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Pedagogical Catalysts of Civic Competence: The Development of a Critical Epistemological Model for Community-Based Learning

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Pedagogical Catalysts of Civic Competence:
The Development of a Critical Epistemological Model for Community-Based Learning

by

Stephanie Taylor Stokamer

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education
in
Educational Leadership: Postsecondary Education

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Abstract

Civic competence is critical to the successful functioning of pluralistic democracies. Developing the knowledge, skills, and motivations for effective democratic participation is a national and global imperative that many higher education institutions have embraced through the teaching strategies of community-based learning and service-learning. Yet, scant research literature has focused on the relationship between pedagogical approaches and civic competence outcomes. This five-year longitudinal study of 11,000 students in 700 senior-level capstone courses at an urban research university empirically tested a new theoretically constructed model of civic competence development in order to identify epistemological and pedagogical elements that enhance civic competence. Eight epistemological domains embedded within four components of civic competence (knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions) were analyzed utilizing item and factor analysis. The model was extremely robust ($r = .917$) for civic competence development and indicated strong effect size for multiple pedagogical elements of course design, teaching strategies, and integration of community service. Significantly, the greatest effect for developing civic competence is pedagogical incorporation of diversity and social justice issues. Thus, the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence offers faculty a heuristic taxonomy of teaching and learning strategies to utilize diversity of thought and interaction in community-based learning as a catalyst for transforming students into competent democratic participants.

Acknowledgments

I could not have undertaken this effort without a team of people backing me up. I am deeply grateful to those who have helped shape and implement this project: Rowanna Carpenter, Seanna Kerrigan, Juliette Stoering, Randy Hitz and Sukhwant Jhaj, as well as all the students who have been part of my own learning as a facilitator of theirs. My thanks go out as well to my friends on this journey—Pat Kenney-Moore, Karen Sullivan-Vance, Neera Malhotra, and the rest of the cohort—for their intellectual and moral support.

I am indebted to my committee and particularly to Christine Cress, whose guidance has epitomized the educational best practice of challenge and support. I could not have asked for a better mentor or scholar to shepherd me through this process. I appreciate the time that Andy Job, Candyce Reynolds, Michael Smith, Leslie McBride, and DeLys Ostlund have spent on this project, as well as their collegiality in doing so.

Finally, I am so thankful for family and friends who have cheered me on and kept me going—my mother and step-father, my sister, those nearby who have stolen me away for walks or food, and those who checked in from afar. My husband has been my bedrock—and his patience, support, and ability to get me to smile are a constant reminder of why I love him. This work is dedicated to my father. I know he would be proud.

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Chapter 1: Defining and Promoting Civic Competence

Amidst increasingly complex local, national, and international challenges, democratic society is at a critical juncture. In a democratic society, the will of the people guides organizations and associations of civil society, such as non-profit associations and civic groups, as well as matters of the state such as policymaking and elected government. A thriving pluralist democratic society depends upon active participation of its citizens, characterized by informed deliberation and collaboration to address public problems and work toward common goals (Colby, Beaumont, Ehrlich, & Corngold, 2007). A century ago, President Woodrow Wilson asserted that “The whole purpose of democracy is that we may hold counsel with one another, as not to depend upon the understanding of one man, but to depend on the counsel of all” (as cited by Frank, 1919, p. 403). President Wilson’s words underscore the freedom to contribute shared wisdom in the collective processes of democratic society, and the inherent belief that the inclusion of many diverse voices in decision-making and problem solving leads to enhanced quality of life for everyone. Freedom to participate alone is not sufficient, however. Democratic society requires citizens competent enough to engage effectively in the tasks of maintaining civil society and government by the people (Dahl, 1992; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995).

Education has long played a part in developing the civic competence needed to effectively engage in democracy (Dewey, 1916; Galston, 2001), though the importance of the civic mission of educational institutions has waxed and waned through time. Scott (2006) traced the rise of civic education to the founding of the United States and the

preparation of citizens in a democracy. In the early 1900s, the civic mission received renewed attention with the work of John Dewey and others emphasizing the importance of education for democracy (Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stevens, 2003). Following World War II civic education was de-emphasized, accompanied by a growing sense of college as a means to individual advancement in a career and subsequent socioeconomic gains (Brint, Riddle, Turk-Bicakci, & Levy, 2005; Colby et al., 2003; Grubb & Lazerson, 2005). In the 1970s, a cyclical decline in the economic returns of higher education called into question whether its expense was justified. In response, Bowen (1977) produced a compelling argument of the value of education not only for economic gain, but also for numerous individual and social purposes.

Bowen (1977) clearly articulated civic competence as a goal of higher education. In addition to cognitive learning and emotional and moral development, Bowen argued that practical competence is a primary outcome for students. He considered citizenship one area of practical competence, and provided a foundational description of what competence in the affairs of citizenship includes:

Understanding of and commitment to democracy. Knowledge of governmental institutions and procedures. Awareness of major social issues. Ability to evaluate propaganda and political argumentation. Disposition and ability to participate actively in civic, political, economic, professional, educational, and other voluntary organizations. Orientation toward international understanding and world community. Ability to deal with bureaucracies. Disposition toward law observance. (p.57)

Drawing from Bowen's work, *civic competence* in essence means acquiring the academic and civic knowledge, skills, dispositions, and efficacious identity necessary for effective participation in democratic society. Development of civic competence enhances citizens'

capacity for practicing democratic action and is therefore essential for advancing social welfare and solving complex problems.

Moreover, echoes of Bowen's (1977) conceptualization of civic competence ring through contemporary calls for the reinvigoration of civic education. Cogan (1999) argued that civic competencies "do not just occur naturally in people. They must be taught consciously through schooling to each new generation" (p. 52). Likewise, Keeter, Zukin, Andolina, and Jenkins (2002) remarked, "Engaged citizens are made, not born" (p. 28). Civic development means learning what is needed to competently engage in democratic processes. The 1997 National Commission on Civic Renewal promoted the idea that "schools should foster the knowledge, skills, and virtues our young people need to become good democratic citizens" (p. 14). Harkavy (2006) reiterated the central role of higher education today "to educate students for democratic citizenship, and help create a fair, decent, and just society" (p. 9). Battistoni (1997), Ehrlich (2000), Colby et al. (2003), Boyte (2008), and Saltmarsh (2005) are among the many scholars who have reaffirmed the importance of higher education for developing the competencies of civic participation.

Teaching for Civic Competence

In light of the continued relevance of Bowen's (1977) call for civic competence and its importance for democratic society, the need to teach for civic competence is a significant problem facing higher education. As Dahl (1992) and others have observed, public issues are growing increasingly complicated and numerous. Half the world lives in poverty; a recession has rocked the global economy; climate change and natural

resource depletion threaten an overpopulated planet (Eitzen, Baca Zinn, & Eitzen Smith, 2009). Even understanding a city budget process or monitoring the decision-making of public officials necessitates a certain degree of competence for effective engagement (Colby et al., 2003).

The United States national deficit of 14 trillion dollars provides another example (James, 2010). For starters, many Americans do not understand the difference between the debt and deficit (National Public Radio, 2010). Moreover, though the public generally favors deficit reduction, the most realistic policy approaches (such as cutting entitlement spending like Medicare) are far less popular (James, 2010), leaving policymakers in a quandary about how to solve the budget problem in a way that is palatable to constituents.

An issue such as the national deficit demands civic competence. The public must have a working knowledge of the issue and an ability to critically analyze it. They must be able to effectively communicate their perspective to decision-makers. And since a problem of this magnitude cannot be solved singlehandedly, they must be able to collaborate with others who hold divergent views. In addition, democratic problem solving means grappling with difficult issues, and may involve painstaking efforts to create change, necessitating sustained motivation for participation (Colby et al., 2007).

The critical importance of education to meet these civic engagement demands is lost neither on educators nor politicians. President Barack Obama has outlined a vision for the United States to again lead the world in degree attainment from postsecondary institutions by 2020 (The White House, 2010). The link between educational

achievement and civic participation is well established. The National Conference on Citizenship (2010) reported that educational attainment is the strongest predictor of civic engagement. The future of this country—and the globe—therefore depends upon the ability of college graduates to make headway on even the most difficult problems. Colby et al. (2003) advocated use of specific “pedagogies of engagement” (p. 134) to facilitate civic development in undergraduate education. Community-based learning is one such approach.

The Potential of Community-Based Learning to Develop Civic Competence

Community-based learning offers unparalleled opportunity to develop civic competence in students. *Community-based learning* is a pedagogical tool that supplements classroom instruction with service in the community and critical reflection, emphasizing personal and civic responsibility and reciprocal partnerships (Cress, Collier, Reitenauer, & Associates, 2005; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Kirby, Levine, & Elrod, 2006). This blend of academic coursework and community service, which is also referred to as *service-learning* (as discussed further below), has the shared purpose of community benefit and student learning. Examples of community-based learning are found in virtually every academic discipline within postsecondary education and take many forms. A sociology instructor, for instance, might assign students to work in a homeless shelter to illuminate concepts such as social inequality or classism. In contrast, a course in biology could analyze stream samples for an anti-pollution program, or an accounting program could send undergraduates to help high school families prepare the financial aid forms for college admission. In each case the community work is

accompanied by reflection that deepens students' understanding of the academic context and connects their experience to course concepts.

Community-based learning has been consistently characterized as having modest but positive effects on students' academic, personal, and civic development (Batchelder & Root, 1994; Cress, Burack, Giles, Elkins, & Stevens, 2010; Eyler, Giles, & Braxton, 1997; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gallini & Moely, 2003). A steady stream of scholarship has associated community-based learning with student engagement, academic achievement, intercultural competence, and other outcomes (Cress et al., 2010). Community-based learning improves grade point averages and academic skills, such as critical thinking and writing (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). Gallini and Moely (2003) reported that community-based learning students demonstrated more engagement with academic content, greater interpersonal and community connection, and increased likelihood of persisting in school than their peers. Campus Compact, a national organization of college presidents who support community-based learning, recently released a white paper demonstrating the alignment of community-based learning with President Obama's 2020 goal to lead the world in postsecondary graduates (Cress et al., 2010).

With a host of positive educational impacts related to community-based learning, this pedagogical practice has blossomed across the system of education—from primary through graduate school—since the 1980s (Campus Compact, 2008; Learn and Serve America, 2008; Robinson, 1999). Estimates vary as to the number or percentage of students engaged in community-based learning. Among respondents to Campus Compact's annual survey—now reaching nearly 1,200 campuses—approximately one

third of students participated in service, community-based learning, and civic activities at their campuses (Cress et al., 2010). Largent and Horinek (2008) reported that 80% of community colleges offer community-based learning, and Musil (2003) claimed that 78% of students participate in a service experience as part of undergraduate education.

Community-based learning is growing at the primary and secondary level as well (The Corporation for National and Community Service, 2008; Scales, Roelkepartain, Neal, Kielsmeier, & Benson, 2006).

The potential of community-based learning to develop civic competence is grounded in a long history combining education and service to improve democratic society (Hepburn, 1997). Though most authors credit use of the term “service-learning” in scholarly literature to Sigmon (1979), the practice extends back to at least the early twentieth century (Morton & Saltmarsh, 1997; Stevens, 2003). Daynes and Longo (2004) traced the origins of learning from community service to Jane Addams’ work bringing students to settlement houses to understand poverty. Morton and Saltmarsh (1997) also profiled John Dewey and Dorothy Day and outlined their influence on modern conceptualizations of community-based learning. Stevens (2003) called attention to the role of African-American educators and activists in promoting social change through learning. For these early adopters, service was explicitly related to both learning and the improvement of society through civic means.

In current scholarship, the link between community-based learning and civic competence has grown stronger as the theoretical and empirical evidence has mounted that community-based learning can develop the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and

identity needed for civic competence. Saltmarsh (1996, 2005), for example, has written extensively about the theoretical relationship between community-based learning and civic engagement. He noted that while community-based learning has gained steam as an instructional strategy to help students learn disciplinary content, its utility for civic outcomes has received increasing attention since the mid-1990s, when institutions of higher education responded to a nationwide crisis of civic disengagement (Saltmarsh, 2005). In a similar vein, Mendel-Reyes (1998) articulated the fit between community-based learning and civic education:

Through service learning [*sic*], students improve their abilities to participate in democratic deliberation. The goal is more than simply learning how to express themselves verbally and in writing. Students are challenged to listen to a range of voices, to empathize with people different from themselves, and to compromise with others in the name of a common good that is often contested and tentative. (p. 37)

Likewise, Battistoni (1997), Gray, Ondaatje, Fricker, and Geschwind (2000), Kuh (2008), Kirlin, (2003), and Ward (2000) have all matched the skills gained in community-based learning—such as critical thinking, problem solving, and negotiation—to those needed for competent civic participation. Community-based learning is increasingly connected to broader notions of democratic society that extend past national borders toward a global perspective on citizenship and pluralistic democracy (Chickering, 2008; Battistoni, Longo, & Jayanandhan, 2009; Flanagan & Levine, 2010; Plater, 2010). Plater (2010) for example, noted that when electing a president, Americans must understand the role of the United States in world affairs, and suggested that international community-based learning can help students gain important global awareness.

As noted earlier, community-based learning has demonstrable academic and civic impacts on students (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Batchelder & Root, 1994; Cress et al., 2010; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Gallini & Moely, 2003) and has thus emerged as an important strategy of civic education. Community-based learning connects students with authentic situations, builds strong institutional relationships between schools and community organizations, and develops the competencies of democratic engagement in a multicultural society. Scholars have hailed the alignment of community-based learning with the civic mission of education and efforts to provide alternatives to traditional classroom instruction. In 2005, Saltmarsh asserted, “Support for service learning...is stronger now than at any other time in recent history” (p. 52).

Given the challenges facing the nation and the globe, now is the time to capitalize on the potential of community-based learning to foster civic competence. But despite the favorable outcomes of research linking community-based learning to development of competent citizens, evidence of best pedagogical practices is scarce. Published literature has shed little light on how faculty teach for civic competence. What is needed is a critical inquiry of the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence.

The Pedagogy of Community-Based Learning for Civic Competence

The pedagogy of community-based learning is unlike most teaching in postsecondary education (Colby et al., 2003). Colby et al. (2003) defined *pedagogy* as “all the things teachers do and ask their students to do to support students’ learning” (p. 141). Howard (1998) described community-based learning as a “counternormative pedagogy” (p. 21) because of the numerous ways in which it diverges from traditional

classroom instruction. Howard explained that community-based learning varies from traditional pedagogy in terms of epistemology, goals, degree of faculty control, learning processes, and student contributions to their own learning. The community-based learning component introduces unique challenges to teaching, such as helping students to connect service to course material and make sense of their experience, as well as maintaining one or multiple partnerships with community agencies (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002; Howard, 1998). Howard wrote that “The mix of traditional classroom-based theoretical learning and nontraditional community-based experiential learning clearly ‘raises the pedagogical bar’” (p. 23). Thus, the inherent complexities of community-based learning foreground the critical role of faculty in creating high quality community-based learning experiences.

Indeed, Colby et al. (2003) referred to faculty as “the cornerstone” (p. 200) of civic education. Likewise, Fiume (2009) highlighted the role of faculty in creating quality community-based learning for civic engagement, emphasizing “the primary responsibility for designing and implementing curriculum lies with the faculty” (p.82). However, given the centrality of faculty work to the community-based learning experience, there has been surprisingly little research about faculty design of community-based learning courses, and even less about design specific to developing civic competence.

In fact, many scholars have argued that it is not enough to acknowledge civic competence as a goal—it must be deliberately integrated into educational practices in order to achieve desired civic outcomes (Checkoway, 2001; Colby et al., 2007; Gottlieb

& Robinson, 2002; Howard, 2001; Jay, 2008; King, Kendall Brown, Lindsay, & VanHecke, 2007; Kirlin, 2002; Meacham, 2008; Saltmarsh, 2005; Wang & Jackson, 2005). Wang and Jackson's (2005) research indicated a need to give instructors interested in civic competence guidance in developing their community-based learning courses, but their discussion stopped short of specific suggestions or strategies. How community-based learning faculty align their teaching with the goal of civic competence is largely unexplored.

Faculty Participation in Community-Based Learning

Research has, however, painted a picture of who community-based learning faculty are and why they have chosen this approach. Faculty in all varieties of institutional settings and in countless disciplines use community-based learning. In one large-scale study, Antonio, Astin, and Cress (2000) reported that community-based learning was most common in the life sciences and social sciences and least prevalent in physical sciences, English, and anthropology. Abes, Jackson, and Jones (2002) found the practice to be most common in social science and humanities and least common in math and science. In reporting results from the Higher Education Research Institute Faculty Survey, Astin et al. (2006) noted that 20% of college and university faculty had taught community-based learning courses in the previous two years and also found a wide range of utilization across disciplines. Both Antonio et al. (2000) and Abes et al. (2002) found more support for community-based learning and civic outcomes of education among women, faculty of color, and non-tenured faculty, though Astin et al. (2006) recorded the highest rate of community-based learning teaching among associate professors.

Further, faculty are motivated to undertake the community-based learning endeavor for a variety of reasons, such as their beliefs around what an undergraduate education should include, the relationships with students, the community connection community-based learning offers, relevance to their scholarship, and the ability of community-based learning to improve student learning (Abes et al., 2002; Colby et al., 2003). O'Meara and Niehaus (2009) investigated faculty motivations for community-based learning and found that the majority of participants (n = 109) wanted to help students develop "civic agency, compassion, civic responsibility, civic mindedness" (p. 25).

Of course, reward structures built into tenure and promotion policies affect faculty decisions about community-based learning as well (Abes et al., 2002; Astin et al., 2006; Kezar & Rhoads, 2001). Astin et al. (2006) observed that pedagogies of engagement are sometimes perceived as less rigorous than traditional scholarship. Saltmarsh and Gelmon (2006) explained that "faculty need reassurance that work related to an engagement agenda will be recognized within their department, their institution, and their discipline as a valid focus of their curricular and scholarly efforts" (p. 40-41). In addition, faculty who use community-based learning can re-energize their teaching, reconnect with other faculty members, and encounter new examples to explain the concepts in their courses (Pribbenow, 2005). Many instructors have been encouraged to take on the practice by colleagues (Abes et al., 2002). Nevertheless, Abes et al. (2002) found that faculty who had never used community-based learning were deterred by concerns about the community partnership or how to effectively implement community-based learning

pedagogy. Likewise, Pribbenow (2005) described some faculty members' struggle to effectively connect community-based learning to course material, facilitate discussion, or deviate from the lecture approach through which they themselves were taught.

Summary of Community-Based Learning for Civic Competence

Despite positive student outcomes and increased faculty participation in teaching community-based learning, instructors have relatively little evidence-based guidance on how to craft their courses for civic engagement. The preponderance of community-based learning research has focused on student outcomes. As valuable as these studies are for assessing and demonstrating the worth of a practice like community-based learning, they have rarely connected students' civic competence to anything but broad instructional decisions or structural factors often outside teachers' immediate control (such as duration of the community-based learning experience). Outcome studies do not typically collect data about the nuances of student-faculty interactions or the interplay between course design and student experience, limiting utility for instructors who want to more effectively teach for civic competence.

Colby et al. (2003) suggested that while community-based learning has been explored in general terms, "faculty shape what they do and ask students to do on a more micro level, and there are wide variations in what each pedagogy may involve for a given course" (p. 141), a sentiment echoed by Laird, Engberg and Hurtado (2005) and Fiume (2009). More recently, Cress et al. (2010) stressed the "need to better understand the developmental experiences and interactions... that influence the efficacy of civic teaching and learning" (p. 19-20). In short, the field lacks a community-based learning

pedagogy for civic competence. Furthermore, the absence of a clear articulation of what civic competence means in community-based learning hinders understanding of how faculty can most effectively meet this critical goal of higher education. How faculty plan their community-based learning courses, operate within constraints of an established program, facilitate student learning, respond to the unexpected twists of experiential education, and make adjustments to their courses over time are virtually unexamined in the literature.

Purpose of the Study

For over a decade authors have recognized the complexities of community-based learning and recommended research to help practitioners untangle the variables that affect outcomes. Eyler et al. (1997) argued the need to “identify more clearly the types of service-learning experience that make the greatest difference to students” (p. 13). Scholars are coming to better understand some factors that influence community-based learning outcomes, such as duration of service and regular reflection, but know less about other components of teaching (Colby et al., 2003; Cress et al., 2010; Laird et al., 2005). Osborne, Hammerich, and Hensely (1998) suggested the necessity of research that “examines the mechanisms by which service-learning has the impacts that it does” (p. 11). Building on Bowen’s (1977) work emphasizing practical citizenship competence as one of the most important goals of higher education, the purpose of this study was to articulate a comprehensive but parsimonious model of community-based learning for civic competence and identify pedagogical factors that facilitate civic competence development.

Research Questions

This inquiry examined the characteristics of civic competence as an outcome of participation in senior level capstone courses and the pedagogical elements associated with these outcomes. The overarching research question guiding the study was: *What are the pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning for civic competence?* Drawing from the community-based learning literature, definitions of associated terms are provided below with fuller explications offered in Chapter 2. *Pedagogical catalysts* are defined as components of teaching that lead to an outcome—civic competence, in this case. Examples of pedagogical catalysts could include any of the activities teachers do and ask their students to do to develop civic competence, such as articulating specific civic learning objectives or inviting guest speakers to speak about their own civic participation. *Community-based learning* refers specifically to a pedagogical approach that supplements traditional classroom instruction (in a credit-bearing academic course) with service in the community and critical reflection, emphasizing personal and civic responsibility and reciprocal partnerships. *Civic competence* is defined as acquiring the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity necessary for participation in democratic society.

Knowledge is defined as an awareness and understanding of various subject matter (e.g. homelessness or climate change), how these topics relate to democratic society (e.g. housing policy or environmental regulation), and the systems and processes of democratic decision-making and governance (e.g. citizen initiatives or regulatory enforcement). *Skill* is defined as the developed ability to do something well, including

academic tasks such as critical thinking or civic tasks, such as collaborating with others to create a new housing policy. *Disposition* is defined as the values and attitudes that create an inclination toward action, such as an appreciation for diverse perspectives about homelessness or a positive outlook about the possibility for change. *Identity* is defined as a commitment to civic responsibility through efficacy in action—seeing oneself as a socially responsible citizen with the capacity for active and effective participation in democratic society. Identity means not only believing in the responsibilities of citizenship (e.g. “somebody should end homelessness”), but having enough confidence to enact them, despite uncertainty (e.g. “I will do my part to end homelessness, even though I still have a lot to learn about it”).

This inquiry also investigated two sub-questions. In community-based learning courses,

1. What are the student characteristics of civic competence?
2. Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?

These questions were the basis of an in-depth examination of community-based learning pedagogy for civic competence in undergraduate courses. The rationale for this approach will be explored through a review of the existing literature in Chapter 2 and methodology in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 reports the results of the study, and Chapter 5 discusses key findings.

Chapter Summary

Democratic problem solving necessitates a competent citizenry. Whether at the local, national, or international level, competent citizens are needed to tackle the serious challenges of these times. Community-based learning has grown as a promising strategy for developing civic competence, but a clear pedagogical model of civic competence for community-based learning has not yet been articulated. Further, research has only begun to shed light on the pedagogical variations in community-based learning practices that lead to different outcomes. This study sought to articulate a parsimonious model of community-based learning for civic competence and explore the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence development. Doing so could make a significant contribution to the field of community-based learning, help educators to reach one of the fundamental goals of higher education, and ultimately positively impact the quality of life in our local, national, and global communities.

Chapter 2: Review of Related Literature and Conceptual Framework

Faculty have a pedagogical opportunity to develop students' civic competence in community-based learning courses. With the compelling need for civic competence for democratic society and strong research-based alignment between community-based learning and civic competence, the time is right for educators to hone their approach to community-based learning and maximize its potential. Building on Bowen (1977), this chapter will review evidence that community-based learning can contribute to civic competence. Though the review of civic competence outcomes will also include what is known about teaching practices that affect these outcomes, most studies do not discuss pedagogical factors. The review will therefore then turn to scholarship focused on pedagogy and present a new pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence based on the literature. The review points to a lack of understanding of how faculty craft their courses for civic competence, teach for civic competence, integrate service for civic competence, and improve their courses for civic competence through iterative teaching.

The Semantics of Community-Based Learning for Civic Competence

Bowen's (1977) description of citizenship competence as a goal of higher education laid the foundation for an operational definition of *civic competence* as the acquisition of the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity necessary for effective participation in democratic society. Though Bowen (1977) laid a useful foundation, community-based learning scholarship has suffered from a lack of clear and consistent definition of terms (Eyler, 2010). In order for community-based learning faculty to teach

for civic competence, they must know what this concept encompasses. Unfortunately, the community-based learning literature to date reveals overlapping and muddled terminology to describe civic outcomes, further complicated by confusion around the goals and terminology of community-based learning. Moreover, existing delineations of civic development in community-based learning do not explicitly address the incorporation of the service component, even though the act of serving is precisely what creates the potential outcome of civic competence.

