and community agency personnel. Placements in agencies as diverse as the Boys and Girls Clubs, the regional food bank, and the local police precinct have allowed college and university students to integrate the abstract knowledge they have learned in the classroom with actual experience.

The emergence of this type of pedagogy, which addresses both national concerns and local community issues, is reflected in the current emphasis on service at many colleges and universities across the country (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Barber, 1994; Levine, 1994; Sax & Astin, 1997; Zlotkowski, 2000). Campus Compact, a national organization of collegiate presidents who support service learning, provides annual statistics that highlight the status of service learning across the country. Campus Compact (2005) reports an increase in the number of colleges and universities engaging in service learning over the past several years, a fact that is substantiated by other national service organizations, including Learn and Serve America Higher Education (2010). Information released by Campus Compact in 2000 indicated that approximately 700 institutions across the country offered some form of service learning (Holland, 2000). By contrast, in 2010, over 1,100 colleges and universities are active members of Campus Compact, reflecting an increase of over 50% in civic engagement by faculty and students in the last 10 years (Campus Compact, 2010).

The benefits of service learning have been documented in a variety of different studies over the last decade. Evaluations of particular programs have demonstrated the positive aspects of service learning, especially for students. One of the more significant studies in recent years was conducted by the government-sponsored Corporation of National Service, whose Learn and Serve America Higher Education program provides funding for more than 100 service learning programs nationwide (Sax & Astin, 1997). Recognizing that institutions interested in expanding service learning on their campuses must document how such programs impact students, Learn and Serve America surveyed 3,450 participating and nonparticipating students in 42 institutions during the 1995-96

academic year (2010). While the survey found that students benefit from service learning in many ways, such as "improved cognitive development and problem solving" (Eyler & Giles, 1999, p. 17) and enhanced "skills that students can use in their communities" (Eyler, Giles, & Braxton, 1997, p. 5), whether or not benefits include an academic component remains questionable (Gray, Ondaatje, & Zakaras, 1999, p. 37). A similar research project, surveying 1,500 undergraduate students, was conducted by Eyler and Giles in 1999. The study produced evidence of positive outcomes for student participants and highlighted "the impact of service learning on such personal qualities as efficacy, interpersonal skills, reduced stereotyping and on social responsibility or sense of commitment to future service" (Eyler, 2000, p. 11). Smaller empirical studies have demonstrated that students who are involved in such programs have been found to develop a philosophy and related set of skills that can contribute "to the well being of people in the community both now and in the future" (Harkavy, 1998, p. 1). More recent studies have been conducted that are specific to particular academic disciplines or individual programs. For example, a number of studies have been conducted about service learning outcomes for students in the health professions (Connors, Seifer, Sebastian, Cora-Bramble, & Hart, 1996; Mpofu, 2007). Although these studies suggest that "service learning is superior to classroom-only instruction" (Mpofu, 2007, p. 50), the outcomes have not been generalized to the broader student population.

Faculty have also been found to benefit from their work in service learning. Engaged faculty "report that they derive satisfaction from service learning's effectiveness as a way to present disciplinary content material, enhancement of critical thinking, and relevance to course material" (Hesser, 1995, p. 34). Similarly, being aware that "students'

academic learning is enhanced by participation in course-relevant community service"
(Marcus, Howard, & King, 1993, p. 416) has been found to be a strong incentive for
ongoing faculty participation in service learning.

Despite the reported positive impact of service learning by faculty and students,
there is little research available on how to create and sustain a service learning program,
making it difficult for institutions of higher education that seek to do this type of work.
Although service learning advocates have requested descriptive research on best practices
(Stanton, 2000), very little has been published to demonstrate to colleges and universities
how to actually implement service learning programs. In 2008, an article on community-
based learning included a survey of research trends over the last 10 years in service
learning. The authors found that while progress has been made, information on program
implementation and critical steps toward institutionalization remain "vague and non-
specific" (Shrader, Saunders, & Marullo, 2008, p. 30). Similarly, a cursory review of
topics listed in the *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* over the last 16
years cites countless articles on theory and very few on implementation or what service
learning programs look like in practice.

Seminal articles by service learning pioneers (e.g., Timothy Stanton, Dwight
Giles, and Nadinne Cruz) address subjects such as campus readiness and how to gauge
whether faculty are willing to take on such an innovation or if adequate resources have
been allocated for the program (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996; Holland, 1997; Ward, 1996).
Some information is also available that describes the elements necessary for initial
programmatic success, especially those related to specific academic disciplines
(Zlotkowski, 2000), such as endorsement by the departmental chair or a requirement by a

national accreditation agency. A small but significant group of studies, for example, show that for service learning to be successful, faculty members must be an integral part of the program from its inception to maturity (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996; Checkoway, 2001; Driscoll, 2000; Gray et al., 1999; Jacoby & Associates, 1996; McKay & Rozee, 2004). In addition to faculty participation, Chadwick and Pawlowski (2007) state institutional factors such as leadership, organizational structure and policies, and resources have also been found to impact on the implementation of service learning and other similar programs. In fact, according to the authors, institutions, their contextual environment, and the manner in which they support service learning are second only to faculty participation as a "predictor of the institutionalizing of service learning" (p. 31).

However, to be successful, institutions need more than theoretical treaties or a few studies that foreground some factors that impact implementation of service learning initiatives. College and university leaders need a more in-depth understanding on how to sustain service learning programs once they are underway. This type of information is critical for both faculty and other institutional representatives who seek "to sustain, expand, and/or institutionalize service learning" (Holland, 1997, p. 31).

In an effort to compensate for the lack of research on implementing service learning, this study sought to understand from a faculty and institutional perspective why some service learning programs are sustained while others fail. This qualitative study explored the initial success and the ultimate failure of the service learning program at Korbet University. Driscoll (2000) recommends a series of case studies to understand faculty "issues of maintenance and sustainability" (p. 37) in organizations in which service learning programs reside. This research, which satisfies Driscoll's criteria, was

conducted, in part, through interviews with faculty who served on the original Korbet University faculty service learning advisory board. Appropriate documents were also reviewed and included in the data record. The purpose of this case study research was to identify, from faculty and organizational perspectives, the reasons the service learning program failed at Korbet University.

Research Questions

This case study concerns the relationship between faculty participation, organizational context, the initial success, and the ultimate failure of the service learning program at Korbet University from the perspective of faculty. The inquiry addressed three main questions:

1) How do faculty members describe their participation in the service learning program at Korbet University?

2) How do faculty members describe the organizational context for service learning at Korbet University?

3) From the faculty descriptions, what contributed to the failure of the service learning program at Korbet University?

To provide background information for the study, I now turn to a review of relevant literature.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

To understand the nature of service learning and its resurgence in colleges and universities in this country, I begin this review with a definition of service learning and its importance in higher education, followed by a discussion of the theoretical foundations underpinning service learning and its history in this country. As the focus of this case study is on the failure of service learning at a particular institution, I then discuss the literature that examines factors of program implementation, including the benefits of service learning to faculty and students as well as elements that contribute to programmatic success.

Service Learning—A Definition

Service learning is defined "as a credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 222). An emphasis on the importance of the service activity to further an understanding of course content within the academic discipline is also part of the definition. Students who participate in service learning are placed in approved community agencies and perform a wide range of activities designed as a practical application of theoretical course content. In part, because service learning is a joint venture between academia and the community, it may be viewed as a positive response to those who believe that higher education must regain its essential mission of educating a responsible citizenry.

The pedagogy of service learning. Although labeled a new or innovative pedagogy (Howard, 1998; Holland, 2000; McKay & Rozee, 2004), the methodology

driving service learning has been on campuses for decades. Service learning is a form of experiential learning (Kolenko, Porter, Wheatley, & Colby, 1996; Morton & Troppe, 1996) that historically has included field placements, internships, and cooperative education and which, as a practice, has been less than well received in academia (Howard, 1998; Kolb, 1984).

In describing the difference between traditional and experiential pedagogy, Howard (1998) explains that in traditional classroom settings, "faculty are the knowledge experts and direct the learning activities in the course and that students begin with a knowledge deficit and follow the prescribed learning activities" (p. 23). On the other hand "experiential learning is more of a 'bottom-up' method, in which general lessons and principles are drawn inductively from direct personal experience and observations" (Marcus et al., 1993, p. 417). To do this, faculty encourage students to reflect on the links between their service learning experiences and course content through such pedagogies as "logs, journals, discussion, brainstorming, thought questions and rhetorical questions" (Svinicki & Dixon, 1987, p. 142). Reflection also helps students deepen their learning, moving from superficial, unfocused, or even problematic understanding to well-defined, appropriate, and action-oriented knowledge (Clayton & Ash, 2004).

Rationale for service learning. Colleges and universities most often view service learning as part of civic or community involvement that contributes to education for democracy in an increasingly complex society. Academic programming that "engages students in the community" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 222) is a response to those who believe that colleges and universities must again renew their commitment to "educating students for a life as responsible citizens" (p. 221). The resurgence of interest

in service learning may also be the result of an increase in "public expectation about the role of education in teaching the next generation" (Kendall, 1990, p. 16) their role as appropriate citizens.

Public interest and concern about civic engagement may be, in part, because of an awareness that "Americans' participation in community and civic activities has declined over the last several decades" (Forte, 1997, p. 151). This perception, along with the effects of the "me generation" (Kendall, 1990, p. 13) and "the achievement-oriented, highly competitive culture on college campuses" (Boyte, 2002, p. 20), has caused a number of reactions that include everything from a call for a broad examination of the mission of higher education (Jacoby et al., 1996) to a need for "undergraduate curriculum reform" (Kendall, 1990, p. 16).

A number of educators believe that colleges and universities must "devise ways of teaching and learning for civic life" (Gamson, 1997, p. 13). Service learning is an example of such a strategy, one that will provide an opportunity for both students and faculty to connect "to their institutions and communities" (p. 13). This type of interaction is especially important at "commuter colleges and universities, which constitute the great majority of our higher education institutions. Students at these campuses usually are familiar with their community and its problems and they expect to continue to live and work there" (Ehrlich, 1997, p. 62).

As noted earlier, Thomas Ehrlich, president emeritus of Indiana University, views community service learning as a response to "the decline of civic engagement in America" (Ehrlich, 1997, p. 61) and the absence of "social capital" (Coleman, 1988, p. S109). In Ehrlich's opinion, community service is a significant step toward

"countering that trend among students" (p. 61) and a mandate to resolve what some

perceive as an imbalance between "individualism" and "civic responsibility" (Gabelnick,

1997, p. 30). In citing several outcome studies, Ehrlich notes that students who

participate in service learning are more aware of the community and their collective

responsibility in addressing its problems. In fact, service learning may provide new

opportunities for social-related activities to expand social capital in both academia and

the community, "an important factor in the survival of upcoming generations" (Coleman,

1988, p. S98). According to Ehrlich, "civic learning—in the sense of how a community

works and how to help it work better—and academic learning are mutually reinforcing"

(p. 61).

Checkoway (2001) shares Ehrlich's views in that although many colleges and

universities were actually established to encourage civic engagement, they no longer do

so. Service learning is a step toward re-establishing the connection between the

university and the community. Service learning "enables students to engage the world

and learn from practice" (p. 139). It prepares students for active participation in a diverse

democratic society, "challenges students' imaginations, and develops their civic

competencies" (p. 143), and may actually contribute to the renewal of the "social capital

of higher education" (Gamson, 1997, p. 12).

Theoretical Foundations of Service Learning

Despite those who would view the academic/community movement as only an

instructional strategy, several theorists assert that service learning is much more than

pedagogy. Both John Dewey (1985) and David Kolb (1984) have demonstrated that

service learning has the potential to respond to higher education's most severe critics and,

at the same time, enhance "democratic participation" (Ansley & Gaventa, 1997, p. 51) for today's college and university students. Although most advocates cite Dewey as central to service learning, the work of David Kolb is also included because of its more practical, theoretical application.

Dewey's theory. Numerous authors associate John Dewey with the service learning movement, in part because of the value he placed on experience and on democracy and civic participation (Battistoni, 1997; Checkoway, 2001; Deans, 1999; Kraft, 1996). Dewey's dialectical connection between "theory and practice" and "the school and the community" (Saltmarsh, 1996, p. 15) forms the basis for experiential learning, which includes service learning as well as internships and cooperative education (Jacoby et al., 1996; Tia-Seale, 2001). Because service learning is comparatively new within the realm of educational pedagogy, "the closest service learning comes to having a theory of its own is Dewey's educational theory" (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000b, p. 70).

In fact, Dewey (1985) actually defined an ideal of service in speaking out against "compulsory military service" in 1916 (p. 183). While service learning in its present form was not his objective, Dewey's goals for service foreshadowed present-day programs in that he understood the dangers of a society in which "our individualistic tradition to depress from view the claims of organized society overshadows our collective responsibility to the public good" (p. 187).

Dewey (1985) saw efforts to mandate universal military service as the public's condemnation of an educational system that was less than adequate in preparing noncitizens for participation in a democracy. Dewey himself questioned whether the educational institutions of the era were successful in "developing public-mindedness, a

sense of public service and responsibility" (p. 183) and "constructive social discipline"

(p. 198). To counter the military service movement, Dewey sought service that "would

connect with our positive capacities and endeavors so as to reinforce and consolidate our

other educational instrumentalities" (p. 189). To Dewey, this was preferable to the notion

of compulsory military service, which in his mind was a mandate based on "fear and [the]

cowardliness" (p. 189). In essence, Dewey envisioned a form of service that would

embrace our strengths and the true nature of our citizenry, whose foundation would be

educational rather than military and which would be "directed toward industrial conquest

of nature rather than military conquest of man" (p. 190).

Even though service learning is associated with Dewey's writing only

tangentially, advocates interpret the meaning of his works to imply that service learning

is a natural extension of his philosophy. Two of Dewey's works, *Democracy and

Education* (1916) and *Experience and Education* (1938), yield examples of inferences

drawn by proponents of service learning. In reviewing the historical foundations of

service learning, Kraft (1996) notes that in both works, Dewey:

> Provided the intellectual undergirdings for such critical service learning
> components as student involvement in the construction of learning objectives;
> working together rather than in isolation in learning tasks; using "educative" and
> minimizing "miseducative" experiences; the organic relation between what is
> learned and personal experience; the importance of social and not just intellectual
> development; and, the value of actions directed toward the welfare of others.
> (p. 133)

Dewey's democracy and education. While "different interpretations of what is

essential to Dewey's philosophy" (Robertson, 1992, p. 337) are numerous, it is difficult

to question his "advocacy of participatory democracy" and his commitment to

"democratic education" (p. 337). As a testimony to the era, *Democracy and Education*

(1916) exemplifies Dewey's views on democracy and is characteristic of his advocacy. The importance Dewey held for democracy cannot be overstated. To him, "democracy was not really an alternative form of community life but was, rather, the completion or perfection of life itself" (Robertson, 1992, p. 341). In Dewey's mind, democracy "can be created only by education" (Dewey, 1916, p. 87) and that education must include an "emphasis upon whatever binds people together" (p. 98) for the common good, which enforces the importance of community and the necessity of communicating with each of its members. "Because such communication is educative, living in a community educates. Both the giving and receiving of genuine communication enrich and enlarge experience" (Robertson, 1992, p. 341).

In his discussion of Dewey's contribution to the field of service learning, Saltmarsh (1996) uses *Democracy and Education* to examine Dewey's "refutation of the dominating dualism in modern thought" (p. 15). In Dewey's mind, the persistence of dualism had "left its mark upon the educational system" (Dewey, 1916, p. 334). By this Dewey may have meant that when schools apply arbitrary methods to isolate different subject matter and distinguish between "liberal education" and "useful, practical training" (p. 261), distinctions are created that render education less than effective.

Dewey believed that no line should be arbitrarily drawn to and from "the concrete to the abstract" (Giles & Eyler, 1994, p. 80) and that "the realities of life demanded a mix of the two depending on life circumstances" (p. 80). For Dewey, the ultimate goal was to ensure that education provided a balance between the concrete and the abstract within the context of the community, which is also the goal of service learning.

Dewey's experience and education. In considering the influence of *Experience and Education* (Dewey, 1938) on the field of service learning, Giles (1990) notes that a central characteristic of Dewey's philosophy is "the organic connection between education and personal experience" (Dewey as cited in Giles, 1990, p. 258). Again, this connection signifies the fundamental emphasis Dewey places on the elimination of dualisms in education. "As this dialectic had earlier linked school and society, the child and the curriculum, democracy and education, it now linked experience and education" (Dewey as cited in Giles, 1990, p. 258).

