

Introduction

Service learning is an educational approach in which students use knowledge and skills learned in the classroom when engaged in activities with community partners. Service learning projects can cover a wide range of activities, such as helping the homeless, tutoring children, developing informational materials (e.g., brochures), evaluating the efficacy of an organization's services, conducting research in support of social reform, and promoting awareness of social issues, such as domestic violence. Service learning is more than applied learning; it is "the integration of academic material, relevant service activities, and critical reflection in a reciprocal partnership that engages students, faculty, staff, and community members to achieve academic, civic, and personal [growth] learning objectives as well as to advance public purposes" (Bringle & Clayton, 2012, p. 105).

The integration of service learning and psychology was explored in *With Service in Mind: Concepts and Models for Service Learning in Psychology*

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Service Learning in Psychology: Enhancing Undergraduate Education for the Public Good, by R. G. Bringle, R. N. Reeb, M. A. Brown, and A. I. Ruiz

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(Bringle & Duffy, 1998), the sixth volume in the American Association for Higher Education's monograph series "Service-Learning in the Disciplines" (Zlotkowski, 2000). Building on that work, many practitioners in the field have adopted the concept of the *psychologically literate citizen* to describe the ideal graduate who has received a full undergraduate education in psychology: "Psychologically literate citizenship describes a way of being, a type of problem solving, and a sustained ethical and socially responsive stance towards others" (Halpern, 2010, p. 21). McGovern et al. (2010) described the psychologically literate citizen as "someone who responds to the call for ethical commitment and social responsibility as a hallmark of his or her lifelong liberal learning" (p. 10). The vision for the psychologically literate citizen is an important statement for framing the centrality and value of civic development, civic learning, and civic outcomes in a way that is integrated into the undergraduate psychology curriculum. We posit that service learning is the best tool for developing psychologically literate citizens.

Along these lines, American Psychological Association (APA) educational initiatives have advocated for the inclusion of service learning in the undergraduate psychology curriculum as a means to develop the civic outcomes of students and to enhance academic learning and personal development (e.g., Halpern, 2010; McGovern et al., 2010; Reich & Nelson, 2010). To achieve this goal, service learning has to be more prevalent and intentional throughout the curriculum. This volume provides a guide for realizing this goal. We explore how service learning can enhance the undergraduate psychology curriculum in distinctive ways to produce students who are prepared to use their education to the benefit of others. We review the theory, research, and practice of service learning and link it to undergraduate psychology courses, both introductory courses and more advanced courses for those majoring in psychology. We also provide sample project designs and assignments and discuss implementation strategies.

This volume is intended to contribute to the work of those who teach psychology courses and are motivated to enrich the undergraduate learning experience for both majors and nonmajors, for those who are involved in curricular revision and faculty development activities, and for those who

teach courses in cognate disciplines. APA's work on psychological education has been directed at various levels of education: high schools, 2-year institutions, 4-year institutions, graduate education programs, postgraduate education programs, and continuing education programs. Although we propose that service learning is relevant to all levels of education, we have chosen to focus on the undergraduate psychology curriculum in this volume. The material presented here can easily be adapted to other levels of education.

In the remainder of this introduction, we present a broad overview of service learning, including its benefits and defining components, rationales for pursuing it, and its efficacy. We conclude with a synopsis of the chapters in the book.

BENEFITS OF SERVICE LEARNING IN UNDERGRADUATE PSYCHOLOGY

The *APA Guidelines for the Undergraduate Psychology Major* (Version 2.0; 2013; hereafter referred to as APA Guidelines 2.0), approved by the APA Council of Representatives in 2013, identifies five goals (knowledge base in psychology, scientific inquiry and critical thinking, ethical and social responsibility in a diverse world, communication, and professional development), indicators for subordinate outcomes (see Appendix A) at the foundational level (early courses in the curriculum) and at the baccalaureate level, and personal attributes for successful demonstration of outcomes. These recent developments laid a solid foundation for an expansion of the undergraduate psychology curriculum as a basis for “doing psychology,” for developing “psychological literacy,” and for connecting psychology to communities.