Definitions and Nuances: Community-Based Learning

Community-based learning has numerous connotations. *Community-based learning* is a pedagogical tool that supplements classroom instruction with service in the community and critical reflection, emphasizing personal and civic responsibility and reciprocal partnerships (Cress et al., 2005; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Kirby, Levine, & Elrod, 2006). The term is often used synonymously with phrases such as *service-learning*, *community-based service learning*, and *community service learning* (e.g. Colby et al., 2003; Cress et al., 2005). Saltmarsh (2005) used both “service-learning” and “community-based pedagogy” (p. 50) and Sperling (2007) discussed “community-based experiences” (p. 316) in reference to service-learning. While noting the interchangeability of these terms, Cress et al. (2005) also defined them slightly differently (implying reciprocity in both, but specifically noting reflection in their definition of service-learning). Further, in practice institutions have adopted different definitions. For example, California State University—Chico (2011) defines community-based learning more broadly than service-learning alone by including internships, which are not

considered equivalent to service-learning by scholars such as Furco (1996) and Cress et al. (2005). Though a lengthier dialogue around the semantic implications of nomenclature is needed in this field, community-based learning is the term used in the present study. *Service-learning* or similar alternatives will be retained in quotations and treated as a conceptual equivalent to community-based learning.

Community-based learning is distinguished from volunteerism because of the strong emphasis on reflection and connecting service work to course material (Cress et al., 2005; Prentice, 2002). This distinction is important because the two experiences are associated with different outcomes. Astin et al. (2000), for example, found significant differences when comparing outcomes of service and community-based learning, such as academic knowledge acquisition, values, and career development. In this study the term *service* alone will refer only to community service or volunteering without an academic component. A notable flaw within some practices of community-based learning, however, is when service is treated as an “add-on,” assigned or offered but never fully integrated into learning with reflection and connection. Such work is therefore not a true manifestation of community-based learning, but nonetheless labeled as such by faculty or researchers (Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthia, 2004; Eyler, 2002; Howard, 2001).

Likewise, the definition of community-based learning is an ideal, and many endeavors deemed community-based learning by practitioners and scholars alike lack key elements. Some reflection in community-based learning is not critical in nature or may not focus on civic development (Howard, 2001). Reciprocity is another area in which community-based learning practitioners may fall short, as evidenced by the recent study

of Stoecker and Tryon (2009) examining community partner perspectives on community-based learning. Unfortunately, some of the partners in that study found community-based learning to be more a burden than a benefit. Stoecker and Tryon also pointed out that even the organizations with whom faculty often partner for community-based learning may not truly represent the communities they intend to serve, such as those staffed primarily by people outside the neighborhood who have good intentions but little direct experience with the culture of local residents they serve. Thus the community partner perspective might not reveal how (or if) community-based learning is perceived by community members themselves (Stoecker & Tryon, 2009). This point means that reciprocity in community-based learning is difficult to gauge and often dubious.

Also noteworthy is that the definition used in this study emphasizes academic community-based learning. Some practitioners who work in co-curricular service programs that include the other defining elements of community-based learning (reflection, responsibility, and reciprocity) consider their work to be community-based learning as well (Keen & Hall, 2009). Others have applied the term to settings outside of academia, when learning is an intended outcome of volunteer work (Mundel & Schugurensky, 2008). These applications are indeed in line with the key principles of community-based learning, but are beyond the scope of this study. Further complicating the term, community-based learning can refer to a program, a philosophy, or a pedagogical approach (Jacoby, 2003), but the literature is often not specific in its use of the phrase. Regrettably, as Eyler (2010) noted, scholars do not always distinguish between service and service-learning, service-learning and community-based learning (or

whether they are defined as synonymous), co-curricular or course-based service-learning, or the quality of the effort—how closely it matches the ideal.

Another complication of community-based learning is whether social justice or social change is an intended outcome. Einfield and Collins (2008) asserted, “an ideal democratic society is a socially just society” (p. 105). The social change perspective in community-based learning means that reflection leads to action on the problem addressed by service (Merrifield, 2001). Similarly, a social justice approach uses community-based learning to empower students with the tools to question social structures and power dynamics to create a more just and equitable society, emphasizing the importance of learning for the purpose of taking action (Freire, 1970; McLaren, 2003; Wang & Jackson, 2005). The alternative is what may be deemed the “charitable approach” in which students strive to meet an immediate need without necessarily seeking to understand or eradicate its root causes (Lewis, 2004; Wang & Jackson, 2005). Wang and Jackson (2005) explained that the emphasis in the charity orientation is on the joy of giving and doing good for others. Moreover, because it fulfills a pressing need, charity is often a necessary and welcome activity in a community. The social justice approach, in contrast, attends to the structures that have created problems. The underlying assumption is that a social justice orientation leads to analysis and critique of social systems and the impetus to change them through civic action. These distinct orientations are important and could affect both how faculty approach their courses and what aspects of civic competence they develop.

Definitions and Nuances: Civic Competence

Civic competence is closely related to other terms frequently used in the community-based learning literature without consistent definition, such as *civic responsibility* and *civic engagement* (Saltmarsh, 2005). Gottlieb and Robinson (2002) defined *civic responsibility* as “active participation in the public life of a community in an informed, committed, and constructive manner, with a focus on the common good” (p. 16). They provided a long list of characteristics of civic responsibility, which included values such as respect for laws and dissent when necessary, appreciation of participatory democracy, balance between rights and responsibilities, support for community involvement in decision-making, stewardship, and human dignity. In addition to these dispositional indicators, however, Gottlieb and Robinson also included behavioral signs, such as engaging actively as a citizen, questioning government policies, and advocating for or altering public policy. In this study, the kinds of dispositions that Gottlieb and Robinson include will be considered separate constructs from civic responsibility, which here will refer only to the notion that an individual feels personally responsible for civic participation, rather than the general value of appreciation for participatory democracy. Because the literature also varies in use of “personal responsibility,” “civic responsibility,” and “social responsibility” when referring to personal accountability for participation in democratic society, these terms will be considered collectively as holding the values of civic responsibility.

Similarly, Ehrlich (2000) defined *civic engagement* as “working to make a difference in the civic life of our communities and developing the combination of

knowledge, skills, values and motivation to make that difference. It means promoting the quality of life in a community, through both political and nonpolitical processes” (p. vi). Keeter et al. (2002) outlined 19 core indicators of civic engagement, ranging from voting to active membership in a group, contacting officials, protesting, displaying buttons or stickers, and fundraising. Keeter et al. also distinguished between civic and political forms of engagement, while Flanagan and Faisson, (2001) identified political engagement as a subset of civic engagement.

Likewise, Colby et al. (2007) specified that political engagement excludes community volunteerism and other apolitical activities, but that these can lead to political engagement through exposure to issues and opportunities for skill development. Colby et al. (2003) defined political engagement as “activities intended to influence social and political institutions, beliefs, and practices and to affect processes and policies relating to community welfare” (p. 18). They offered an extensive list of activities that exemplify political engagement:

working informally with others to solve a community problem; serving in neighborhood organizations, political interest groups, or political organizations; participating in public forums on social issues, discussing political issues with family and friends, and trying to influence others’ political opinions; working on a campaign for a candidate or issue; writing letters, signing petitions, and participating in other forms of political advocacy and lobbying; raising public awareness about social issues and mobilizing others to get involved or take action; attending rallies and protests and participating in boycotts; and of course voting in local or national elections. (p. 18-19)

Additionally, some authors consider civic engagement the process of involving individuals or institutions in community (Cress et al. 2010), while others see engagement as an outcome (Moely, Mercer, Ilustre, Miron, & McFarland, 2002b). This paper will

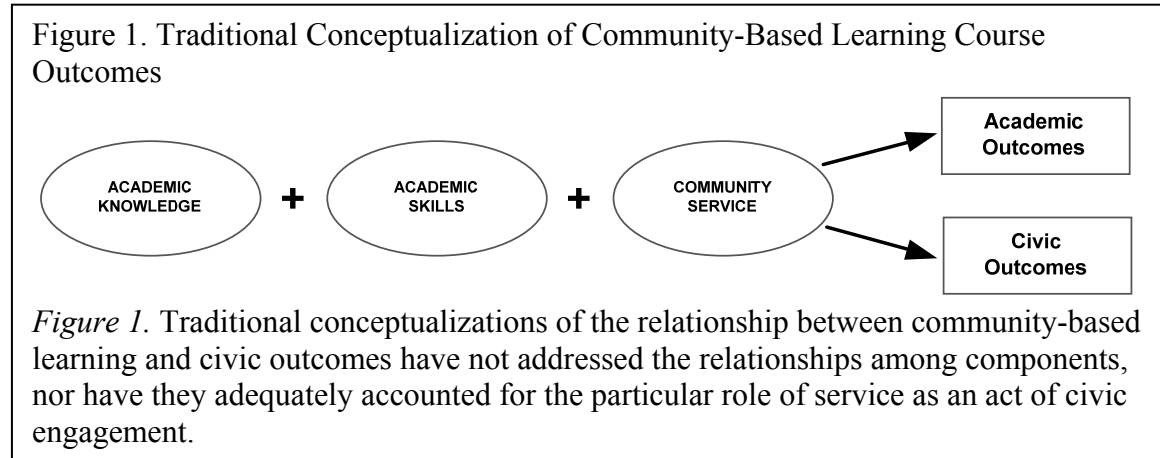
refer to *civic engagement* and *civic participation* interchangeably, and only as a behavioral description meaning the act of participation in civic or political activities.

Arguably, lack of clarity in terms is a disservice to the field. Some studies (e.g. Hughes, Welsh, Mayer, Bolay, & Southard, 2009; Kiesa et al., 2007) have found that students' general sense of civic responsibility can increase without accompanying growth in their capabilities or confidence to take action. In other words, the terminology of "responsibility" so frequently used in community-based learning literature is problematic because individuals could feel accountable but not feel competent to take action. This type of confusion is compounded with the loose use of other terms associated with the word "civic," including *civic knowledge, understanding, beliefs, attitudes, skills, motivations, behaviors, identity, agency*, and so on.

Several authors have attempted to delineate the outcomes of civic education—though the variation among them seems to muddy the waters even more. Saltmarsh (2005) defined *civic learning* (which he also referred to as *civic development*) as knowledge, skills, and values. He elaborated each further, describing "knowledge" as "historical, political, and civic knowledge," "skills" as "critical thinking, communication, public problem solving, civic judgment, civic imagination and creativity, collective action, coalition building, organizational analysis" and "values" as "justice, inclusion, and participation" (p. 53). Cogan (1999) described civic education as teaching knowledge, skills, and behavior. Encapsulating these as a form of efficacy in action, Knefelcamp (2008) focused on the notion of civic identity. Eyler and Giles (1999) categorized civic outcomes of community-based learning along five dimensions: values,

knowledge, skills, efficacy, and commitment. Wang and Jackson (2005) modified Eyer and Giles' model, adding responsibility as another dimension and noting that a person can believe in the importance of something without feeling it is his or her own responsibility. Perry and Katula (2001) presented a categorization of civic capacities divided into six areas: (1) citizen-related cognitive knowledge, (2) attitudes of citizenship, (3) skills of citizenship, (4) creating institutional change, (5) civic and philanthropic behaviors, and (6) political behavior.

In a similar vein, the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) (2010a) Liberal Education and America's Promise (LEAP) initiative identified personal and social responsibility as an Essential Learning Outcome of a liberal education, along with knowledge of human cultures and the physical and natural world, intellectual and practical skills, and integrative and applied learning. AAC&U subsumed civic engagement under personal and social responsibility. For its national assessment project (Valid Assessment of Learning in Undergraduate Education, or VALUE), AAC&U adopted Ehrlich's (2000) definition of civic engagement as "working to make a difference in the civic life of our communities and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values and motivation to make that difference. It means promoting the quality of life in a community, through both political and nonpolitical processes" (p. vi). The VALUE rubric indicates desired competence in diversity of communities and cultures, analysis of knowledge, civic identity and commitment, civic communication, civic action and reflection, and civic contexts and structures (AAC&U 2010b).

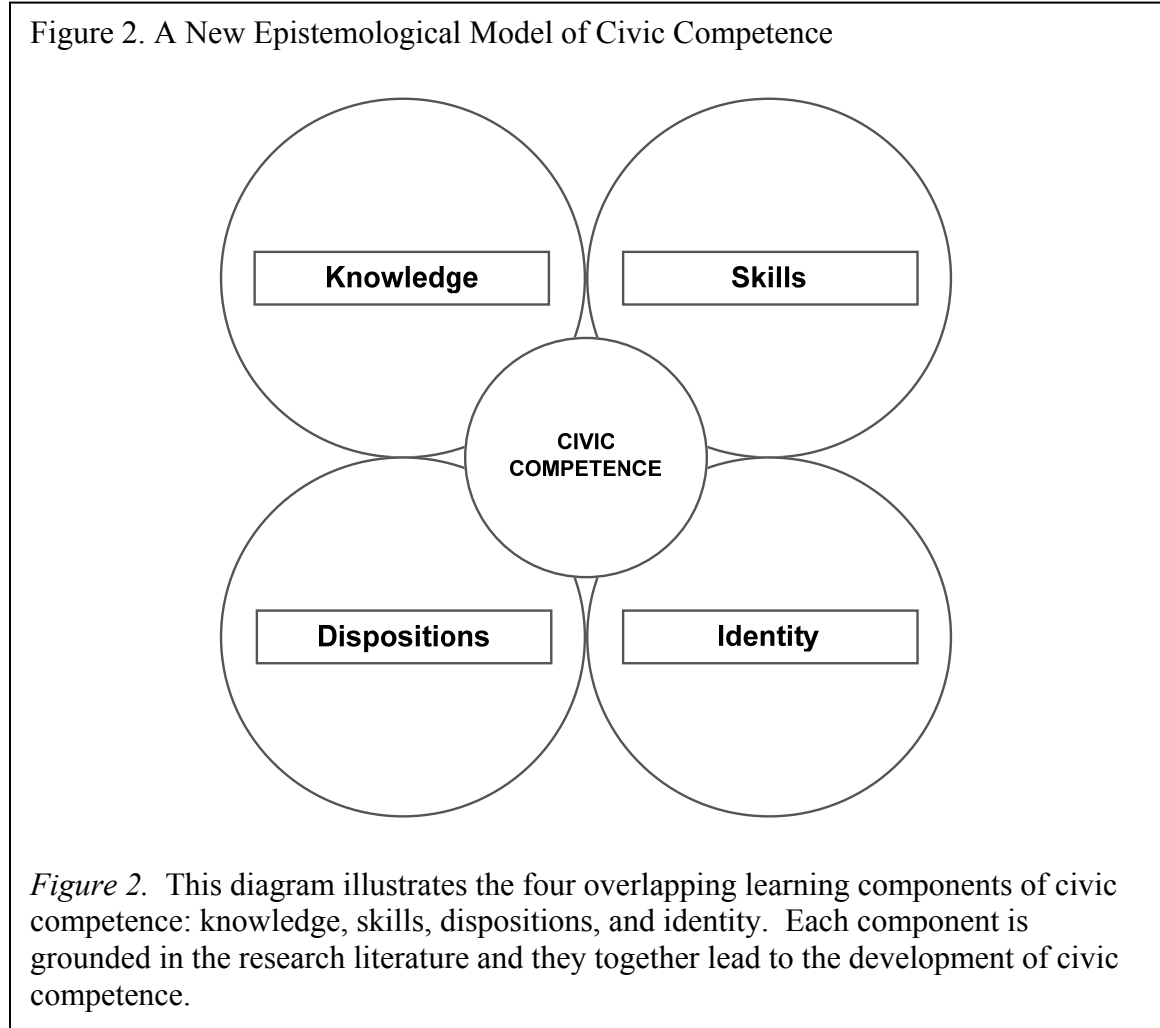


There is considerable overlap and reinforcement among these various conceptualizations, but the subtle distinctions of terms are rarely discussed in the literature, leading to confusion about what studies examining them really mean. The scholarship to date has established that community-based learning is related to several components of civic responsibility and civic engagement (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Saltmarsh, 2005). The relationship is generally presented as a linear one (though not explicitly described that way) in which combining knowledge and skills gained in class with community service leads to academic and civic gains (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Saltmarsh, 2005; Wang & Jackson, 2005). As shown in Figure 1, these conceptualizations leave the impression of civic outcomes as separate and static ends, neglecting the relationships among various components.

Moreover, faculty who strive to develop competent citizens must not only have a clear understanding of civic competence as goal, but also what civic competence looks like in the specific and unique contexts of community-based learning. Furthermore, none of the delineations above adequately account for the actual community service students

do and how it fits into the broader concept of civic competence. Service is generally considered to be an act of civic engagement (Colby et al., 2003; Keeter et al., 2002), but the act of service is missing from traditional conceptualizations of civic engagement in community-based learning. Through community-based learning students can develop civic competence that is tested in action and therefore becomes more than acquired capacity for civic engagement—it is a way of *knowing* civic engagement. While initial delineations have been valuable in outlining basic theory for the field, a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between community-based learning and civic competence is imperative for higher education and democratic society.

Multiple definitions apparent in community-based learning scholarship are hindering advancement of the field (Eyler, 2010). This study offers a new conceptualization. Drawing from the literature and Bowen's (1977) notions of citizenship competence, the proposed epistemological model of civic competence development is illustrated in Figure 2. Epistemology is the study of knowledge and knowing, and an epistemological model thus provides the structure to explain the components and domains of a theory of knowledge (Muis, Bendixen, & Haerle, 2006). Integration of the act of service into civic competence fundamentally shifts the conceptualization to an epistemological model in which civic competence is not just the sum of various components, but an integrated and interactive way of knowing. The four key learning components of civic competence of this epistemological model are knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity. Different domains, or areas of competence



within each component, also emerge from existing scholarship. This model is fully explained below with its attendant literature.

Epistemological Components of Civic Competence

Knowledge

A solid foundation of knowledge is necessary for civic competence (Bowen, 1977; Sherrod et al., 2002). *Knowledge* is defined as awareness and understanding of various subject matters, how these topics relate to democratic society, and the systems and processes of democratic decision-making and governance. Galston (2001) claimed

that without knowledge, it is difficult to make sense of new information, and citizens can become alienated from civic life. Knowledge outcomes have been examined numerous ways in the literature, but this epistemological component of civic competence essentially consists of two domains: *academic knowledge* and *civic knowledge*.

Academic Knowledge. *Academic knowledge* refers to course content and how students learn content through relevant community-based learning. A common area of inquiry is the investigation of the effect of community-based learning on student learning of course content and their grades. While grade attainment involves more than knowledge outcomes alone, they are presumably related to student knowledge of course material. Everett (1998) described the elements of his community-based learning course in sociology, including the service options, reading assignments, and both written and discursive reflection. Based on a post-course survey and his own observations, Everett concluded that students learned more from the community-based learning experience than they would have otherwise. Astin et al. (2000) of the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) collected longitudinal data from over 20,000 undergraduates, 30% of whom participated in community-based learning. They pre-tested numerous outcomes in students' first year of college and again four years later. They found that community-based learning made a significant difference in students' grade point average (GPA).

Markus, Howard, and King (1993) conducted an experiment on community-based learning in sections of an upper-level political science course. They compared pre- and post-course questionnaires, course grades, and attendance data. In an unusual design, the community-based learning sections were randomly assigned to avoid self-selection

effects. They reported significant increases in the community-based learning students' civic competence on numerous measures, including academic knowledge. Markus et al. (1993) reported that students who participated in the community-based learning sections had significantly better grades than those in the comparison group.

Likewise, Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) compared community service with community-based learning in a quantitative analysis of more than 22,000 students. Their research found that all outcome measures were enhanced by service, but community-based learning had effects above service alone on several components of cognitive growth, including GPA. Gallini and Moely (2003) revealed that the community-based learning students in their research studied longer and deepened their understanding of academic content more than non-community-based learning students. Similar results have been published by Gottlieb and Robinson (2002). Strage (2004) followed students who took an introductory course with a community-based learning component through more advanced classes. Both at the time of service and later in their educational careers, community-based learning students achieved higher grades than comparison groups, especially in more active and discussion-based courses. The difference, however, was modest, and in lecture courses virtually absent, indicating that perhaps the academic benefits of community-based learning apply only to certain kinds of courses.

Academic knowledge can also be applied to civic contexts. Eyler and Giles (1999) defined application as "the degree to which students can link what they are doing in the classroom to what they are experiencing in the community and vice versa" (p. 170). They argued that the ability to apply learning predicts other academic learning

outcomes (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Likewise, Colby et al. (2007) suggested that application of service to political issues can help students understand the impact of abstract topics such as policy on real people's lives.

Eyler and Giles (1999) contributed significantly to the community-based learning literature through their book reporting the results of two large scale national studies investigating the outcomes of community-based learning for a variety of institutions and programs. They used both quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect data, drawing primarily from surveys and interviews before and after community-based learning courses. Eyler and Giles found that students in highly integrated community-based learning classes were more likely than others to use their knowledge to solve problems. Astin and Sax (1998) found that students in course-based service were significantly more likely to report understanding of problems facing the nation. In their comprehensive review of 37 articles related to service and citizenship, Perry and Katula (2001) reported that service tends to increase cognitive understanding of civic issues. Neither Astin and Sax nor Perry and Katula's studies examined the pedagogical approaches that led to the outcomes they studied.

Kiely (2005) conducted a longitudinal case study of an international community-based learning program. The students in his study developed a critical understanding of the systemic issues they were experiencing, an outcome he attributed to daily reflection and dialogue with diverse members of the community. He also noted the apparent significance of combining affective learning with critical reflection to support transformation, though he did not examine other instructional elements.

In some cases, however, evidence indicates a gap between service and application of learning to solve civic problems. Hughes et al. (2009) studied 32 participants in a community-based learning course in which college students mentored younger peers in high poverty high schools. They reported that the college students demonstrated gains in their commitment to civic participation, but not in learning strategies to solve the problem they were examining. While students learned about poverty and had ongoing relationships with mentees, they “apparently did not believe they had learned strategies to address the conditions of the environments they encountered, such as progressive public policy or the reallocation of limited financial resources” (p. 76). This finding highlights how service alone does not necessarily lead to application of academic knowledge.

Civic Knowledge. *Civic knowledge* means understanding how democratic society operates—i.e. the laws, policies, and procedures of democratic decision-making and governance—as well as understanding the social and political issues at hand. Galston (2001) argued that civic knowledge is the most significant component of civic development. He discussed the importance of civic knowledge to help people understand individual and group interests, alter their views on specific civic issues, create ideological consistency, and promote support for democratic values. Colby et al. (2007) focused on political knowledge specifically. They argued for the development of several types of political understanding, such as foundational (how the system of government works), current events, how to participate, and a realistic view of the complexity of public decision-making (e.g. tradeoffs and negotiating interests). Galston likewise claimed that civic knowledge promotes broad democratic values and can affect views on specific

issues, as well as general trust of government. Civic knowledge thus influences both quantity and quality of civic participation.

Wang and Jackson (2005) examined “knowing the needs of the community” and found that students entering service with a charity orientation had a lower ranking on this kind of knowledge than those with a social justice orientation. Moely, McFarland, Miron, Mercer, and Ilustre (2002a) compared community-based learning and non-community-based learning students on pre- and post-course measures of civic competence. The students in their sample were in a variety of courses and disciplines, but their community-based learning was coordinated by the Tulane University Office of Service-Learning. Moely et al. (2002a) reported that students in the community-based learning group of their study increased in measures of political awareness, while their comparison group actually decreased in this area. Cress et al. (2001) examined leadership development through community-based learning and revealed that the more hours students spent volunteering, the greater the gains in leadership knowledge.

Prentice and Robinson (2010) used a pre-post design, surveying students and faculty at multiple campuses for the American Association of Community Colleges. They found that on all learning measurements, students in community-based learning courses reported higher scores than the non-service-learners, although on global understanding and citizenship the difference was not significant. They also found that 79% of community-based learning students learned how to become more involved in their communities, though political participation was not examined. Colby et al. (2007) found that the political engagement courses they studied had a positive impact on

students' political knowledge. Aside from their work and a handful of others (Cress, 2004; Prentice & Robinson, 2010) discussed in further detail below, research has not considered how nuanced pedagogical methods affect knowledge gains in community-based learning. Nonetheless, the literature above establishes knowledge as one epistemological component of civic competence, with academic and civic domains. Students need both academic knowledge and civic knowledge to develop civic competence.

Skills

Though knowledge and skills are sometimes indistinct in community-based learning literature, some scholars have highlighted the special role of skills in civic competence. In order to competently engage with challenging concerns such as homelessness or climate change, citizens must have the skills to understand their complexity and to advocate a position. *Skill* is defined as the developed ability to do something well. Most scholarship in the area of skills falls into the category of either *academic skills* or *civic skills*, though scholars have had varying approaches to their categorization. Although the line between the two is blurry, *academic skills* are essential for academic success and include critical thinking, writing, and general communication, while *civic skills* are specifically necessary in civic contexts and include advocacy, community-building skills such as intercultural communication and collective decision-making, and solving complex, ill-structured problems.

Academic Skills. Academic skills include critical thinking, writing, and communication. Competence in these areas is certainly valuable for effective civic

participation, but also extremely important for academic and professional success.

Numerous studies have provided support for the notion that community-based learning can help students develop the foundational academic skills for civic competence. Hudson (1996) analyzed student term papers, judging them to be improved from years past—a change he attributed to a more authoritative understanding of the issues as a result of community-based learning experiences. Several studies from HERI have also reported gains in critical thinking and writing skills (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin et al., 2000; Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000).