Giles (1990) believes that if Dewey had written about service learning, he would have stressed the intimate connection between service and learning to "reflect the dialectical interaction between the two" (p. 259). Giles cites a conceptualization by Goodlad that views service learning as an example of how "the dimensions of theory and practice, and of individual and society, are held together in tension in curriculum development" (p. 259). In *Experience and Education* (1938), Dewey outlines a theory of experience that is viewed by advocates as a rationale for experiential education, of which service learning is a current example. A central tenet in Dewey's "thinking about education in a broader context is the primacy of the concept of experience" (Giles, 1990, p. 257-258). This is underscored by Dewey in his belief that "a philosophy of education (must be) based on a philosophy of experience" (1938, p. 29).

Principle of continuity. According to Dewey, a theory of experience involves several interconnected principles. The first principle pertains to the necessity of "discriminating between experiences that are worthwhile educationally and those that are not" (Dewey, 1938, p. 33). Identified by Dewey as the "principle of continuity of

experience" (p. 35), this notion "means that every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after" (p. 35). "Dewey believes that people develop habits of emotional response, perception, appreciation, sensitivity and attitude. These habits, developed from the past, affect future experiences" (Carver, 1997, p. 144). According to Dewey, "the future has to be taken into account at every stage of the educational process" (1938, p. 47) as well as the past. With respect to service learning, the practical application of the present, along with previous abstract knowledge, affects both current and future educational experiences.

Principle of interaction. The second principle is the "principle of interaction" (Dewey, 1938, p. 42). This takes both the external environment of the learner and his or her internal readiness into consideration and, according to Dewey, both should carry equal weight in judging an experience's worth. The actual reality of the educational environment, whether it is in a classroom or an external setting, is only one factor in how well an experience is internalized. The preparedness of the learner and his or her receptivity is also a consideration and can include everything from attitude to ability on the part of the student.

In Dewey's opinion, the principles of continuity, experience, and interaction are essential to education and cannot be considered separately. "If an experience had one of them but not the other, it was not educative" (Giles & Eyler, 1994, p. 79).

In considering "how learning occurs in service learning" (Giles & Eyler, 1994, p. 80), Dewey's theory of experience forms a comprehensive basis for evaluating whether a service learning experience is indeed educational. The principle of continuity is applied

to the notion that all experiences are part of a continuum and that present experiences are bound to those that came previously and to those yet to be experienced. On the other hand, the principle of interaction takes into consideration the "transition between the individual (learner) and the environment" (p. 79). In this manner "the principles of continuity and interaction" are "the longitudinal and lateral aspects of experience" (Dewey, 1938, p. 44) and, as such, must be considered as "key elements of a theory of knowing in service learning" (Giles & Eyler, 1994, p. 79). In applying Dewey's theory, assuming the learner is prepared and in a state of readiness, service learning provides an opportunity for the learner to connect previous knowledge, the present reality, and future potential in a unique educational experience.

Applying Dewey's philosophy. In examining the theoretical application of Dewey's philosophy to service learning, Rebecca Carver (1997) uses the principles of continuity and interaction to form a "conceptual framework in showing that student experience is at the center of education and that student experience is both a process and an outcome" (p. 145). Based on a study as part of her doctoral dissertation, Carver (1997) conducted observations, interviews, and document analysis over a 6-year period. Her field work took place in a variety of educational settings that sponsored service learning activities, including schools, alternative schools, and community-based organizations. Carver explains how Dewey's principles can be applied in that "the educational value of an experience is derived from the way the experience contributes to the students' development (continuity) as well as the immediate nature of students' relationship with their environment (interaction)" (p. 145). For example, Carver describes a project she observed at an inner-city community-based agency that facilitated

students creating a guide for their own health education (continuity). This experience "left them with both valuable knowledge and the satisfaction of having created a resource guide that will be useful to other members of their community" (interaction) (p. 145). Through the application of these principles, Carver believes that educators will be better able to understand the nature of learning experiences by accepting students "both as individuals and as members of a community" (p. 145).

In contrast, Kezar and Rhoads (2001) believe that although service learning programs "share the core assumptions of Dewey's philosophy" (p. 151), they no longer reflects his outlook. In Kezar and Rhoads' opinion, at some point in its development "service learning lost its foundation in Dewey's philosophy; and, instead, discussions turned to how service learning could address current educational concerns, no longer framed in Deweyan terms" (p. 151). According to the authors, "as institutional leaders and organizations began implementing service learning" (p. 153), they resisted important elements of Dewey's philosophy. Institutions have remained dualistic in their resistance to implementing those structural changes necessary for service learning programs to be successful in effecting change. In the authors' opinion, "service learning evolved from Dewey's belief that dualisms in philosophy had created a problematic distinction between doing and knowing, emotions and intellect, experience and knowledge, work and play, and, individual and the world" (p. 151). These dualisms are still reflected in the manner in which educational institutions are structured and organized and are symbolic of the "artificial dualisms that have prevented the evolution of education for a democratic society" (p. 161).

It would appear that service learning combines rather than separates theory and practice, which reflects Dewey's philosophy. Dewey's "approach to education inherently connects theory and practice and the school and community" (Saltmarsh, 1996, p. 15), as does service learning. An alternative theory of service learning by David Kolb (1984) explores similar themes from a more practical viewpoint.

Kolb's theory of service learning. As described earlier, another theory that lends itself to service learning pedagogy is based on a framework developed by David Kolb (1984). The model, the experiential learning cycle, relates to pedagogical issues in general but can also be applied to actual teaching practices to "give practical theory to the pedagogical philosophy" of service learning (Barber & Battistoni, 1993, p. 239). According to Kolb (1984):

> Through their choices of experience, people program themselves to grasp reality through varying degrees of emphasis on apprehension or comprehension. Similarly they program themselves to transform these prehensions via extension and/or intention. This self-programming conditioned by experience determines the extent to which the person emphasizes the four modes of the learning process, concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. (p. 64)

In applying Kolb's theory to service learning, participating students initiate the learning cycle at any point depending on the modality they prefer. Hypothetically, a student would first be exposed to a service learning experience (i.e., working in a shelter for homeless families). The student would then reflect on the experience in preparation for the next phase of the cycle, abstract conceptualization, "in which attempts are made to derive meaning from the experience" (Eyler & Giles, 1999, p. 195) through more abstract materials such as texts or lectures. Students would then actively test their knowledge by applying the abstract concepts at their service learning sites. In Kolb's view, "learning is

the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience"
(1984, p. 41). That the emphasis on learning should be on the process rather than on
outcomes, differentiates experiential learning from more traditional approaches (Kolb,
1984).

While traditional pedagogy may involve the ongoing evaluation of a fixed body of
existing knowledge and how it is retained by the student, experiential education is based
more on the notion that "learning is a process whereby concepts are derived from and
continuously modified by experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 26). These concepts are
profoundly different than traditional educational goals in that the learning process is more
important than evaluation, learning is continuous, and "learning transforms experience in
both its objective and subjective forms" (p. 38). In Kolb's opinion, experience is the key
to the interrelationship between the internal and external process of learning.

In summary, both Dewey and Kolb recognized the value of experiential education
and the active participation of the learner in the educational process. Although the more
practical aspects of Kolb's theory may reflect a more contemporary approach to learning,
he echoes Dewey's rejection of dualisms and the importance of building education on
previous knowledge, the present reality, and future experience.

The History of Service Learning

Higher education and service share an uneven history in responding to community
needs. Although earlier community service initiatives were often eclipsed by
international and national events, the service learning movement firmly established its
ties with higher education in the 1960s with the emergence of the civil rights movement,
the Peace Corps in 1961, and VISTA in 1965 (Jacoby et al., 1996).

"In 1969, the Office of Economic Opportunity established the National Student Volunteer Program, which shortly became the National Center for Service Learning" (Jacoby et al., 1996, p. 12). Subsequently, this center combined forces with the Peace Corps and VISTA to create a federal agency known as ACTION. A number of programs were funded through seed money provided by ACTION, which resulted in "students from campuses across the country working in their communities" (Kendall, 1990, p. 10).

The actual term "service learning" was the product of the Southern Region Education Board (SREB) in the late 60s (Giles & Eyler, 1994; Jacoby et al., 1996). "The SREB, using federal dollars, popularized a service learning internship model" which, at that juncture, "was defined as the integration of the accomplishment of a public task with conscious educational growth" (Sigmon, 1990, p. 56). Although a number of service learning programs were established during this earlier period, the movement lost momentum, in part because institutions relied on external funding rather developing "long-term institutional support" (Kendall, 1990, p. 14), an issue that is still prevalent at colleges and universities that offer service learning programs.

More recently, congressional passage of the National Service Trust Act in 1993 presaged the recent surge of interest in service learning (Kraft, 1996). The enactment of this legislation was followed by the passage of a law that established the Corporation for National and Community Service. By signing this legislation, President Clinton fulfilled his inaugural vision to "challenge the nation's youth to embrace service" (Levine, 1994, p. 4). The Corporation was designed to "develop service opportunities for Americans of all ages and backgrounds and to harness their efforts toward solving the nation's most urgent social problems—education, human services, public safety and the environment"

(p. 4). These combined initiatives gave impetus to the current interest in service learning and its expansion on college and university campuses.

Currently, the movement has benefited from the endorsement of President Barack Obama. The President's call to national service and approval of the Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act have given service learning and other similar programs national prominence (Baker, 2009). Volunteering and service to the community have reached a wider audience through exposure in the popular media and publicity in national publications, such as a special report on service in *Time* (Stengel, 2009) that reflects a renewed commitment to volunteerism and "civic participation" (p. 6). Although not significant in numbers, participation in service learning by faculty and students has increased over 50% in the past 10 years (Campus Compact, 2010) as colleges and universities take on community outreach as an acceptable practice within the academy.

Implementing Service Learning in the Academy

While no one would deny the importance of efforts to "restore a sense of civic connection and responsibility" (Robinson, T., 2000, p. 143) or of "educating a committed citizenry" (Gabelnick, 1997, p. 30), the issue most relevant to this study is a focus on the more practical aspects of service learning. Colleges and universities are struggling to understand what is actually expected of them in implementing service learning programs, especially now that they have been endorsed by federal legislation.

As noted earlier, the benefits of service learning for students and faculty have been well documented by several large research surveys as well as in a number of smaller empirical studies specific to particular programs. Through participation in service learning, students gain an awareness of their particular academic discipline and an

opportunity to interact with members of their respective communities. Faculty also benefit from service learning in that they are able to provide students with a practical application of theory and a broader understanding of "disciplinary content material" (Hesser, 1995, p. 34). However, while the benefits of service learning have been publicized, there is a lack of research on the parameters of program implementation, sustainability, and institutionalization at colleges and universities.

A study conducted by Bringle and Hatcher (2000a) of factors associated with institutionalization may serve to highlight the variables shared by successful service learning programs. The study, which analyzes the questionnaires of 179 respondents from colleges and universities, identifies a number of elements important in implementing and sustaining service learning. These elements are as follows: participation by faculty in planning activities so that those who will be implementing the program are involved from the onset; a "centralized" (p. 281) service learning office whose activities are dedicated solely to volunteering, institutional funding for the office and staff (as opposed to grant funding), and reporting to the chief academic officer in the academic division of the institution to provide academic credibility. These results were reflected across "types of institutions" (p. 282) and, while not conclusive, do appear to signify those elements important for successful programs.

A number of factors impact whether an institution can successfully implement and sustain a program such as service learning. Faculty participation and organizational context are of special importance because, as noted earlier, understanding from a faculty and organizational perspective why some service learning programs succeed and others

fail is central to the current study. To further inform the literature review, each entity is discussed in detail below.

Faculty participation in service learning. In considering factors "necessary to institutionalize service learning, achieving substantial faculty participation has been cited as the most important and the greatest challenge" (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002, p. 5). While both initial and sustained faculty commitment are critical to the ongoing success of service learning programs, faculty participation is the best predictor of program sustainability, especially as a program matures (Furco, 2002). The National Center for Service-Learning (NCSL, 1990) notes that faculty participation is so important that if failed service learning programs were to be analyzed, the central reason for the failure would most likely be inconsistent and ineffective faculty interaction. This shortcoming takes precedence over other factors such as an incompatible institutional context, lack of resources, or an unresponsive administration, because if faculty are not involved from a program's inception, the chances for sustained success are questionable. Although faculty members may be motivated to participate in service learning programs, studies do single out particular characteristics as typical of those who actually commit to the program.

Faculty characteristics. In looking across the research on the salient characteristics of faculty who take on service learning, findings reveal that participating faculty are most likely either from a public or a private institution, are women, are of lower academic rank, and are minority. A survey by Antonio, Astin, and Cress (2000) also reveals that academic discipline may impact on faculty participation in service learning. The study, which includes the responses of 33,986 faculty members from

colleges and universities across the country, uses "descriptive analyses to approximate the national population of full-time undergraduate teaching faculty" and focuses on "faculty behaviors and beliefs related to community service" (p. 377). Predictably, "faculty trained in social work, ethnic studies, women's studies, education and health sciences—fields that focus on improving people and communities—exhibit the highest level of personal commitment to service" (p. 384). Not surprisingly, faculty in selected academic disciplines such as math and science are less inclined to participate in service learning because they are concerned about "service learning's relevance and academic vigor" (Abes et al., 2002, p. 15).

Regarding institutional characteristics, Antonio et al. (2000) found that faculty in both private and public institutions actually spend equal amounts of time involved in their own personal service-related activities. However, faculty in "private liberal arts colleges, religious colleges, commuter campuses, [and] metropolitan universities" (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000a, p. 282) are more likely to develop sustainable programs that are beneficial not only for themselves but also for students and community partners.

With respect to personal attributes, women are viewed as more likely than men to participate in service-related activities and to "strongly favor institutional policies that support community service and involvement" (Antonio et al., 2000, p. 380). Park (1996) underscores the notion that women are more supportive than men to the idea of service in higher education. She writes that "service activities differ along gender lines" (p. 53) and that women tend to "engage in significantly more, and different types of service than their male counterparts" (p. 53). Park also notes that "women's intellectual, emotional and personal development" (p. 57) may be uniquely suited to a pedagogy aligned with

service. While Park does not speculate as to why women appear to be more open to service-related activities, it may be that since women endure "the highest level of stress due to subtle discrimination, their personal experiences with discrimination likely make issues of inequality and injustice in society more personally salient, consequently motivating them to work toward social change through community service" (Antonio et al., 2000, p. 388).

Faculty in lower academic positions and minority faculty are also more likely to support pedagogical innovations such as service learning (Wade & Demb, 2009). These participants may believe that they have nothing to gain or lose, while other faculty of higher rank may "consciously avoid mention of their public interest—what initially led them into academia—for fear it might jeopardize their reputations for vigorous scholarship" (Boyte, 2002, p. 20). According to Antonio, Astin, and Cress (2000), the higher the faculty rank, the less likely faculty are interested in participating in service learning, and unfortunately, senior faculty are often perceived as leaders that junior colleagues aspire to emulate. A study conducted by the RAND Corporation of 100 higher education grant recipients reveals that "the vast majority of faculty—particularly tenured faculty—showed no interest in service learning" (Gray et al., 1999, p. 19). While more recent data is difficult to obtain, a study in 2005 of a number of regional universities in the Washington, DC area may provide some evidence indirectly. In identifying future goals for service learning at their respective institutions, participants highlighted additional course offerings by "tenured/senior faculty" (Shrader et al., 2008, p. 33) as important for programmatic growth and survival. Providing appropriate faculty motivators for both senior and junior faculty is also a challenge.

Faculty motivators. Although researchers are generally in agreement about the importance of faculty participation in successful service learning programs, studies on faculty motivation are somewhat inconsistent. The importance of conducting research to broaden the knowledge base about faculty motivation and why faculty choose to participate in service learning has been underscored by several authors (Abes et al., 2002; Driscoll, 2000; Giles & Eyler, 1998).