Others acknowledge that service learning is a significant pedagogical means for advancing the learning of undergraduates in the United States (Halpern, 2010) and internationally (Bringle, Hatcher, & Jones, 2011; Cranney & Dunn, 2011). Too often, the focus is only on developing social responsibility. However, service learning can also enhance many other learning outcomes put forth by the APA Guidelines 2.0, as we explore

in this volume. Although there are several high-impact pedagogies (Kuh, 2008) and alternative pedagogies for reaching learning goals (e.g., collaborative inquiry, project-based learning, integrative learning, research), we contend that service learning is the best pedagogical means for developing civic learning for the public good among undergraduate students, and we invite researchers to evaluate this assertion. In addition, service learning can enrich academic learning and students' personal growth in a manner aligned with all the goals and many of the indicators in the APA Guidelines 2.0.

Civic learning could occur by having students take courses in other disciplines (e.g., political science, philosophy, public affairs, government), but we posit that civic learning that is integrated in the undergraduate psychology curriculum better serves psychology undergraduate students, both majors and the large number of nonmajors enrolled in psychology courses. More fully integrating service learning across all levels of the psychology curriculum by making it pervasive and expected will not only enrich academic learning, civic learning, and personal growth (Ash & Clayton, 2009a, 2009b; The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement, 2012) but will also develop the civic aspirations of students and promote their subsequent behavior as psychologically literate citizens in ways that contribute to the public good. Our analysis will also establish the empirical base for justifying the use of service learning, but Reich and Nelson (2010) summarized well that evidence when they concluded that a "basic reason for bringing socially responsive knowledge and service learning pedagogy into our curriculum is that in many situations they simply are a more successful way to reach our students" (p. 142).

DEFINING COMPONENTS: THE NATURE OF SERVICE LEARNING

Civic Engagement

Figure 1 illustrates how the traditional functions of the academy (i.e., teaching, research, service) can occur in the community as well as on campus. Courses can be delivered to off-campus sites in communities, researchers

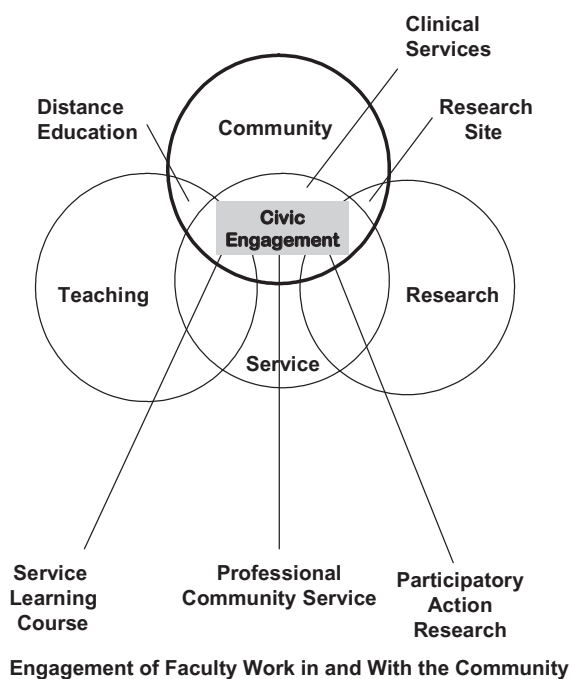


Figure 1

Civic engagement as faculty work in the community. From *Colleges and Universities as Citizens* (p. 5), by R. G. Bringle, R. Games, and E. A. Malloy (Eds.), 1999, Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon. Copyright 1999 by Allyn & Bacon. Adapted with permission.

can collect data in communities, and faculty can share professional expertise in communities. In addition, Figure 1 shows that these three areas can overlap; the intersections of (a) teaching, research, and service and (b) teaching and research can occur both on campus and in the community, although they are not shown in this diagram. Community involvement, then, is teaching, research, and/or service (and their intersections) that takes place in the community. Community involvement activities are defined by place; they can occur in all sectors of society (e.g., nonprofit, government, business) and in local, regional, national, and international locations (Bringle, Hatcher, & Clayton, 2006).