Likewise, Nokes, Nickitas, Keida, and Neville (2003) tested the critical thinking, cultural competence, and civic engagement of nursing students before and after their participation in community-based learning. After the intervention they reported significant increases in civic engagement (which they measured with a Likert-type instrument of 12 indicators all related to civic competence), but decreases in self-reported critical thinking and cultural competence scores, which the authors suggest could be due to shaken confidence as a result of the community-based learning experience awakening students to complex problems. Their sample, however, was quite small ($n = 14$) for statistical analysis.

Other data have also shown mixed results for critical thinking. Cress (2004) researched community-based learning Senior Capstone courses at Portland State University. Her study used pre- and post- course data, asking a sample of about 1,000 students to rate themselves on a variety of measures and then indicate their experience as a result of participation in the Capstone course. She found that while two thirds of the

students in her study believed their critical thinking skills were stronger as a result of the course, another third did not—a finding she tentatively attributed to high pre-course ratings on this measure. Further, Cress found that readings related to civic responsibility and social issues were significantly related to their understanding of these issues and how to make a difference in the community, but for the most part were not significantly linked to critical thinking. Cress also reported that lecturing was significantly related to critical thinking, which may indicate the importance of lectures for clarifying student understanding or satisfying the needs of more introverted learners. She recommended that learning goals and rationale for activities should be clearly explained in the syllabus and that faculty use lecture to enhance learning.

Eyler et al. (1997) reported on one piece of the Comparing Models of Service-learning project also examined by Eyler and Giles (1999). This study used self-report data to measure a variety of outcomes. Eyler et al. did not find a significant effect of community-based learning on critical thinking, issue identification, or communication, though Eyler and Giles did find evidence that community-based learning could lead to cognitive development in their larger study. Hunter and Brisbin (2000) argued that single term studies might not adequately represent the influence of community-based learning on academic skills that develop over time, and this limitation of much community-based learning research could apply to critical thinking findings in particular.

Civic Skills. Beyond traditional academic skills such as critical thinking and general communication, some scholars have paid special attention to the development of skills in the civic and political milieu, though there is overlap in their descriptions with

academic skills. Kirlin (2002) argued that failure to develop civic skills is a key reason why community-based learning does not consistently yield civic competence outcomes. She examined the National Standards for Civics and Education, developed by the Center for Civic Education in 1994 and reviewed research on civic engagement, noting additional skills that others discussed (Kirlin, 2003). As a result, Kirlin grouped civic skills into four categories: organization, communication, collective decision-making, and critical thinking. Within these groupings are such individual skills as teamwork, listening, perspective-taking, English and vocabulary, writing letters, making a speech or presentation, identifying and describing information, synthesizing and explaining information, evaluating, taking and defending positions, and planning strategies for action.

In a similar vein, Gottlieb and Robinson (2002) also sorted civic skills into four categories: intellectual, participatory, research, and persuasion. Despite the overlap, Gottlieb and Robinson described some skills not named by Kirlin (2003). Intellectual skills include working with information and data, understanding issues and laws, establishing criteria for making judgments, identifying rights and responsibilities, and knowing how to take action. Participatory skills entail influencing policies, building coalitions, negotiating and compromising, clarifying values, and listening and working with diverse others. Utilizing information resources, tracking issues, attending public meetings, and evaluating the media are all research skills. The skills of persuasion include writing letters to press and officials, utilizing the legal system for rights and interests, developing rationale, and leadership to get others involved.

Colby et al. (2007) focused specifically on political skills, articulating yet another four groupings: political influence and action, political analysis and judgment, communication and leadership, and teamwork and collaboration. They stressed the need for deliberative capacity and metacognitive skills for effective political participation. Other scholars (Battistoni, 1997; Colby et al., 2003; Eyler et al., 1997; Keeter et al., 2002) have similarly discussed civic skills. Verba et al. (1995) reported that civic skills predict political participation better than such variables as job level, religiosity, organizational affiliation, and free time. Commenting on the work of Verba et al., Kirlin (2003) remarked, "Possession of civic skills appears to be a very important component for political participation" (p. 5), yet community-based learning scholarship has yielded relatively little to help practitioners understand domain specific skill acquisition.

Among the various conceptualizations, ability to communicate one's position, communicate and participate in collective decision-making with diverse others, and grapple with ill-structured problems stand out as the core components of competence in civic skills. Very little research has examined these components specifically, however. Keeter et al. (2002) revealed that students who have been taught skills like letter writing and debating are more likely to participate in those same kinds of activities outside of the school environment, but their study was not specific to community-based learning. Only three of the articles in Perry and Katula's (2001) review examined civic skill development, an outcome that they highlighted as needing future research. Eyler et al. (1997) determined that community-based learning predicted self-reported political participation skills. Sax and Astin (1997) and Astin and Sax (1998) demonstrated that

service enhanced conflict resolution and cooperative work skills. Eyler et al. (1997) were careful to point out that while their results generally show that community-based learning has an impact on students, they do not explain how particular kinds of community-based learning affect those results and they do not discuss pedagogical influences. Further, Wang and Jackson (2005) reported that students tended to rank their support of civic involvement higher than their own skill level. Kirlin (2002) analyzed published literature about community-based learning and concluded that civic skill development is frequently missing from community-based learning course design. Perhaps that absence explains Hunter and Brisbin's (2000) finding of no change in levels of self-reported civic skills.

In contrast, Jay (2008) argued that negotiation and discussion across difference are important democratic skills that community-based learning can build. Keen and Hall (2009) concluded that community-based learning offers important opportunities for intercultural dialogue. Einfield and Collins (2008) observed significant empathy, attachment, and respect in their study's participants, which they deemed indications of multicultural skills associated with interpersonal relationships more broadly. Astin and Sax (1998) found that service positively affected interpersonal skills, as well as students' ability to get along with people of different backgrounds. Colby et al. (2007) found that gains in political skills are related to opportunities to observe and practice skills "such as deliberation, advocacy, organizing, and campaigning" (p. 14). Similar to their finding about critical thinking, Eyler and Giles (1999) found that only students in high quality placements showed significant changes in their communication skills, which they

attributed to opportunities to share their ideas and participate in collaborative decision-making.

Moreover, Eyler and Giles (1999) remarked that “Democracy is an ill-structured problem” (p. 152) without easy solutions or a clear “right” and “wrong.” Along those lines, the issues addressed through community-based learning are what Blount (2009) described as “swamp problems” (p. 274) because of their complexity. Such problems require perspective-taking and an advanced level of cognitive development. Though college students do not typically attain the high levels of cognitive development needed to resolve ill-structured problems, (King & Kitchener, 1994), they can nonetheless make progress toward that goal (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Eyler and Giles (1999) found that depth and frequency of reflection with direct connections between course material and service experience led to improved ability to grapple with ill-structured problems.

Likewise, Batchelder and Root (1994) examined students’ responses to a task of social problem analysis as well as weekly journals and an evaluation in a pre-post format. The researchers explained that the courses included opportunities for reflection through individual journals and group discussions. They examined cognitive change on a number of measures; of most interest to this review is their finding that community-based learning increased students’ prosocial reasoning, their ability to act amid uncertainty, and their acknowledgement of the complexity of social problems. Further, they correlated student outcomes with “Instructional Quality” (p. 351), which included autonomy, in-class reflection, and instructor support to adjust to the community-based learning experience. Instructional Quality was significantly correlated to a number of outcomes,

including prosocial reasoning. Reflection and support were found to be particularly important when students experienced problems in their community-based learning work. Community-based learning thus appears to facilitate both academic skill and civic skill development, although the two are clearly interrelated. Therefore the domains of academic skills and civic skills together make skills another essential epistemological component of civic competence.

Dispositions

Bowen's (1977) use of the word "disposition" with respect to citizenship competence provided a useful overarching frame for the variety of civic outcomes that fall within this component of civic competence. *Disposition* is defined as the values and attitudes that create an inclination toward action. Disposition connotes tendency or state of mind—applied to civic competence as the inclination toward civic engagement. Disposition encompasses values such as the appreciation of diversity, equality, social justice, and attitudes such as political opinions or feelings about civic participation generally. The term "disposition" is not frequently used in community-based learning literature but is an apt conceptualization to enhance the new model of civic competence for community-based learning presented in this study.

Values. Implicit to the notion of democratic society is common regard for fellow citizens. Keeter et al. (2002) conducted a national study of civic and political behavior in the American public. They found a strong correlation between civic values and behavior. Appreciation of diversity and social justice values have been the focus of values outcomes in community-based learning scholarship (Saltmarsh, 2005).

Wang and Jackson (2005) and Mitchell (2008) observed that the relationship between social justice and charity has been construed in theoretical literature in two main ways: as a continuum and as two distinct paradigms. In the continuum model, a charitable approach to service learning is a developmental step along the way toward a social justice approach. In other words, students may initially view themselves as providing a social need, but may eventually come to recognize—and work to change—the social systems within which that need has arisen. Wang and Jackson also suggested that instructors who seek such development work deliberately “so as to intentionally foster student awareness of social justice” (p. 39). In contrast, Ludlum Foos (1998) argued that charity and social justice are two distinct forms of community-based learning, not a developmental continuum.

When viewed as two distinct paradigms as in Ludlum Foos’ (1998) conceptualization, community-based learning faculty may not consider social justice values as an important outcome. Nonetheless, a critical theory perspective challenges charitable approaches to community-based learning as maintaining an unjust status quo rather than empowering students to question social structures and power dynamics to create a more just society (Freire, 1970; McLaren, 2003; Wang & Jackson, 2005). Moreover, critical theorists emphasize the importance of learning for the purpose of taking action. For example, Freire’s (1970) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* argued that education either reinforces injustice or works to eradicate it. Freire described the concept of praxis, or reflection with action, as a desirable outcome in education. Achieving praxis in community-based learning means that reflection leads to action on the problem

addressed by service (Merrifield, 2001). To that end, democratic society by definition spreads power among people to safeguard against its concentration in too few hands. If the goal of community-based learning is civic competence, which as defined in this study supports democratic society, then valuing a socially just distribution of power is a necessary component of civic competence.

In their own study of students' perceptions, Wang and Jackson (2005) examined the relationship between students' charity or social justice perspectives and the six different components of civic development these researchers used. Students with a social justice orientation rated their knowledge and skills as higher than those with a charity orientation. Wang and Jackson also reported that most of the students in their sample viewed civic involvement from a charitable perspective rather than a social justice lens, though many shifted perspective over the duration of their service experience, particularly in conjunction with their own skill development. The authors concluded that if social justice is a desired outcome of community-based learning, practitioners must be quite intentional in their planning to reach this end, but they stopped short of any substantive analysis of what instructors should do accordingly—noting the need for further research to help explain the mechanisms involved in civic development.

Other scholarship has also found growth in the social justice outcome through community-based learning. Eyler and Giles (1999) stated that the students in their research came to value social justice more highly as a result of their service, and that application of service work to course concepts and discussion contributed to the change. Moely et al. (2002a) found increases in social justice outcomes in their comparison of

community-based learning and non-community-based learning students. Cress (2004) reported gains in students' inclination toward social justice over the course of a term. Moely, Furco, and Reed (2008) explored how students' orientations toward charity or social change affected outcomes. With a multi-institution pre-post design, they discovered that most students had a charity orientation entering the term (though many did not have a strong preference for one or the other), and that those whose service tasks matched their preference had better learning outcomes.

To that end, research has exposed some of the challenges of achieving social justice outcomes. Keen and Hall (2009) found only moderate growth in students' value of social justice. Lewis (2004) described the effort at Denison University to reorient community-based learning from a charity to social justice approach. She described several courses for which she and another faculty member undertook this transition. Based on her experience, Lewis emphasized the need for multiple and long-term relationships among stakeholders and the investment of considerable faculty and staff time to develop and maintain projects with a social justice focus. She concluded that a charitable approach is easier for faculty and still generates student learning improvements, suggesting that social change work is much more time and resource intensive. Social justice is thus a tenuous outcome of community-based learning, though increasing values toward systemic change are an indication of civic competence.

Furthermore, in an age of intense partisan politics, increasing demographic diversity, and globalization, any model of civic competence must consider the importance of preparing students to participate in a pluralistic democratic society (Battistoni et al.,

2009). A 1995 AAC&U report argued that today's students "must learn, in every part of their educational experience, to live creatively with the multiplicity, ambiguity, and irreducible differences that are the defining conditions of the contemporary world" (p. xxii, as cited in Laird et al., 2005). Dey, Barnhardt, Antonaros, Ott, and Holsapple (2009) suggested that bridging diversity has always been a hallmark of democratic decisions. They indicated even the founders of the United States understood that "the sustainability of a democracy depends on its citizens' possession of knowledge, judgment, skill, and willingness to engage with other citizens—who, in this country, have always come from highly diverse cultural, ethnic, religious, and socioeconomic circumstances" (p. ix). Civic competence thus must include citizens' appreciation of diversity.

Jay (2008), Dunlap and Webster (2009), Einfield and Collins (2008), Laird et al. (2005), Sperling (2007), and Vogelgesang (2004) have all discussed the ways in which community-based learning can facilitate student understanding of diversity. Saltmarsh and Heffernan (2000) suggested that community-based learning engages students in issues of "equity, difference, inclusion, tolerance, justice, and power" (p. 5). One explanation of such strong endorsements is that students in community-based learning courses often interact with peers or community members with backgrounds different from their own. Laird et al. (2005) recounted studies demonstrating that such interaction predicts democratic engagement, and Kuh (2008) indicated that working with difference could be one reason that educational practices such as community-based learning have a high impact on learning. Moreover, Bennett's (1993) Developmental Model of

Intercultural Sensitivity suggests that understanding diversity exists on a spectrum with denial of difference at one end and shared power at the other, connecting diversity to social justice on a developmental scale.

Nevertheless, a few points about the relationship between community-based learning and increased appreciation for diversity warrant attention. First, many community-based learning placements do not involve working with difference. Even then, though, community-based learning can be a way to engage diversity within classrooms and explore culturally-influenced concepts of citizenship (Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002). Of course, students could be at relatively homogeneous campuses in which such diversity does not come from their peer group, or they could be at sites where the focus is on environmental issues or administrative work. Unless a researcher has recorded these variables, their data may be misleading. Second, authors such as Sperling (2007) have warned against community-based learning that puts White college students in positions serving Black and Latino populations. Sperling argued that such re-creation of power and privilege can actually undermine multicultural education rather than support it.

Given these caveats, the literature reveals a mixture of outcomes on this measure. Eyler and Giles (1999), Astin and Sax (1998), and Vogelgesang and Astin (2000), reported that community-based learning reduced racial stereotypes and prejudice. Astin et al. (2000) described community-based learning students' increased interest in promoting racial understanding. Markus et al. (1993) detailed increased tolerance of others in the community-based learning sections of the political science courses they

studied. Hunter and Brisbin (2000) used a pretest-posttest design at three institutions in West Virginia. They described a significant difference in appreciation of diversity after the term compared to beforehand. Their research did not examine the service experiences or teaching methodologies in the sample courses, influences they offered for future examination.

Moely et al. (2002a) did not find expected effects for appreciation of diversity, which the researchers speculated was a limitation of either the instrument or the community-based learning placements. Because the Tulane program they studied emphasizes quality placements, though, with application, opportunities for reflection, and diversity in class and at service sites, these characteristics would likely be experienced by their sample. Their research did not distinguish any other pedagogical components.

Waldstein and Reiher (2001) studied community-based learning at the secondary level, but their finding is worth noting. They examined the effects of community-based learning among ninth graders in six school districts in the Midwest and tracked whether the teacher used reflection. They found that students who did not reflect actually demonstrated more tolerance for diversity, raising serious questions about the reflection that did take place. The researchers emphasized that they did not explore the variable of *how* students reflect, which could be a significant factor in its influence. They encouraged future research exploring in further detail how reflection is accomplished.

Inclusion, or the appreciation of diversity, is thus another component of civic competence that community-based learning can potentially develop, but has done so with mixed results to date.

Attitudes. Disposition includes attitudes in addition to values, though again the distinction is not always clear in the literature. An inclination toward civic participation necessitates positive attitudes toward democratic engagement as way to resolve problems. Eyler and Giles (1999) commented that democracy “requires citizens who have developed positive attitudes about community involvement, the intellectual abilities to think and plan, and the understanding to live with uncertainty” (p. 152). Scholarship around attitudes has focused on politics and civic participation generally. Unfortunately, many scholars have observed a current of negativity underlying political engagement throughout much of the nation.

Reeher and Cammarano (1997), Canfield (1997), Keeter et al. (2002), and Kovacs and Shea (2010) have all described the negative atmosphere around politics. Reeher and Cammarano observed “a widely held and profoundly felt sense of political alienation; a distrust of organized political institutions, particularly the government; an anger toward or ambivalence about politics more generally; and a felt absence of constructive avenues for meaningful political engagement” (p. 2). Canfield (1997) called attention to students who have come to her classes “not only with a disinterest in politics...but also with an assumption that they cannot connect to the system in any meaningful way” (p. 215). She said that students “are unsure how to be effective citizens and unsure if citizenship would benefit them” (p. 215). Keeter et al. (2002) also noted the anti-political climate in which young people have grown up. While Kovacs and Shea (2010) asserted “near universal agreement that civil politics is essential for a healthy democracy,” (p. 8), they found that young people were least likely of any age group to be able to imagine a respectful

political climate—a sad commentary on the state of democratic dialogue in this country. Such attitudes are clearly problematic in a democratic society such as the United States that relies upon participation of citizens in decision-making processes.

In addition, Kiesa et al. (2007) reported that the Millennial generation students — born between 1985-2004 and currently the dominant generation in college—have “grown up with fast-paced electronic entertainment, hate being bored, are frustrated with inefficiency, and want instant gratification of seeing the results of their actions” (Kiesa et al., 2007, p. 22). The report pointed out that students just starting to engage in democratic society can be easily disappointed with the small scale or slow pace of change, or the losses that may come before victories. Parker-Gwin and Mabry (1998) made a similar observation in explaining the results of their study, which compared civic outcomes in required and optional service learning courses. They found slightly *less* positive feelings about community service at the end of the term compared to the beginning. Disappointment, frustration, and disillusionment, however, may be attitudes about civic participation that faculty can help put into perspective (Colby et al., 2007). Research has not yet broached how faculty manage students’ expectations or facilitate discussion to develop a positive civic attitude among students. Kellogg (1999) analyzed student reflection papers over the course of a term and cited a paper in which a student wrote of feeling “overwhelmed” and “burnt out” after being heavily involved with community work (p. 70). This student’s experience is an indication that exposure to the needs of a community can be disheartening and lead to negativity.

Likewise, Hunter and Brisbin (2000) questioned the assumption that community-based learning enhances civic participation. Their study showed only a limited impact of service on students' political attitudes and behaviors. However, their sample was limited and the authors acknowledged that no distinction was made in their research of different teaching methodologies or how extensively instructors nurtured civic competence. In a similar vein, Wang and Jackson (2005) built on previous research to explore students' perceptions of civic involvement. They administered pre- and post-course surveys to students in 19 different community-based learning courses in various colleges at Ohio State University. They reported that while students expressed the importance of civic involvement, they did not necessarily feel responsible to take action or believe they had adequate skill and knowledge to do so. The epistemological component of dispositions thus includes the domains of values and attitudes, but is also limited to these inclinations. Wang and Jackson's finding highlights the necessity of a fourth component to civic competence that includes a commitment to civic responsibility through efficacy in action.

Identity

Identity is the final component of civic competence, but perhaps the one most important for an epistemological model. *Identity* is defined as a commitment to civic responsibility through efficacy in action. Identity means not only having a positive attitude toward the responsibilities of citizenship, but seeing oneself as a socially responsible citizen with the capacity for active and effective participation in democratic society. Knefelcamp (2008) described the characteristics of civic identity. According to her, civic identity (1) develops through engagement with others in real work, (2) is not

the same as but is related to complex cognitive and moral development, (3) requires holistic integration of empathy and cognition, and (4) becomes chosen and repeated. It is the first piece of Knefelcamp's explanation—engagement with others in real work—that so critically speaks to the community-based learning experience, though the other aspects are certainly related. Knefelcamp described how AAC&U has strongly advocated for the development of civic identity as an outcome of liberal education, but “the data also reveals a gap between the ideal and the real: Educators want to foster civic growth, but we aren't necessarily successful in doing so” (p. 3). Little research has explored civic identity in community-based learning, and yet the act of service has powerful potential to develop a commitment to civic responsibility through efficacy in action.

Incorporating a sense of civic responsibility into one's self-concept is the central notion of identity. Research has now demonstrated fairly consistent, although sometimes small, gains in personal, social, or civic responsibility (with terminology varying by study) through community-based learning. For example, Eyler et al. (1997) reported significant relationships between community-based learning and social responsibility. However, their research also examined differences between students who chose community-based learning and those who did not, finding substantial differences prior to community-based learning between the two—an indication of self-selection bias. Astin et al. (2000) found that community-based learning had a positive effect on commitment to social responsibility. Myers-Lipton (1998) used a quasi-experimental nonequivalent control group design to examine the civic outcomes of community-based learning. His focus was a two-year comprehensive community-based learning program at a university

in the Western U.S. with an explicitly civic mission. His sample was small and, like much other community-based learning research, susceptible to selection bias.

Nevertheless, the data indicated greater increases in civic responsibility for the community-based learning students than their randomly selected non-service peers.

Myers-Lipton emphasized that the results were not immediate and this program had the advantage of two-year duration. He also underscored the need for qualitative research to provide a more complete understanding of how community-based learning achieves the results it does.

Markus et al. (1993) found a significant effect of community-based learning in increasing the importance students gave to volunteering and social responsibility. Giles and Eyster (1994) reported growth in students' sense of civic responsibility as well as the importance of influencing the political process. Moely et al. (2002a) found that students in the community-based learning courses demonstrated significant increases in civic responsibility. Jones and Abes (2004) investigated the long-term effects of community-based learning two to four years later through interviews with a small sample of students. While not all of the students in their sample continued to be committed to the cause of their service (in this case, HIV/AIDS), they all reported a greater sense of social responsibility as a result of their experience. Kellogg (1999) compared student reflection papers over the course of a community-based learning program and concluded that several students showed growth in the area of civic responsibility. Hughes et al. (2009) conducted a case study of a university-based mentoring program and reported gains in civic responsibility. Kendrick (1996) compared outcomes in courses with and without

community-based learning, finding statistically significant differences in measures of social responsibility, with the community-based learning students showing greater increases than the comparison group. Others have found similar gains in social responsibility values (Cress, 2004; Gray et al., 1999; Moely et al., 2002b; Sylvester, 2010; Waldstein & Reiher, 2001), though Hudson (1996) and Bernacki and Jaeger (2008) did not.

Furthermore, Keen and Hall (2009) reported data from a longitudinal study of the co-curricular and service-based Bonner Scholar Program at 23 liberal arts colleges with a primarily traditional student body. The researchers collected surveys from participants, who were already academically strong. While the investigators reported strong effects from freshman to senior year on the importance of community service, the authors in this study noted that many students indicated a high level of civic responsibility prior to entering the program—another manifestation of selection bias. Keen and Hall's (2009) work highlights a fundamental flaw in community-based learning scholarship to date. Because so many studies are conducted with community-based learning courses that students have self-selected into, civic responsibility may already be a part of students' identity to some degree, raising questions about the validity of measures of civic responsibility alone to demonstrate the effects of community-based learning.

In addition, Einfeld and Collins (2008) conducted a qualitative study of a campus based AmeriCorps program. Participants in their research increased their understanding of social inequality and their multicultural awareness, but did not always feel responsible for promoting social justice. They concluded that “being exposed to situations of

inequality and serving underprivileged populations does not automatically foster a commitment to social justice” (p. 106). Colby et al. (2003) articulated a similar point:

In order to be civically and politically engaged and active, people have to care about the issues and value this kind of contribution. But socially responsible values alone are not sufficient to motivate action. People also have to believe that it matters what they think and do civically and politically and that it is possible for them to make some difference. This belief is what we mean by having a sense of...efficacy. (p. 122)

A commitment to social or civic responsibility is the essence of identity, but a model of civic competence would be incomplete if it did not recognize that a socially responsible identity is reinforced through efficacy in action. Born from knowledge and skill development and embedded dispositions, efficacy in action is the ultimate accountability for civic engagement that solidifies civic competence as a way of knowing.

Efficacy. Efficacy is a precursor to action (Colby et al., 2007; Giles & Eyler, 1994). Efficacy is rooted in sociocognitive theory. Cognitive psychologist Albert Bandura (1989) described self-efficacy as the primary mechanism through which people exercise the free will of human agency. Efficacy is related to motivation, but is distinct from beliefs, values, actual expertise, or expectation of success (Bandura, 1997; Colby et al., 2007; Reeb, Katsuyama, Sammon, & Yoder, 1998), and does not mean being unrealistically confident (Miller, 1997). Bandura (1989, 1997) recognized that efficacy is domain specific. A person can feel generally confident on a personal level but not at all efficacious in the civic or political arenas. At the same time, efficacy in a certain domain is highly predictive of behaviors in that milieu (Bandura, 1997; Colby et al., 2007; Galston, 2007). *Civic efficacy* is thus the specific application of self-efficacy to the civic domain. Incorporated within civic efficacy is students' confidence in their own civic

knowledge and skills, but also their confidence in others' civic abilities (collective efficacy), confidence in the political domain (internal political efficacy), and confidence in the political system (external political efficacy) (Bandura, 1997; Colby et al., 2003; Colby et al., 2007; Sylvester, 2010).