An earlier study conducted by a service learning pioneer, Chris Hammond (1994), as part of his doctoral dissertation at the University of Michigan, analyzes the responses of 130 faculty from institutions throughout Michigan to learn why faculty chose to participate in service learning. The results, which are quantified through frequency distributions, an analysis of variance, and paired t tests, reveal that faculty are motivated to participate in service learning "more by curricular concerns than by personal or co-curricular issues" (p. 27). More recently, in a project that included over 500 faculty survey responses from a number of different institutions in higher education in Ohio, Abes, Jackson, and Jones (2002) reported that "student learning outcomes" (p. 14) provide the strongest motivation for participating faculty. Survey responses, "were analyzed using descriptive statistics and measures to determine statistical significance" (p. 7). Abes et al. found that faculty are motivated to use service learning pedagogy in that it "increases course-based understanding by applying theory to practice" (p. 9).

More than one factor is often cited as a motivator and, on occasion, study outcomes are contradictory. "Both competing roles and heavy workloads characterize faculty responsibilities" (Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007, p. 6), and what faculty choose to pursue may be influenced by what "they perceive is institutionally valued" (p. 6).

Participation in innovative programming such as service learning requires a level of knowledge "that may or may not match doctoral training, professional skills, responsibilities, and personal, departmental, disciplinary, or institutional priorities" (p. 7).

The differences in study outcomes underscore the complexity of trying to understand what motivates faculty to participate in service learning. It would appear that regardless of their institutional affiliation, discipline, and personal attributes or whether their motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic, faculty are concerned about student outcomes, effective teaching, and whether service learning pedagogy actually "strengthens academic learning" (Ehrlich, 1997, p. 60). Solid proof of the effectiveness of service learning is especially important to faculty recruited to continue participation after a program is underway. This may be because "second generation faculty who consider incorporating service learning into their teaching will approach the work with a more pragmatic and less idealistic attitude than those who pioneered service learning" (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000a, p. 284).

Ensuring faculty participation. Faculty participation is fundamental to the success of service learning programs in higher education. Because the implementation of service learning "represents a revision of courses in the curriculum or an addition to the curriculum, it falls under the purview of faculty" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995, p. 112). Institutions must give careful consideration as to how to involve faculty from the onset of the program. While student outcomes are of utmost importance to faculty, appropriate recognition is also important in program implementation.

Planning committee. One way to ensure that faculty members understand what is expected of them and have the opportunity to assist in formulating the program is to

include faculty among those involved at the initial stages of programmatic development. "Establishing an advisory committee can be of great value in providing direction for a new service learning program" (Bucco & Busch, 1996, p. 239). Research suggests that, to be successful, initial planning must include administrators, staff, and especially faculty "with the appropriate interest, motivation, and skills to execute the critical first steps" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 225). Service learning is best initiated by first "identifying a core of faculty and extending their interest into the larger academic community" (McKay & Rozee, 2004, p. 31), and long-term success is more plausible when a faculty member takes the lead in mounting the service learning initiative. The identification and selection of a faculty member to spearhead the initiative will facilitate the distribution of leadership tasks and activities across the institution (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004).

The initial committee must understand the inner workings of their particular campus and be able to demonstrate "how service learning aids the campus in achieving its educational mission" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 26). Careful planning at this early stage may result in easier acceptance of service learning by key campus governance committees such as curriculum committees and the "Faculty Senate, and Tenure and Promotion Committee" (p. 26).

Defining and agreeing to the meaning of service learning on a particular campus is an important first task for the planning committee. Members must agree on a common vision that is compatible with "the institutional, student and faculty culture, climate and values" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 225). The committee must also consider how

service learning will be introduced into the curriculum and provide recommendations for the campus governing body and academic departments.

Faculty tenure and promotion. Faculty participation will also depend on whether service learning is recognized in the tenure and promotion process. It would appear that "service learning is still not widely seen as a serious pedagogy in tenure and promotion decisions" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 28) and its relationship with the administration may be another source of ambiguity. Faculty may be concerned about "how the work will be evaluated in the RTP process" (McKay & Rozee, 2004, p. 31), in that senior faculty on campus-wide retention, tenure, and promotion committees may not understand service learning and its application to teaching and research (Fairweather, 1993; Kolenko et al., 1996; Weigert, 1998).

Institutions willing to expand their "definitions of scholarship" (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001, p. 153) to include service learning as an innovative teaching practice must also broaden the faculty reward structure to provide legitimacy for service learning (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001). "Especially important for service learning institutionalization is the campus's establishment of faculty review, tenure, and promotion policies that support faculty members' participation in service learning" (Furco, 2002, p. 57).

A study by Holland (1997), which resulted in a well-known matrix designed to explore "levels of commitment to service" (p. 33), utilized evidence from a qualitative study of 23 colleges and universities that cited service learning as "an academic priority" (p. 32). Representatives from these institutions participated in data gathering that included "in-depth interviews" (p. 32) and a review of pertinent documentation. Holland also confirmed her earlier findings of the importance of formal recognition of service

learning as part of the faculty reward structure. "Tenure track faculty are quite clear that the only recognition that really counts is for service learning to be taken seriously in tenure and promotion decisions" (Rue, 1996, p. 261).

Unfortunately, although service learning is increasing on a number of campuses, its relevance to the faculty reward system is tenuous at best, and faculty are all too aware "that tenure and promotion decisions are not typically granted on the basis of even strong, engaged community-based research or teaching" (Shrader et al., 2008, p. 30). Although faculty are often motivated by internal values such as "altruism, service and community orientation" (Antonio et al., 2000, p. 373), rewarding faculty for service-related activities "may be a key factor in whether faculty decide to add service learning to their courses" (p. 389). Academicians are less likely to consider programs like service learning "if their reward systems prioritize traditional scholarly products [e.g., peer-reviewed journal articles and scholarly books]" (Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007, p. 7) as opposed to community-based research generated by programs such as service learning. In addition, faculty may not understand how service learning and teaching and research can be integrated, especially since pressure has increased "for faculty research productivity even in institutions with primary teaching missions" (p. 6).

Organizational context. Organizational context is viewed as "the various roles, patterns and policies reproduced by organizations" (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001, p. 163). In this instance, the phrase includes both structural factors and cultural variables that interact "to make up the context" (Hall & Hord, 2001, p. 194) of an institution. The nature of the organizational context of an institution is important because it reflects "how a college or university perceives itself and the outside world" (Shrader et al., 2008, p. 29)

and also because of its potential impact on an innovation such as service learning. While difficult to conceptualize, contextual factors, distinctive to each organization (Holland, 1997, p. 31), have the ability to either support and promote an innovation or threaten its very existence. In fact, a compatible organizational context can provide "a venue for service learning to gain visibility and legitimacy" (Furco, 2002, p. 47).

The results of a "three year exploratory study" (Furco, 2002, p. 39) of 43 institutions, conducted by UC Berkeley in 2000, underscore the importance of an integrative "institutional context" (p. 47). Utilizing a "meta-matrix approach" (p. 42), the study analyzed survey responses and existing literature to determine those issues "necessary to advance and sustain service learning" (p. 43). Institutions with successful service learning programs reported "a connection between the identified goals and objectives for service learning institutionalization and specific campus-wide goals and initiatives underway at the institution" (p. 47). Understanding how innovative programs such as service learning can support an institution in meeting its overall mission (Morton & Troppe, 1996) creates an atmosphere conducive to service learning sustainability. By the same token, an institutional context that has the potential to undermine an innovation must also be an important consideration in developing a service learning program.

As described by Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2004), organizational structures are a critical element of an organizational context. Structures inform the work of people in an organization by "providing rules and resources" (p. 10). However, people and their actions may affect structures as well and it is the organizational context and the interaction between structures and "human agency" (p. 10) that influence whether an innovation such as service learning will succeed within an institution.

As noted by Holland (2000), "there has been broad discussion of the central importance of infrastructure for service learning because of its labor-intensive nature and the importance of giving faculty ongoing support in this new pedagogy" (p. 56). Issues of institutional infrastructure, such as organizational culture and the possibility of increasing "institutional capacity" (Checkoway, 2001, p. 137) to accommodate new programs like service learning, are central to the core of the institution. Understanding the cultural nature of higher education is of particular importance in designing and implementing innovations such as service learning. The "socially constructed values, norms and beliefs about an organization and how it should behave" (Hall & Hord, 2001, p. 194), which defines culture, are specific to each institution and affect whether or not an innovation will be well received. Key organizational factors within a college or university that reflect its particular culture may offer insight as to whether service learning will be accepted on campus.

Institutional culture. To be sustainable, "service learning models must complement the particular culture and environment, as well as the mission of their institutions" (Rubin, 1996, p. 299). Because it defines how an institution finds meaning in its decisions and actions, culture can become a barrier, especially if the new initiative is perceived as having the potential to alter the current environment or status quo on campus. A given culture "derives its force from the values, procedures, and goals held by those most intimately involved in the organization's workings" (Tierney, 1988, p. 3). Organizational culture provides its participants with "some continuing sense of the reality in which they work. It is the expressive social fabric surrounding them that gives meaning to the individual tasks and objectives they pursue" (Dill, 1982, p. 307).

Understanding the cultural nature of higher education becomes important, especially since service learning on campuses may raise "political and structural problems" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 27). Studies undertaken by early pioneers in service learning demonstrate that "the institutions' political barriers are often more difficult to overcome than the logistical ones" (Giles & Eyler, 1998, p. 68).

Organizational culture in higher education has been examined through a rational, systematic process, which originated in the corporate environment (Dill, 1982; Tierney, 1988). This process is based on the assumption that organizational culture could be constructed and analyzed systematically and that the culture could somehow be manipulated, which would result in a positive response to new ideas and programs, thereby "managing change more effectively and efficiently" (Tierney, 1988, p. 6). This type of analysis has led to the assumption that "strong congruent cultures supportive of organizational structures and strategies are more effective than weak, incongruent or disconnected cultures" (p. 7). However, "the ideology or culture of academic organizations is much more complex than that of other organizations" (Dill, 1982, p. 308). Because higher education is uniquely organized and has traditionally been driven by a set of objectives different than those of corporate entities (Dill, 1982), an innovative approach may be more helpful in determining the cultural aspects of academia.

Weick (1976) developed an unorthodox method of analyzing an institution and its culture. His concept of "loose coupling" (p. 6) is based on the idea that organizational theories, traditionally called upon to understand how schools work, have been ineffective and the idea of loose coupling might better describe how institutions respond to change.

In essence, the term means that subsystems in an organization are either loosely or tightly coupled in their responsiveness to each other and to external constituencies.

In higher education, a typical institution may consist of "a loosely coupled federation of decentralized units dominated by academic departments and professional schools. Each unit is relatively autonomous in its personnel decisions, research emphases, performance standards and curricular requirements" (Checkoway, 2001, p. 138). Loosely coupled organizations also have provisions to tolerate more ambiguity than other types of institutions and can absorb innovation and programming with less disruption to the larger organization (Weick, 1976).

In her article on institutional commitment to service learning, Ward (1996) illustrates the relationship between the theory of loose coupling and how programs such as service learning are initiated and maintained. Ward views the structures at most colleges and universities as consisting of separate units existing somewhat autonomously with little connection to the larger organization. If the individual organizational units (in this case, academic departments) lack the interest or desire to participate in programs such as service learning, those initiatives are apt to be less than successful regardless of the support of the president or other campus leaders. In Ward's opinion, campuses that wish to sustain service learning must make an effort to understand how the theory relates to their culture and apply it accordingly.

The loosely coupled nature of higher education can be seen in the manner in which academic departments operate as well. Dill (1982) notes that "the cultures or distinctive ideologies of the academic disciplines" (p. 309) are unique within the structure of higher education. "These systems of shared belief clearly evoke the greatest meaning,

commitment, and loyalty from contemporary academics" (p. 309). While the culture and ideology of colleges and universities at the institutional level may have become somewhat diffuse, "the culture of the discipline has strengthened" (p. 313).

Although less evident at regional institutions, a faculty member's discipline is influential. In fact, an academic department consisting of like-minded faculty in the same discipline is more likely to be a determinant in "how if not what policy decisions are implemented" (Zlotkowski, 2000, p. 61). This dynamic also holds true in deciding whether or not to participate in new programs such as service learning. Zlotkowski (1995) notes that, in his opinion, the present resurgence of service learning may not survive "without a critical exploration of service learning issues" (p. 125) among colleagues within specific disciplines who speak a common language about their pedagogy.

As noted earlier, creating a culture that is receptive to the implementation of a service learning initiative requires several key organizational factors that include leadership and institutional structures and resources to support service learning.

Leadership. A reoccurring theme in the literature concerns the role of leadership in sustaining innovations such as service learning. Programmatic implementation depends on the vitality and commitment of the leadership, whose activities and tasks are "stretched over various factors of the situation, including tools, language and organizational structure" (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 21). "Leadership is about clarifying and enacting the institutional mission, including moving organizations toward their stated objectives, in addition to allocating resources, representing the organization to external constituencies and managing organizational planning and change" (Ward, 1996, p. 56).

With respect to service learning, the RAND study notes that "a key factor in promoting successful programs is the support of an institutional leader who is in a position to bring about organizational change" (Gray et al., 1999, p. 19). The study also cites the possible consequences to service learning if the leadership moves on before programs are fully established or have yet to "become formalized as part of the institutional structure" (p. 19). In this instance, programs are especially vulnerable in the areas of resource allocation and institutional recognition, in part because a new leader may have different priorities and goals.

At the same time, the question arises as to whether a leader can actually advocate for a new program such as service learning. In writing about how colleges and universities work, Birnbaum (1988) notes that, in his opinion, "the professional nature of colleges and universities may make the management of culture difficult if not impossible, and the role of leaders may therefore be more symbolic than real" (p. 24). However, although the scope of influence by campus leaders may be questionable, it is important to remember that "presidents, vice presidents or deans make critical decisions about the allocation of short-term, soft funds that make or break an initiative" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 27). They also "have the ability to create offices of service learning, voice their support for faculty involvement in service, and earmark funds for faculty development and project support" (Ward, 1998, p. 78).

A more recent expanded definition of leadership includes not only the president or formal leader, but others within the organization who carry out leadership roles in implementing a new program. This expansion occurs as tasks are distributed across the organization to include "followers in leadership practice" (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 19).

Distributing leadership tasks and activities across an institution through the involvement of others may help to ensure that the vision of the positional leader is extended throughout all levels of the organization. In fact, a "committed leader" (Kolenko et al., 1996, p. 139) from the faculty ranks expands leadership in such a way that the support and participation of faculty is almost guaranteed, at least initially. The service learning planning committee, mentioned earlier, is one example of the distribution of leadership to a broader representation of faculty.

Several sources caution that a president too obviously committed to service learning may actually undermine such an initiative (Morton & Troppe, 1996; Ward, 1996). This may be due in part to the notion that if a proposal is too closely related to the administration, it may not be well received by some faculty. The best course of action appears "to be that of executive leadership support of faculty initiatives" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 27), but indirectly rather than overtly.

Institutional support and resources. The importance of providing a system of supports for faculty participating in service learning and other similar innovations cannot be underestimated. In fact, "institutional support for service learning is second only to faculty support for service learning in terms of what is the strongest predictor of the institutionalizing of service learning" (Chadwick & Pawlowski, 2007, p. 31). According to Abes et al. (2002), for faculty who participate in service learning, providing a sufficient level of institutional support is critical to the success of innovations such as service learning.

Institutional support can be provided for faculty members participating in service learning by making adjustments to elements that already exist on campus. For instance,

the president or provost can draw attention to service learning by emphasizing the program and its ties with the community in the all-college address at the beginning of the semester. Departmental and college curriculum committees can expedite the course approval process for service learning modules so that time for final approval is minimized. In addition, department chairs and deans can be flexible in terms of course enrollment, allowing courses with smaller enrollments to carry forward. Finally, enrollment bulletins can highlight service learning in their publications, calling students' attention to the new program opportunities and encouraging their participation.

Endorsing faculty participation in initiating and sustaining a service learning program can take place through a variety of additional strategies, including ensuring that the program reports to the chief academic officer, creating a service learning office and staff, and providing for adequate funding and resources. These strategies have been authenticated by research mentioned earlier by Bringle and Hatcher (2000a) that identified which elements contribute most substantially to program institutionalization.