Bringle, Hatcher, and Clayton (2006) differentiated between *community involvement* and *civic engagement* in the following way:

Civic engagement is a subset of community involvement and is defined by both location as well as process (it occurs not only in but also with the community). According to this distinction, civic engagement develops partnerships that possess integrity and that emphasize participatory, collaborative, and democratic processes (e.g., design, implementation, assessment) that provide benefits to all constituencies. (p. 258)

This differentiation between work done only in communities or for communities versus work done in and with communities represents a differentiation of approaches, epistemologies, and relationships, with the former being hierarchical, expertise-based, and problem-fixing in orientation (i.e., technocratic) and the latter being focused on community assets, collaboration, respect for diverse ways of knowing, and the development of the collective capacity of multiple constituencies (i.e., democratic; Jameson, Clayton, Jaeger, & Bringle, 2012; Saltmarsh, Hartley, & Clayton, 2009). The paradigm of democratic civic engagement defines a new approach to activities in communities that is a reciprocal, asset based, multidirectional orientation to community–campus engagement. Rather than focusing on community needs, the focus is directed at community assets as a basis for working with communities (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993).

Because service learning is the intersection of teaching and service (Figure 1), it has dual purposes of benefiting the community and fulfilling academic learning goals. Service learning as a form of civic engagement is defined as a

course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which students (a) participate in mutually identified and organized service activities that benefit the community, and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of personal values and civic responsibility. (Adapted from Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 222)

Civic Learning

This definition helps differentiate service learning from other types of educational experiences that take place in the community (e.g., internship, practicum, field-based instruction, cooperative education) and also differentiates it from volunteering (Furco, 1996). First, the definition identifies the unique contribution that service learning brings to higher education and to the undergraduate psychology curriculum: civic education. Unlike many internships and applied learning activities, what service learning does well, and probably better than any other pedagogy, is not just having students “serving to learn,” which is applied learning, but also “learning to serve,” which is referred to in the definition as “personal values and civic responsibility.” What service learning should accomplish is to have students think about, critically examine, evaluate, and analyze what their role is in society with regard to civic, social, economic, and political issues and develop the skills and disposition to act on those roles. That is, students should engage in educationally meaningful community service that has relevance to and is informed by their academic studies and that also has relevance to their personal and civic lives now and in the future. They should do this as part of their studies in psychology so that they discover ways in which the content of psychology contributes to their understanding of the community issues that they encounter during their community service activities and vice versa. Civic learning is a complex category of learning. How civic learning is viewed is shaped by the course content, the community service activities, the instructor’s perspective, and the community context. Civic learning can be construed as a separate area of learning with its own knowledge, skills, and dispositions, but it can also be viewed as integral to all of the learning goals in the APA Guidelines 2.0. Chapter 1 of this book examines in more detail the nature of civic learning.

Thus, unlike many practica and internships, service learning has the intentional goal of developing students’ civic learning, not merely their academic learning or vocational preparation, which are the primary purposes of an undergraduate internship in psychology (Baird, 2008). However, many of the civic skills that are developed through service learning (e.g., communications skills, interpersonal skills, critical thinking, diversity,

working with others, problem solving) are relevant to academic learning and to what employers value in employees (The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement, 2012).

Second, unlike volunteering, service learning represents academic work in which the community service activities constitute a “text” that is interpreted, analyzed, and related to the content of a course in a way that permits a formal evaluation of learning—thus making it educationally meaningful community service. In service learning, students do not receive academic credit for engaging in community service; rather, academic credit (i.e., grades) is based on the learning that occurs as a result of the community service and connecting it to the course content. The community service activities are intentionally selected with community partners to be aligned with the educational objectives of the course and selected so that the community service is beneficial to them and those in the community who they might represent. The service may be (a) working with residents or clients of agencies (direct service), (b) working with agency staff (indirect service), (c) conducting research with the community (research), or (d) advocating for social change (advocacy; Florida Department of Education, 2009). The chapters in Part II provide examples of each type of service learning, and Chapters 1, 3, and 13 provide additional discussion of designing civic learning objectives, selecting community service activities, and assessing them.