Numerous studies have demonstrated that students who value civic participation may still lack a sense of civic self-efficacy. Wang and Jackson (2005) reported that students ranked the belief-oriented components of civic responsibility higher than the ability-oriented components, suggesting that "students have more confidence in their beliefs than the ability to act" (p. 46). Kendrick (1996) likewise reported gains in social responsibility but not in efficacy, where the gains were insignificant. Kiesa et al. (2007) reported that their participants perceived political involvement to be daunting because of its complexity and their feeling unqualified to participate (Kiesa et al., 2007). They determined that the decision of whether or not to get involved in an activity is heavily dependent on the impact people think they will have. Their study focused on the Millennial generation and it is unclear how well their findings apply to older students, but together these studies indicate that efficacy is a key component of competence.

Scholarship has begun to cover efficacy in community-based learning, though evidence is still relatively sparse. Reeb et al. (1998) developed and tested the Community Service Self-Efficacy Scale. They defined "self-efficacy for community service" as "the student's confidence that he or she has the capacity to make clinically significant contributions to the community through service" (p. 48). Their scale does not address efficacy outside of service, but they did find that community-based learning

enhanced community service self-efficacy. Using Reeb et al.'s (1998) scale, Stewart (2008) found that service-learning enhanced community-service self-efficacy, particularly for women, those who had served previously, and students involved in religious activity. Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) and Astin and Sax (1998) found that the opportunity to serve, whether through a class or otherwise, significantly affected students' civic efficacy as measured by their belief that an individual can effect change in society. Though their samples were large and representative of many types of institutions, neither study differentiated the quality of service or any of the teaching factors that could affect results.

Giles and Eyler (1994) found that students believed others could have an impact on social problems but were less confident in their own abilities. In their study community-based learning students showed increases in civic efficacy, but they were not statistically significant. In a similar vein, Colby et al. (2007) found that students in their political engagement study already had relatively high levels of politically engaged identity and efficacy, but there was growth among those with lower initial levels. Eyler et al. (1997) concluded that community-based learning enhances civic efficacy, and Yeh (2010) found that students developed civic efficacy through their service work helping others because it helped them to feel less overwhelmed by big problems.

The results of other studies show mixed results about the relationship between service and efficacy. Markus et al. (1993) found a significant difference at the end of the term between the randomly assigned community-based learning and non-community-based learning students on individual capacity to make a difference, but the growth from

pre-test to post-test was insignificant. Rockquemore and Schaffer (2000) suggested that community-based learning can expose students to shocking conditions that they are not prepared to handle. Students overwhelmed with the depth of the problems they witness in community-based learning can feel disempowered as a result (Colby et al., 2007; Stokamer, 2011). Hudson (1996) studied his own students in a policy class with community-based learning. He noted that the students in the course were already high on civic measures at the beginning of the term, and he did not find statistically significant differences in efficacy from the beginning of the term to the end, though there were small positive changes. However, Hudson did observe a sense of growing empowerment and confidence in the discussions, particularly related to how students spoke about public policy issues with the authority of first-hand understanding after their community-based learning experiences.

Miller (1997) cited previous studies indicating no significant increases in students' self-efficacy around their ability to create change (Hudson, 1996; Kendrick, 1996; Markus et al., 1993). Given the small sample size of each of those studies, Miller hypothesized that students in his larger sample of 451 would have an increased sense of their own civic efficacy. His results indicated otherwise, however. Students in Miller's study reported that confidence in their own and others' abilities to make a difference in the world *decreased* after community-based learning.

Researchers have reached some viable conclusions for these mixed efficacy effects. One is the "ceiling effect" (Reeb et al., 1998), in which students enter community-based learning with relatively high levels of efficacy and therefore their

growth is statistically obscured. Another plausible explanation for decreases in efficacy after community-based learning courses is that students' experience with community-based learning helps them arrive at a more realistic understanding of themselves and what is needed to create change. Researchers such as Miller (1997) and Mabry (1998) have reached such conclusions. Miller optimistically suggested that "Perhaps the reported decline represents not so much a loss of idealism as a gain in realism" (p. 19). A more realistic understanding could be an important indicator that is a positive step in the direction of civic competence. Miller (1997) concluded that community-based learning practitioners need to be able to help students see the impact they are having, but in a realistic light of the complexity of problems in our world.

Self-efficacy theory hints at how faculty might be able to help students develop efficacy. Reeb et al. (1998) recounted Bandura's four influences on self-efficacy: (1) past successes and failures, (2) vicarious observation of other's successes and failures, (3) verbal encouragement or discouragement from others, and (4) expectations that set the stage for one's experience of a situation. Educators could utilize each of these stimuli to develop civic efficacy through community-based learning, though how they do so already has not yet been explored in published research. There is also scarce mention of specific forms of efficacy in the community-based learning literature, though they could be an important component of students' civic development. Some studies, such as Markus et al. (1993), Giles and Eyler (1994), and Eyler, et al. (1997) reported students' opinions on the impacts they believed others could have on civic issues. All observed gains in this indicator of collective efficacy in conjunction with community-based learning.

Furthermore, Colby et al. (2007) and Sylvester (2010) studied political efficacy. Colby et al. (2007) examined individual courses as well as collective trends in courses with a political engagement focus that represented diverse institutions, courses, programs, and content. Some of the programs in their sample included community-based learning, while others did not; some were course-based and others were co-curricular. Many were in government, political science, or public policy disciplines. The research team interviewed faculty as well as students, conducted pre- and post-participation surveys, and analyzed syllabi, assignments, and student work samples. Colby et al. (2007) found that interventions with a strong emphasis on teaching political skills led to greater sense of political efficacy than approaches without a skills orientation. Sylvester (2010) found that community-based learning increased students' sense of internal and external political efficacy. She emphasized policy issues in her course to help students see their place in the political system and better understand political processes. Sylvester reported that students made significant gains in measures of political efficacy. In contrast, Hunter and Brisbin (2000) observed no change in political efficacy. These limited findings, though, point to an area of future research.

Action. Although Bandura (1997), Colby et al. (2007), and Galston (2007), highlighted the importance of efficacy for future civic participation, the relationship between the two is not straightforward. As Colby et al. (2007) pointed out, motivation can come as a result of participation rather than a precursor to it. Evidence suggests that service provides a way for students to feel effective (Colby et al., 2007; Kiesa et al., 2007; Reeb et al., 1998; Stewart, 2008; Sylvester, 2010), but civic competence means that

such efficacy leads back to service and other forms of civic participation in democratic society. In other words, the act of service is not only the culmination of other components of competence, but also a precursor to them. The components of civic competence are not linear, but interrelated and mutually reinforcing. Community-based learning thus has a particular role to play in providing students with the opportunity to take action, reflect on their experience, build their sense of efficacy to motivate future civic participation, and develop their identity as socially responsible citizens. This opportunity for efficacy in action is the heart of experiential learning and needs to be included in a comprehensive epistemological model of community-based learning for civic competence.

Community-based learning is based on principles of experiential learning. Breunig (2005) defined experiential education as “a philosophy and methodology in which educators purposefully engage with learners in direct experience and focused reflection in order to increase knowledge, develop skills, and clarify values” (p. 471). Dewey (1903/2002, 1916, 1938) was the foundational scholar to articulate an educational theory rooted in experience and an oft-cited figure in community-based learning literature (Morton & Saltmarsh, 1997; Saltmarsh, 1996) due to the emphasis in his work on experiential education for and through democracy. According to the theories of Dewey (1938) and Kolb (1984), adults learn through a cyclical process based on experience. In Kolb’s model, learners have an experience, reflect on that experience, formulate ideas, generalizations or theories, and then test their formulations with action, which leads back to the beginning of the cycle. The experiential approach provides authentic situations for

learning that draw students in and require new kinds of thinking. Cress et al. (2005), Jacoby (2003), McEwen (1996), and others have tied Kolb's theory to community-based learning and civic development. The potential of community-based learning to thus develop efficacy in action could be especially important for helping students to understand that democratic society is shaped by an iterative process of action and reflection—civic participation does not end with the act of service.

Some scholars have expressed concern that community-based learning builds a passion for service but not other civic activities. Flanagan and Levine (2010) reported that volunteering is the only of ten forms of citizenship in which young people are more likely to participate today than in the 1970s, which the authors attributed to school efforts to encourage volunteering. Many people have grown accustomed to one-day projects that they can fit into their schedules and have felt more impact with service than in their experience with politics (Kiesa et al., 2007). Students in Kiesa et al.'s (2007) study indicated that they wanted "to know that the time they spend is productive and will directly assist others or directly change something—often, the life of one individual" (p. 22). They found that these students "perceive politics as slow-moving as well as messy and hard to understand" (p. 22). One student interviewed for the study illustrated this point, commenting, "If you were to write a letter to the President, it's probably not going to make a big difference. But when I can just sit and talk to a kid, then I feel like I'm actually doing something" (p. 22). This quote demonstrates that the student wanted to feel effective in making a contribution to society. Service is where she could see that impact. Faculty are therefore challenged to develop civic identity that builds on the act of

service, but also extends to the multiple and sustained forms of civic engagement needed for democratic society.

To that end, a commitment to civic responsibility through efficacy in action means understanding that competent civic participation is an ongoing process that involves *both* action and learning. Decisions may lead to unintended consequences, or changing circumstances require new decisions (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Eyler and Giles (1999) declared that if community-based learning students can come to understand that “Citizens in a democracy must be able to tolerate uncertainty and make decisions in spite of the doubt inherent in the process,” then “they are discovering something essential about the nature of these issues” (p. 103). In a similar vein, Eyler (2002) explained this inherent tension in democratic society:

As citizens attempting to address social issues, we must ultimately be able to evaluate conflicting information and perspectives and arrive at a decision for action, recognizing that our knowledge and our decision are tentative. We may discover new information or perspectives tomorrow that will cause us to modify the direction taken today, but often we must act today. (p. 522)

Likewise, Loeb (1999) described the trap of citizens feeling like they need to know more in order to participate. Colby et al. (2007) argued that educators must find ways to help students learn how to act with incomplete knowledge.

While competent action is needed for effective civic engagement (Galston, 2001), democratic society necessitates that action occur with whatever degree of competence one has. If people waited until they felt thoroughly knowledgeable or skilled before taking action, civic participation would be relegated to an elite portion of the population—contrary to the very notion of democratic society. Educators are therefore

faced with a balancing act of on one hand motivating students to become as competent as possible, while on the other hand emphasizing that participation in democracy is needed at all levels of understanding, and even politicians themselves must at times act with incomplete knowledge (Stokamer, 2011). Ultimately, faculty can underscore the importance of developing knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity, while at the same time encouraging students to act despite the limitations of their competence. In community-based learning, practitioners have an opportunity to develop students' commitment to civic responsibility through efficacy in action, thereby, as Dewey (1916, 1938) suggested, to learn *through* civic engagement, not just *for* civic engagement. How they manage to do so is virtually unexamined in the literature.

Nonetheless, existing research indicates that community-based learning can lead to efficacy in action—a commitment to civic participation and the integration of civic responsibility into identity. Eyler and Giles (1999) described how community-based learning students demonstrated the integration of community involvement into their identity. Cress found that 60% of students in her sample at Portland State University improved their view of themselves as citizens through their community-based learning Senior Capstone courses. Kerrigan (2004) conducted focus groups with alumni of this same Capstone program. Many of her participants had woven service into their daily lives, though by and large they could not remember clearly what techniques their instructors had used. Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) reported that community-based learning increased commitment to activism, and Perry and Katula (2001) found that community-based learning positively and consistently affected students' intentions of

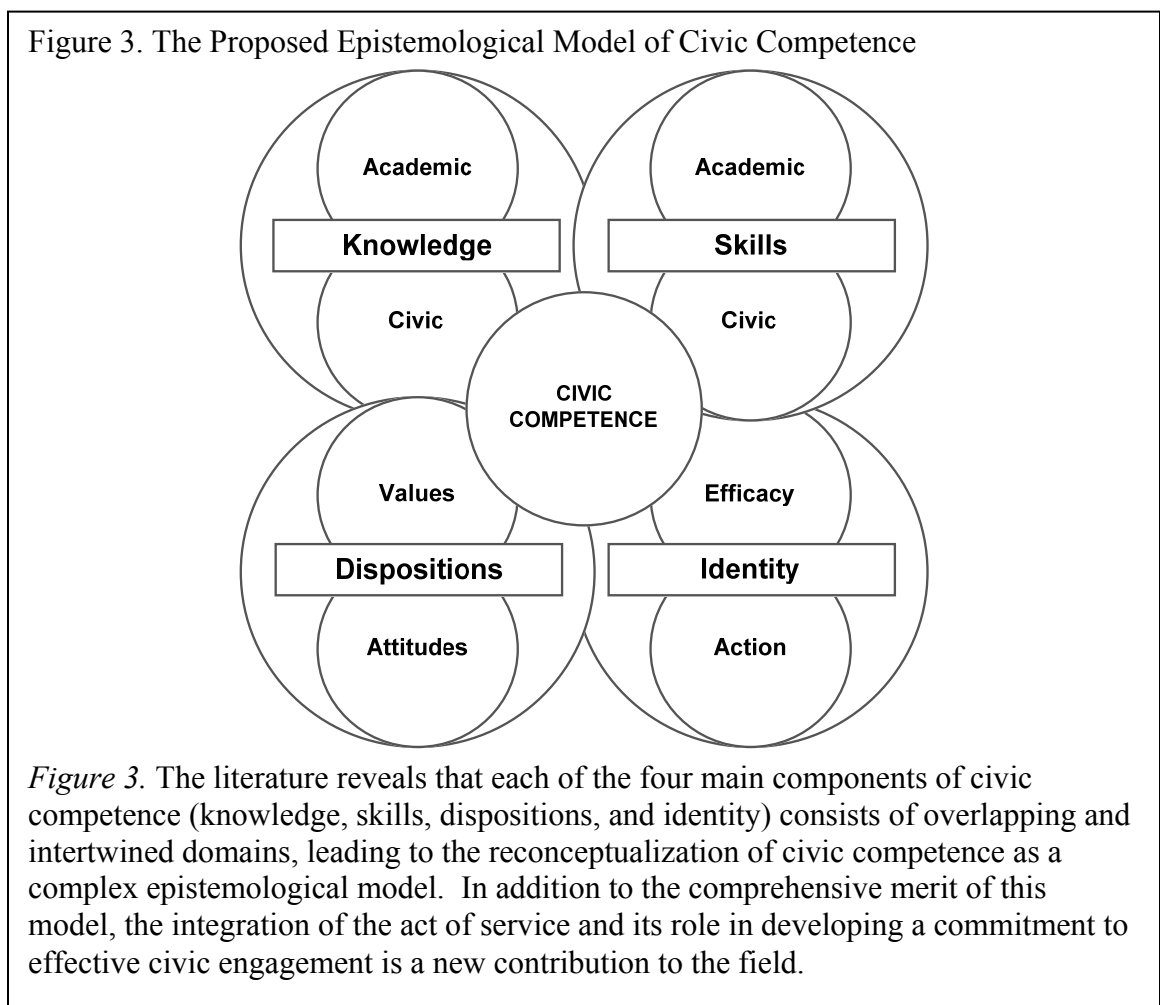
future giving and volunteerism. Most published literature, though, does not specifically examine identity as an outcome, leaving an opening for future research.

In fact, examination of long-term efficacy in action is what is really needed to assess how well community-based learning develops identity, but such longitudinal research is rare. Astin and Sax (1998) analyzed multi-institutional, longitudinal data using seven measures of civic commitment and comparing students who participated in service in college and those who did not. All but one measure revealed that service participation significantly enhanced outcomes—the remaining one approached but did not reach significance. Astin et al. (2000) followed students through college and found gains in civic identity indicated by career choice and intention to participate in service after graduation, which are at least signs of long-term changes in identity. Identity is thus an essential epistemological component of civic competence, encompassing the sense of responsibility necessary for civic engagement, but also reinforcing responsibility through efficacy in action.

Summary: Reconceptualizing Civic Competence

The literature is replete with studies demonstrating at least modest gains in civic competence, though the picture of how such gains occur is far from complete. Scholars have examined community-based learning outcomes using a wide variety of methods, instruments, variables, and categories of analysis. Students rarely think in terms of these kinds of civic outcomes (Eyler & Giles, 1999), but they represent the evidence that community-based learning *can* lead to civic competence. Further, while developing a sense of civic responsibility has long been an implicit aspect of community-based

learning literature, scholarship has not yet captured the nuances of how community-based learning contributes to an epistemological shift to a deeper understanding of oneself and accountability to others through efficacy in action. Figure 3 shows each of the four main epistemological components of civic competence (knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity) that emerged from Bowen’s (1977) work, along with the domains elaborated in this review. The result is a comprehensive model based on the literature and a straightforward conceptualization of civic competence outcomes in the specific context of community-based learning.



Moreover, this four-component model with eight overlapping domains provides a fresh and parsimonious approach for understanding the process of civic competence development in community-based learning. It is not a static model, but one in which there is interaction among components such that they are mutually reinforcing and equally necessary for civic competence. Civic competence as construed here is an ongoing process of taking action, learning, acquiring skills, feeling compelled to act, and deepening commitment to social responsibility through further and increasingly effective action. Applied specifically to community-based learning, the epistemological model of civic competence incorporates action such as service as the conceptual linchpin, recognizing that action is not just the culmination of competence but an integral part of it. The act of service in community-based learning is inextricably intertwined with other components of civic competence. Through the act of service, students' interest is piqued and emotions stirred, leading them to engage more deeply in the development of skills and knowledge (Felton, Gilchrest, & Darby, 2006). Through the act of service, students can have experiences that develop the values and attitudes needed to competently work toward a just democratic society (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Through the act of service, students can strengthen their identity as effective and civically responsible citizens. Thus through the act of service, students come to know civic competence in a new way—the epistemological shift that is the defining feature of the new model of civic competence.

The literature strongly indicates the potential of community-based learning to develop civic competence. Nevertheless, the effect of community-based learning has generally been found to be modest and inconsistent (Eyler & Giles, 1999), and some

studies have not shown entirely favorable results (Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Parker-Gwin & Mabry, 1998). In addition, most of the research providing evidence of the effect of community-based learning on civic competence does not capture the instructional influences on those outcomes (e.g. Astin et al., 2000; Eyler et al., 1997; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Perry & Katula, 2001). For example, Markus et al. (1993) used course evaluation data, but not teaching practices. Wang and Jackson (2005) recommended that faculty deliberately plan for social justice outcomes, but they did not study what faculty already do. Moely et al. (2002a) estimated that the community-based learning courses taken by their sample of students involved high quality placements, opportunities for reflection, and diversity in class and on site, but they provided no evidence to support this claim. Kiely (2005) acknowledged that research has demonstrated the transformative potential of community-based learning on students' civic, moral, personal, and intellectual development, but it has not explored the learning processes that have led to varied results. In sum, few studies have examined pedagogical elements in community-based learning alongside student outcomes.

Pedagogical Elements of Community-Based Learning for Civic Competence

Though the scholarship connecting civic competence directly to teaching practices has been relatively scarce, research has begun to explore the pedagogy of community-based learning. This section will examine what is known about the pedagogical elements of community-based learning for civic competence. In order to capitalize on the potential of community-based learning for civic competence, it is essential to understand the pedagogical elements of community-based learning and how

they could affect learning. The literature reviewed suggests that the pedagogy of community-based learning for civic competence consists of four core key elements: course design, teaching strategies, integration of service, and iterative teaching. Within each pedagogical element, various facets of teaching emerge from the literature and are potential catalysts of civic competence.

Course Design

A critical pedagogical element of community-based learning is planning the design of a course before the term begins. *Course design* is defined as the plan of instruction, typically created prior to a course begins and including such tasks as establishing goals and objectives, determining readings and assignments, establishing grading and assessment schemes, and planning the sequence and schedule. Course design is perhaps best represented through the syllabus (Heffernan, 2001). Speaking about multicultural education in community-based learning, Jay (2008) wrote that outcomes depend on “careful construction of a syllabus that prepares students properly for their placement, giving them the critical concepts they will need for analyzing their experience and connecting it to the academic learning goals for the course” (p. 278-279). The same could be said of civic competence. Despite the importance of course design for establishing the structure for student learning, published literature has not thoroughly examined how faculty plan these aspects of their community-based learning courses to include civic competence.

Goals and Objectives. *Goals* are broad statements of general desired outcomes of learning, while *objectives* are more specific and define what an outcome “looks like” as a

process or demonstrable output (Dean, 1994). Dick, Carey, and Carey (2005) suggested that precise learning objectives consist of behaviors, conditions, and criteria. Behaviors are observable demonstrations of learning. Dick et al. advocated for use of specific verbs to indicate intellectual skills, such as “*identify, classify, demonstrate, or generate*” (p. 127) or similar actions that show learning. Conditions supply the contexts of instruction and application. Criteria are the standards for judging whether learning objectives have been met. Each aspect of an objective should be developmentally appropriate for the students. Dick et al. argued that clearly stated learning objectives can help students know what they are supposed to be learning, help faculty plan their courses, and help administrators review program curricula.

Articulation of clear goals for service and learning is one of the “principles of good practice” of community-based learning that came out of the Wingspread Conference on community-based learning in 1989, an early gathering of scholars that laid the foundation for growth in the field (Mintz & Hesser, 1996). Howard (2001), Cress (2004), and Colby et al. (2007) recommended that faculty explicitly communicate the goals and objectives of their community-based work to students, such as through the syllabus. Moreover, Saltmarsh (2005) argued, “Civic learning outcomes need to be thoughtfully constructed and carefully assessed if there is a serious interest in knowing that students are learning the knowledge, skills, and values for active, engaged civic participation” (p. 53). The extent to which civic themes appear in the goals and objectives of community-based learning syllabi or elsewhere in instructional materials could therefore be one indication of faculty intentions around civic competence.

In reality, however, goals and objectives do not always form a clear path from faculty intention to student learning, particularly in the counternormative pedagogy of community-based learning (Howard, 1998). In some cases, such as the Senior Capstone courses studied by Cress (2004) and Kerrigan (2004), the goals are programmatic or otherwise predetermined. Further, while many faculty write their own learning objectives, others have limited control over them, such as adjunct or new faculty who have adopted another's syllabus on short notice. Another way that outcomes can veer from goals is if there is a misalignment between objectives and course design or learning activities (Howard, 2001). Disconnection between objectives and instruction can be mitigated through intentionality—deliberately considering how to best cultivate learning from objective to fruition (Checkoway, 2001; Colby et al., 2007; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Howard, 2001; Jay, 2008; King et al., 2007; Kirlin, 2002; Meacham, 2008; Saltmarsh, 2005; Wang & Jackson, 2005).

Moreover, some scholars have de-emphasized instructor-driven learning objectives determined before a course begins. For example, Tenant and Pogson (1995) noted that the self-directedness of the learner is an important consideration in adult education. Drawing on the traditions of community educators Myles Horton and Paolo Freire, they observed that truly liberating education models social justice through the distribution of power in the teacher-learner relationship. Given the influence of social justice concepts evident in the community-based learning literature (Einfield & Collins, 2008; Koliba, 2004; Lewis, 2004; Mitchell, 2008; Saltmarsh, 1996; Wang & Jackson, 2005), faculty may be inclined to find creative ways to include students in writing the

goals or objectives of service. In a similar vein, Stoecker and Tryon (2009) advocated for faculty to at the very least communicate the learning objectives to community partners, if not seek their input. Still, Tenant and Pogson pointed out that liberation philosophy is difficult to enact in large bureaucratic educational systems such as universities.

Little is known about how faculty construct learning outcomes for community-based learning or the extent to which they have a civic focus. Whether or how faculty include others in determining the community-based learning objectives, or what the institutional or programmatic constraints are in doing so have not yet been examined in published literature. Heffernan (2001) reviewed hundreds of community-based learning course syllabi and observed that faculty frequently conflated goals and objectives. She argued that such confusion is not necessarily a problem, unless students are unable to determine what they are expected to learn or how to demonstrate their learning. Further, Heffernan examined the civic content of syllabi and found that much work remains in conveying civic objectives, as many faculty emphasized individualism in both the needs of the community and student work rather than the public, collective, and systemic issues. She noted that explaining the course connection to civic goals and objectives is one characteristic of “civic syllabi” (p. 113) and provided a number of examples where faculty do so.

In addition, Lewis (2004) described the adoption of social justice goals for her community-based learning courses, but also the challenges that ensued in implementing them. Others, such as Kendrick (1996), Myers-Lipton (1998), Kellogg (1999), and Bernacki and Jaeger (2008) outlined the goals or objectives of their own courses, though

the single course design of their studies limits inference of any broader patterns. Howard (2001) created a workbook to help faculty think through their academic and civic objectives, but literature has not examined whether faculty utilize his or any other specific strategy. Much research is needed to more fully understand the significance and creation of community-based learning objectives for civic competence and to guide practitioners in this facet of teaching.