Reporting hierarchy. Holland (2000) stresses the importance of situating service learning programs in the academic division of the institution. She explains that "the introduction of service learning into the curriculum, as opposed to co-curricular or extra curricular community-based learning activities, is essential to sustaining service learning" (p. 54). This attitude may be due in part to the perception by faculty that programs coordinated by student affairs divisions are more responsive to student interests and less concerned with the goals of the academic enterprise. Programs situated in the academic division may actually "help further embed service learning in the academic fabric of the institution" (Furco, 2002, p. 57).

Kezar and Rhoads (2001) approach the issue of where service learning should be situated from a slightly different perspective. They note that such issues are "sometimes characterized as a debate between affective versus cognitive conceptions of student learning" (p. 149). Colleges and universities often appear to create an artificial distinction between the affective and the cognitive domains as if they were two distinct entities influencing student learning. This may translate into the perception that student affairs divisions are responsible for the affective areas of student learning and academic departments for the cognitive or content area. The question of separation relates directly to whether service learning should be "associated with the formal curriculum and fall under the domain of faculty" (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001, p. 149) or whether it should fall under the purview of student affairs. The separation of affective and cognitive learning notwithstanding, "when service is largely a co-curricular activity, as it is on many campuses, there is a tendency for it to be a peripheral part of many students' lives" (Levine, 1994, p. 5), rather than a meaningful educational experience. To ignore the possible connections between course material and the service experience "will likely not foster the kind of connection students need to make between theory and practice" (Rhoads, 1998, p. 45). It would appear that for a majority of practitioners, a service learning program "must be directly linked to the academic mission of higher education if it is to be fully institutionalized" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 24).

Center for service learning. The decision to create and fund a service learning office and position it so that it reports to a senior academic administrator is a vital component for program sustainability (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000a; Gray et al., 1999; Robinson, G., 2000) and important in supporting faculty in their ongoing participation.

The literature also indicates that ideally, the work of the office should be distinguished from other volunteer programs in that its sole purpose is the support of service learning (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). If possible the office should be staffed by "a minimum of a full-time staff or faculty member and a full-time administrative assistant" (Bucco & Busch, 1996, p. 239). The inclusion of a graduate assistant provides additional support (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

"The work of the office of service learning must focus on interesting faculty in service learning and providing them with support to make the curricular changes necessary to add a service learning component to a course" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 227). In addition, a service learning office "that provides technical assistance, logistical support, monetary incentives, and recognition is an important aspect of institutional infrastructure that can assist in the recruitment of second generation faculty" (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000a, p. 284).

Competing demands for faculty time may be "the most significant obstacle to the expansion of service learning" (Campus Compact, 2003, as quoted in Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007, p. 7). Faculty members have acknowledged their concerns about the extra time and effort they must expend because service learning courses may demand strategies that are "more difficult than traditional teaching methods" (Howard, 1998, p. 26). Participating in service learning "can leave faculty who do not have staff support feeling that they are supervising a large number of independent study projects in addition to teaching the basic course" (Morton, 1996, p. 284). Faculty who undertake service learning without institutional support find that, in order to teach service learning courses effectively, they must "locate sites, place students, coordinate scheduling and

transportation, manage site relations, and monitor student attendance and performance on site. Few faculty have these skills, and even fewer have the time or motivation to take on these tasks" (Gray et al., 1999, p. 21).

Other supporting activities of a service learning office include identifying and collecting references such as sample courses and relevant literature, and "planning faculty development activities that lead to the expansion of service learning courses" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 228) such as work sessions with colleagues who have previous experience with service learning and experiential pedagogy. Most importantly, the service learning office may assist faculty in obtaining data about service learning for research and publication, "which is critical to strengthening the knowledge base to promote and expand service learning within academia" (p. 227).

Funding and other resources. As noted earlier, funding and other types of institutional support are an ongoing concern for service learning and other innovative programming. Several sources cite funding as the strongest indicator of whether service learning will be sustained (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996; Ward, 1996), especially "when special support systems are removed" (Corbett, Firestone, & Rossman, 1987, p. 40). While grants and other sources may provide initial funding, to ensure sustainability, program expenses must eventually be absorbed by the institution, preferably in the form of "hard line budget allocations" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 227). The RAND study, cited earlier, indicates that by the second or third year of funding, only about "15 percent of the average direct grant was replaced by other types of funding" (Gray et al., 1999, p. 17). Relying on grant-generated or other external funding suggests that unless institutions are willing to absorb more of the costs, the future of service learning

programs is tentative at best, and faculty who want to participate may be less inclined to do so if a program is grant-funded (Gray et al., 1999).

"The efforts and investments devoted to initiating service learning must be complemented with the resources to sustain and expand the program" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 227), including positions and staff funded by the institution (Shrader et al., 2008). One of the surest ways to programmatic success "is to provide the resources needed to develop and maintain changes in curriculum and instruction" (McKay & Rozee, 2004, p. 22). This includes the allocation of funds for "course development stipends" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 230) and travel as well as attendance at "workshops to find out how others in the same discipline or on similar types of campuses have implemented service learning" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 26).

Based on field experience with Campus Compact, Eugene Rice with AAHE (American Association of Higher Education) believes that if campus leaders such as the president or provost perceive academic departments or other broad constituents to be committed to service learning (Morton & Troppe, 1996), they will dedicate funds for the program. However, "initiatives are most easily introduced when new resources are provided" (Keith, 1996, p. 246). In the ongoing competition for resources in higher education, the reallocation of funds from existing programs to service learning may lessen the chances for program survival.

Summary

In summary, the literature review has included a number of issues relative to faculty participation and organizational context and change within the purview of service learning. These issues have been embedded as part of larger complexities, including the

theoretical and historical implications of service learning and how service learning is
implemented at participating educational institutions. While research has been conducted
and reviewed on key indices of program implementation, very little exists that might
"help identify processes and strategies that would promote necessary changes in campus
organizations, programs, policies and culture" (Holland, 2000, p. 56). It is anticipated
that the current study will contribute to a better understanding of factors that support and
sustain service learning.

Chapter 3

Case Study Methodology

A qualitative case study design was used to examine the organizational context and faculty participation of the service learning program at Korbet University. A case study is not a new or unusual method of qualitative research. However, it is useful when looking at a "unique case" (Yin, 2003, p. 40) in that it is a form that "investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13). The case study of the service learning program at Korbet University is unique because it is a "negative case" (Olesen, 2005, p. 262) in that the program under examination has failed. In this particular study, the service learning program was the "phenomenon" under investigation, bounded by the organizational context and faculty participation at Korbet University.

Multiple data sources are used to construct a case of a phenomenon (Yin, 2003, p. 14). In keeping with this tradition, information about the failure of the service learning program at Korbet University was collected via interviews and through a review of pertinent documents over a 6-month period.

Pilot Study

A pilot was conducted during the 2005-06 academic year to ascertain the status of the service learning program at Korbet University and to determine if the program had actually failed. Three methods were utilized in collecting data for the pilot: a focus group interview with five members of the statewide service learning consortium; interviews with four faculty members from Korbet University who had participated in the original

program and served on the service learning advisory board; and document analysis. In total, over 100 pages of transcribed interview data were collected for the pilot study.

Originally, the data from the focus group were intended to be used to compare and contrast with information gathered from the faculty interviews. Despite their cooperation and willingness, the information gathered from the focus group participants was not useful. This was due in part to the fact that all of the focus group participants served as administrators on their respective campuses and, as a result, experienced issues and problems differently than faculty at Korbet University. In addition to finding that much of the data from the focus group were not relevant, the documents I collected were not fully utilized.

The present research has been informed by the limitations of the pilot study in two ways. Because of my lack of success with the sample I used in the pilot, I was careful to include mostly faculty instead of administrators in the current study sample. Also, I identified, reviewed, and selected a number of documents that were then cataloged by date and subject, summarized, and filed in chronological order for easy access. In what follows, the methodology for the current case study is explained in further detail.

Setting

The setting for this study is Korbet University (a pseudonym), a midsize, public regional institution in the Northeast. At the time this study took place, the university, which was chartered in 1855 as a normal school, included 345 full-time faculty and 13,000 students. More than 70 graduate and undergraduate academic degree programs are now available at Korbet, and it has been accredited by the Middle States Commission and licensed by the Commission on Higher Education.

This institution was chosen as the setting for the study for two reasons. First of all, by the time this research was initiated, the service learning program had all but failed. Although service learning courses still appeared in the online registration bulletin, student enrollment had dropped precipitously, with the exception of one course in social work and one in occupational therapy that continued to be required by their national accreditation organizations.

Secondly, because of my involvement as staff liaison to the service learning program from its inception, I had access to faculty and the administrator who constituted the sample for the study. This access provided me with an insider's perspective and convenient and accessible data sources. During my tenure at Korbet University, I worked with most of the faculty included in the sample in one capacity or another, and at some point in my career, I actually reported to the key administrator, the associate vice president for academic affairs. Therefore, Korbet was also chosen as the setting for this study because of convenience.

Sample Participants

To choose participants for the study, I first located the original list of members of the faculty service advisory board. Membership on the board was important because these faculty were part of the program at Korbet University from its inception to its end. In addition, because they served in an advisory capacity to the service learning program, faculty contributed to and shared a number of administrative and organizational decisions regarding the implementation of the service learning program.

I began to identify the sample for the study by reviewing the original advisory board list of 23 names. I excluded all but one of the administrators and also those whom

I knew through prior knowledge had left the university. The process of elimination left a cohort of 16 faculty members. In addition to these 16, I also included in the sample a faculty member who, at the time the service learning program was initiated, served as associate vice president for academic affairs and, in that capacity, actually spearheaded the development of the program.

In establishing the final sample pool, I initially e-mailed five faculty at a time to let them know the nature of my project and ascertain if they were willing to assist me. In those instances where the e-mail was returned to me or I did not get a response, further inquiries were made to determine if the faculty members were still on campus. Only one board member declined my invitation to participate without explanation. Therefore, of the 16 members of the original board who were sent a request to participate, 14 faculty and one administrator comprised the final sample for the study. The final sample is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Information for Sample

Faculty and "Key Admin"	Discipline	Degree	Yrs at KU	Race	Gender	SL Experience
#1	Sports Training	Ed D Columbia	41	Caucasian	M	None
#2	ESL/English	MA Boston U	44	Caucasian	F	None
#3	Early Childhood	Ed D U Mass	24	African/American	F	None
#4	Jewish History	PhD U/Rochester	12	Caucasian	M	None
#5	Biology	PhD UMDNJ	15	Caucasian	F	None
#6	Social Work	MSW Rutgers	23	Caucasian	F	Yes
#7	Communication	Ed D Columbia	36	Caucasian	F	Yes

Faculty and "Key Admin"	Discipline	Degree	Yrs at KU	Race	Gender	SL Experience
#8	ESL/English	Ed D Rutgers	22	Caucasian	F	None
#9	Special Ed	Ed D Leigh U	29	Caucasian	F	None
#10	Mathematics	PhD U/Maryland	17	Muslim	M	None
#11	Recreation	Ed D Temple	18	Caucasian	F	Yes
#12	ESL	PhD Indiana U		Caucasian	F	None
#13	Social Work	MSW Rutgers	10	Caucasian	F	Yes
#14	Management Science	MA Penn State	48	Caucasian	M	Yes
#15 "Key Admin"	Political Science	PhD Rutgers	32	Caucasian	F	Yes

The sample of participants for this study is remarkably similar to a 2007 study of 128 service learning institutions in that "an overwhelming number of faculty were White Caucasian and women" (Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007, p. 36). It is also noteworthy that several of the participants had prior experience with service learning or similar pedagogical strategies.

Data Collection and Management Procedures

As indicated earlier, to create a portrait of the service learning program at Korbet University and what led to its decline, I utilized several sources of data. These included interviews and the gathering and review of relevant documents.

Interviews. This particular study depended mostly on interviews as the primary source of data. In this instance, interviews provided a thorough description of both the organizational context and faculty participation of the service learning program at Korbet

University, the central focus of the research questions guiding this study. The fact that the program under study had failed made descriptive data particularly important. As such, extensive descriptions to "provide a framework for organizing the case study" (Yin, 2003, p. 114) took on an added significance. I made every effort to provide a picture of the service learning program at Korbet University, even though it no longer existed. In the absence of actual observational data, the reconstructed reality was drawn from the perceptions of those who worked within the program or were affiliated with service learning in some way.

To elicit the perspectives of participants, a semistructured protocol was utilized, which included a number of open-ended questions (Creswell, 1998) about faculty's perception of the organizational context and their participation in the program. The interview with the "key" administrator followed a similar format. To the casual observer the sessions may have seemed somewhat informal, but I was keenly aware of the importance of getting participants' perspectives on the demise of service learning. With that as my focus, the protocol assisted me in capturing faculty perceptions, their role in the implementation of the program, and, eventually, their feelings or their understanding about why they thought the program ended.

To conduct the interviews, I sent each participant a sample list of questions, a copy of the IRB approval document for their signature, and a consent form. I also indicated to faculty that the interviews would take approximately 1 hour and that, with their permission, I planned to audiotape the interviews for accuracy. With one exception, interviews took place in faculty offices. The exception was a faculty member in sports training who elected to hold the interview in the trainer's room in the new gym.

To conduct the interviews, I met faculty in their offices at the appointed time. We went over the consent form together and I responded to any questions they had about the process. The tape recorder was then activated and I began the interview with a short statement as to the nature of the study. I then proceeded through the questions I had previously sent to them, augmented by other questions or comments that surfaced during the interview. On several occasions I was also able to correlate their comments with sources from the literature review or substantiate them with my own prior experience in the field and we talked informally about the relevant connections.

Although an allotted time of 1 hour had been agreed upon, in many instances the interview was longer and it was often interrupted by telephone calls or visits from other faculty or students. Several times I actually left the interview site for several minutes because I felt I was intruding; but then, very shortly, the interviews would continue as planned.

Prior to each interview I created a memo that listed information of which I had prior knowledge, such as the length of time the participant had been at the university, their discipline and their educational background, and my earlier association with them when I was still at the university. When possible I took discreet notes of my impressions during the interview, such as the location of the office, the atmosphere, the general attitude of the faculty member, and their ease in speaking with me.

Following each interview, I updated the corresponding memo with notes taken during the interview and included any follow-up items that needed my attention. In an effort to improve my interviewing skills, I also included a self-critique, which I consulted prior to the next interview. I also sent each faculty member a thank-you note and a copy

of the signed consent form for their records. Most of the interviews were conducted over

a 6-month period from January to July 2008. In several instances data compiled through

interviews with faculty who participated in the pilot study were augmented by their

previous testimony collected in the pilot study.

   Document review. According to Merriam (1998), "documentary data are

particularly good sources for *qualitative* [italics in the original] case studies because they

can ground an investigation in the context of a problem being investigated" (p. 126). I

had access to an assortment of nonconfidential documents related to service learning

because of my position as staff liaison to service learning at Korbet. To ascertain if the

documents still in my possession were genuine, I conferred with the former secretary of

the program, who still works at Korbet. She had duplicate copies of a number of

documents I could use for comparison.

   The documents I collected tended to fall into three general categories: 1) memos,

letters, and instructions to faculty and students with accompanying attachments, which

were specifically related to the day-to-day operational aspects of service learning;

2) course proposals, syllabi, registration bulletins, and student enrollment data, which

served as background information; and 3) reports and university publications available to

the general public.

   As I came across each document, I created a "document summary form," as

suggested by Miles and Huberman (1984b, p. 55). On each form I included what the

document was and the date it originated, who authored it, why I had collected it, and how

it pertained and contributed to the data pool. If I thought the document was pertinent to

the two central research areas—contextual information and faculty perceptions of their

participation in the service learning program—I summarized its contents and included the summary on the appropriate form. As the purpose of this study was to understand the development and implementation of a university service learning initiative that no longer existed, documents were invaluable in providing an important source of relevant information.

Data Analysis

Data analysis in a qualitative study tends to follow a "general analytic strategy" (Yin, 2003, p. 109). In this instance, the strategy that was utilized depended in part on a "descriptive approach" (p. 114) and a link to relevant literature to inform the analysis. This method meant that a number of steps were utilized in the analysis, which included managing the data, dividing the evidence into large chunks based on organizational change literature and the research questions, reading and re-reading the large chunks in search of pre-identified subjects, creating separate documents for each of those subjects or categories, developing codes and subcodes within the categories, looking for evidence and relationships across the codes to create and rebuild categories that reflected the literature and research questions, and finally, "selecting data excerpts" (Hatch, 2002, p. 159) that related to my categories. This process was conducted for the research questions pertaining to organizational context, faculty participation, and possible reasons for the failure of the service learning program at Korbet University.