Partnerships

This definition of service learning notes the importance of working with community members (e.g., staff at community organizations, residents, clients) to establish the basis for integrating community activities into a psychology course. Because of the commitment to and necessity of working with the community, the nature of these relationships is a central, defining component of civic engagement in general and of service learning in particular. Sigmon (1979) posited that in good service learning courses all teach, and all learn; all serve, and all are served. This changes

the connotations of *service* from the expert student helping the needy community recipient to the student engaging in community work with community partners (e.g., staff, residents, clients) toward common goals. This type of relationship defines a reciprocal partnership between and among persons who are involved in service learning. Service learning educators should aspire to relationships that are guided by democratic principles characterized by the three key components of democratic processes: fairness, inclusiveness, and being participatory (Saltmarsh et al., 2009). Having democratically sound partnerships “critical for transmission of democratic practices” (Dostilio, 2012, p. 5) and critical reflection on the civic aspects of their activities are both crucial ingredients for ensuring democratic (vs. technocratic) orientations to civic involvement and developing democratic skills and democratic identities for future involvement (Bringle, Clayton, & Bringle, 2015). Chapter 1 provides additional discussion on the centrality of democratic processes to designing and implementing service learning, and Chapter 2 discusses the epistemological and methodological implications for conducting research based on democratic principles.

Reflection

This definition of service learning also identifies reflection as a key component of the pedagogy. Too often in experiential education courses students are asked to keep open-ended journals or write descriptive papers about their experiences. Well-designed reflection activities should (a) intentionally link the service experience to course-based learning objectives, (b) be structured, (c) occur regularly, (d) allow feedback and assessment, and (e) include the clarification of values (Bringle & Hatcher, 1999; Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthiah, 2004). Good reflection can occur before, during, and after the community service (see Appendix C) and can result in students generating new learning and then capturing their learning for assessment (Ash & Clayton, 2009a, 2009b). Chapters in Part II present examples of reflection strategies that are aligned with

learning goals so that they promote and capture learning for assessing students' academic learning, civic learning, and personal growth.

PEDAGOGICAL RATIONALES FOR SERVICE LEARNING

How can service learning enhance one, many, or all of the learning goals in the undergraduate psychology curriculum? How might the role of service learning help meet the civic learning goals of the psychologically literate citizen? There are at least four dominant rationales for service learning: disciplinary learning, student-centered learning, social justice, and democratic civic engagement (Zlotkowski & Duffy, 2010).

Disciplinary Learning

Significant work has been directed toward positioning service learning as a favored pedagogy within the disciplines (Zlotkowski, 2000). This includes the 21-volume series, "Service-Learning in the Disciplines," edited by Zlotkowski (1997–2006), with one devoted to psychology (Bringle & Duffy, 1998). Jameson, Clayton, and Ash (2013) provided an analysis of research on academic learning that has been conducted across disciplines, examining both research that measured changes across time and research that compared service learning with traditional pedagogies. Positive results for service learning are generally attained in both cases. In addition, Fitch, Steinke, and Hudson (2013) provided a similar analysis for research on cognitive outcomes for service learning. Novak, Markey, and Allen's (2007) meta-analysis found moderate effect sizes favoring service learning for knowledge, grades, and academic motivation; cognitive outcomes had a smaller but significant effect size favoring service learning. They also found that service learning produced positive and significant effects on personal and citizenship outcomes. Other meta-analyses have also found that service learning is positively associated with academic, personal, and civic outcomes, with the effect sizes ranging from small through moderate to large (Celio, Durlak, & Dymnicki, 2011; Conway, Amel, & Gerwien, 2009; Novak et al., 2007; Warren, 2012; Yorio & Ye, 2012).