Readings and Assignments. What students have to do for a class is an important part of course design and faculty planning. Besides the service work discussed below, however, the attention given this facet of teaching in the literature has been negligible. Most published research does not include much information about readings in community-based learning or their relationship to civic competence. Cress (2004) produced one of the few studies that examined both student outcomes and specific instructional approaches. In addition to assessing the development of critical thinking among students, Cress explored instructional techniques associated with that outcome. In doing so she argued, "...faculty serve as the catalyst for creating connections between the course content, the service experience, and broader student learning achievements" (p. 88). She found that readings about civic responsibility and social issues were significantly related to students' understanding of these issues and how to make a difference in the community, but for the most part were not significantly linked to critical thinking. Axlund, Renner, and Cress (2009) conducted a survey of more than 2,500 faculty members in Western Region Campus Compact Consortium schools, representing 47 diverse campuses and institution types. While 43% identified their work as

community-based learning and 38% discussed civic responsibility or local political issues in class, far fewer—24%—assigned readings related to civic competence.

Other discussions of course readings have been scattered in research. Colby et al. (2007) noted that readings can expose students to diverse perspectives needed for political understanding. They emphasized that developing a good reading list requires a lot of effort, and recommended that institutions create mechanisms for faculty to share their lists within and across campuses. Lewis (2004) briefly noted how students' reading of material related to their service work to help them understand concepts such as social inequality. Hudson (1996) and Mendel-Reyes (1998) provided examples of students connecting their service work to course readings, helping them to apply what was previously an abstract concept. Sylvester (2010) touched on common readings around market forces to help students understand the scarcity they would encounter during service. Colby et al. (2003) examined moral and civic education at postsecondary institutions throughout the United States, including an in-depth analysis of 12 schools. They provided numerous examples of readings that have been used to foster civic and moral development throughout their book, though they did not appear to investigate patterns among the readings in courses they studied. Likewise, Heffernan (2001) included sample syllabi with reading lists but did not report any analysis of them. Their examples at least provide a starting point for faculty in an area in which they otherwise have relatively little guidance.

There is a similar dearth of literature about assignments in community-based learning courses. Heffernan (2001) recommended that faculty explain the civic

components of assignments in community-based learning courses. She observed the prevalence of writing assignments in syllabi she reviewed and encouraged readers to include other kinds of work. Colby et al. (2007) conducted careful analysis of 21 courses and programs through the Political Engagement Project. Their work does not focus exclusively on community-based learning, though the practice is one type of placement they highlighted. They found that political research and action projects could facilitate student political learning, but did not go into depth on other particular assignments. Among all the scholars who have written about their own courses (e.g. Hudson, 1996; Kellogg, 1999; Kendrick, 1996; Miller, 1997), Sylvester (2010) is a rare example of one who outlined each assignment in her course: an op-ed piece, an exam, a term paper, and a research presentation. Seldom are such details provided about assignments faculty use to develop civic competence, which is a facet of teaching clearly in need of further research.

Grading and Assessment. Dean (1994) described *assessment* as the process through which faculty can determine “the learner’s competence in the learning goals and objectives” (p. 97), noting that the process of evaluation can also lead to learners’ self-awareness, self-confidence, and commitment to learning, as well as increased communication between teacher and student. Student assessment can also inform future teaching strategies or course design (Dean, 1994; Gelmon, 2003). To be clear, *assessment* can also refer to a broader approach used to evaluate teaching, programs, or partnerships (Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, & Kerrigan, 2000), but here the focus is on assessment of student learning as a facet of teaching.

Community-based learning assessment can consist of both formative and summative assessment strategies (Howard, 2001). Formative assessment provides feedback to students about their learning in progress, while summative assessment provides a summary evaluation of student learning, such as a grade. Howard (2001) emphasized the alignment of assessment with learning objectives and strategies. Likewise, Hesser (1995) wrote that “Every time faculty read students’ papers, journals, or exams, or listen to the quality of discussion in a seminar, they are responsible for discerning whether learning is taking place” (p. 35). Though assessment is a necessary responsibility of faculty, very little scholarship speaks to how they gauge civic competence. There is a nascent body of literature surrounding community-based learning assessment, however, which provides some guidance for faculty.

Ash and Clayton (2004) offered their model of articulated learning not only as a guide to produce student reflection, but also as a product for formative and summative assessment of learning. Cooks and Scharrer (2006) also advocated for using student reflection papers as one form of assessment data in community-based learning. Karayan and Gathercoal (2005) wrote about their use of electronic portfolios to assess community-based learning in teacher education. They lauded the ability of such an approach to enable students to link their service work directly to learning objectives in a way that supervisors and instructors could easily provide ongoing feedback and assessment of their work. Though they did not specifically reference civic objectives, portfolios could be readily adapted to focus on civic competence in community-based learning.

Colby et al. (2003) noted that grading civic outcomes can be difficult. They emphasized that faculty should not grade values, for example, even if gaining an appreciation of civic responsibility is a learning objective. Gonzalez and Golden (2009) highlighted assessment concerns in the community-based learning partnership. They reported that some community partners are given full responsibility for grading students' service work, often with little training or guidance from faculty. Others work collaboratively with faculty to determine a grade, some provide input but are not primarily responsible, and still others are not asked to participate in assessment of student learning at all. Gonzalez and Golden also pointed out that community partners can feel conflicted about providing feedback about performance at the service site that could lower a student's GPA. Although presumably faculty base grades on the assignments and course architecture laid out in the syllabus, the details of that work, how they use formative assessment, and the role of community partner in community-based learning assessment have not yet been sufficiently explained through research.

Sequence and Schedule. The ordering of lessons is another important facet of teaching in community-based learning course design (Dean, 1994; Dick et al., 2005; Gagné, Briggs, & Wager, 1988; Heffernan, 2001). Dean explained that some sequencing decisions are preliminary, and made as part of the process of planning overall course design, while another round of sequencing occurs for an individual lesson or class period. Dean presented several different criteria for determining the order of instruction, but the concept most frequently referenced in community-based learning literature is scaffolding.

Colby et al. (2007) described scaffolding as breaking down knowledge and skills into more manageable steps for learning. Constructivist and experiential learning theories support the concept of scaffolding. Vygotsky's notion of the zone of proximal development is fundamental to constructivism (Cone & Harris, 1996; Merrifield, 2001). This idea represents the learning just beyond students' reach, and suggests that learning occurs when students are challenged to move to the next zone in their understanding. Constructivist thinking undergirds the idea of "challenge and support" central to pedagogical practice and student development (Cranton, 2002; Delve, Mintz, & Stewart, 1990, McEwen; 1996; Stelljes, 2007). Heffernan (2001) stated that sequencing requires faculty to anticipate the kinds of students they have, their disciplinary background, and what their questions will be, implying that careful scaffolding can help faculty challenge and support their students to facilitate their learning. She also noted that the course calendar tends to catch students' attention, and recommended that instructors include the service component in the calendar along with readings, assignments, and themes. Moreover, experiential learning theory also supports sequencing to scaffold student learning. McEwen (1996) recommended that community-based learning courses move students through the Kolb cycle and suggested that Kolb's work implied a particular sequence of learning in community-based learning: experience, followed by reflection, and only then generalization of concepts.

Whether community-based learning faculty sequence instruction for civic competence is largely unknown. Sylvester (2010) discussed the importance of scaffolding to help students connect community-based learning to political engagement

and efficacy. She suggested using the service experience as a platform to analyze concepts such as empowerment or discuss stories of political action. Colby et al. (2007) applied the concept of scaffolding to civic skills, suggesting that instructors can demonstrate what mastery of a skill looks like as well as performance at lower levels. They argued that doing so helps students see a clear path to skill improvement. Jay (2008) also speculated about sequencing. Jay noted that in his courses, opening a unit with exercises about White privilege gave students the conceptual language and tools they later needed in order to analyze their experience, a sequence he established only after having difficulty with the unit. In a similar vein, Colby et al. (2007) found that relevant lectures can provide students with enough information to effectively contribute to future discussions, an idea also supported by Cress (2004). Heffernan (2001) provided sample syllabi with course schedules but did not specifically connect sequencing to civic competence. How to sequence activities to catalyze civic competence in community-based learning seems an area ripe for research.

The literature indicates that designing a community-based learning course presents a number of challenges for faculty. If they are intentional in implementation of civic competence objectives, then they must weave civic content into assignments and readings, but without sacrificing the academic rigor of the course (Howard, 2001). Likewise, they must sequence the course and individual readings and assignments in a way that fosters civic development and scaffolds student learning. How faculty approach the challenges of these facets of teaching and the relationship of their decisions to civic

competence, however, has not been well researched. More research has been conducted about some of the teaching strategies faculty use to promote civic competence.

Teaching Strategies

Teaching for civic competence means implementing the design with learning activities that bring the syllabus to life. *Teaching strategies* are defined as techniques faculty use to help learners achieve one or more learning objectives. Howard (2001) distinguished between classroom teaching strategies (such as simulations, reflective discussion, or small group work) and student assignments (such as papers, journals, and interviews), though there is obvious overlap between the planning of assignments as described above and their implementation during the term. Knefelcamp (2008) argued that “Rehearsal for civic engagement requires multiple experiences and opportunities for learning...[which] should include time to reflect with others, active discussion about choices and their possible consequences, and imaginative exercises that help students commit to a better and more just society” (p. 3). A few teaching strategies appear in the community-based learning literature with some frequency, such as reflection and dialogue, while other learning activities are less frequently discussed.

Reflection. Facilitating reflection is an essential facet of teaching in the pedagogy of community-based learning. Often included as part of the definition of community-based learning (Cress et al., 2005), reflection has probably received more recognition in the literature than any other component of community-based learning instruction. Eyler (2001) referred to reflection as “the hyphen in service and learning” (p. 35)—linking the two and enhancing both. According to Emirbayer and Mische (1998), Dewey sought “to

replace unreflective habits with ‘intelligent’ ones” (p. 973) for the purpose of democratic vitality. Dewey (1938) theorized that quality experience and reflection are the basis for learning. In experiential learning theory, new knowledge is acquired by fitting it into existing knowledge and patterns of understanding (Cone & Harris, 1996; Merrifield, 2001). Fiddler and Marienau (2008) explained that reflection leads to newly integrated understanding of experience, and Mezirow (2000) posited that reflection can lead to perspective transformation. Rosenberger (2000) drew from Freire, emphasizing dialogue and problem-posing to develop critical reflection in community-based learning. Cress et al. (2005) and Eyler and Giles (1999) highlighted Kolb’s work and how his concept of reflective observation applies to students’ making sense of their community-based learning experience. Eyler and Giles observed that “[s]tudents do not draw on what they have learned without considerable practice linking what they are studying in the classroom and what they are observing in the field through structured reflection” (p. 77). Without reflection, community-based learning in effect disintegrates into an additive experience, or volunteerism without intentional learning (Eyler, 2002; Hatcher et al., 2004; Howard, 2001).

Faculty can utilize reflection in a variety of ways in community-based learning. Colby et al. (2007) noted that reflection is not just about sharing feelings, but drawing connections and analyzing experience. Delve et al. (1990) suggested that structured reflection can clarify values and positionality, and help students make the connection between their service and broader, systemic issues. Reflection can also assist students in processing moral concerns (McEwen, 1996). Mabry (1998) recommended reflection

with community placement site supervisors, as well as with the instructor and other students in community-based learning. Similarly, Eyler (2002) reviewed literature on reflection in community-based learning and developed a map for reflecting alone, with classmates, and with community partners, before, during, and after service. Axlund et al. (2009) found that written reflection and group discussion were the most common forms of reflection used by faculty members.

Research has demonstrated the importance of deep and regular reflection to the outcomes of community-based learning (Batchelder & Root, 1994; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Kiely, 2005). Eyler and Giles (1999) reported that reflection predicted the academic outcomes in their study, and that both amount and quality of reflection matter. They found that reflective writing was consistently linked to a variety of personal and academic gains, and suggested that it may be developmentally beneficial by creating space for self-exploration, questions, and insights. Hatcher et al. (2004) conducted a multi-campus study in which students reported on the design of their community-based learning courses. They concluded that frequent reflection that was well structured, had clear expectations, and clarified personal values was most strongly associated with course quality, and recommended that standards for reflection and assessment criteria be clearly outlined in course syllabi. Parker-Gwin and Mabry (1998) examined the inclusion of reflection, broadly construed, in community-based learning. They reported that the number of reflection activities was positively correlated with student interest in the course.

Reflection, though, is not necessarily easy to facilitate. Ash and Clayton (2004) explained that many instructors have a difficult time applying the concepts of reflection effectively. They pointed out that poor quality reflection not only misses the opportunity for the most effective learning from service, but also can be destructive if through the process students reinforce stereotypes or do not challenge their assumptions. Kerrigan (2004) asked the alumni in her focus groups about keeping journals, and the reviews were mixed. Some students noted their value while others considered them busywork—especially when the journal was more of a log to track hours than a deeply reflective writing experience. Fiddler and Marienau (2008) argued that reflection in community-based learning “requires both an understanding of the concept and the skills to actually apply it” (p. 76). They indicated that faculty can help students develop “reflective capacity and skills” (p. 79) so that reflection becomes a habit of mind.

To that end, faculty seeking to improve their reflection facilitation techniques do have some guidance in the literature. Hatcher and Bringle (1997) suggested that effective reflection must have five characteristics: (1) link experience to learning, (2) be guided, (3) occur regularly, (4) permit feedback and assessment, and (5) encourage the exploration of values. Likewise, Eyler and Giles (1999) outlined several practices for high quality reflection based on their own research. They called these the “Five C’s”: (1) Connection (between service and coursework, and between people), (2) Continuity (ongoing reflection before, during, and after service), (3) Context (application of learning to the service and the setting of reflection), (4) Challenge (developing increasingly

complex ways of thinking), and (5) Coaching (providing the instructional support of challenge and growth).

Ash and Clayton (2004) developed a model for structured reflection in which students articulate their learning through a series of carefully crafted questions that prompt them to not only report on the fact that they have learned, but to demonstrate how. Their model is intended to capture learning in the academic, personal, and civic arenas, which they consider the three main categories of learning in community-based learning. Ash, Clayton and Atkinson (2005) used the “articulated learning” rubric as the basis of further research, to determine whether use of this tool led to improvements in learning outcomes over the course of a term in two different classes. They found that ongoing assessment and feedback helped students achieve higher scores on the rubric in academic, personal, and civic categories.

Other scholars have made specific recommendations about reflection based on their own experience. Fiume (2009) described what faculty should consider in developing community-based learning for civic engagement, suggesting prompts for reflection that lead students to make connections between readings, course materials, and their service experiences or consider how the knowledge they are gaining from the service experience fits with or challenges what they already know. Fiume recommended asking questions that require students “to explore the social, economic, and political conditions that create problems...” such as “Why does this organization exist?” (p. 86). Blount (2009) described her Service Opportunities for Leadership course as part of a

program review, assessing her own use of critical reflection to improve outcomes and her lessons learned.

Rockquomore and Shaffer (2000) analyzed student reflection journals. They observed a progression in community-based learning courses from shock to normalization and then engagement. They recommended that faculty stay attuned to these phases and adjust their teaching accordingly, moving students from descriptive to increasingly deep and integrative reflection. Mills (2001) described his experience transitioning from private, paper journals to an electronic format in which students could read each other's work. In his self-report, single course assessment, Mills reported that this approach helped him to more effectively implement Eyler and Giles' (1999) "five C's" of community-based learning reflection. Three terms of course evaluations also supported his conclusion that electronic journaling was an effective learning activity.

Reflection is clearly a core Teaching Strategy in community-based learning. Even though recognition of its importance is widespread and the evidence fairly strong of its benefits, the research about how faculty facilitate reflection is still thin. In addition, any particular ways in which faculty shape reflection to meet civic competence objectives is not clear from existing literature, though additional community-based learning scholarship has focused attention on the particular practice of reflective dialogue.

Dialogue. Although not always distinguished from written reflection, class discussion as a reflective practice is another facet of teaching that could catalyze civic competence. Carver (1997) noted that instructors leading class reflection of community-based learning can have a powerful effect on group norms, how key points are defined,

and what the group learns. Colby et al. (2007) emphasized that political deliberation helps people to reduce inaccuracies in their perceptions and feel outcomes are more legitimate even if they disagree. Others have focused on the need for facilitators to create the right atmosphere for civic dialogue (Koliba, 2004). Respectful civic dialogue in class could be a way to give students a chance to practice civic communication skills and to counter their potentially negative perceptions about the civility of politics (Kovacs & Shea, 2010). Koliba (2004) expressed the need to create space for “political talk” (p. 63). He argued that in order for reflective discussion to be effective, “students must feel there is a supportive space to honestly and openly express their thoughts, feelings, and analysis” (p. 63). Koliba discussed practices he used in his own classes, such as creating group norms around political discussion. Likewise, Galston (2007) reported a comprehensive study of nearly 100,000 teenagers in 28 countries, which found that school-based civic education is in fact effective at developing civic competence only when classroom climate encourages respectful civic dialogue. Keeter et al. (2002) had similar findings: students with teachers who promoted political discussion were found to be more likely to be civically engaged in the future.

Drawing heavily from Dewey (1938), Fiume (2009) carried the notion of reflective class discussion even farther and argued that faculty need to create space for dialogue that does not depend upon his or her authority, knowledge, or voice. Rather, he argued that students should be active participants in construction of discussion and engaged with each other and not just the professor. This approach means faculty must build active listening skills among students and model such skills by genuinely listening

to students. He noted that facilitating collaborative dialogue “requires the professor to go beyond standard teaching practices and adjust techniques so that the strengths of community-based learning pedagogy may maximize the classroom experience as a resource for learning and developing the skills of civic engagement” (p. 88). He pointed out that student voice means sanctioning the inclusion of personal experience, but within parameters that keep the conversation relevant rather than tangential. A key example is keeping students focused in light of the richness of experience—in the midst of student storytelling, facilitators may need to respectfully prompt connection or redirection back to course materials. Moreover, Fiume suggested that developing active and inclusive listening skills may require faculty to let go of being “in control” of how discussion unfolds because it is guided by student narrative, perhaps also valuing multiple ways of knowing and reinforcing the legitimacy of experiential knowledge.

These ideas have by and large been supported in the community-based learning literature, though it is also clear that high quality reflection is not consistent. Eyler and Giles (1999) stressed the importance of reflective discussion to move beyond sharing feelings to application of the service and discussion of related substantive issues. In their study, while nearly all instructors claimed to create space in their courses for sharing feelings and service experiences, only 15% of students claimed frequent analytical discussions in which they could apply their service work. Astin et al. (2000) reported that processing the experience with other students was an important component of community-based learning that contributed to student outcomes. While Kerrigan (2004) heard mixed reviews of journaling from students, active learning and peer interaction

stood out in their focus group discussions. Keen and Hall (2009) found positive academic, civic, and personal outcomes over the course of the four-year program, and highlighted the role of discussion among a diverse group of students—as well as program staff and service site supervisors—in achieving these effects. Nonetheless, scholars of community-based learning to date have paid more attention to the theory of reflective civic dialogue and whether discussion is included in courses than how it is facilitated by faculty, which remains a needed area of research.

Other Learning Activities. A few other learning activities are similarly promising, but seldom examined ways that faculty teach for civic competence. For example, both Colby et al. (2007) and Wang and Jackson (2005) recommended the use of guest speakers. Wang and Jackson also suggested observation exercises to increase students' confidence in their ability to act. Hollander and Hartley (2003) recommended that faculty use community-based learning to share with students local grassroots efforts to improve democratic society. Learning from the modeling of others' civic competence is rarely mentioned in community-based learning literature. McCabe (2004) and Colby et al. (2007) suggested using tools to help students analyze power.

In a similar vein, numerous authors have recommended providing opportunities to practice civic skills in community-based learning courses (Battistoni, 1997; Colby et al., 2007; Keeter et al., 2002; Kirlin, 2002; Lagemann 2008; Lee, Olszewski-Kubilius, Donahue, & Weimholt, 2008; Perry & Katula, 2001; Wang & Jackson, 2005). Civic skills include advocacy and intercultural communication, collective decision-making, and solving complex, ill-structured problems, so practicing these skills could include

activities such as mock testimony, a legislative committee role play, a problem-solving scenario, and the like. Moreover, “active experimentation” is a core component of Kolb’s (1984) cycle of learning. Activities in which students can practice civic skills in the safe space of a learning environment can therefore also help to solidify knowledge. Kirlin (2002) argued that practice is essential to developing civic skills. She indicated that because the civic domain is one of action and interaction, students “must practice the skills necessary for civic engagement; cognitive understanding of democracy is not sufficient” (p. 573). Eyster and Giles (1999), linked communication skills to participation in group decision-making. Koliba (2004) noted that “providing students with opportunities to make meaningful decisions...can be a crucial component in their development as active and engaged citizens (Almond & Verba, 1989; Berman, 1997)” (p. 59). Despite the proponents advocating for practice of civic skills, little scholarship has specifically addressed activities involving practice.

Likewise, Colby et al. (2007) also recommended explicitly discussing ideas about efficacy and learning activities to foster efficacy. For example, action projects with achievable goals allow students to experience small successes and take their work seriously, act collectively, temper cynicism and develop expertise. Cress and Duarte (2009) found that Latino students in their study particularly benefited from a pedagogy of community (which they call *pedagogia comunitaria*), including opportunities for group decision-making and discussions of social issues and civic responsibility. They encouraged faculty to use inclusive pedagogical practices that can help students from

diverse cultural backgrounds to become civically competent leaders. How faculty do so, however, is absent from the literature.

Utilizing teaching strategies that align with learning goals and objectives is a fundamental pedagogical element of community-based learning, and yet relatively unexplored in community-based learning scholarship. Though reflection through writing and dialogue is well established as a core facet of teaching in community-based learning pedagogy, faculty nevertheless face the challenge of eliciting deep and integrative reflection. If they attempt to do so through discussion, they must also establish a safe and supportive environment while at the same time ceding control of conversation to empower students' to steer the dialogue and make relevant connections between service and learning. Moreover, faculty may be able to facilitate civic competence through other learning activities, such as guest speakers or mock testimonies, but research is needed to more fully understand these and other ways that faculty teach for civic competence in community-based learning courses.

Integration of Service

Another significant pedagogical element of community-based learning is the actual service students do. Faculty must work within institutional and programmatic constraints to design a service experience that will best suit student learning and community partner needs. Integration of service is defined as weaving service into a course so that the tasks of service, the community partnership, and teacher and learner roles align with civic competence.

Service Tasks. The tasks of service encompass all aspects of the service work itself—such factors as duration of experience, whether the service is required, or whether it done as a group or independently—as well as the strength of the connection between the service work and the rest of the course. Arranging for meaningful service work is an important facet of teaching in community-based learning pedagogy. Several studies have examined the duration of service as a variable in community-based learning. Generally speaking, the longer the duration of service, the better for community partner and student. Smith (2008) theorized that duration is a key variable in whether community-based learning leads to civic development. Astin and Sax (1998) found a significant relationship between duration of service and civic outcomes. Mabry (1998) reported significant positive change in civic attitudes for the students in her study that served more than 14 hours and recommended that service activities be at least 15-19 hours to maximize benefit. Myers-Lipton (1998) speculated that length was a factor in the civic outcomes he observed. Einfield and Collins (2008) believed that the length of service of their participants—for whom at least 300 hours of AmeriCorps was a prerequisite of the sample—was a factor in development of ability to work with diverse others.

Duration of the community-based learning course might also play a part in whether faculty create opportunities for student-driven service. Battistoni (1997) suggested that faculty could give students a chance to practice civic engagement through planning a community-based learning experience. He argued that if students were given the ability to genuinely contribute to the planning of community-based learning projects, they could experience collective work on a task, interdependence, cooperation (or

working through conflict), and enhance their democratic learning and leadership skills as a result. He urged faculty to “make the experience of democratic community a part of the organization of the class and of the service team” so that “students get a better sense of the meaning of group responsibility, reciprocity, interdependence, and cooperation (or conflict)” (p. 154). He also recommended that students play a central role in the design and management of community-based learning programs. Based on his own research and others’, Battistoni claimed that students who have participatory experience in their own schooling are more skillful and aware of how political decisions are made. Still, Battistoni acknowledged that students’ inclusion in planning community-based learning projects can be logistically challenging with community partners or given the time constraints of academic terms.

Indeed, it is important to note that depending on the institution and program, faculty have varying degrees of control over service tasks. Faculty adopting community-based learning in their courses are typically bound within the institutional constructs of time, such as term length (Garcia, Nehrling, Martin, & SeBlonka, 2009; Wallace, 2000). When faculty are for whatever reason unable to carry out community-based learning for an entire course or are limited to a single term, however, they must determine whether the benefits of short-term community-based learning are worth the risks and investment of time for everyone (Tryon et al., 2008). Other elements of the service experience, such as whether the work is direct or indirect or students’ relationship with their placement supervisor could also factor into their civic competence (Batchelder & Root, 1994), though faculty may have limited influence in these areas. Related concerns are whether

service is scheduled within or outside of class time, especially with a nontraditional student body that is likely to have other work and family responsibilities (Smith, 2008).