As a first step in the process and prior to the actual analysis, I made every effort to continue managing the data. Each faculty interview and the interview with the "key administrator" were transcribed, put in chronological order, and filed. Existing memos from each interview were attached to the transcription, along with personal notations

such as "reflections, tentative theories, hunches, ideas" (Merriam, 1998, p. 161) and any other significant observations.

In the second phase of data analysis, I used organizational change literature and the research questions to guide me in the process of dividing the data record into chunks or categories responding to each of the research questions. Each time I drew segments from the originals, I was careful to maintain the integrity of the original document, which allowed for retrieval if necessary. This was important because data segments were often applicable to more than one area, and "if they are lifted from their original context within the protocols, it will be difficult to process them later (Hatch, 2002, p. 154). At the end of this stage, therefore, the data record had been divided into a file labeled organizational context, a file labeled faculty participation, and a third file, built from the first two, labeled possible contributions to the failure of the service learning program at Korbet University.

During the third phase of the analysis, I reread the data organized under each research question, sorting some of the data into other categories that I had pre-identified through the literature review such as leadership, organizational structure, institutional support, and resources. Therefore, the data corresponding to each of the research questions were further broken down and reorganized into smaller units of meaning. At this point I also went back and reread the entire data set, including interviews and memos, to see if I had included all relevant material. In this manner, I was able to identify an additional category, organizational change, which had not been part of my original plan. I then created new files for each of these categories.

Using tips from Miles and Huberman (1984b) as a guide, I began to code the information I had included in each category. Once I established a code, it was labeled and written into the left hand margin, along with several key words that were part of my own notion of what the code entailed. I then conducted an informal content analysis of the rest of the category, looking for examples of the first code and identifying others as I read. I proceeded in this manner with the data organized within each of the categories, identifying both codes and subcodes, which further reduced the data set.

Having identified codes and subcodes related to each of the research questions, I then looked across codes within each category, looking for patterns. During this process some codes were merged together to build larger themes from the smaller data codes. I also utilized excerpts from the literature review and the research questions as a guide to substantiate the themes. This also meant that, at times, I worked across more than one category as the patterns became more defined and I began to build my findings. This was important when working on the organizational change category, as data in more than one category, such as leadership and organizational context, related to this particular subject. This process was also important as I began to think about why the service learning program at Korbet University did not survive.

At the end of this analytic process, I had several findings related to my research questions and the literature review.

Role of the Researcher

According to Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1995), research is "particularly effective when the ethnographer is also a member of the group she is studying" (p. 53), in that it "allows us to see an insider's view of actions" (p. 53). As a member of the faculty

service learning advisory board and its staff liaison, I had been part of the service

learning program at Korbet University from its inception. This insider's perspective

enabled me to verify what was being said, as I had shared experiences similar to those of

the participants. However, since I am no longer at Korbet, it was necessary for me to

bracket out some of my assumptions about the program to allow the authentic voices of

the study participants to be heard. By writing reflective memos, keeping notes, and

conducting ongoing self-assessments, I tried to achieve my goal of distancing myself

from too much intrusion into the data. I also made every effort to ascertain that the study

was valid.

Validity

LeCompte and Goetz (1982) argue that "attaining absolute validity and reliability

is an impossible goal for any research method" (p. 55). Nevertheless, qualitative

researchers are ethically bound to demonstrate a rigorous stance in defending their

methods so that "others have confidence in the conduct of the investigation and in the

results of any particular study" (Merriam, 1998, p. 199). Creswell (1998) suggests that

"qualitative researchers engage in at least two" (p. 216) strategies for demonstrating that

rigorous methods have been utilized throughout the study. Drawing on Creswell's

wisdom with regard to case studies, I utilized both triangulation and member checks to

strengthen the study's validity.

Triangulation is defined as the convergence of "multiple sources of evidence"

(Yin, 2003, p. 97) toward "the development of *converging lines of inquiry*" (p. 98). As

outlined in the analysis described above, triangulation occurred in two ways. First, codes

were not included in the final analysis unless they appeared in interview data from more

than one study participant. When possible, I also utilized triangulation by matching documents to verify what had been mentioned by faculty participants in the interview process.

The notion of "member checks" is described by Hatch (2002) as giving study participants "the chance to consider and give their reactions to the interpretations" (p. 188). To ensure that the transcripts were valid, each faculty member who had been interviewed was asked if he or she wished to review the original transcript before it was summarized and incorporated into the data record. One faculty member sought to review his interview and the transcript was forwarded to him. Although all study participants were also asked if they wished to review the data in summary form, no other requests were forthcoming.

In the current study, interviews of faculty members and an analysis of relevant documents proved to be effective in triangulating the data record. Because of the extensive use of interviews, Yin may perceive the primary use of only one type of data collection as a weakness, especially in case study research (Yin, 2003), when the focus of the study is that of a previously existing program. However, although the service learning program no longer exists, faculty who actually participated in the original program contributed to the study and provided "contemporary sources of evidence" (p. 98) across the lifespan of the program. Their collective contribution and the extensive use of actual quotes in the final report ensured that their voices were heard to "reflect the way participants experience reality" (LeCompte & Goetz ,1982, p. 57). It is their views of this program that I address in the next chapter.

Chapter 4

Findings

Service learning programs and volunteerism have acquired a new significance

since this research was originally undertaken. As part of his inaugural mandate to

Americans, President Barack Obama stressed the importance of service to the community

as a way citizens could make a difference in solving on-going problems in our society

(AOL News, 2009). In enlisting volunteers, President Obama launched www.serve.gov

as an action call, asking "all Americans to make a renewed commitment to serving their

community and their country" (Scherer, 2009, ¶2).

The dedication of September 11th as a National Day of Service and Remembrance

(Baker, 2009) and passage of the Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act have also

heightened awareness of service and community involvement. Federal funding has been

broadened for countless initiatives, including a number of grants to colleges and

universities to establish and sustain service learning programs and other

college/community projects (Learn and Serve Newsletter, 2009).

As described earlier, this case study concerns a now defunct service learning

program at a regional university that, had it been sustained, would have been part of this

renewed interest in service. This chapter examines the relationship between

organizational context and faculty participation in the service learning initiative at Korbet

University. The findings are presented according to the research questions. I first

explore the organizational context that both contributed and eventually led to the demise

of the service learning program at Korbet University. Secondly, I examine the

perceptions and experiences of faculty with respect to how they viewed their participation

in service learning, their thoughts about the level of support they received while participating in the program, and their views on the reasons for its failure.

The Organizational Context for Service Learning at Korbet University

The term *organizational context* may be understood as "the various roles, patterns and policies reproduced by organizations" (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001, p. 163) that provide the infrastructure and set the direction for institutions as well as their policies and priorities. That is, organizational context is the whole of the academic enterprise, the environment, culture, and traditions from which an institution derives its unique character and identity.

Change, such as the introduction of service learning, has the potential to alter the organizational context and affect the structure of an institution and its traditional way of doing things. For example, service learning programs may require institutional change and "shifts in perspective" (Clayton & Ash, 2004, p. 61) such as an alteration of the curriculum approval process or an instructional shift in control from faculty members to "non-academic" personnel (Holland, 1999, p. 38).

Whether an organization is willing to embrace the necessary alterations to its basic identity will also impact on whether a program will advance through the necessary stages of innovation and implementation (Holland, 1999) to become an integral part of the fabric of the institution. Similarly, the ability of an institution to adapt to change influences how well innovations such as service learning are received and implemented on a particular campus.

Korbet University was no exception when it came to the need for organizational change. However, the decision to use a model similar to the Rutgers University CASE
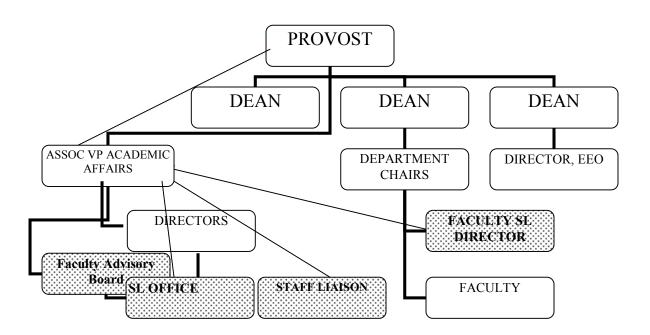
(Citizenship and Service Education) program facilitated the necessary changes, because the program was similar to Korbet in its culture and values and its staff members were aware of the impact the necessary changes would have on Korbet. In fact, service learning at Korbet University took on the characteristics of the CASE program at Rutgers University. CASE at Rutgers was based on a traditional course-based model with a fourth credit option where faculty included as an add-on, one credit of service learning to an existing academic course. The CASE model also relied on a central office to handle all logistical issues such as community outreach, student placement and data collection and analysis (Rutgers CASE, 2005).

In implementing an adaptation of the CASE model, Korbet University adopted several significant changes to its organizational structure. Figure 1 illustrates the organizational chart prior to and after changes were made with the introduction of service learning. The white areas and dark lines illustrate that prior to service learning, academic management at Korbet was top-down in that it was organized in the traditional hierarchy with the deans and senior academic managers in a reporting structure beneath the provost and the department chairs, and faculty and administrative departments at the next level. As denoted by the shaded boxes and finer lines, when service learning was created, the organizational structure was modified to include the addition of a service learning faculty director and staff liaison, both of whom reported directly to the associate vice president for academic affairs rather than to departmental or divisional chairs. The faculty service learning advisory board also reported to the associate vice president. The designation of the faculty director as the head of service learning affirmed her leadership role in program development and design and confirmed to the academic community the

importance of faculty involvement. The assignment of the cooperative education director

as staff liaison with the added complement of her office staff assured service learning

faculty that they would be properly supported.

Figure 1

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART- KORBET UNIVERSITY
1998 and 2000

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                        ┌──────────────┐
                        │   PROVOST    │
                        └──────────────┘

      ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
      │    DEAN      │  │    DEAN      │  │    DEAN      │
      └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘

┌──────────────┐          ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
│ ASSOC VP     │          │ DEPARTMENT   │  │ DIRECTOR, EEO│
│ ACADEMIC     │          │ CHAIRS       │  └──────────────┘
│ AFFAIRS      │          └──────────────┘
└──────────────┘

      ┌──────────────┐              ┌──────────────┐
      │  DIRECTORS   │              │ FACULTY SL   │
      └──────────────┘              │ DIRECTOR     │
                                    └──────────────┘
┌──────────────┐
│Faculty Advisory│  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
│ Board          │  │SL OFFICE │  │STAFF LIAISON │  │   FACULTY    │
└────────────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘
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Note: Shaded areas and finer lines denote changes in organizational structure after
implementation of service learning

In describing the implementation of service learning at Korbet University during

its various stages, study participants centered their discussion on several aspects of the

organizational context, including leadership, organizational structure and support, and

resources. Their comments often reflected the unsettling but challenging experiences that

the introduction of innovation and change can bring to a university campus.

Leadership. In their study on the sustainability of service learning programs, Kolenko, Porter, Wheatley, and Colby (1996) state that "no component of a service learning program is more crucial to its success than a committed leader" (p. 139). "Leadership is about clarifying and enacting the institutional mission, including moving organizations toward their stated objectives in addition to allocating resources, representing the organization to external constituencies and managing organizational planning and change" (Ward, 1996, p. 56).

A contemporary theory of leadership by Spillane and colleagues in 2004 offers a even broader theory of leadership in education. Like others before him, Spillane views leadership as a reflection of his or her environment. According to Spillane, leaders and the activities they perform do not exist in a vacuum but must be considered within their contextual environment. In other words, an analysis of the effectiveness of a leader would be incomplete without also considering the institutional context in which they lead.

Leaders who enact change know that "leadership for change is a group effort" (Hall & Hord, 2001, p. 166). In essence, good leaders implement change effectively within their organizations by understanding their environment, by their willingness to risk the unknown, and by recognizing the importance of "developing many leaders working in concert" (Fullan, 2008, p. 109) to extend their influence throughout the organization.

A committed leader, however, is no guarantee that a new program will succeed and be sustained. In fact, "strong commitment to a particular change may be a barrier to setting up an effective process of change" (Fullan, 1982, p. 82). That is due in part to the notion that a leader who believes his or her vision is the only true path may actually deter

social organizations from embracing change, because in their desire to promote ideas,

overzealous leaders may neglect the realities of implementation (Fullan, 1982).

Prior to the era of service learning, the contextual landscape at Korbet University

reflected a conservative, traditional leadership style and a period of relative calm. For 20

years, from 1969 to 1989, Korbet University had thrived under the administration of Dr.

Norm White. (Note: All names of persons at Korbet University are pseudonyms.) Dr.

White rose through the faculty ranks to become the 39th president of the university and

throughout his tenure, faculty maintained their historic role as educators rather than

leaders. Under President White, Korbet expanded its mission from a normal school to a

comprehensive institution offering over 100 majors, with a special emphasis on allied

health and the arts. In addition, a strategic capital improvement plan transformed the

campus from a regional entity to a statewide presence in both academic research and

liberal arts.

Several chaotic years ensued following Dr. White's retirement, but with the

appointment of President Rob Atkins, order was once again restored to the campus.

Although he may have lacked the political acumen of his predecessor, Dr. Atkins

demonstrated a genuine interest in academic innovation and curriculum design and was

well received by the board of trustees and the faculty. This was evidenced by his close

working relationship with the faculty union (Cole, 2005) and his 6-year tenure at the

university. President Atkins also had a well-honed understanding and appreciation of the

importance of forging connections with the outside community and in his first series of

directives, "reorganized or brought in new staff in University Relations, established a

division of University Advancement…and took firm steps to raise the public image of the college and expand its involvements with external constituencies across the state" (p. 32).

While President Atkins took a forward-moving approach externally, including moving the college to university status, he also attended to internal issues, appointing a provost and associate vice president for academic affairs. Previously, the senior academic management consisted of a vice president for academic affairs, an assistant vice president, and a number of directors. The position of provost elevated academic affairs to the cabinet level, signaling a more important status for faculty at Korbet. The president also took an interest in faculty initiatives and in fact, as one of his first directives, instituted a series of activities designed to develop new academic programs. "In culminating the Stage One planning cycle, President Atkins approved a number of projects for funding, including a proposal to develop and implement a two-year Korbet University Service Learning pilot program" (Service Learning Program, 2000, p. 3). While the service learning proposal was viewed as a faculty initiative, it also met the president's objective to connect the university to the larger community. The legacy of Dr. Atkins's leadership was twofold: supporting faculty initiatives and forging a stronger connection with the surrounding community. The president was true to his word and demonstrated his commitment to both entities by altering the organizational structure and committing resources to support service learning, thereby fostering the "the integration of community service into course curriculum" and "providing benefits to the university and its community" (Service Learning Program, 2000, p. 1).

A number of the study participants believed that President Atkins and his provost were firmly committed to service learning and were key factors in initiating the program

in its early stages. These faculty participants were distinguished from others in that they too had prior leadership experience as academic administrators, either as deans, department chairs, or directors. According to one senior faculty member who had served for many years as a divisional dean:

> Leadership—the administrative leadership for the program. That's got to come from the top—a person who is knowledgeable and shows some enthusiasm for it. It will just not run on its own without leadership. The former president—he personalized service learning; he really did believe in it.

The key administrator, who was chosen to take part in the research because of her leadership role as associate vice president for academic affairs when the program was initiated, also understood the importance of the support and endorsement by the president. In her words:

> As I think about what made it work, one of the key things was the support from the top. Because I think, without that, I don't think any service learning program can really survive. I should have said it earlier but the president was a very, very strong supporter of this program. I mean, it made a big difference.

When people think of leaders, they think of those in formal leadership roles, such as president, dean, or department chair. However, as research on leadership has evolved, it has demonstrated that leadership is not only about formal leadership positions, but about others in the organization who may take on leadership positions as well. Although the leader continues to bear the ultimate responsibility, everyone in the organization who is involved in implementing change may "share the leadership role" (Hall & Hord, 2001, p. 200).