Student-Centered Learning

Barr and Tagg (1995) advocated for a paradigmatic shift from a teaching-centered orientation to a learning-centered orientation to instruction, suggesting that “a college’s purpose is not to transfer knowledge but to create environments and experiences that bring students to discover and construct knowledge . . . to make students members of communities of learners that . . . solve problems” (p. 4). With factual information so readily available and with a changing knowledge base, service learning aligns well with a learning-oriented and student-oriented approach to lifelong learning after graduation. Because service learning democratizes learning, students become more active in the learning process, with community activities, community partners, and peers contributing to how learning occurs and what is learned. Zlotkowski and Duffy (2010) noted that “there are few ‘right’ answers in responding to community settings, students have to make inquiries, try multiple solutions, and persevere” (p. 37). Students become active coeducators in the learning process by regularly connecting through structured reflection the community activities with the course content (Ash & Clayton, 2009a, 2009b).

Social Justice

Service learning can be an effective means for approaching instruction as “education with a conscience” because it confronts students with social issues and asks them to consider both their origins and amelioration. The pioneers of service learning viewed the pedagogy as having a social justice orientation as well as a democratic emphasis (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999). The characterization of service learning as advocacy service learning or critical service learning (e.g., Mitchell, 2007; Porfilio & Hickman, 2011) carries forward the spirit for how a service learning course is designed and implemented to heighten awareness about systemic and structural characteristics that disadvantage persons. Mitchell (2007) distinguished between service learning as only a teaching strategy versus viewing it as a means for raising questions about and changing dominant conditions of privilege and oppression. Lisman (1997) viewed service learning as providing a

“challenge to our overly simplistic forms of competency-based education that indirectly perpetuate the great gaps between the haves and the have-nots in our society under the false veneer of ‘educational equality’” (p. 87). Brown and Riddle (2013) found that community service activities that involved direct contact in the community (vs. community service focused on community-based organizations) resulted in favorable changes in social justice attitudes.

Democratic Civic Engagement

John Dewey (e.g., 1938), an influential philosopher and past president of APA, provided philosophical, intellectual, and practical foundations for service learning by advocating for experiential education that would develop students’ democratic skills and capacities for improving the human condition and the public good. Examining Dewey’s contributions, Benson, Harkavy, and Puckett (2011) explained,

Dewey theorized that education and society were dynamically interactive and interdependent. It followed, therefore, that if human beings hope to develop and maintain a particular type of society or social order, they must develop and maintain the particular type of education system conducive to it; that is to say, if there is no effective democratic schooling system, there will be no democratic society. (p. 52)

Levine’s (2013) research found that simply involving students in community service activities is insufficient for developing civic learning and civic skills; they must also be involved in collaborative relationships in the civic realm. Partnerships between students and community members that have democratic qualities, (e.g., fair, inclusive, participatory; Saltmarsh et al., 2009) are critical and necessary to allow civic lessons to be fully developed and academic learning to be clarified. Bowman’s (2011) meta-analysis found that face-to-face interactions with diverse groups resulted in favorable and significant effects on civic attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors, compared with classroom-based educational experiences and cocurricular activities.

EFFICACY OF SERVICE LEARNING

How can students be prepared for active civic lives? Through what pedagogical means can this be accomplished? The treatment of pedagogy in the chapters of Halpern (2010) is largely traditional. When service learning is mentioned, it is only aligned with the APA Guidelines 2.0 Goal 3, Ethical and Social Responsibility in a Diverse World. This reflects one of the strengths of service learning but leaves unexplored how service learning can enhance learning associated with the other four APA goals. Good service learning contains factors that are known to help students achieve in-depth understanding of content: (a) active learning, (b) frequent feedback from others (e.g., instructors, other students, community members), (c) collaboration with others, (d) cognitive apprenticeship (i.e., mentored relationships in which students can discuss and learn generalization of principles, transfer of knowledge between theory and practice, and analysis of perplexing circumstances), and (e) practical applications that involve students in tasks that have real consequences with a safety net as a buffer against high-stakes mistakes (Marchese, 1997).