Furthermore, if not teaching as part of a set program, faculty also need to determine whether or not to require service. Required service has received mixed reviews in the literature. For example, Marks and Jones (2004) found that required service in high school actually decreased the likelihood that students would serve in college. In contrast, Parker-Gwin and Mabry (1998) observed that “Requiring students to participate in service learning can potentially have positive outcomes by ‘pushing’ students to new situations that they may consider ultimately beneficial” (p. 287). Their observation relates to the notion of efficacy in action—students may through an act of service that they were “forced” to do, develop competence that in turn motivates future civic engagement. This effect, however, has not been well established in research. Moreover, given the prevalence of selection bias in community-based learning (Reeb et al., 1998)—most studies are done in courses that students chose—research on required community-based learning could therefore mitigate the effects of self-selection. Published literature has thus not sufficiently addressed how variations in service work shape and constrain pedagogy.

Beyond the nature of the service tasks, community-based learning scholars have not given much attention to researching how faculty explain community-based learning to students, though several have concluded that students need to understand why they are doing service. Cone and Harris (1996) described the importance of providing students with conceptual tools to help them frame their community-based learning experience.

Such conceptual frames could help students to put their service into perspective in light of course concepts and their own efficacy in action. Colby et al. (2007) found that

students are seldom encouraged to consider the full range of options available for addressing the issues and problems they care about. Instead of imagining an often complementary spectrum of civic and political actions that can be brought to bear on any given problem, they tend to think instead in bifurcated terms of the direct service volunteer work they are most familiar and comfortable with on the one hand and government action on the other. (p. 41)

Faculty can help students see the entire spectrum of civic and political actions.

In addition, an ongoing challenge in community-based learning is overcoming cynicism about politics and large scale social change (Hollander & Hartley, 2003). As described above, the work of Miller (1997) and Parker-Gwin and Mabry (1998) demonstrated that some students feel less capable of effective civic action after community-based learning. Though they discussed the idea that community-based learning helped students to have a more realistic view of the complexity of social problems—they did not discuss how faculty could mitigate that effect to motivate students.

Little is known about how faculty communicate realistic expectations to students, not only about what they can accomplish in the short term, but also about how their work fits into a bigger picture of creating social change. Mendel-Reyes (1998) commented that “The challenge of democratic education today is to teach students how to participate in a democracy that does not yet exist, and more, how to help to bring about that democracy” (p. 34). Her words are a reminder for faculty that they can empower students to create the democratic landscape that they would like to see. Similarly, Colby and Damon (1992) studied exemplary community participants and found a common willingness to do

work in which the fruits of their efforts were not immediately seen. They likened the work of these exemplars to cathedral builders, willing to do their part on a project that could span centuries—a metaphor community-based learning instructors could use with respect to solving complex problems and setting realistic expectations for service work. Along those lines, Colby et al. (2007) suggested helping students take a long-term view of democratic decision-making and social change. How faculty explain service and help students to see their work through a realistic lens is unknown.

Further, Astin et al. (2000) found that activities in which professors directly connected service to course material was a key element in academic understanding. Eyler and Giles (1999) reported a strong connection between outcomes such as communication or ability to work with others and service with a variety of interesting tasks, challenge, responsibility, and opportunities to apply course material. Colby et al. (2007) and Einfeld and Collins (2008), also stressed the importance of clear connections between service and course material. This kind of high quality integration of service tasks into the course necessitates collaboration with one or more community partners.

Community Partnership. Reciprocal partnerships are essential to the definition and quality implementation of community-based learning (Cress et al., 2005; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Jacoby, 1996; Kirby et al., 2006). Maintaining one or multiple partnerships with community agencies is one of the elements of community-based learning pedagogy that adds to its complexity (Abes et al., 2002; Howard, 1998), even deterring some faculty from the practice altogether (Abes et al., 2002). Though additional research is needed, scholarship has begun to explore the community

partnership aspect of community-based learning, particularly around issues of reciprocity, common goals, duration of service, and the relationships among students, service site supervisors, and faculty.

Reciprocity has been at the core of community-based learning since Sigmon first coined the term “service-learning” in 1979. Sigmon articulated three principles to guide the practice of community-based learning. First is the idea that the community controls the work students do to ensure that it is meeting the needs of organizations, or possibly their clients. The second is that the community become empowered to serve themselves through student community-based learning, and the third is that community members are also learners and should be able to shape what is learned. According to Furco (1996), Sigmon hyphenated “service-learning” to represent the integration of service and learning for both students and the communities they work with, such that service and learning are “of equal weight and each enhances the other for all participants” (Furco, 1996, p. 10). Tonkin (2010) described reciprocity as both an ethical and a pedagogical issue—a point that has been particularly emphasized in multicultural and international community-based learning, in which lingering power issues of racism, colonialism, and paternalistic notions of “help” continue to be problematic (Jay, 2008; Longo & Saltmarsh, 2010; McCabe, 2004; Porter & Monard, 2001; Tonkin, 2010). Even in domestic community-based learning the ideal of reciprocity is difficult to enact, however, and research has demonstrated that some placements fail to achieve mutually beneficial community-based learning.

Sandy and Holland (2006), Worrall (2007), and Stoecker and Tryon (2009) have focused their research on community partner perspectives of community-based learning. Their studies generated important findings regarding what community partners would like from their relationships with faculty, such as more collaborative planning, greater faculty involvement with the partnership, and improved faculty awareness of community organizations and their needs. Sandy and Holland (2008) found that community agency representatives in their study wanted faculty to “become more cognizant of community strengths and needs” and “work to better understand the culture, conditions, and practices of their community co-educators” (p. 37). Their participants also noted that faculty at times created assignments that were illegal or inappropriate at their service sites or made schedule or curriculum decisions that were disruptive for community partners, demonstrating a real disconnection between faculty and community partners. Participants in all three studies indicated a strong desire for active faculty involvement in the partnership, from planning to evaluation of student service. This finding is noteworthy, since as a practical matter faculty might take over courses with established partners or rely on a central office of community-based learning to manage student placements (Stoecker & Tryon, 2009). Participants in Sandy and Holland’s research suggested that faculty visit service sites and have more direct involvement with the service work, findings echoed by Worrall and Stoecker and Tryon.

A further consideration is whether the community partner and faculty member have common goals. Faculty presumably must understand the work of their community partner in order to ensure common goals, know what tasks their students are doing, and

understand how best to help students connect their service to course concepts. Fiume (2009) recommended two criteria for selecting a partner for service learning: connection to course material and activities that could promote civic development. For example, students in a policy class can serve in a public housing community where their service could be connected to larger systemic and policy issues related to the need for public housing and how policy addresses that need. Howard (2001) recommended that placements be limited to organizations and tasks directly related to course material, that student work be determined by the community to meet authentic needs, and that duration of service be correlated with desired learning outcomes from service.

In fact, duration of service is another complicating factor in the community partnership. Martin, SeBlonka, and Tryon (2009) underscored the negative impacts short-term or inconsistent service placements can have on community organizations. Given that longer service is associated with enhanced students outcomes as well (Astin & Sax, 1998; Einfield & Collins, 2008; Mabry, 1998; Myers-Lipton, 1998) long-term service and relationships with partners appear to be the ideal for which faculty should strive. How faculty develop and maintain their community partnerships as a facet of teaching in community-based learning pedagogy that impacts students' civic competence, though, is unknown.

Teacher and Learner Roles. Another way in which the counternormative pedagogy of community-based learning (Howard, 1998) adds to the complexity of faculty work is through the shift in teacher and learner roles that must occur in order to incorporate the service experience. Thus how faculty adjust—and help their students

adjust—to changing teacher and learner roles in community-based learning is another facet of teaching in integration of service. Swords and Kiely (2010) explained that in community-based learning, “The faculty role as *authority figure* gives way to a new role as resource and facilitator who supports students’ experiential learning context outside the classroom (Howard, 1998)” (p, 149). They also suggested that learning becomes more active and both students and faculty have to adjust to the addition of a community partner into the course experience. At the same time, however, community-based learning typically entails both experiential and traditional classroom teaching, and Howard (1998) stressed that faculty need to help students thrive with both forms of learning. For example, Cress (2004) and Colby et al. (2007) both found that lecture at the right juncture enhanced students’ learning, indicating that some traditional pedagogical techniques are still valuable.

Furthermore, the nature of community-based learning introduces an element of unpredictability into teaching, such that what students learn might not be exactly what instructors plan (Colby et al., 2007; Howard, 2001; Mintz & Hesser, 1996). Community-based learning is a “pedagogy of uncertainty” in which faculty cede control over learning activities so that students can develop necessary skills and become more engaged in their coursework through experience (Colby et al., 2007; Shulman, 2005). Learning from experience can be challenging for faculty and students alike. As Shulman (2005) noted, pedagogies of uncertainty can put students in positions of vulnerability and teachers must be able to support them through these experiences. In addition, faculty must clearly articulate the goals and objectives of community-based learning, but also be prepared to

facilitate learning they did not intend (Howard, 2001; Mintz & Hesser, 1996). Faculty must therefore hold the tension of planning and unpredictability in working toward their learning objectives. How faculty handle this tension or help students manage it has not been well studied.

Moreover, Battistoni (1997) argued that community-based learning courses are well suited to a democratic relationship between students and faculty because of their alignment with civic development. Community-based learning can offer not only the opportunity for students to gain civic skills outside of the classroom, but the means for them to practice democratic decision-making within institutional walls as well. Lempert and Briggs (1996) emphasized the importance of teaching students democratic principles through enacting them, not by sitting passively in classrooms. In a similar vein, Battistoni (1997) cautioned against trying to empower students to become civically engaged in schools that implicitly reinforce “order, hierarchical control, efficiency, and organized competition among students” (p. 154). Battistoni punctuated the significance of how educational institutions can model democratic engagement instead:

If an education for democratic citizenship is the ultimate aim, we must also look to transform the classroom and the relationship between students and teachers in the classroom, as well as the relationship between the school and the larger community, all in line with a model of community characterized by democratic equality and participation. (p 154)

These sentiments have been echoed by Harkavy (2006), Colby et al. (2003), and others. While research has indicated that some faculty choose to use community-based learning because of the kinds of relationships they can have with students (Abes et al., 2002;

Colby et al., 2003), scholarship has not deeply examined how faculty manage shifting teacher and learner roles as they integrate community-based learning into their courses.

Indeed, this review indicates that most faculty work in community-based learning has not been well researched. The pedagogical elements of course design, teaching strategies, and integration of service, all have potentially strong influences in the student experience of community-based learning and their development of civic competence, but the published evidence is sparse. Teaching, however, is an iterative process in which faculty adjust their work based on their own assessment of what worked and what did not, as well as feedback from students. This process is important to explore as the fourth pedagogical element of community-based learning.

Iterative Teaching

Part of good teaching is paying attention to learners' needs and responding accordingly (Brookfield, 1990). *Iterative teaching* is defined as the process of assessing student learning and elements of pedagogy during and after a course and making changes with the intention of improvement. Iterative teaching is characterized by this attention to learning and responsiveness and is closely related to the assessment of student learning described earlier. Howard (2001) observed that "If a critical mass of students is not demonstrating sufficient learning, this may suggest that either learning strategies are not effective in meeting learning objectives or learning assessment methods are not effective in measuring student learning" (p. 21). Dick et al. (2005) recommended that faculty examine the outcome of learning assessment in light of course objectives and revise instructional strategies accordingly. Assessment of teaching can thus lead to revision and

future improvements. Dick et al. noted, though, that a change in one area could affect other aspects of the course, and therefore instructors should maintain a holistic perspective when making revisions. Iterative teaching has received minimal attention in the community-based learning literature and much remains to be learned about how this pedagogical element affects course revision and subsequent teaching and learning.

Teaching Assessment. Ongoing assessment of teaching during a term is necessary in all courses, but perhaps particularly so in community-based learning. Gelmon et al. (2003) noted that assessment can provide faculty with an opportunity to pause and reflect on their work, and identify areas that could be improved. This kind of assessment of teaching can be quite casual. Dean (1994) commented that students “make their reactions known through body language, comments, attendance, attitudes, and grades (p. 117). Faculty might also ask students for informal feedback on specific assignments, readings, or activities, or on the entire course design. In community-based learning courses, though, checking student learning increases the potential for faculty to integrate service.

Given that community-based learning is a pedagogy of uncertainty (Colby et al., 2007; Shulman, 2005) faculty must be able to react to students’ experience, assess whether designed elements or teaching strategies are still appropriate, and make adjustments as necessary. For example, an experience of conflict at the service site might warrant adding a reading to the syllabus or forgoing a planned film for discussion. The uncertainty of experience is both a challenge and an opportunity in teaching community-based learning courses, and how faculty respond to “teachable moments” will affect what students get out of a course (Colby et al., 2003). Consequently, in order to develop civic

competence, faculty must be able to capitalize on the opportunities for learning that the service experience presents as they integrate service into the course. Pribbenow (2005) discovered that for many faculty, community-based learning is a pedagogy for faculty development, prompting their own professional growth. Over time, faculty may learn how to respond to teachable moments or more smoothly integrate service experiences. Although little is known about this kind of teaching assessment in community-based learning, a broader body of knowledge does exist for more formal course evaluations.

Course Evaluation. Perhaps the most frequent way of soliciting student feedback is through the formal course evaluation procedures common at most institutions (Stack, 2000). Course evaluation is the final step in teaching—it provides faculty with feedback about their instruction and helps them make changes in preparation for future terms. Dean (1994) explained that there could be numerous participants in course evaluation—for example, an instructor, his or her colleagues or other experts, and the students in the course. In community-based learning, community partners could also be consulted as evaluators. Typically, though, course evaluation is conducted by students alone at the end of a term.

Course evaluations receive mixed reviews as a source of data about teaching and learning (Job, 2003). Some critics argue that they are not useful measures of student or faculty performance because they are strongly correlated with grades—students who receive higher grades tend to evaluate the course more favorably (Weinberg, Hashimoto, & Fleisher, 2009). Others, however, have found that such procedures can provide useful data about student perceptions of a class (Marsh, 1984). Marsh (1984) concluded that

course evaluation data are relatively stable and reliable, and faculty use the feedback on evaluations to improve their teaching. How community-based learning faculty use formal or informal course evaluations as a form of assessment to catalyze future student learning outcomes in community-based learning, however, is largely unexamined.

Course Revision. Furthermore, while a potentially valuable process for improving course quality over time, faculty revision of their courses is not well studied in community-based learning. How faculty learn from their own experience in a course or respond to student feedback is unknown. This point is particularly troubling given the difficulties of this work (Howard, 2001) and possibility that faculty may change their approach over time to address the unique challenges and opportunities of community-based learning. Scholars of community-based learning have by and large neglected the course revision process that could improve community-based learning outcomes over time.

Pribbenow (2005) is an exception. He studied the impact of community-based learning on faculty teaching and learning by conducting semi-structured interviews with 25 faculty and teaching staff. He described how faculty alter their teaching practices as a result of their experience with community-based learning. For example, some faculty adjusted to what he deemed more constructivist approaches, such as eliminating activities to create space for discussion, lecturing less often, selecting different readings to go along with the service placement, and providing opportunities for students to learn from each other as they process their community-based learning experience in light of course content. These revisions were necessary to catalyze student learning. One of

Pribbenow's participants described "the tyranny of the syllabus" (p. 31) and her struggle to let go of the pressure to cover the syllabus. That participant's words connect to Howard's (2001) caveat that community-based learning pedagogy means releasing tight control over how a course unfolds in order to maximize the experiential learning. Another faculty in Pribbenow's study took a more epistemological view, commenting on the need to stop relying on a text as the primary source of knowledge and honoring students' experience as valid knowledge.

Pribbenow's (2005) work made a significant contribution to scholarship by shedding light on faculty revision of their own teaching. Still, he did not align faculty perspectives with their students', and his appears to be the only work of its kind in the field. Even Howard (2001) and Heffernan (2001), whose works are specifically dedicated to community-based learning course planning, do not discuss the process of assessing teaching and revising courses for the future. Though Pribbenow (2005) has provided some initial data indicating that faculty do change their practices to accommodate the particular pedagogical demands of community-based learning, much additional research is needed in this area.

Summary: A Pedagogical Model of Community-Based Learning for Civic Competence

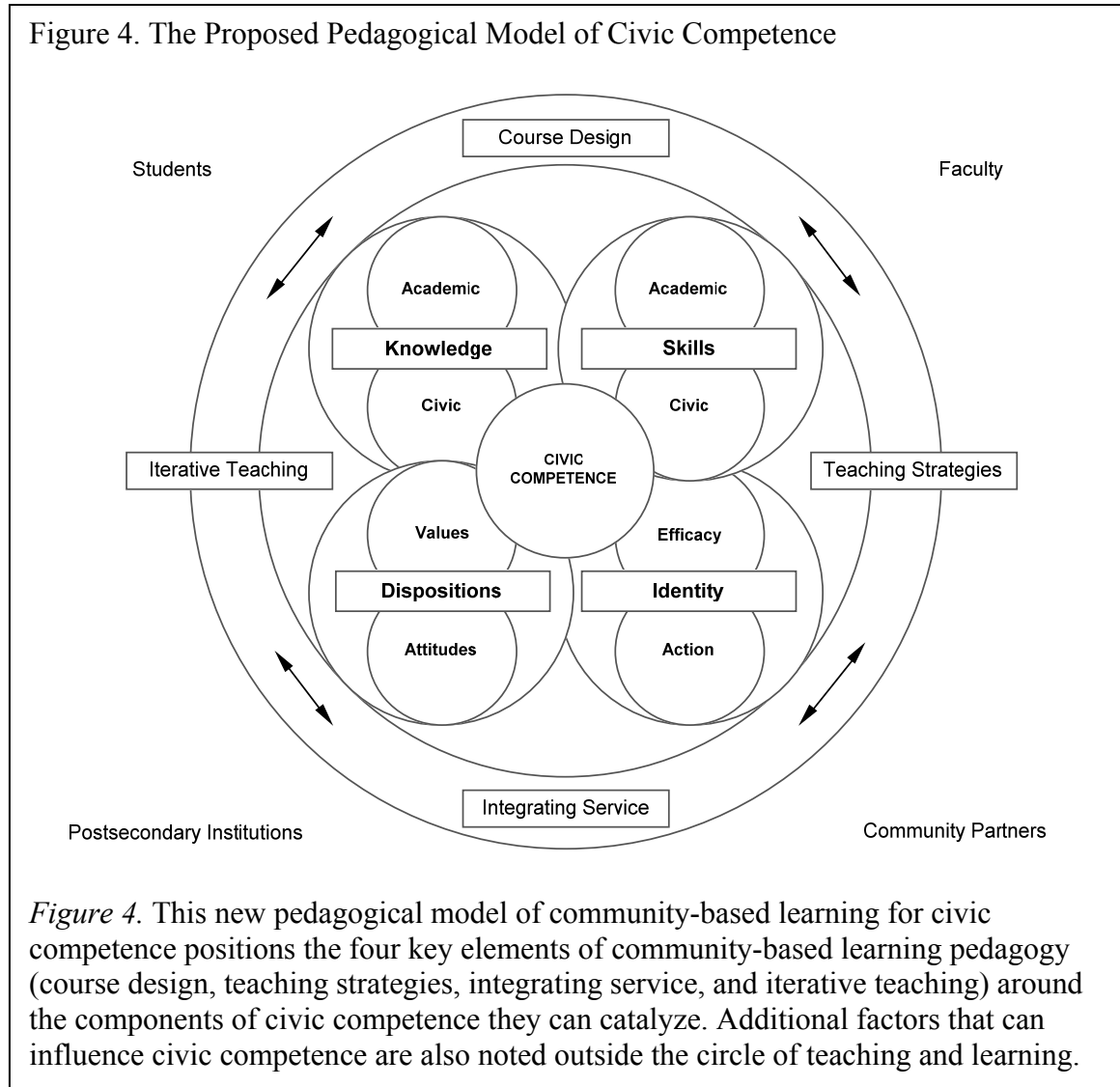
Community-based learning is a unique and challenging practice, requiring deliberate and innovative approaches to teaching. As shown in Table 1, the four pedagogical elements of community-based learning are course design, teaching strategies, integration of service, and iterative teaching. Within each of these pedagogical elements of community-based learning, faculty have opportunities to teach for civic

competence through various facets of teaching, such as readings and assignments, classroom learning activities, the service tasks, or revision of the course are central to student experience of community-based learning. Though in most cases the pedagogical elements and facets of teaching are untested in research, they could nevertheless potentially catalyze students’ civic competence. Patterns of relationship between these elements of pedagogy and civic competence have not yet been established in existing research—a new pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence is necessary.

Table 1
Pedagogical Elements of Community-Based Learning

Pedagogical Elements of Community-Based Learning	Facets of Teaching
Course Design	Goals and Objectives Readings and Assignments Grading and Assessment Sequence and Schedule
Teaching Strategies	Reflection Dialogue Other Learning Activities
Integration of Service	Service Tasks Community Partnership Teacher and Learner Roles
Iterative Teaching	Teaching Assessment Course Evaluation Course Revision

In order to fully understand how to teach for civic competence in community-based learning courses, a clear conceptualization of the epistemological model of civic competence and the elements of community-based learning pedagogy is needed. Figure 4 presents such a model, surrounding the four overlapping components and eight domains



of civic competence with the elements of pedagogy that could catalyze them. Of course, student civic competence is influenced by more than just the pedagogical approach of their instructors. Variables related to students, faculty, the postsecondary institution, and the community partner could each affect civic outcomes. These are therefore displayed external to the teaching-learning circle in Figure 4 and a brief overview of each below will provide an important contextual backdrop for the model.

Other Factors Influencing the Development of Civic Competence

As important as pedagogy is to developing civic competence, it is not the only factor of influence. Factors related to students, faculty, the postsecondary institution, and the community partner also affect the likelihood that community-based learning will lead to civic competence. Though not the main focus of this study, these factors are nonetheless important to understand as context for the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence.

Student Factors

A number of student factors could affect their development of civic competence. For example, students' background, such as race, culture, and socioeconomic status (Sperling et al., 2003), as well as their previous experience with service and civic engagement (Eyler et al., 1997; Keen & Hall, 2009; Stelljes, 2007; Stewart, 2008), could affect what they get out of community-based learning. One of the most significant variables in civic outcomes is students' cognitive and moral development.

Student development affects both what students bring into the course and what they will get out of it (Dean, 1994; Knefelcamp, 2008; McEwen, 1996). Sherrod, Flanagan, and Youniss (2002) maintained that civic behaviors necessitate a certain level of cognitive and emotional development, but stated that research has not adequately explored the developmental precursors of engagement. Terry and Bohnenberger (2004) argued that "viewing service learning from a developmental perspective is needed" (p. 19) and that how community-based learning aligns with individual developmental needs is not well understood. Musil (2003) suggested that more deliberate thinking is needed to

“recalibrate[e] the curriculum” (p. 8) with student development. Nevertheless, scholars have outlined how key theories of development relate to community-based learning.

Scholars have related dominant theories of cognitive development, such as the work of Perry (1970), King and Kitchener (1994), Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986), Baxter Magolda (1992) and Mezirow (2000) to community-based learning (Delve et al., 1990; Kiely, 2005; McEwen, 1996; Stelljes, 2007). For example, Perry theorized nine developmental positions, in which people progress from concrete “dualistic” thinking to multiplicity (multiple perspectives), contextual relativism (judgment with justification), and commitment in relativism (integrated viewpoints and commitments). Perry’s work applies to civic competence in terms of how students learn to respect, if not embrace, diverse viewpoints while still committing to their own beliefs (McEwen, 1996). Community-based learning faculty can draw on the different perspectives students might encounter through their community-based learning experience and in-class reflection to elicit this kind of development—at whatever stage students are in. Along those lines, Eyler (2002) and Colby et al. (2007) observed that college students do not typically attain King and Kitchener’s (1994) stage of reflective judgment. According to King and Kitchener, reflective judgment is needed to resolve the complex ill-structured problems encountered in democratic society. At that stage, students can evaluate different sources of knowledge and support their claims (Colby et al., 2007). Faculty should not necessarily expect students to reach reflective judgment, but community-based learning may help students progress in that direction.

Transformational learning theory also relates to civic competence in community-based learning. Mezirow (2000) was clear that transformative learning “has particular relevance for learning in contemporary societies that share democratic values” (p. 8). Transformational learning theory hinges upon the cognitive stimulation that can come from a “disorienting dilemma” (p. 22), or new information that does not fit with a person’s existing frame of reference. Community-based learning often puts students into new situations and may be able to provide the disorientation that prompts them to question social structures and systems and their role in changing them—hence leading to civic engagement (Cone & Harris, 1996; Kiely, 2005; Scales et al., 2006). In her discussion of teaching for transformation, Cranton (2002) suggested that new knowledge challenges habits of mind, and critical reflection can help students work through that process.

Kohlberg (1975) and Gilligan (1982) are the most prominently referenced moral development theorists in the community-based learning literature. McEwen (1996) examined both, arguing that faculty can use each to help students understand the moral dilemmas they experience in community-based work. Kohlberg’s foundational theory focused on justice and rights as the basis of moral development. In contrast, Gilligan emphasized an ethic of care—moral reasoning based on relationships and responsibility, related to gender but not fixed. McEwen argued that reflection and discussion in community-based learning courses can promote development by assisting students in processing moral concerns. Moreover, McEwen and Ludlum Foos (1998) suggested that

practitioners can help students understand the differences between morality based in justice and rights and morality rooted in care.