In Birnbaum's view (1988), leaders are mistaken if they believe that they bear the sole responsibility for leadership. According to Birnbaum, leaders must understand that their influence is limited. Although they are an important part of the process, leaders

must learn to depend on others within the organization who can lead effectively. Spillane and colleagues (2004) also recognize that sharing leadership activities with others within the organization is an effective method of broadening a leader's capacity to lead. The notion of leadership, then, is more than an activity performed by one person, but also the "interaction of leaders, followers and their situation" (p. 10).

Therefore, the term *leadership* in this instance is not confined to those at the top, but also includes similar qualities of faculty in other leadership positions who are "well-respected by colleagues" (Hinck & Brandell, 2000, p. 879). The importance of effective campus leadership on a number of levels within the organization cannot be underestimated (Shrader et al., 2008). The commitment of both senior academic officers and faculty leaders in supporting service learning is consistent with the notion that for innovations to succeed, campus entities must complement each other's efforts in supporting change (Spillane et al., 2004). One faculty member who currently serves as an academic program coordinator recognized the number of leaders who were involved in the service learning project at Korbet: "There seemed to be a real, total commitment to the program by the university at all levels from the associate provost up to the president." While participants across all sectors stressed the value and importance of committed, enthusiastic, and sustained leaders, study participants experienced it differently according to their respective roles at the institution. As noted earlier, those who served as academic administrators at some point in their careers viewed leadership as the top cohort such as presidents, provosts, and vice presidents. Study participants in the faculty ranks who actually carried out service learning classes mentioned chief academic officers, but also believed that deans, department chairs, and faculty leaders closer to them in the

administrative chain of command were instrumental in the success of their projects. A

faculty member who taught a very successful service learning section for 1 year

indicated:

> The leadership at the time was the associate vice president and the faculty
> director. They're magnificent leaders. I think without their energetic leadership,
> this would not take off. Well, again, I think it's the leadership. They really are the
> backbone of the service learning.

For the most part, faculty paid less attention to leadership within the

organizational context for service learning while the program was ongoing. Several

participants indicated that while they knew that leaders were present, as long as the

program was running smoothly, additional encouragement wasn't necessary. This is

consistent with the notion that good leaders know to rely not only on direct orders, "but

to provide the illumination needed to permit ongoing organizational processes to

continue" (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 208).

In 2002, after serving as president for 6 years, Dr. Atkins resigned to become

president of the University of Southern Colorado. After a lengthy national search, the

Board of Trustees appointed Dr. Floyd Emerson interim president. President Emerson

served for 2 years and during that time oversaw a downturn in the national and regional

economy, which also impacted the university budget. In fact, "the state of New Jersey

cut the University budget by some $2.1 million over an 18 month period" (Cole, 2005,

p. 65), a fiscal emergency that affected all areas of the university.

Shortly after the departure of Dr. Atkins, the associate vice president for academic

affairs, who had supervised the service learning program and chaired the faculty service

learning advisory board, returned to teach in the Public Administration Department.

Although the original service learning faculty director left to accept a teaching position in

upstate New York after the first year of the program, a new director was appointed from the Department of Criminal Justice. Even though she was well received by both the faculty and administration and was largely responsible for guiding the service learning program document through the faculty senate, the new director's teaching load was not reduced significantly, which limited her leadership capabilities.

When the program began to decline, study participants also viewed leadership as responsible and believed strongly that when the president and others in strategic positions left the university or went back to the faculty, the service learning program lacked the strength to endure. As a consequence, it failed. When the president left, the best intentions of those in leadership positions in the lower ranks were not enough to sustain the program. A senior faculty member who still offers a form of service learning lamented the contrast between the former and current president's view of the initiative and stated: "The former president personalized it; he really did believe in it. The current president, I don't know if he cares." To the faculty member who offered service learning for a year and then went on to serve as an assistant chair, the change in leadership was the obvious reason the program failed. He noted: "Well, again, I think it's the leadership, when the natural leaders or both of the leaders left. Then somehow the energy level was not the same anymore when they left."

Concern for the change in leadership and its negative impact on service learning was expressed at all levels at the institution. As voiced by a study participant:

> There was no serious commitment or there seemed to be no serious commitment by anyone. It just breaks down after a while. So I think that there's really no support either conscious or unconscious. I'm not sure why it is; there's no administrative recognition of the program today.

Another participant noted:

> If there had been a continuing commitment to it, a continuing willingness to bring people together to continue to promote it around campus. You can't just do it and walk away from it and expect to sustain interest. It really wasn't yet institutionalized…and I think it would have had to be in place for 10 or 15 years, with a continuing administrative presence and with a strong administrative support component…

This notion is consistent with research by the RAND Corporation that cites the possible negative consequences to programs like service learning if the leadership changes before programs are fully established (Gray et al., 1999). As the program coordinator of the recreation department explained:

> I think it could be that service learning fell into that change in leadership. Not to make excuses, but if you think about it, you know who the president was then and there was consistency there. We've been through people at that level, at the provost level and then it all changed. It just won't run on its own without leadership.

In the words of the key administrator who went back to the faculty after President Atkins left the university:

> I tend to think that with the change to leadership, there wasn't the same commitment to it; there wasn't the same interest in it. The institutional priorities shifted and I think service learning was just left as something that was just kind of out there on its own. And without the institutional support from the top, I don't see how it could have survived.

In essence, leadership throughout the institution was important to participants regardless of the level of their involvement in service learning. The changes in leadership were viewed by participants as significant in the failure of service learning in that the program was most likely too new an innovation to withstand a lack of continuity at the top.

Organizational structure and support. Both structure and institutional/ administrative support are viewed as critical to the success of service learning (Hinck &

Brandell, 2000). Organizational structure is comprised of those elements put in place by the institution that actually support an innovation like service learning. At Korbet these elements took many forms, including the aforementioned reporting structure, a faculty advisory board, an office and staff liaison dedicated to service learning and professional development. An institution establishes these elements and others like them to insure that an innovation will be implemented. The faculty service learning advisory board, faculty director and staff liaison, and the promise of professional development were important in that they demonstrated to faculty that adequate structural support was in place to ensure that their efforts would be successful.

Faculty interested in developing and offering service learning courses were given ample professional development designed to assist them in their work. In the early stages of program development, faculty attended a workshop on service learning at Pace University. On another occasion, the executive director of CASE at Rutgers University and his assistant met with faculty at Korbet for an entire day and conducted an extensive training session that included discussion and a question-and-answer period. In addition, faculty who had previous experience with similar initiatives held workshops to assist faculty and numerous relevant publications were also made available. Finally, sample syllabi for a number of disciplines and ideas for assessment and reflection were also collected and distributed to interested faculty.

Institutional/administrative support is more difficult to define. It may be that structure is the scaffolding on which an initiative such as service learning is maintained and support is the agency or key personnel that bring the structure to life. Support appears to be best described in relation to structure; for example, the service learning

office (structure) supports service learning by providing community placements for students. These "supportive conditions provide the infrastructure" (Hall & Hord, 2001, p. 199) to promote change and create an environment accepting of innovation.

According to Holland (2000), the dual entities of structure and support are critical to the acceptance of service learning on a particular campus. "Because of its labor-intensive nature and the importance of giving faculty ongoing support in this new pedagogy" (p. 56), such factors must be visible to those considering its implementation. Similarly, Ward (1996) speculates that "the greatest initiatives are doomed if they do not make it into pertinent organizational structures" (p. 63). How well a service learning program is institutionalized and sustained may depend in some measure on the creation of structural entities that support it. According to Chadwick and Pawlowski (2007), "institutional support for service learning is second only to faculty support for service learning in terms of what is the strongest predictor of the institutionalizing of service learning" (p. 31).

When service learning was introduced at Korbet University as a pilot program, the president charged the associate vice president for academic affairs with the day-to-day responsibility of the initiative, under the overall direction of the provost. A faculty director and staff liaison were appointed to the service learning program during the first year and reported to the associate vice president. As noted earlier, the staff liaison provided support for faculty by seeking appropriate partners and "conducting orientation sessions for each service learning class. The sessions were designed to cover a variety of issues that included the structure of the program, information about potential sites, confidentiality and ethics, and liability and insurance" (Service Learning Program, 2000,

p. 5). The staff liaison also responded to individual requests from faculty members for information or support as they developed specific course modules or encountered questions from students or community partners. Conducting faculty training sessions and celebratory gatherings were also part of the staff liaison's responsibility.

The service learning initiative shared office space with the cooperative education/ internship program at Korbet, which was housed on a satellite campus about a quarter of a mile away from the main part of the university. The staff liaison, who also directed cooperative education, was supported by a secretary and a graduate assistant.

As described previously, service learning is defined in this study as a pedagogical innovation where "community service and classroom learning are joined in the academic curriculum" (Strand, 1999, p. 29). Students register for a specific academic course with an added one-credit component that requires them to commit to 40 volunteer hours at a not-for-profit community organization throughout the semester. How much the service learning experience is integrated into course content is at the discretion of individual faculty members and is dependent on whether service learning is required or optional.

The one-credit service learning modules were developed by faculty who were guided by models used on other campuses that were relevant to their particular discipline. Approval for the modules was expedited by allowing departmental and college curriculum committees final approval rather than the all-university curriculum review. Department chairs allowed courses with smaller enrollments to proceed, overriding the usual larger student caps, and faculty members were encouraged to alter their course requirements to accommodate student projects with their community partners.

In these ways both existing and new structures supported the innovation. Existing structures such as the curriculum approval process and student enrollment caps were modified where possible, and new structures such as the faculty service learning advisory board and the reporting structure provided institutional support for service learning.

Of the structures and support put in place by Korbet University, there were two that participants in this study identified and talked about. One was the faculty service learning advisory board and the other one was the outreach conducted by the service learning office and staff liaison.

Study participants recalled that the advisory board was especially helpful to them in working through the new initiative. The chair of the Special Education Department viewed the advisory board as important to her in the development and implementation of service learning. She noted:

> As a member of the advisory group, I remember feeling a great deal of support in that regard. That to me was extremely helpful. It gave me a picture of the program, the full program, so you're not out there alone. It was like a support agency that you'll never find again in your life.

A faculty member in the Biology Department, who was one of the first to be appointed to the advisory board, expressed her appreciation that the board had been formed. She indicated:

> Oh, I mean the support was tremendous. It was great. That was just wonderful, you know, the ideas that the other people gave, how we met—we did meet in an organized way, and we did set up a structure—to achieve so much by this, so much by that day.

One faculty member in the History Department, however, shared an interesting perspective in that he believed that the staff on the advisory board may have been less than receptive to his concerns. As he explained:

Maybe the only issue here was that I recall feeling that though I was, and others, expressing some concern, I didn't feel that it may go anywhere. In other words, I got the sense that you folks had enough on your plate; you didn't want to hear about any more problems or other problems. I just got the sense that, "thank you very much and good luck and I hope we can work this out in the future."

Several study participants viewed the institutional/administrative support of the service learning office and staff liaison as a testament to the viability of the initiative.

According to a faculty member who offered service learning for 1 year:

I think there is no question in my mind that without administrative support, faculty can't function well. I think there was sufficient institutional support. We needed serious administrative support to show the value of service learning.

A faculty member noted:

Well, I think the support of the administration is really very important in any successful service learning. In terms of incentives for faculty participating, and also the structure in terms of there's a full-time coordinator and again some sort of central office on campus where you can go and ask questions if there are problems you encounter along the way.

One faculty member who offered service learning recalled:

The support was great, I mean in terms of, I didn't have to actually look for partners or agencies and nonprofit entities around the area—well, I think the most difficult part of this service learning is to go out there and find participating partners. That really helped a lot. And, without that structure in place, I probably would have given up.

According to a faculty participant who taught service learning for several semesters and then withdrew:

Initially, the support was excellent. The service learning office pre-identified places where we could place students, made initial contacts with those, provided all the forms that need to be filled out, literally did everything but directly supervise the students. In the beginning, that's how it worked and it was excellent.

Although one participant who taught service learning for one semester indicated the support "was adequate for the first year," most made no comment about the structure or the administrative support they received while the program was underway.

As the structure began to falter, study participants made several observations. In the view of a faculty member who taught a popular service learning course:

> There was no serious commitment or there seemed to be no serious commitment by anyone else. It became incredibly half-assed. I don't know if it was laziness, overwork or what…

According to a faculty member who remains interested in service learning and whose department still requires some kind of service learning in its introductory classes, there was no longer any institutional support:

> I don't know if it was institutional or what it was but we didn't get help anymore. I'd get a packet of placements and they hadn't been updated, so the background work wasn't done. There just wasn't that support, especially people whose attention is directed toward that [the program] and whose energy is behind that so they will be in touch with professors lining things up. It just needs to have structure, something that keeps it from falling apart.

At times even faculty with experience conducting service learning courses felt a lack of recognition in their efforts toward the initiative. According to an experienced faculty who was a program coordinator:

> Initially, I think the support was good. I think there was support there. Maybe there was more support in the beginning. But, also, it really is a lot of work and there probably is a better way to set it up. You know, how do you monitor the students better and make sure the students are doing what they need to do and that the quality of what they are doing is good.

A faculty member who ran a successful service learning course on Saturdays at a local community center that paired university students with local elementary school children to enhance their reading skills lamented:

> So, to say I wasn't supported, I don't know that I knew how to access the support. But in terms of there being institutional support that I knew how to access, I would have to say minimal. But the other thing is that I think if it was there, somebody would say, "Well, we have a system so if you can get your piece together, just plug it in." That kind of thing never happened so let me assume it wasn't there.

As service learning began to fail, it became obvious that there were no guarantees of program success. The most well-designed structures, such as the designation of an office and staff liaison and the formation of the faculty advisory board, proved not to be effective when those who supported the structures such as the president and the associate vice president for academic affairs, turned their energy in other directions.

Resources. Regardless of the enthusiasm of the president, chief academic officers, and faculty leaders, innovations such as service learning need resources that reflect a significant level of agreement and commitment across the span of leadership (Spillane et al., 2004). Effective and committed leaders can provide the resources necessary to sustain programs such as service learning and have the power to dedicate "funds that can make or break an innovation" (Morton & Troppe, 1996, p. 27). In fact, "mobilizing resources" (Shrader et al., 2008, p. 29) is key to advancing service learning across campus constituents. Resources can be twofold: one is a financial incentive such as faculty stipends, and the other is the granting of release time, which frees a faculty member from teaching so that more time can be dedicated to program development.

During the first year of service learning, the executive director, who was a member of the Sociology-Social Work Department, was given 12 credits of release time to develop the program. The commitment of a semester's worth of release time allowed the faculty director to assume a leadership role that ensured that the program was ongoing. When the program at Korbet was first initiated, faculty were offered financial incentives in the form of small stipends to develop a service learning course (Laudicina, 1998). In addition, faculty members were given one sixth of a credit for each student who enrolled in service learning within their specific course. This method of funding is

consistent with a previous letter of agreement with the faculty bargaining agent that also

pertained to other types of experiential learning, such as cooperative education and

internships.

Initially, study participants appeared to be somewhat ambivalent in gauging

whether adequate resources had been committed to service learning. While small

benefits were appreciated, there was uncertainty as to whether the resources would

continue to be available. The importance of resource allocation was underscored by one

faculty member in the Recreation Department who noted:

> When a university takes on a project, you have to dedicate the resources to it, and
> I think, you know, whether intentional or unintentional, you find yourself right in
> the middle of it and you think: "I have to put more staff time into this. I'm going
> to have to pay for more—and either you choose to move ahead or you don't.

Another faculty member in the Communications Department reflected on how the

resources had changed: "Initially, the institution was very supportive in terms of financial

resources, in terms of providing lunch for meetings, which is unheard of now."

As noted, the idea of resources can be expanded to include funding for specific

items, such as stipends for faculty and other provisions that may signal affirmation for

service learning. However, at times, it appeared that study participants were unsure about

exactly what type of funding existed. It seemed as if faculty were questioning the value

the institution placed on service learning. As noted by the chair of the Special Education

Department, who was an early proponent of service learning:

> I walked in and I never got the funding. I'm not sure how that worked. But it
> really doesn't matter. But what I did know was that there was that, if I needed that
> bank, there was a possibility of being part of that, having a bank.

The program coordinator of the Recreation Department remarked about the vagueness with which faculty members were compensated in that she said:

> I kind of felt you were left on your own, and really, that's pretty much how it evolved. Maybe there was more support in the beginning. And, the funny thing is, we could never figure out how much you got paid for it—it was a lot of work, so it was kind of weird.