A growing body of research supports the breadth of outcomes for service learning. Meta-analyses have provided a consistent picture of significant effect sizes for service learning over other pedagogies for academic, civic, and personal outcomes (Bowman, 2011; Celio et al., 2011; Novak et al., 2007; Warren, 2012; Yorio & Ye, 2012). Eyler's (2011) review of the research literature concluded that service learning contributes to political interest and efficacy, a sense of connectedness to community, social responsibility, future intent to participate in community life, and life skills. Beyond learning outcomes, service learning—as is the case with all high-impact pedagogies (Kuh 2008)—has a positive effect on students' persistence in higher education (Bringle, Hatcher, & Muthiah, 2010; Lockeman & Pelco, 2013), particularly with minority and marginalized students (Lockeman & Pelco, 2013). Astin and colleagues' (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999; Sax & Astin, 1997) longitudinal analyses of students found that service learning led to political and community involvement 5 years after graduation, especially when reflection was a strong component of their experiences. Not all service learning courses

produce all of these outcomes, and poorly designed service learning may not result in a learning advantage, but the empirical research supports the efficacy of high quality service learning.

OVERVIEW OF THE BOOK

This volume is divided into three major parts. The first part explores the intersection of psychology and civic engagement. Because civic learning is an underappreciated and underdeveloped component of the undergraduate psychology curriculum, the nature of civic learning is further explored in Chapter 1. Service learning also confronts traditional approaches to epistemology because it decentralizes authority from the expert to a broader array of constituencies. Students in service learning become aware that they can learn not only from the instructors but also from peers and community partners who can be cogenerateds of knowledge as well as coeducators. Chapter 2 explores the nature of this paradigmatic expansion of epistemology and its implications for not only teaching with service learning but also conducting participatory community action research.

Because service learning is not a familiar pedagogy, the second part of the book provides concrete guidance for designing service learning courses. Specific examples are presented for integrating service learning into common courses in the psychology curriculum (e.g., Introductory Psychology, core content courses, research and statistics courses, capstone courses) as well as some evolving opportunities for psychology instructors to use service learning (learning communities, interdisciplinary courses, online courses, civic internships, international service learning). Chapters 3 through 10 each provide examples of how partnerships can be established to support service learning and how students can be involved in community-based activities. In addition, each chapter gives examples for how instructors can structure regular reflection activities to enable students to understand with increasing cognitive complexity the connections between (a) service activities and (b) academic learning, civic learning, and personal growth.

The final part of the book, consisting of Chapters 11 through 13, presents information and resources for how faculty can be supported to develop service learning courses. This includes suggestions for faculty development activities, thinking of community engagement and service learning from the perspective of the department, and assessing the outcomes of involving students and faculty in civic engagement activities that include service learning. Service learning courses can open up unique opportunities to expand work with community partnerships, including research on teaching and learning and engaged scholarship (e.g., disciplinary research).

CONCLUSION

Reich and Nelson (2010) concluded that commitment to service learning in the undergraduate psychology curriculum is not widespread and that most emphasis is still on Altman's (1996) foundational knowledge rather than socially responsive knowledge. Psychology and the teaching of psychology have much to gain from a more systematic integration of service learning throughout the curriculum. Research leads to the conclusion that service learning can provide "value added" to reaching learning outcomes identified by the APA Guidelines 2.0. To the degree that psychology instructors aspire to being scholar educators who design instruction on the basis of the science of teaching and learning, the empirical base that supports service learning's capacity to augment academic learning, civic learning, and personal growth of students should attract additional attention. The subsequent chapters of this volume address the value added by service learning and provide guidance for realizing the full spectrum of outcomes that are associated with the psychologically literate citizen (McGovern et al., 2010). The analysis of theory, research, and practice associated with service learning is presented to establish it as the best pedagogy for producing civic-minded psychology students, graduates, and citizens.