Other factors of student development also pertain to community-based learning, such as career development (Astin et al., 2000; McEwen, 1996), spiritual development, psychosocial development, and identity development (McEwen, 1996). McEwen (1996) argued that community-based learning instructors need to be aware of the kinds of developmental issues students may be experiencing. Smith (2008) noted that few empirical studies have examined how community-based learning affects older and nontraditional college students. He theorized that adult learners would benefit just as younger students do from the developmental potential of community-based learning, but research is needed to be sure.

The implications of student development for faculty are numerous, but perhaps the most relevant is the notion of challenge and support. McEwen (1996) explained that in order for development to occur, there must be a readiness in the learner and stimulus to challenge the status quo. Delve et al. (1990) noted that in both cognitive and moral development theories, “individuals approach new experiences at different developmental stages, and they allow for the entrance of individuals at the phase that accurately balances the challenges and supports needed to promote their further development” (p. 10). Likewise, Cranton (2002) asserted that an “environment of challenge” is at the foundation of teaching for transformation, but “this challenge must be combined with safety, support, and a sense of learner empowerment” (p. 66). Delve et al. (1990) and Stelljes (2007) maintained that the extent to which faculty can provide tension-building

stimuli and strike a balance between challenging and supporting student learning is a significant variable in development through community-based learning. Discussion of the balance between challenge and support is largely absent from the community-based learning literature related to civic competence and in need of future research.

Faculty Factors

In addition to these considerations of student development, factors related to faculty could also influence civic competence. For example, the rapport faculty create with students, their personal strengths and weaknesses, or their own sense of civic competence could affect how they teach and therefore how students learn. The community-based learning literature points to a few factors in the faculty experience that could affect their teaching.

Just as students bring their background into the classroom, so do faculty. Community-based learning has the most support among women, faculty of color, and non-tenured faculty (Antonio et al., 2000; Abes et al., 2002). Astin et al. (2006) also found a high rate of community-based learning among associate professors. The implications of these findings are unclear, since research has not examined these factors relative to outcomes of community-based learning. It is perhaps not unreasonable to speculate, however, about the marginalized status of each of these groups and how issues of gender, race, and faculty rank could both intertwine and influence faculty interest in teaching community-based learning for civic competence. Astin et al. (2006), for example, considered their finding that female faculty were more committed to civic engagement than males unsurprising given other research indicating that women express

a greater commitment to social values generally. The influence of these kinds of faculty background factors is thus unknown but potentially significant.

Faculty seeking tenure could also be influenced by the reward structure built into tenure and promotion policies (Kezar & Rhoads, 2001). O'Meara (2005) discussed the influence of Boyer's (1990) call for reform of faculty reward systems in *Scholarship Reconsidered*. Boyer's work to encourage postsecondary institutions to acknowledge, value, and reward the scholarship of engagement has had an effect on tenure and promotion policies (O'Meara, 2005). O'Meara (2005) noted the importance of tenure and promotion policies in how faculty prioritize and report their work. Tenure track faculty must balance the roles of teaching, research, and service. Kezar and Rhoads (2001) explained that institutions vary in how or whether they "count" the engaged scholarship of community-based learning. O'Meara (2002) tied this point to faculty background, emphasizing that women and faculty of color are least satisfied with the tenure and promotion process and most likely to find their work excluded from narrow definitions of scholarship. In contrast, Abes et al. (2002) did not find reward structure to be a major concern, though they did find that non-community-based learning faculty perceived a higher institutional emphasis on research and publication than community-based learning faculty. The possibility remains that tenure and promotion policies could influence the time or motivation faculty have for their community-based learning courses, which could in turn influence how they teach. Further research in this area is needed.

In addition to issues of tenure and promotion, the extent to which faculty are good teachers is likely to be an important factor in students' civic development. Of course, as

Brookfield (1990) pointed out, teaching effectiveness is subjective and value laden. Still, numerous scholars have described characteristics of quality teaching. Dean (1994) summarized several delineations of teacher effectiveness, which shared common elements, such as engaging students in active and collaborative learning, applying course material to real situations outside of class, providing challenge and support along with feedback about progress, and creating a comfortable learning environment. Colby et al. (2007) stressed the importance of clear guidelines, expectations, and criteria for evaluation, especially when using techniques that could be unfamiliar to students. Brookfield (1990) emphasized responsiveness to students and noted that knowing how to pace or frame learning involves paying attention to students' experience in the course.

Some scholars (e.g. Palmer, 1998) have explored the landscape of the “inner teacher”—those less visible or readily adopted aspects of pedagogy such as spirituality and identity. Palmer criticized a reductionist approach to education, commenting that “Good teaching cannot be reduced to technique; good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher” (Palmer, p. 10). At the same time, however, Sherrod et al. (2002) concluded that pedagogical approach does matter to civic development. While pedagogy alone cannot guarantee civic competence, a deeper understanding of the ways faculty design and implement community-based learning courses could provide educators with models to better guide student learning. Moreover, both faculty and students are likely influenced by the institutional context of their campus.

Postsecondary Institution Factors

At the institutional level, type and location, as well as institutional culture (Colby et al., 2003) and peer influences (Sperling, Wang, Kelly, & Hritsuk, 2003) could affect opportunities for community-based learning or civic engagement, how community-based learning is perceived, and students' interest in choosing a community-based learning course. O'Meara (2005) discussed the role of institution type in support for community-based learning on campus. She noted that Boyer (1990) recommended that parameters around the scholarship of engagement vary by type, such as whether the institution is focused on research or teaching. O'Meara (2005) did not find significant differences among types in faculty success in tenure and promotion when they included scholarship of engagement in their portfolios. Abes et al. (2002) found wide variations among institution types in whether the time intensive nature of community-based learning deterred faculty, with those at research institutions most deterred.

Another factor of institutional influence is the role of academic department and discipline. Across institutions, there are trends in community-based learning use among different disciplines. Community-based learning is most common in social sciences and least common in physical sciences, with life sciences, humanities, and other disciplines somewhere between (Abes et al., 2002; Antonio et al., 2003; Astin et al., 2006). Kecskes (2006) focused attention on the department as the unit of engagement and support most important to faculty, while Colby et al. (2003) wrote more broadly of institutional culture. These kinds of institutional influences indicate that teaching should always be adapted to

particular contexts—community-based learning pedagogy is not formulaic, and how it is implemented varies by context (Heffernan, 2001; Howard, 2001).

Students are also influenced by institutional culture. Sperling et al. (2003) concluded that peers influence community-based learning outcomes through the diversity of perspectives they bring (or do not bring) to the class. Adams (2008) implied that institutional culture that permeates the campus through signs, symbols, campus publications, and so on can begin to attract students that support and reinforce that culture.

Community Partner Factors

Although barely addressed in the community-based learning literature, the organizational context of the community partner could also influence civic competence. For example, an organization undergoing layoffs in the midst of a down economy with reduced charitable donations could impact the availability of staff to support students or the atmosphere around the office. Given the emphasis placed on relationships by Sandy and Holland (2006) and others, staff turnover could also affect the community-based learning experience regardless of faculty involvement. Batchelder and Root (1994) observed that students' relationship with their placement supervisor could factor into their community-based learning experience and therefore their civic competence. Notwithstanding the scant attention to these kinds of issues in the literature, they could nevertheless have an important influence on teaching for civic competence in community-based learning. Indeed, though factors related to students, faculty, postsecondary institutions, and community partners as well as numerous other factors can

undoubtedly inhibit or facilitate the development of civic competence and should be studied, the focus of this study is on teaching and learning.

Chapter Summary

Despite the growth in community-based learning scholarship in the past twenty years, a deeper exploration of the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence is needed. Building on Bowen (1977) and others, the new epistemological model of civic competence developed in this study reflects the interactive and mutually reinforcing components of civic competence and their integration with the act of service. Review of the literature indicates that community-based learning can lead to the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity needed to effectively participate in democratic society. Investigations into the outcomes of community-based learning have demonstrated that this approach can lead to civic competence, especially when the service is meaningful and long-lasting, reflection structured and well facilitated, and the civic connections explicit (Carver, 1997; Colby et al., Cone & Harris, 1996; 2007; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Koliba, 2004). Beyond these broad approaches to community-based learning pedagogy, though, understanding of how specific pedagogical practices catalyze civic competence is limited. The literature reveals four key pedagogical elements of community-based learning (course design, teaching strategies, integration of service, and iterative teaching), and numerous facets of teaching within each element, but a scarcity of research connecting pedagogical elements to civic competence.

What is known about civic competence in community-based learning has been limited by research methodologies used to date. For example, the field has an abundance

of pre-post design studies (e.g. Bernacki & Jaeger, 2008; Cress, 2004; Hudson, 1996; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Kendrick (1996), Markus et al., 1993; Moely et al., 2002a).

While valuable for demonstrating a change, pre-post designs do not often illustrate how it occurred (Waldstein & Reiher, 2001). Myers-Lipton (1998) and Hunter and Brisbin (2000) noted that the effects community-based learning may induce are difficult to measure in a short period of time. To that end, a number of researchers suspected lack of sensitivity in their survey instruments as one possible reason for modest findings (Cress, 2004; Miller, 1997; Moely et al., 2002a; Reeb et al., 1998). Furthermore, much of the research has been conducted by community-based learning practitioners on their own courses (Hudson, 1996; Kellogg, 1999; Kendrick, 1996; Sylvester, 2010), which could introduce bias into the analysis.

One of the largest holes in current research is that outcome studies have shed very little light on how those outcomes are reached. This gap is compounded by the fact that literature including analysis of teaching processes has pointed to numerous challenges in community-based learning pedagogy, but few strategies for overcoming them.

Community-based learning pedagogy involves an iterative process of designing the course, implementing learning activities, integrating service into the course, and assessing the results of teaching to enhance outcomes (Dean, 1994; Dick et al., 2005; Heffernan, 2001; Howard, 2001). While research has advanced understanding considerably since the 1990s, there is still a paucity of research examining how faculty teach community-based learning for civic competence in each stage of the pedagogical process. Most of the existing quantitative studies have only scratched the surface of how

outcomes are achieved (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin et al., 2000; Axlund et al., 2009; Cress, 2004; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Markus et al., 1993; Miller, 1997; Moely et al., 2002a; Reeb et al., 1998), while qualitative data has tended to focus on how students and faculty experience community-based learning rather than the interplay of teaching and civic outcomes (Kellogg, 1999; Kiely, 2005; Kiesa et al., 2007; O'Meara & Niehaus, 2009). How faculty bridge community-based learning and civic competence through their pedagogical approach, however, is largely unknown, and rarely coupled with data on student outcomes.

In sum, the literature examined in this review highlights the great need for strong empirical analysis of the pedagogical elements of community-based learning to better understand how faculty facilitate civic competence. The next chapter describes a methodology to examine these nuances and provide faculty with greater understanding of how to foster civic competence in their students. The intent is to identify specific pedagogical strategies leading to the development of civic competence.

Chapter 3: Methodology

A greater understanding of the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence in community-based learning is necessary in order to develop the kinds of citizens capable of effectively addressing complex problems. To date, research in community-based learning has provided some broad indications of effective teaching practices, such as reflection, but the details of pedagogy are largely unexplored. Further, most research focuses either on students or faculty, but not how teaching leads to learning. This chapter lays out a methodology for statistical investigation of the pedagogical elements in community-based learning courses that contribute to civic competence, which has the potential to make a significant contribution to the field by demonstrating how elements of pedagogy relate to the epistemological model of civic competence.

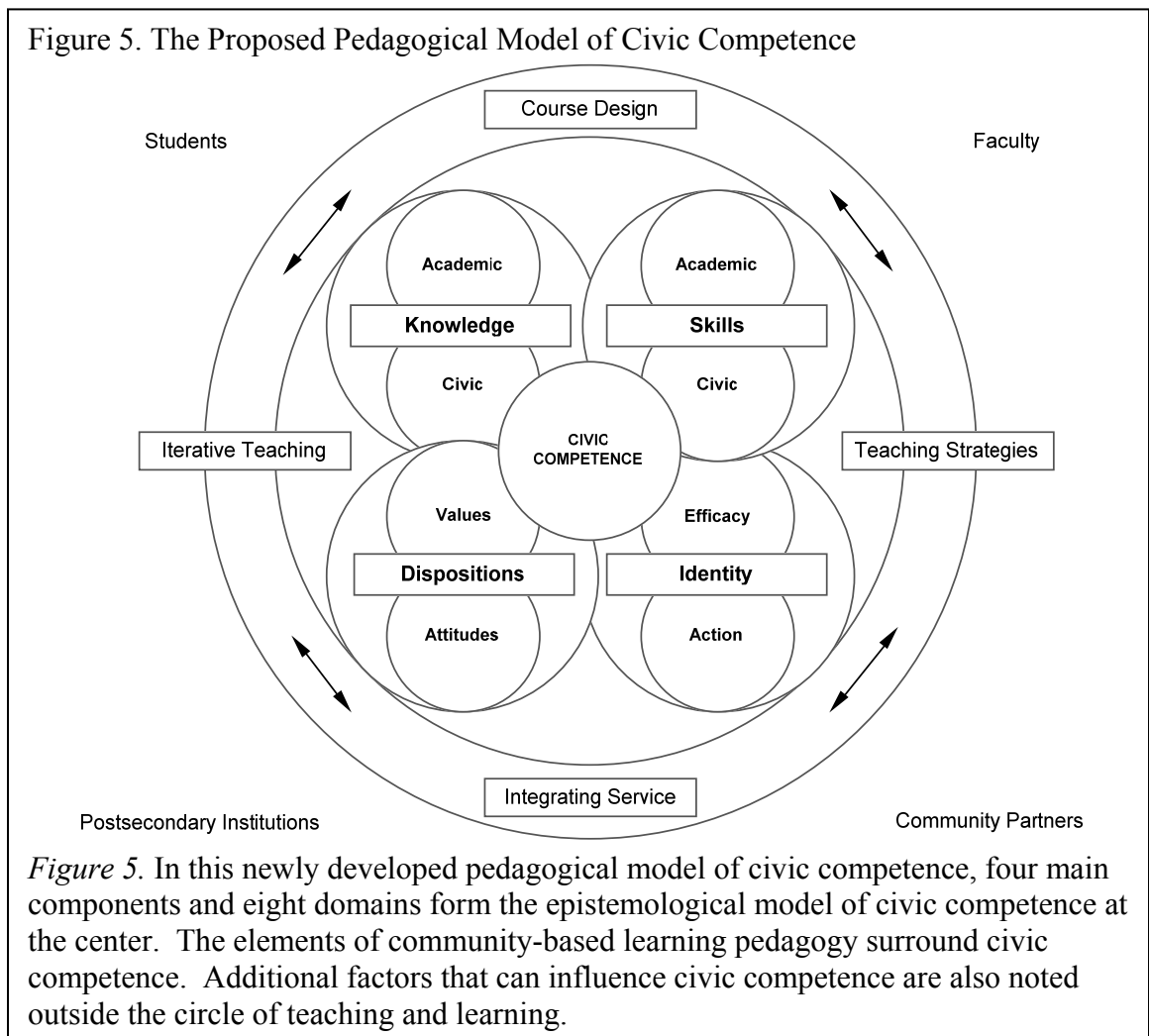
This study sought to answer the following overarching research question: *What are the pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning for civic competence?* Two sub-questions guided this research and drew from student survey data (described in detail below) for analysis. In community-based learning courses,

1. What are the student characteristics of civic competence?
2. Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?

Definitions

As noted in Chapter 2, the definition of civic competence used in this study was informed by an exhaustive review of the literature and Bowen's (1977) notion of citizenship competence. *Civic competence* is defined as acquiring the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity necessary for effective participation in democratic society.

Examining civic competence in the unique contexts of community-based learning leads to the epistemological model of civic competence. The epistemological model of civic competence represents an interactive and mutually reinforcing way of knowing, characterized by four main components (knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity) and the eight domains therein (academic knowledge, civic knowledge, academic skill, civic skill, values, attitudes, efficacy and action). This epistemological model of civic competence forms the center of the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence as shown in Figure 5.



Specifically, *knowledge* is defined as awareness and understanding of various subject matters, how these topics relate to democratic society, and the systems and processes of democratic decision-making and governance. *Skill* is defined as the developed ability to do something well, including academic tasks such as critical thinking or civic tasks, such as collaborating with others to create a new housing policy. *Disposition* is defined as the values and attitudes that create an inclination toward action, such as an appreciation for diverse perspectives about homelessness or a positive outlook about the possibility for change. *Identity* is defined as a commitment to civic responsibility through efficacy in action—seeing oneself as a socially responsible citizen with the capacity for active and effective participation in democratic society. Identity means not only believing in the responsibilities of citizenship, but having enough confidence to enact them, despite uncertainty.

Figure 5 also illustrates the four main pedagogical elements of community-based learning (course design, teaching strategies, integration of service, and iterative teaching). These pedagogical elements involve facets of teaching (such as goals and objectives, readings and assignments, grading and assessment, sequence and schedule, reflection, dialogue, other learning activities, service tasks, community partnership, teacher and learner roles, teaching assessment, course evaluation, and course revision) that could be catalysts of civic competence but are largely untested in research.

Research Setting

The data for this study came from the required community-based learning Senior Capstone program at Portland State University (PSU). A brief description of this

research setting makes clear that with an institutional commitment to community-based learning and civic engagement and a model community-based learning program such as the Senior Capstone, PSU was a fitting setting for an examination of the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence.

Portland State University. The study took place at Portland State University (PSU), a comprehensive university in Portland, Oregon. PSU has an enrollment of nearly 30,000 students, and like many urban institutions tends to serve a nontraditional population with many older, commuter, transfer, and part-time students (Kezar & Kinzie, 2006; Portland State University, 2009; Tetreault & Rhodes, 2004). The civic purpose of education is reflected in PSU's mission "to be an internationally recognized urban university known for student learning, innovative research, and community engagement that contributes to economic vitality, environmental sustainability, and the quality of life in Portland and beyond" (Tetreault & Rhodes, 2004, p. 89). This mission is enacted through a general education curriculum that was implemented at PSU in 1994 (Driscoll, Holland, Gelmon, & Kerrigan, 1996), along with the adoption of the motto, "Let Knowledge Serve the City" (Tetreault & Rhodes, 2004). The general education curriculum was brought together under the umbrella of University Studies and organized around the four goals of Inquiry and Critical Thinking, Communication, the Diversity of Human Experience, and Ethics and Social Responsibility. The University Studies curriculum involves a sequence of courses beginning with first Freshman and then Sophomore Inquiry, followed by a Junior Cluster of courses and ending with the Senior Capstone. This study focuses on Senior Capstone courses.

Senior Capstone Courses. Senior Capstone courses are the culmination of the PSU University Studies general education curriculum. At PSU, Senior Capstones “provide students with opportunities to apply, in a team context, both the academic and moral and civic learning from their majors and other University Studies courses to a real challenge emanating from the Portland community” (Colby et al., 2003, p. 177). Senior Capstones are interdisciplinary, community-based, and targeted toward the amelioration of a community concern (Kerrigan, 2004; Tetreault & Rhodes, 2004). Capstones are six-credit courses spanning one to three ten-week quarters, taken in the junior or senior year. In addition to 400-level academic coursework, students serve directly and indirectly in a wide variety of ways in the community and complete a final product meant to synthesize their learning and contribute to meeting community needs.

The Capstone program was created “to allow students the ability to apply their expertise to real issues and problems, to give students experience working in an interdisciplinary team context, and to empower students to become actively engaged in the community” (White, 1994, p. 37). The Senior Capstone is one of the largest community-based learning programs in the country (Kerrigan, 2004). Over 200 Capstones are offered every year, enrolling approximately 3,000 students in seminar-style classes of 15-20 students each. (Kerrigan, 2004; University Studies Assessment Report, 2010). Several aspects of the Capstone program demonstrate alignment with the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence.

All Capstone courses are oriented toward four goals that overlap with the epistemological model of civic competence and the four main components of knowledge,

skills, dispositions, and identity presented above. The first goal is Inquiry and Critical Thinking: “Students will learn various modes of inquiry through interdisciplinary curricula—problem-posing, investigating, conceptualizing—in order to become active, self-motivated, and empowered learners” (University Studies, 2010). Critical thinking was identified in the model of civic competence as an academic skill, and interdisciplinary problem-posing, investigating, conceptualizing are also closely related to knowledge.

The second goal is Communication: “Students will enhance their capacity to communicate in various ways—writing, graphics, numeracy, and other visual and oral means—to collaborate effectively with others in group work, and to be competent in appropriate communication technologies” (University Studies, 2010). Communication is a skill with general writing and communication categorized above as an academic skill and intercultural, advocacy, and collaborative communication as a civic skill, with overlap between the two in the literature (Kirlin, 2003).

The third goal is the Diversity of Human Experience: “Students will enhance their appreciation for and understanding of the rich complexity of the human experience through the study of differences in ethnic and cultural perspectives, class, race, gender, sexual orientation, and ability” (University Studies, 2010). Appreciation and understanding of diversity is in the domain of value under the main component of dispositions.

The fourth goal is Ethics and Social Responsibility. Though each of the goals relate to civic competence, Ethics and Social Responsibility is particularly relevant

because it incorporates language that is relevant to community-based learning: “Students will expand their understanding of the impact and value of individuals and their choices on society, both intellectually and socially, through group projects and collaboration in learning communities” (University Studies, 2010). Understanding the impact of individuals and their choices on society is efficacy in action and aligns with the civic competence component of identity. Further, group projects and collaboration in learning communities could refer to the kinds of community-based learning projects students do in Senior Capstone courses. All four University Studies goals thus fit with the epistemological model of civic competence as knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity and the interactive domains therein.

Further, all Capstones share the Senior Capstone program learning objectives, which overlap with the model of civic competence. The program learning outcomes indicate that Capstone courses will provide students the opportunity to “Reflect on their role and responsibility as a citizen to actively participate in working with others towards a public purpose (common good)” (aligns with identity), “Analyze new insights regarding the root causes of social and environmental issues” (aligns with knowledge) and “Examine grassroots efforts to change the structures which create or perpetuate social and environmental problems” (aligns with knowledge and skills), and “Reflect on how their own perspectives have changed or developed in relationship to the community issues addressed” (aligns with dispositions). The complete list of Capstone program learning objectives is provided in Appendix A—and a strong current of civic engagement runs throughout.

Positionality. By way of explanation and transparency, my interest in this subject matter and methodology bears mentioning. For the past six years I have taught Senior Capstone courses at PSU. My concentration on this topic in large part comes from my own commitment to civic competence and my endeavor to improve my practice toward that end. Faculty teach in isolation and rarely have the benefit of sharing teaching strategies. I am ultimately curious about what works for my colleagues and what others can learn from their experience. I hold my colleagues in high regard, but I can also maintain a critical eye to accurately portray their work in the most useful way possible. I have therefore diligently upheld the highest standards of ethical inquiry as I pursue the questions that are borne both of my own experience and the scholarly literature to date.

Research Questions and Sources of Evidence

The congruence between the Senior Capstone program goals and the model of civic competence presented here positions a dataset from Capstone courses as well suited to answering the overarching research question, *What are the pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning for civic competence?* In community-based learning courses,

1. What are the student characteristics of civic competence?
2. Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?

Each sub-question is clearly connected to the quantitative data that was analyzed for this study.

What are the student characteristics of civic competence?

Data. The data source was the Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire (CSEQ). The CSEQ is the course evaluation survey students take to assess the course

and report their learning. It was developed by a team of faculty and University Studies personnel to assess learning outcomes for Capstone courses, though no reliability and validity tests are available (R. Carpenter, personal communication, May 9, 2011). This instrument is replicated in Appendix B. The CSEQ includes indicators of learning, particularly a Capstone Experience section (CSEQ-Outcomes) in which students indicate on a Likert-type scale their agreement with various statements related to their learning as a result of the Capstone, such as deepening their understanding of political issues.

Table 2 shows the relevant Capstone Experience items. Some items (such as one about previous volunteering) were excluded from this study because they were not directly relevant to the research questions. Those retained for analysis, however, contained language that aligned with the literature that is the basis of the proposed model. For example, “This course helped me to understand those who are different from me” indicates the understanding of diversity that is essential for learning and for democracy (AAC&U, 2010a; Kuh, 2008; Putnam & Feldstein, 2003). Further, an initial categorization of each item as one of the four components of civic competence and one of the eight epistemological domains connected the instrument to the proposed model. Categories were determined by considering each item in light of the literature, though in some cases assigning only one label was somewhat arbitrary. The item above about understanding difference, for instance, is related to the value of social justice, as discussed in the literature review (Bennett, 1993). Understanding diverse cultures, though, is also an example of the kind of civic knowledge that is necessary to participate effectively in pluralist democratic society (Battistoni et al., 2009; Laird et al., 2005).