As the service learning program began to decline, study participants came to understand that resources had been less than adequate to sustain the program. As noted by a departmental coordinator: "In all fairness to the program, I think there were resources but I'm not sure we as a program ever reached the right caliber of what service learning should be." At least one study participant linked the change in leadership to the decline in resources: "I think in the context of what happened [change in leadership], there was definitely not the commitment to enough resources to make it work."

Changes in the organizational structure and the allocation of additional resources by academic leaders willing to extend their leadership practices in support of service learning may signal to the campus community that the proposed innovation is important and worthy of further consideration (Spillane et al., 2004). In effect, the changes in the reporting structure at Korbet, the appointment of a faculty director of service learning, and additional resources demonstrated that the program was a significant addition to the university. By the same token, a diminution of these elements was also a signal to the university that the innovation had weakened and was no longer viable.

Faculty Participation in Service Learning at Korbet University

Faculty participation is fundamental to the success of service learning in higher education. Experts tend to agree that "because the implementation of service learning represents a revision of courses in the curriculum or an addition to the curriculum, it falls

under the purview of faculty" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995, p. 112). It is one thing to contemplate changes to structure or organizational context. However, potential change involving faculty touches on their motivations, their values, and their professional identities, which brings the discussion of implementation to a whole new level.

An innovation such as service learning may require specific adjustments on the part of faculty. One significant change required by service learning is that faculty must be willing to relinquish their control over educational methods and share the responsibility of educating and assessing students with community partners who traditionally have not been part of the academic enterprise (Holland, 1999). Service learning is a form of experiential learning, and as such, may be a foreign concept for some faculty who are used to a more structured pedagogy. However, in practice, this type of learning can be beneficial to both faculty and students because classroom goals can be accomplished in "a particular content area while also meeting community needs" (Ward, 2005, p. 220).

The fact that the impetus for the service learning innovation resided among the faculty ranks at Korbet University seemed to make the required changes more palatable, at least in the beginning. As noted earlier, a new faculty member hired in the Sociology Department, with experience in service learning, along with the associate vice president for academic affairs wrote the initial service learning proposal. Subsequently, the proposal was granted pilot status through a university-wide competition sponsored and approved by the president. Once the proposal for service learning was approved, a "call to action" to the general faculty generated an initial response of 20 participants who attended the first informational meeting. By the second meeting the group had expanded

to 25, and the first faculty service learning advisory board meeting resulted in a final tally of 22 individuals, approximately 6% of the total faculty at Korbet University.

To participate in service learning, faculty members had several options from which to choose. They could serve on the faculty service learning advisory board and collaborate on the overall design of the initiative and/or they could teach a service learning module. With few exceptions, faculty chose both options. The advisory board, under the direction of the associate vice president for academic affairs, met extensively throughout the first 2 years of the initiative (Service Learning Program, 2000). They developed procedures and guidelines, created course modules, and sponsored professional development workshops for faculty interested in service learning. Meetings were held informally over lunch and board members took advantage of the opportunity to share strategies and ideas for implementation. "Considerable time and effort was expended on issues such as how to best incorporate service learning into the curriculum, how to evaluate students' participation and how to approach and work with community partners to ensure that each group's goals were met" (Service Learning Program, 2000, p. 4).

As indicated, in addition to their involvement with the advisory board, many faculty also participated by adapting their existing courses to include a fourth credit service learning module. Faculty took advantage of the stipends offered to them through the initial proposal and, in advisement sessions, encouraged students enrolled in their classes to add service learning when they registered for courses. Faculty members participating in service learning represented at least ten disciplines and various academic ranks. Courses were offered in Sociology, Modern Jewish History, and Juvenile Justice

by assistant professors and Statistics, Public Relations, Recreation, and Social Work by associate professors. In some cases more than one service learning course was offered by an academic department. Student placements varied according to discipline and course objectives and faculty members availed themselves of over 100 community partners who were recruited to participate in the program by faculty, the staff liaison, and students. As a consequence, projects were wide-ranging. These included partnering with the local community food bank, working on the restoration of two former synagogues in Newark, and assisting in writing materials and press releases for local nonprofit organizations such as the Liberty Hall Museum in Elizabeth and the Sharing Network, which was part of Union Hospital.

As the most important entity among the four constituencies that participate in service learning (institution, faculty, students, and community) (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996), faculty and their perceptions are key to understanding the program at Korbet. Throughout the interview process faculty talked about the stages of involvement they experienced, from their initial motivation to the programmatic challenges they faced and finally to the ultimate realization that service learning as they had originally envisioned it might not be sustainable at Korbet University.

Faculty motivation. Through the interview process, it became obvious that faculty members chose to participate in the service learning initiative for a variety of reasons. For some participants, service learning was a good fit for their discipline. As described by a faculty member in a service-oriented discipline:

> Our social work code of ethics, it actually states that we talk about our volunteer experiences and the importance of giving back to the community. And part of it is to train students in the area of service. And so for us, it's nice. It's a beautiful fit. It's what education should be.

One faculty member in the Biology Department viewed service learning from an almost purely disciplinary stance. She noted:

> The students in my course were pre-PT [physical therapy]. So I figured, wow, this is great, because they had to show that they did so many hours of volunteer work and they could do this within a course. And I figured, wow, what a great way for them [students] to look at a clinical aspect of anatomy and physiology; so it just seemed to fit.

Other faculty participants were motivated by what appeared to be strong personal convictions based on their individual value structures or the sense that as the academic elite, "they see themselves as having a responsibility to apply their knowledge toward the betterment of society" (Holland, 1999, p. 37). As attested by one participant, "I'm a natural do-gooder and I think that it's very important for people to volunteer and I think that supporting that is a good thing."

Another participant indicated that she came from a tradition of service to the community. She explained: "I have always done something, you know, I mean as a college student I was in a sorority and we were very much a service-oriented group of people so I've always done that."

Several data excerpts from the present study reflected a combination of disciplinary and/or personal motivation. A faculty member who still requires community service in her classes stated:

> We are to be of service. We are to look and advocate for social justice. I think we're talking about the whole of the human experience, of really working with other people and utilizing your knowledge and skills to work with populations of all types and sizes and whatever they're doing in service learning gets brought right back in [to the classroom].

A public relations faculty participant who conducted some of the most popular service learning courses early on in the program cited her motivation as:

I was motivated because I believe in community involvement for students and one of the goals of our department is a lifelong commitment to community service among our students. So it fit nicely into one of our goals that we have in the department for our students.

In her research on faculty motivation, Holland (1999) indicates that faculty are most comfortable in the curricular/pedagogical "environment" (p. 39) and may gain a better understanding of service learning when applying it to pedagogical initiatives within their discipline. Several faculty participants expressed an interest in infusing the new pedagogy into their classes. As noted by a history professor who remained skeptical about the program throughout his participation:

We all look for ways of teaching, getting the materials across to students who are finding reading to be a bit of a burden, to bring it alive, I guess. And, since I'm in a Jewish kind of historical world, there's a lot of opportunities to do that. I do look for other ways of engaging students in the material, pedagogically, definitely.

Another faculty member expressed her excitement about service learning in this way:

In my mind it connected an experience, an outside experience and a learning experience for students with the course I was teaching. So it was a natural extension of that course. For me, I thought service learning made it closer to making it work for them [students] than the classroom experience alone.

The key administrator acknowledged that her motivation came from more than one source. She indicated that the CASE experience was her inspiration but she also noted:

I've always been interested in experiential learning, getting students out of the classroom and getting them involved in actually doing something that has value. So I think there was a convergence of experiences that led me to think that service learning would be a wonderful adjunct to the classroom and to other kinds of things we're doing at the university.

As stated earlier, the institution offered incentives in the form of small stipends for course development and one sixth of a credit for each student enrolled in service learning (Laudicina, 1998). However, a blend of disciplinary, personal, and pedagogical factors, rather than monetary gains, appeared to be the motivating forces that led faculty members at Korbet University to risk the unknown and offer service learning to their students. It was also evident that "different factors were of greater importance to different faculty and different disciplines" (Holland, 1999, p. 38). For example, social work faculty stressed the importance of "social justice" and the "human experience," while a faculty member in public relations highlighted "community service." The key administrator, representing upper academic management, was most able to synthesize the combined motivation of individual values and "professional objectives" (p. 38). This may be, in part, because of her prior experience with experiential learning.

Whatever the motivation, as can be seen in Table 2, faculty participation began to increase by the fall of 1999 and continued to grow throughout the early part of the decade.

**Table 2. Faculty and Student Participation in Service Learning,
Korbet University, 1999-2009**

Semester	SL Courses	Students
Fall, 1999	4	83
Spring, 2000	4	73
Fall, 2000	5	64
Spring, 2001	7	50
Fall, 2001	9	59
Spring, 2002	16	74
Fall, 2002	12	65
Spring, 2003	15	40
Fall, 2003	12	61
Spring, 2004	13	22
Fall, 2004	10	59

Semester	SL Courses	Students
Spring, 2005	15	51
Fall, 2005	8	35
Spring, 2006	6	40
Fall, 2006	8	35
Spring, 2007	7	67
Fall, 2007	7	20
Spring, 2008	8	56
Fall, 2008	7	37
Spring, 2009	5	21
Fall, 2009	4	7

Academic offerings in service learning increased incrementally and by the spring

of 2002, 16 faculty had posted service learning courses, highlighted by a special page in

the registration bulletin. The program also appeared to reach its highest point in terms of

student enrollment at that time, which was the last semester the program was fully staffed

by a faculty director and staff liaison. However, from the fall of 2005 forward, faculty

offerings and student enrollment slowly declined, with the exception of one course in

social work and one in occupational therapy that were in place to satisfy national

accreditation standards and would have run regardless of service learning.

Faculty challenges. Although the small but steady increase in course offerings

during the early years of the program demonstrated that service learning was taking hold,

by the fifth year the trend began to reverse itself. From that point forward, the declining

number of course offerings seemed to signal that faculty were beginning to question the

institution's ongoing commitment to service learning. The interviews revealed that

faculty members were clearly concerned about the institution's responsiveness in areas

such as tenure and promotion, logistical issues, and communication.

Institutional responsiveness. At least two study participants used the phrase

"flavor of the month" in talking about service learning as one of the trends that descend

on the university and then get forgotten in a year or two with the introduction of a new initiative. As one participant noted:

> So you know, there's a lot of things and then they're gone. It's not unique to us especially in academia; there's lots of trends that come in and all of a sudden people are doing new things and all this kind of stuff and then two years later the next trend comes in and—you know, how do you provide that consistency?

At some point, certain events began to hint of a possible decline in the institution's responsiveness to service learning. As noted earlier, key people who had been put in place to support service learning either left the institution or transferred back to faculty. In the spring of 2002, the associate vice president for academic affairs returned to faculty, the faculty director accepted a position at another institution, and the staff liaison retired. These personnel changes did not go unnoticed.

Faculty tenure and promotion. "Systems of rewards, as in promotion and tenure guidelines" (Holland, 1999, p. 38) are important considerations for faculty considering involvement in service learning. Whether service is weighted evenly with teaching and research is a challenge to ongoing participation by faculty. Faculty need to know that promotion committees recognize "the scholarly value of public service" (p. 38). Several study participants had different viewpoints on whether service learning was recognized in the faculty reward process at Korbet.

The key administrator was emphatic in her opinion that "when the president and the vice president looked at folders, whether it was for retention or promotion, doing service learning was an important part of service to the university." A seasoned advocate for service learning disagreed with the key administrator's assessment and noted that "it would be one thing if service learning counted for anything. But it doesn't—not scholarly research or promotion or retention. It doesn't matter."

Another study participant was equally insistent that the president was less than responsive to her commitment to service learning. In the president's opinion, her community service did not measure up to his expectations. This is in light of the fact that the president actually recruited her to assist in the development of all aspects of a community project. In her words:

> I thought it would at least be recognized because of the nature of my having to carve it out, to creating it, to putting the pieces together Saturday after Saturday to make sure we had a program we could be proud of.

Logistical issues. Although ill-defined by most service learning researchers, logistical issues pertain to those elements that actually make the program work. As faculty began to perceive that the institutional responsiveness to service learning was unstable, logistical aspects, such as the support of the service learning office and the staff liaison, became the focus of their frustration. In the view of one faculty member who was unable to find students to participate in her course:

> We offered it several semesters but it really was a paper offering. And I guess service learning is very labor intensive. We're all too busy for it just to happen spontaneously, just because you want it to. If it's going to succeed in any institution, it needs to be thoroughly institutionalized so that there is a service learning office and someone in charge of making sure this and this happens.

Issues such as the time the program would require seemed to become a barrier to participating in the initiative, and faculty believed such a commitment might usurp valuable time they needed for other responsibilities, such as research or publications. Comments such as "it really is a lot of work," "it's hard," "it was a lot more work than I thought," and "it was demanding of my time" reflect the concern study participants shared about the time they thought they needed to carry out service learning activities (Holland, 1999, p. 38).

Even though monetary rewards were not seen as primary motivators, once the logistical commitment by the institution became uncertain, faculty believed that the amount of work required to participate did not equate with the perceived rewards. Comments such as "there was no additional pay for that," "we do need more than one credit," or "it wasn't worth it; for no money or one credit worth of money, I'm not going to put the number of hours in that it would have required" were evidence to faculty that the amount of work involved may not have matched the benefits.

Communication. Another possible reason faculty participation declined may have had to do with a possible disconnect in communication or by the feeling on the part of faculty that their questions weren't properly addressed, especially as the program became threatened. As noted earlier, at least one faculty member believed that only lip service was given to hearing him out, and that faculty in general may have been given less than adequate opportunities to voice their concerns. As he expressed:

> I remember going to many of these organizing meetings and giving what I thought was important feedback and my only recollection is in the wrap-up process. That seemed to be a little weak, because here we are expressing what's going on around here and you guys were saying okay, we hear you, and then it seemed like that was about it.

Communication problems may also have been part of the reason faculty were unaware of the resources that were available to them. As a faculty member noted, "Maybe it [logistical assistance] was there but I just didn't know how to access it." One of the primary responsibilities of the office of service learning and the staff liaison was to communicate with faculty, students, and the community about the service learning initiative (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996) and what the university could provide in terms of assistance. Communication between this office and the various constituencies may have

been less than effective, and faculty have a right to expect clear communication (Holland, 1996) when working their way through the responsibilities of taking on a new initiative. Following initial correspondence, such as the letter from the associate vice president for academic affairs announcing the program and contracts for student enrollment each semester, formal contact with faculty participants was limited to a yearly memo from the provost, thanking faculty for their commitment to service learning and emphasizing the importance of the initiative to the campus community (Provost Letter to Faculty, 2000, 2001, 2004).

As noted earlier, when meetings of the advisory board became irregular, even opportunities for informal communication disappeared. As noted by a faculty participant, "We used to meet periodically as the faculty involved [in the initiative] and share what our students were doing. That kind of thing was good." The key administrator seemed to understand the importance of outreach to faculty when she said:

> There needs to be a continuing encouragement, because basically simply having it available to faculty isn't enough. There has to be outreach and it has to be done on a regular basis and it has to be continuing and frankly, I think that's why it didn't work here. That once that energy, that enthusiasm, the willingness to keep encouraging faculty to do it, the willingness to meet with faculty—once that's gone, it just dies. It has to be continuously prodded.

Unless concerns are properly aired and addressed on a regular basis, faculty may feel that they are less than prepared in an area in which they may already feel some degree of insecurity. Comments made by respondents during the interviews reaffirmed the importance of ongoing dialogue with those involved in the program because when they felt left out of the information cycle, they became further discouraged with the program.

Program Decline

> But then things changed. People changed. The president left, the vice president [for academic affairs] left, and all the people who had been behind the project, supporting it were gone. You can't just do it and walk away from it and expect to sustain that interest. It really wasn't yet institutionalized and I really think it would have had to have been in place for 10 or 15 years. I really think so. It died because of lack of nurturing.

The above statement by the key administrator highlights her views on the reasons for the downward trajectory of the service learning program at Korbet University. In fact, more than any other single factor, "lack of appropriate nurturance may inhibit the growth of service learning" (Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007, p. 42) in program implementation.

As much as the faculty in the initial stages of the service learning program were keenly involved, as the program matured, faculty began to withdraw their overall participation. As noted earlier, although faculty continued to post their courses in the registration bulletin, their cohort began to decline and student participation became uneven so that by the fifth year of the program, only two courses consistently had enrollment: the courses required by the national standards committee in social work and occupational therapy. A faculty member who was active in service learning and continued to offer service learning courses well after others withdrew described what he thought occurred:

> In the beginning, it was attached to an office and then I don't even know what happened to it. There is no evidence of any support or anything like that. And now there's no faculty, and to my knowledge, no faculty support. It's still listed in the bulletin but there's no faculty.

Summary

In effect, the institution continued to act as if the program was in place when, in reality, it was not. And so the program had lost its impetus to continue. It has been noted that in academia, programs are difficult to initiate and just as difficult to discontinue or dissolve. In this instance, it would seem that service learning at Korbet University wasn't discontinued so much as, in the words of a study participant, "it just faded away."

In the fifth chapter I begin to draw implications from the findings that probe more deeply into why the service learning program failed at Korbet University. Study limitations and concluding remarks are also part of the final chapter.

Chapter 5

Discussion

The academic mission is "to advance, preserve and transmit knowledge" (Saltmarsh, 2007, p. 69). However, how this mission is accomplished often creates a tension between "theory and practice and between teaching and research" (Stanton, 1991, p. 58) on college and university campuses. The interest in service learning in the academy is an effort to bridge the tension between theory and practice in a way that advances the goals of the academy. As described earlier, service learning in higher education is a form of experiential learning in that it combines "authentic public-service activities" (Furco, 2002, p. 39) with course content. While not new in higher education, such programs are enjoying a revival of sorts and have achieved a new vibrancy with President Obama's renewed support of service learning opportunities.

Academicians have been introduced to service learning as a way to combine the traditional academic goals of "critical thinking and intellectual excellence" (Stanton, 1991, p. 57) with active learning and the added benefit of joining with community forces to address contemporary problems in our society. However, as service learning represents a different approach to teaching, learning, and the work of the academy, the implementation of such programs within institutions of higher education poses some challenges. This study sought to understand these implementation issues by examining the failure of a service learning program at an institution in the northeastern part of the United States.

In this final chapter, I examine the findings of this study to consider why it is that the service learning program at this university failed, despite the resurgence of similar

programs across the state and the country. To do this, I first review the methodology I used to investigate the demise of service learning at Korbet University. I then discuss the key findings in relation to the literature. Finally, I highlight the limitations of the study as well as implications for future research and practice.

Overview of the Study

Faculty participation is key to the success of service learning programs, in part because they are "interpreters" of the university's goals and responsible for relating students' experiences to their academic disciplines (Stanton, 1991, p. 63). The original purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine, from the perspective of faculty, the relationship between organizational context, their own participation in service learning, and the ultimate decline of the service learning program at Korbet University. The three central research questions in this study were (1) How do faculty members describe their participation in the service learning program at Korbet University? (2) How do faculty members describe the organizational context for service learning at Korbet University? and (3) From the faculty descriptions, what contributed to the failure of service learning at Korbet University? What also emerged, however, was a picture of the impact of organizational innovation and change in higher education.

This qualitative case study utilized interviews and document review as the primary investigative strategies. The data sample included 14 members of the faculty service learning advisory board and one administrator. Interview sessions, lasting approximately 90 minutes, were held with members of the advisory board and the sessions were audiotaped. In allowing their voices to be included in the case study, faculty provided more than 300 pages of evidence. In addition to the interviews, over 24

documents were catalogued, reviewed, and summarized as part of the data record. Memos and other contextual information, such as past issues of the university magazine, registration bulletins, and previous catalogs, were also reviewed and filed by subject and date.

To analyze the data record, I progressed through a number of phases. After reading the evidence, I divided the data according to the first two research questions, which resulted in two large categories: organizational context and faculty participation. I then read and reread the data organized in each of these large categories to look for pre-identified codes drawn from the literature (e.g., leadership, organizational structure, institutional support) and to begin to determine a response to the third research question on programmatic failure. I then created separate documents for each additional code I identified under all three categories that responded to my research questions. I further refined this coding scheme by reading through the data within each code and further dividing them into smaller units of analysis or subcodes. When the entire data record had been coded in this way, I then searched for relationships across the codes to build themes to answer the research questions. Finally, I compiled data selections to illuminate these themes in relation to each research question. To validate my findings, data in selected codes or subcodes were triangulated across study participants. I also conducted member checks to ensure that the data I had gathered reflected what the participants had intended.

Why Service Learning Failed at Korbet University

The current case study resonates with the work of Fullan (1991), Spillane et al. (2004), and others about the process of organizational change in education. These advocates argue that rather than the innovative stage, it is the phase of implementing or

continuing a new program that typically leads to its demise. The history of the service

learning program at Korbet underscores the importance of the implementation stage in

organizational change. The service learning program began in 1999 and by the fall 2005

semester, while it appeared that the program at Korbet was well established, in reality it

was viable in name only. The end of service learning at Korbet University confirms

Fullan's notion that "one can succeed in the short term in establishing an exciting,

innovative school [or program], only to find that it doesn't last" (1991, p. 90).

The findings in this study suggest that the failure of service learning at Korbet

University can be attributed to several interrelated factors affecting programmatic

implementation. These factors include leadership, organizational structure and

communication, and institutional support and resources.

Leadership / organizational structure and communication. In contemporary

organizational theory, leadership is more than just the activities of a positional leader.

"Leadership practice is [also] stretched over organizational structures" (Spillane et al.,

2004, p. 26). These structures are not passive elements but active representations of a

leader's actions and his or her ability to spread influence across the organization.

Structures are elements that "may facilitate action" (p. 22) and by extending their

influence through these structures, leaders may enlist participants to maintain a

commitment to an innovation.

Service learning at Korbet University began as the vision of the new president

and, through his initiative, organizational structures were set in place to ensure that a

commitment to service learning was transmitted across the institution. These structures

included a revision in the reporting hierarchy that charged the associate vice president for

academic affairs with the overall responsibility of service learning, the appointment of a faculty director, an office of service learning, and the faculty service learning advisory board. While all participants recognized the importance of the vision of the president who initiated service learning at Korbet, it was the faculty service learning advisory board that seemed to be of most importance. The board represented a reciprocal structure that reflected the goals of the leadership but also enabled ongoing interaction between leaders and the faculty, working together toward the common goal of programmatic implementation. Faculty participants reported that they enjoyed the collegial learning aspect of the board meetings and the opportunity to share their collective experiences. This was especially meaningful in that faculty with experience in experiential and service learning were able to assist other colleagues in the finer points of the new pedagogy. Through their membership on the board, faculty participants also had access to the leadership. In response to encouragement by the leadership and an understanding of their responsibilities in the new initiative, faculty offered service learning courses and students enrolled in them.

However, what is joined together can also be disconnected, in that by neglect or design, leaders, in the form of "administration and management" (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 26) can actually "de-couple" (p. 26) or remove themselves and their influence from elements they created within the organization. At Korbet, a shift in leadership appeared to cause a chain reaction that affected a number of organizational structures within the institution in a relatively short period of time, all of which impacted negatively on the service learning program.

First, the associate vice president for academic affairs returned to the faculty ranks, which meant that the program's designated leader was no longer present. Second, the faculty director moved to another institution, and the newly hired director, who was less experienced, was granted fewer hours of release time to dedicate to the administration and facilitation of the service learning program. Finally, the faculty service learning advisory board went from meeting regularly to meeting only periodically and then not at all. This gave faculty little opportunity to communicate with leaders and their peers.

Because of the changes in organizational structure, communication began to break down. Study participants reported lacking knowledge about available programmatic or logistical supports. They also reported feeling frustrated that their concerns were not properly addressed, in part because they were not sure to whom to address their concerns. When the advisory board stopped meeting on a regular basis, faculty lost the remaining lines of communication with leaders and each other. As a result, feelings of isolation and confusion were prominent in the responses of study participants.

In effect, the de-coupling triggered by the leadership change impacted faculty participants in all areas of their involvement in service learning in that it distanced them from elements in the organizational structure they had depended on. In this manner, faculty participants found themselves in the unfortunate position of being disconnected from the leadership before they had a full understanding of how to carry out their responsibilities in the new initiative.

Thus, initially it seemed that organizational structures enabled distributive leadership and shared authority. However, when the leadership moved on, the structures

and authority that had "constituted" (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 22) service learning as a viable program were undermined.

Institutional support and resources. Implementation of any initiative is also affected by the kinds of supports and resources provided by an organization. In fact, insufficient resources can doom the entire effort (Hall & Hord, 2001). At Korbet, a number of supports and resources were provided that included stipends to the faculty, release time for the faculty director, and professional development. A major institutional support was the service learning office, whose main role was to provide outreach to the community and assist with student placements for the service learning components of classes. However, with the changes in leadership that took place by the fourth year of program implementation, the office of service learning was no longer able to provide the level of support faculty had come to expect. The idea of having to generate initial contacts with potential community agencies and verifying information for each student placement affected their ongoing participation in the service learning program.

The allocation of resources also has a sequential quality during implementation of an innovation in that resources often must proceed through a series of steps before they reach the intended target and benefit that portion of the program important to participants. With respect to the service learning program at Korbet University, the idea of incorporating service into the retention and tenure process was important to study participants. However, before this could occur, leaders had to allocate resources for course development and faculty lines, the faculty director had to be granted release time for program coordination, curriculum committees had to approve courses, faculty had to be compensated for teaching courses, and students had to enroll. In effect, inclusion of

service in the retention and tenure process was dependent "upon resources generated from prior tasks' (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 17) and a disconnect at any of these junctures prevented resource allocation in the very areas faculty deemed as most important to their ongoing participation.

Because the faculty at Korbet University were already committed to the program, activities had begun with the prospect that resources would follow in due time. However, resources never reached the retention and tenure process and faculty, who understood that recognition for service was not forthcoming and probably wouldn't be in the foreseeable future, gradually began to withdraw their participation.

To summarize, in seeking to implement organizational changes required by the service learning initiative, leadership was extended to include shared authority, organizational structure, institutional support, and resources. And yet, as demonstrated above, when withdrawn by a change in leadership or by the decision of a new leader, the very elements established to ensure that the program was implemented contributed to its failure.

Implications

Several implications can be drawn from this study that other institutions interested in starting up a service learning program may find helpful.

When considering service learning on a particular campus, efforts might be made to think more strategically about extending leadership activities across the organization, in effect to set up additional layers to protect the ongoing implementation of a service learning program. Attention might be given to creating an organization that depends on more than one leader so that those responsibilities are distributed among a number of

levels to sustain the innovation until it becomes institutionalized. This becomes especially important if leaders move on to other assignments without providing a legacy, as was the case at Korbet. Those seeking to implement their own service learning initiative might want to consider carefully how to distribute leadership resources among faculty leaders. As Spillane et al. (2004) would argue, these leaders may not have formal "positional" (p. 19) lines of authority, but they are the facilitators of an innovation because they actually "take on the tasks" (p. 11) of an innovation and, in doing so, are invaluable to formal leaders.

Another way to distribute leadership might be to consider organizing a planning group very early in the process so that interested faculty, administrators, staff, and community leaders could develop recommendations for senior academic management concerning how to best "execute the critical first steps" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 225) of program design, structure, and institutional support. The faculty service learning advisory board at Korbet grew out of a similar planning group and served to support faculty on many levels. The board met regularly to develop and recommend policies and, most importantly, provided a forum for faculty to reflect on their experiences with the new initiative. As noted earlier, the advisory board served as a vital link between leaders and participants, and its dissolution was an irrevocable setback for the program.

Similarly, a distributive leader contemplating an innovation such as service learning might also wish to develop a collective vision so that participants share a unified model of how the innovation will evolve. Developing and communicating a common language for service learning is an important part of such a vision and an element that study respondents cited as problematic at Korbet in terms of program sustainability.

Communication issues at Korbet University were twofold: inadequate communication prevented participants from knowing what was available to them in terms of support, and study participants believed that their comments and concerns were not properly addressed. Whether it is in the mission statement, through a dedicated website, a weekly newsletter, or a regular e-mail message to faculty, ongoing communication is critical to the success of a service learning program. Such consistency keeps the vision in the forefront and educates and informs participants so they recognize that they are an integral part of the process and are knowledgeable in spreading the word to other interested colleagues.

The importance of ongoing and sustained support for faculty is another of the more critical outcomes emanating from this case study. Korbet University did have support for faculty participants in the beginning, but it was not sustained. For example, faculty with experience in service learning shared their expertise with their colleagues at the onset of the service learning program. However, these sessions were not continued and did not carry over after the first several years of the program. For those considering undertaking a service learning program, sessions might be made available to both faculty and administrators so they can understand the system requirements of service learning, such as credit attached to an existing course and smaller class enrollment. These experiences are especially welcomed by faculty if they include stipends (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996), which did not occur at Korbet.

Enhancing faculty support also includes helping faculty connect their service learning experiences to the faculty reward process. This issue was especially important to faculty at Korbet University, who believed that including service in retention and

tenure was vital to their ongoing participation in the initiative. For many faculty involved in service learning initiatives, "the relevance to their scholarly agenda is not immediately clear to them" (Holland, 1999, p. 39). Several problems tend to exacerbate the notion of service in the tenure and promotion process. One issue may be in defining the term, in that "service has been, is, and will likely remain the least regarded and most ill defined of the traditional tripartite faculty role [teaching, research and service]" (Schnaubelt & Statham, 2007, p. 29). The other problem involves the notion that the idea of service is hard to conceptualize and "a difficult activity to evaluate" (p. 24), which would make the task of including service learning a challenge to retention and tenure committees. One way around this tension would be to assist faculty in setting up a research plan so their writing and research might reflect their work in service learning. The ability to translate their service learning experiences into research within their particular discipline may provide faculty with materials worthy of submission in the tenure and promotion process or to scholarly publications.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study is limited in two ways. First, this was a case study of one institution located in one state in the northeastern United States. Although the exploration of a "bounded phenomena in education" (Hatch, 2002, p. 30) was appropriate and outcomes were consistent with the literature, a number of findings are unique to Korbet University and not transferable to other settings. The study would have been strengthened by comparing the data with those of other colleges and universities that have been successful or unsuccessful in institutionalizing service learning. Of special interest would be conversations with faculty and administrators from institutions in the state with similar

collective bargaining constraints, governance hierarchies, and student populations so that studying these issues at other institutions and how they have been resolved would provide additional insights on the program at Korbet University. Future researchers might conduct a study of institutions that are currently implementing successful service learning programs to compare key issues they have in place that have enabled their service learning program to survive.

A second limitation pertains to the sample chosen for this study. The study of the service learning program and its failure was limited to the recollections of 14 faculty members and one administrator involved in the first 6 years of the initiative. As the program is no longer viable, study participants had to rely on the recollections of their past experiences. Although every effort was made to validate study respondents' perceptions with documentary evidence, the data sample was still restricted by the memories of a small number of faculty. Moreover, as this study has demonstrated, implementing service learning involves much more than faculty. Service learning programs involve administrators, community programs where students carry out their service learning, and students. The current study would have benefited with the inclusion of the perspective of these stakeholders, especially the students who participated in the program.

To address these limitations, more descriptive and detailed case studies of service learning are needed from the perspective of multiple stakeholders. One special area of interest would be additional studies from the perspective of "community partners about their experiences in partnering with academic institutions" (Sandy & Holland, 2006, p. 30). As they are direct providers of community/student interactions, the views of

community partners would serve to enhance an understanding of service learning outside the academy.

Conclusion

Despite the limitations described earlier and the need for future research, this study is significant in part because it is based on issues surrounding programmatic decline and failure rather than success. A number of research studies highlight strategies for successful service learning programs, but discussions on why programs decline or do not reach the institutionalization stage are less readily available. This study is also noteworthy because it tried to understand from those involved in the program what went wrong. Understanding the impact of service learning on faculty participation and organizational context and how those issues affect programmatic success or failure "is helpful in understanding implementation issues surrounding service learning" (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001, p. 149).

One might question why anyone would still be interested in pursuing service learning after so much time has lapsed and after such a disappointing outcome to the program. One of the best responses to that question came out of the 2002 National Survey for Student Engagement. In outlining the benefits of service learning for students, the survey indicated *"such experiences make learning more meaningful and ultimately more useful because what students know becomes a part of who they are"* (Saltmarsh, 2007, p. 69). One cannot ask for any more from the educational enterprise.

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