Table 2
CSEQ-Outcome Section: Items Indicating Civic Competence

CSEQ-Outcome Item	Civic Competence: 4 Components	Civic Competence: 8 Domains
The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this capstone.	Knowledge	Academic
My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations.	Knowledge	Academic
In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major.	Knowledge	Academic
I believe this course deepened my understanding of political issues.	Knowledge	Civic
I believe this course deepened my understanding of local social issues.	Knowledge	Civic
This course enhanced my communication skills.	Skills	Academic
In this course I improved my ability to analyze ideas from multiple view points.	Skills	Academic
This course enhanced my ability to work with others as a team.	Skills	Civic
I improved my ability to solve problems in this course.	Skills	Civic
This course helped me to understand those who are different from me.	Disposition	Values
I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community.	Disposition	Attitudes
I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course.	Identity	Efficacy
I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community.	Identity	Efficacy
I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course.	Identity	Action

This dilemma demonstrates the overlap inherent to the proposed model. Ultimately, a practical demand of research prevailed—since no other items aligned clearly with the values domain and disposition component, this item was assigned to that category. The assessment coordinator for University Studies provided the researcher with de-identified CSEQ data.

The CSEQ-Outcomes provided the opportunity to test the epistemological model of civic competence. It is important to note that many researchers disagree with the treatment of Likert-type scales as interval data from which one could calculate a mean (Jamieson, 2004). However, Jamieson noted that despite the theoretical debate around use of the data, calculation of the mean is common in educational research, as is the case for the CSEQ summaries available for analysis. For the purposes of this research, mean responses were considered a valid output that could then be used for further calculation. PSU also considers the CSEQ a valid instrument to “provide information to individual faculty about their courses and to the program about the overall student experience in Capstones” (University Studies, 2010, p. 12). Together five years of CSEQ-Outcome data ($n = 10,794$) were used to determine whether the constructs of the model “hold true” as a representation of civic competence.

Analysis. The first step of analysis of the CSEQ-Outcome data was to assess the hypothesized validity of the responses as appropriate indicators of the epistemological model of civic competence. Using item analysis, the alpha reliability test revealed whether each of the 14 items used here to indicate civic competence were individually reliable, whether the categorical labels representing each of the four main components of civic competence or the labels representing each of the eight domains of civic competence are valid, and whether the section as a whole had a high degree of intercorrelation, indicating a conceptual similarity. These analyses, conducted with the use of SPSS 18 statistical software, would improve understanding of whether the characteristics of civic competence presented in this study (knowledge, skills,

dispositions, and identity) and the domains of academic knowledge, civic knowledge, academic skill, civic skill, efficacy and action are a valid conceptualization. Only one item in the section aligned with values and one with attitudes, however, so these domains were not subject to item analysis. In order to strengthen the statistical analysis, factor analysis was also conducted to determine what conceptual groupings emerged from this existing instrument. Analysis of five years of data (2005-2010) provided insight into the strength of the construct of civic competence indicated in this study.

Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?

Data. As described above, the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence includes four main pedagogical elements of community-based learning: course design, teaching strategies, integration of service, and iterative teaching, but how they are related to development of civic competence was unknown. Quantitative analysis was used to determine the relationship between indicators of civic competence and those of teaching practices. If CSEQ-Outcomes indicate civic competence, then correlating them with the pedagogical elements in the CSEQ-Learning Activities section and CSEQ-Instructor section provides evidence of the relationship between teaching and learning in the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence.

The CSEQ provided quantitative data to answer this question. The instrument includes two sections with indicators of design and teaching. In the CSEQ-Learning Activities section, students indicated what learning activities their instructors used. Their responses were reported as categorical items with frequencies. Because the CSEQ is about the whole course, the students' record of what happened is not an exclusive link to

how faculty teach for civic competence. Nonetheless, the CSEQ data provided a general sense of techniques used by faculty, such as reflective journals or collaborative projects, which could then be correlated with civic competence as described below. The CSEQ-Learning Activities section is reproduced in Table 3 along with the pedagogical elements to which they are most closely related. This determination was grounded in the model, such as discussion as a strategy of teaching during the term and whether or not to require attendance as a decision made while designing a course. Though reflective journals, collaborative projects, group decision-making, student presentations, and class discussions were expected to occur with greater frequency due to their potential relationship with civic competence, all items were analyzed.

Table 3
CSEQ-Learning Activities Section

CSEQ-Learning Activities Section	Pedagogical Element
What forms of learning did the instructor use? Please mark all that apply.	
<input type="checkbox"/> Reflective journals	Teaching Strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> Required class attendance	Course Design
<input type="checkbox"/> Collaborative projects	Teaching Strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> Group decision making	Teaching Strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> Student presentations	Course Design
<input type="checkbox"/> Class discussions	Teaching Strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> Exams	Course Design
<input type="checkbox"/> Extensive lecturing	Teaching Strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> E-communication tools (Web CT/Blackboard, etc.)	Teaching Strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> Portfolio	Course Design
Which of these topics were covered in this course? Please mark all that apply.	
<input type="checkbox"/> Racial and ethnic issues	Course Design
<input type="checkbox"/> Women and gender issues	Course Design
<input type="checkbox"/> Civic responsibility / citizenship	Course Design
<input type="checkbox"/> Political issues	Course Design
<input type="checkbox"/> Social issues	Course Design

The other CSEQ section (CSEQ-Instructor) also provided the students’ perspective on how faculty teach and design their courses, but the responses were in a different format. For these items, such as “The instructor scheduled course work at an appropriate pace” or “The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work,” students marked their level of agreement (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree or strongly disagree) with various statements related to course design, teaching strategies, and integrating service (see Table 4). The assignment of categories was a subjective decision based in the model developed from the literature. For example, scheduling course work at an appropriate pace is related to the planned sequence faculty establish while designing their courses, and is thus labeled as course design. Though course evaluation data of this nature does not explain why students mark what they do, it can provide an important perspective.

Table 4
CSEQ-Instructor Section

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element
The Instructor:	
Showed a personal interest in my learning	Teaching Strategies
Scheduled course work at an appropriate pace	Course Design
Provided clear instructions for assignments	Course Design
Created an atmosphere that encouraged active student participation	Teaching Strategies
Presented course material in a way that was clear	Teaching Strategies
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies
Provided helpful feedback on assignments	Teaching Strategies
Related course material to real-life situations	Teaching Strategies
Encouraged interaction outside of class	Teaching Strategies
Provided clear grading criteria	Course Design
This course explored issues of diversity (such as race, class gender, sexual orientation, ability)	Course Design
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service

Analysis. Once construct coherence was established for the CSEQ-Outcomes as a measure of civic competence, the mean scores that appear on the CSEQ summaries were correlated with CSEQ-Learning Activities section and CSEQ-Instructor section using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. Analysis revealed whether there was any association between the techniques students say their instructors have used and their civic competence, as indicated by the CSEQ-Outcome items. For each correlation, the null hypothesis suggested that there was no relationship between CSEQ-Outcomes and CSEQ-Learning Activity items or between CSEQ-Outcomes and CSEQ-Instructor items. Each relationship was analyzed using Pearson's r , and, in the case of categorical data, Cramer's V . The null hypothesis was rejected if $p \leq .05$, supporting the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant correlation between CSEQ-Outcome items and CSEQ-Learning Activity items or between CSEQ-Outcomes and CSEQ-Instructor items. For some items the direction could be negative and for others positive. Each piece of data in this dataset was related to either pedagogical elements or components of civic competence. Together they provided the opportunity to see linkages between pedagogical elements and civic competence outcomes in community-based learning courses in a way not yet offered through previous research.

Procedure

Sample. The sample consisted of 10,974 Senior Capstone students between 2005-2010. CSEQ data for 2005-2010 included 10,974 participants representing about 150 Capstones a year or approximately 700 sections for the whole sample. Demographic information is not collected as part of the Capstone survey.

Data Collection. This study used secondary data made available through the University Studies assessment coordinator. De-identified Capstone data already approved for additional researchers by informed consent was collected as an Excel spreadsheet and converted to an SPSS file for analysis.

Data Storage. All data was held in the strictest confidence. Research materials were stored on a secure network server that was backed up nightly.

Limitations

Though this study will make a valuable contribution to the field of community-based learning, it is not without limitations. The single institution design of this study is compounded by the unique nature of the Senior Capstone program. University Studies at Portland State has been lauded by academics and by mainstream national publications such as *U.S. News and World Reports* as a program that has successfully engaged students in the university and in the surrounding community (Colby et al., 2003; Tetreault & Rhodes, 2004). As one of the largest community-based learning programs in the country (Kerrigan, 2004), the Senior Capstone program has become institutionalized and enculturated at PSU. Tetreault and Rhodes (2004) cited a report in which a team of PSU faculty reported that “connection with the community is the one aspect of their [faculty] work that draws nearly our whole faculty together (Balshem, Collier, McBride, & O’Brien, 2002)” (p. 88). Though much of this study investigated processes of teaching and the purpose is not to identify a replicable formula, the findings will thus be limited with regard to generalizability.

Moreover, there are shortcomings of the instrument as well. The limited number of items for values, attitudes, and identity could have a statistical impact on the results. Green et al. (2000), for example, argued that factor analysis was most appropriate with three or more items, but the dispositions component only had two. In addition, wording of the items was imprecise (a drawback of using an existing instrument), therefore obscuring the distinction between confusing terminology that could be interpreted in different ways and complexity of the concept itself.

At the same time, though, this study fills an important gap in scholarship because it is a required senior-level course. Many other studies are limited by the self-selection bias of students opting in to community-based learning courses and programs, but the Capstone is required for all but the Liberal Studies majors and Honors students at PSU. Though the argument could be extended to the institution these students have chosen to attend, it is the only public university option in the Portland Metropolitan area. Lastly, this study is vulnerable to a common critique in community-based learning literature—it will not demonstrate any long-term effects of community-based learning pedagogy. Ultimately, longitudinal research is still needed to answer other important questions in the field. Additional suggestions for future research will likely emerge from this study as well.

Chapter Summary

Amidst lingering questions about how faculty facilitate civic competence in community-based learning courses, this chapter outlined a thorough methodological approach to study the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence in community-based

learning courses. The Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire offers a large data set from which to explore the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence presented in this proposal. This quantitative data set provided multiple types of information, allowing for an investigation of both teaching and learning. Reporting what faculty do and the relationship of their practices to civic competence could make a significant contribution to the community-based learning scholarship. More importantly, however, synthesis of this material will offer faculty the strategies, examples, and lessons learned that could ensure that community-based learning meets its potential as a high-impact practice (Kuh, 2008) for developing civic competence. This work can thus play an important part in educating citizens to democratically pursue solutions to the pressing problems of the 21st century.

Chapter 4: Results

The overarching question of this study is, *What are the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence?* The research sub-questions are reproduced in Table 5. The data used has provided interesting and valuable material for analysis. The quantitative data for this study was both a representation of civic competence that helped clarify the constructs proposed, and a measurement of civic competence that elucidated pedagogical catalysts. This chapter reports the results of analysis and suggests points for further discussion.

Table 5
Research Questions

Research Questions	Quantitative Data
RQ1. What are the student characteristics of civic competence?	CSEQ-Outcomes
RQ2. Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?	CSEQ-Outcomes CSEQ-Learning Activities CSEQ-Instructor

What are the student characteristics of civic competence?

Summary of the Data. The quantitative data for this study comes from the Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire (CSEQ), collected for 2005-2006, 2006-2007, 2007-2008, 2008-2009, and 2009-2010. The total sample size was 10,974 cases, though that number varies for individual analyses due to missing items. Fourteen items were categorized as CSEQ-Outcome indicators. All statistical procedures were conducted using SPSS 18 software. As shown in Table 6, the overall results indicate that students generally believe they have achieved these outcomes.

Table 6
Summary of 2005-2010 CSEQ-Outcomes

CSEQ Item	Civic Competence: 4 Components	Civic Competence: 8 Domains	Percent Agreeing n = 10,974
The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this Capstone.	Knowledge	Academic	89%
I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community.	Disposition	Attitudes	88%
I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course.	Identity	Efficacy	86%
My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations.	Knowledge	Academic	86.0%
I believe this course deepened my understanding of local social issues.	Knowledge	Civic	85%
This course helped me to understand those who are different from me.	Disposition	Values	84%
In this course I improved my ability to analyze ideas from multiple view points.	Skills	Academic	83%
I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community.	Identity	Efficacy	82%
This course enhanced my ability to work with others as a team.	Skills	Civic	79%
This course enhanced my communication skills.	Skills	Academic	74%
In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major.	Knowledge	Academic	73%
I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course.	Identity	Action	73%
I improved my ability to solve problems in this course.	Skills	Civic	70%
I believe this course deepened my understanding of political issues.	Knowledge	Civic	65%

In order to test the proposed civic competence model derived from the literature and to answer this first research question, descriptive statistics were run on all CSEQ survey items (n = 10,974). The percentage of these students agreeing (marking either Agree or Strongly Agree on the survey) are shown in Table 6 by highest to lowest agreement and with the associate civic competence domain. The highest scoring item was “The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this Capstone,” with 89% agreement. This high level of agreement with an academic knowledge item underscores one of the fundamental reasons why faculty use community-based learning and reinforces previous research: community-based learning helps students learn (Abes et al., 2002; Astin et al., 2000; Markus et al., 1993).

Further, students reported nearly as high rates of agreement (85% or above) with four other items: “I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community” (88%), “I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course (86%), “My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations” (86%) and “I believe this course deepened my understanding of local social issues” (85%). These top five responses reflect the knowledge, dispositions, and identity components, and both the academic and civic knowledge domains. This combination of items with high rates of agreement therefore suggests that community-based learning indeed leads to a variety of civic outcomes, as also determined by Eyler and Giles (1999) and Wang and Jackson (2005).

The skills component items were not ranked quite as highly, though 83% of students agreed that “In this course I improved my ability to analyze ideas from multiple

view points”—an indicator of critical thinking and thus academic skills, and 79% agreed with “This course enhanced my ability to work with others as a team”—an indicator of the civic skill of collaboration. Kirlin’s work (2002) puts these more moderate skill outcomes in context; she found that community-based learning course design often overlooks civic skill development. Likewise, Wang and Jackson (2005) reported that students rank their own belief in civic responsibility more highly than their skill level, a finding repeated in this study. Therefore the slightly lower skill outcomes does not necessarily mean that skills are not important to civic competence, but rather that civic skill development might be a good topic for faculty development to enhance civic competence outcomes.

Moreover, the overall civic outcome scores are still relatively high, with the majority in agreement on all items. Given the single-institution design of this study, another explanation of these results warrants attention. The data come from the nationally acclaimed Senior Capstone program at Portland State University (Kerrigan, 2004; Tetreault & Rhodes, 2004). Several features of the Capstone program are unusual and should be considered in interpretation of results. For example, unlike courses in which a faculty member independently determines how to integrate community-based learning into his or her discipline-based course, Senior Capstones are interdisciplinary and go through an approval process. In the Capstone course proposal faculty must explain their collaboration with the community partner as well as how the course will meet the four University Studies goals of Inquiry and Critical Thinking, Communication, the Diversity of Human Experience, and Ethics and Social Responsibility. These goals,

as discussed in Chapter 3, overlap with the definition of civic competence used in this study. That over 80% of students agreed with at least one item representing each of the components is a robust finding in support of the epistemological model of civic competence. It could also be a reflection of the Capstone faculty's successful implementation of University Studies program goals.

At the same time, however, Capstones have one key feature that might in fact render the results *more* generalizable than other studies: the Capstone program is a requirement. Several valuable studies supporting the relationship between community-based learning and civic outcomes (e.g. Keen & Hall, 2009) have been limited by students' self-selection bias. Eyler et al. (1997) found significant differences on civic measures between students who had chosen community-based learning and those who had not before community-based learning began. Thus the results of the present study could be indicative of outcomes for students beyond those possibly predisposed for civic learning. Even though students chose the university and some are attracted by its reputation for civic engagement, Portland State is primarily an urban-serving university with many students who attend for cost and convenience. In addition, the sample was large, capturing five years of data from approximately 700 sections of community-based learning courses and nearly 11,000 students. This study's finding that the vast majority of students gained a combination of knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity is therefore an important result in support of the epistemological model of civic competence despite the limitations of the single-institution design.

Nevertheless, the lower scoring items from the CSEQ-Outcomes section are still concerning. The item with which there was the least agreement (65%) was “I believe this course deepened my understanding of political issues.” The literature indicates that political learning is a particularly neglected aspect of civic education (Colby et al., 2007). Colby et al. (2007) noted that “many colleges and universities today do choose to pay significant attention to various aspects of community engagement and civic participation, even as they devote minimal attention to specifically *political* engagement” (p. 5). Perhaps the same is true of Capstone faculty.

Likewise, about 70% of respondents agreed that they would continue to volunteer or that their ability to solve problems had improved. While “I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course” could be construed as an important indicator of identity and intention around civic behaviors, it was also the only item oriented toward a future behavior. Students taking Capstone courses are either juniors or seniors, and their immediate future could include further coursework or a job search. In addition, the item itself was somewhat vague, as “continue to volunteer” could be interpreted as continuing to volunteer with the same community partner they had been serving in the Capstone. The moderate level of agreement that problem-solving ability had improved could be an indication that students are coming to a more realistic understanding of their own capabilities as suggested by Miller (1997) and Mabry (1998), or it could suggest that faculty need to help students understand how their community work has helped to solve problems. In contrast, the high scores around the benefit of the community work for students and for the community (the two items for which there was

strongest agreement) indicate that well integrated service mutually benefits student learning and the community—reciprocity that is fundamental to community-based learning (Cress et al., 2005; Sigmon, 1979).

Approach to Analysis. Next, to further examine the potential fit between the proposed model and existing data, the characteristics of civic competence were quantitatively analyzed using both item analysis and factor analysis procedures. The quantitative investigation was an effort to statistically answer Research Question 1 (*What characterizes student civic competence?*), and to establish the outcome variables for Research Question 2 (*Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?*). Because the Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire was a pre-existing survey designed for assessment of Capstone courses, analysis must account for both the instrument as a representation of the model of civic competence as proposed and the possibility that the evidence points to revision of the model. Item analysis and factor analysis are the most appropriate statistical procedures with which to examine the data and account for these dual considerations. Results could also reveal limitations of the instrument if they diverge in a major way from the extant literature.

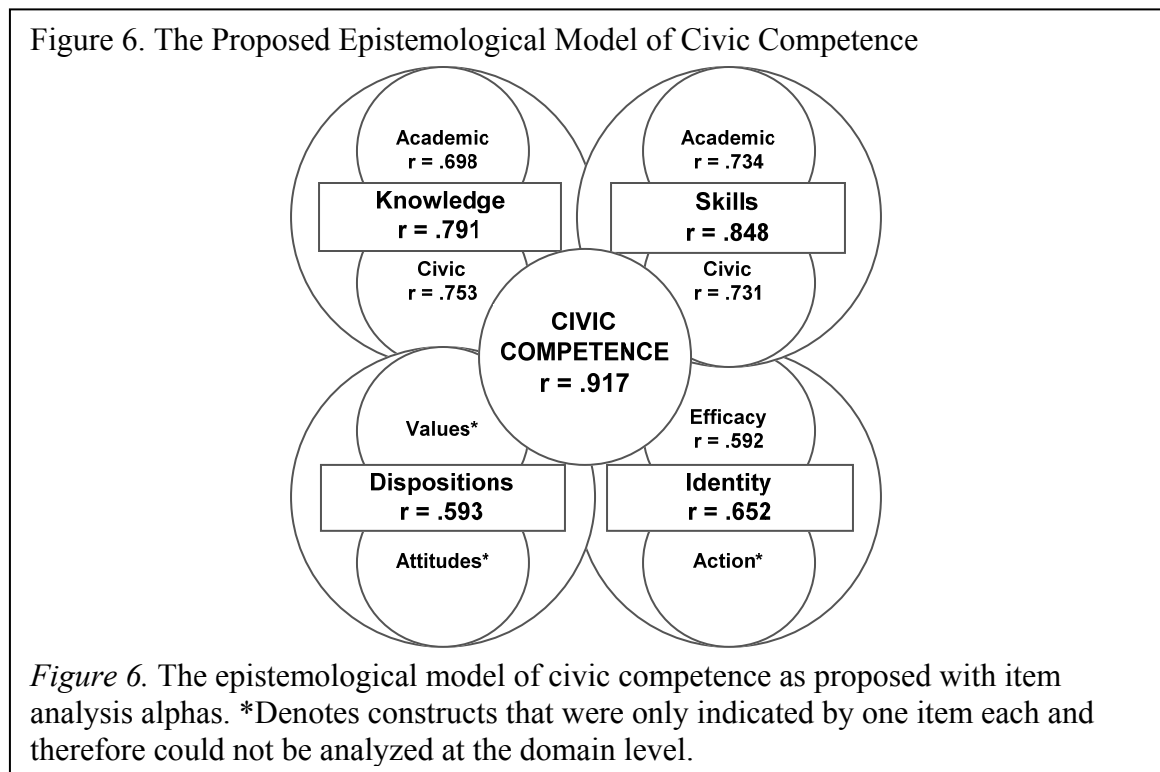
First, the model of civic competence was tested as proposed based on the literature. High overall reliability (Cronbach's alpha) would provide evidence that the items hold together as a single construct, while particularly low alphas would determine whether any items should be excluded from the scale (Green, Salkind, & Akey, 2000). The same logic applies to the four components and eight domains within them. Second,

because the proposed model is also a new formulation based on research and theoretical literature, and the results of this study a way to inform its creation, exploratory factor analysis would provide further insight about the nature of the model itself. For example, factor analysis could reconfirm the model by reducing the larger set of items to a smaller number of constructs. If instead factors emerged with high loadings of different combinations of items, those new groupings could provoke reconsideration of the model—particularly with respect to the constructs of the epistemological model of civic competence and/or the instrument as a valid representation of that model.

The interpretation of the item analysis and factor analysis results guided the creation of outcome variables for Research Question 2 (*Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?*). Using SPSS, new variables were computed by calculating mean scores of the items in each component and domain. Together the results of these procedures can guide future theory of civic competence, as well as use of the CSEQ as an instrument to assess civic competence.

Item Analysis Results. As shown in Figure 6, item analysis generally demonstrated that these items represent a single construct of civic competence, and that the four key components and eight domains are conceptually sound (see Figure 6). The first item analysis procedure of all 14 Outcome questions generated a Cronbach's alpha of $r = .917$. Thus the 14 items can be said to represent a common construct, civic competence. Noteworthy is that while multicollinearity can represent a single construct, it also could mean that students generally tend to answer the same way. In other words,

they could actually just be answering one general question, such as “How much did you like this class?” Still, the argument that these items together represent civic competence is supported by the findings of the other structural conceptualizations within the model of civic competence. At the component level, the skills items were most strongly related, with alpha of $r = .848$. Dispositions had the lowest alpha ($r = .593$), which could in part be due to the small number of items (two) indicating this component. Another possibility, however, is that the items could be better aligned with other components, a point to be revisited through factor analysis.



The domains for which there was more than one item were also reasonably well correlated to support the idea that they hold together as distinct concepts. Civic knowledge ($r = .753$) and academic skills ($r = .734$) had the highest Cronbach’s alphas at

the domain level, while academic knowledge ($r = .698$) and efficacy ($r = .592$) were a little bit lower. Three items could not be analyzed at the domain level because there was only one item representing that construct.

On the whole, the item analysis procedures demonstrated that the epistemological model of civic competence holds together as a characterization of civic competence. Cronbach's alphas never fell below $r = .592$, indicating moderately strong relationships among the items—sufficient to support the conclusion that there is conceptual merit to the notion of four components of civic competence (knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity) and at least five domains of civic competence (academic knowledge, civic knowledge, academic skills, civic skills, and efficacy). However, the item analysis results also ranged from $r = .592$ for efficacy, to $r = .848$ for skills. It is also unclear from these procedures alone whether these same constructs would emerge when not “forced” upon an existing instrument or whether any other combinations of items or recategorization of items could contribute to the theoretical foundation of the epistemological model of civic competence. Exploratory factor analysis calculates how the items group together without the researcher's imposed constructs (Field, 2009) and could provide either a confirmation of the proposed epistemological model of civic competence or perhaps new insights into the relationships that exist in the data.

Factor Analysis Results. With a highly interrelated scale now confirmed, factor analysis procedures were therefore conducted to determine what constructs emerged from the various items as another way to test the model of civic competence. The type of factor analysis appropriate to reduce a larger set of items to a smaller number of

constructs is principal component analysis (Green et al., 2000). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure was .946, excellent according to Field (2009). The Bartlett's test of sphericity Chi-square was 37573.422, $p < .001$, indicating sufficiently large correlations between items for the principal component analysis.

Only one item had an eigenvalue over Kaiser's criterion of 1 (Field, 2009). That item was "I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community," which alone explained about 52% of the variance. This finding essentially means that students who agree that they have a better understanding of how to make a difference are likely to also agree with the other items most of the time, not unexpected given the high degree of multicollinearity in the scale. Further, while proposed as an indicator of identity and efficacy, it is perhaps unsurprising that this item accounts for 52% of the variance among other items. Having "a better understanding of how to make a difference" involves knowledge, as well as confidence in one's skills, both in the civic domain of "making a difference." The item wording thus integrates the concepts in much the same way that they overlap in the proposed model of civic competence itself. Moderately strong correlations between outcomes reinforce the notion that the components operate in concert with interactive effects (see correlation matrix in Appendix C). For example, the correlation ($r = .557$) between knowledge item "My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations" with "I improved my ability to solve problems in this course" could mean that the "real life" civic situation of the service work facilitates both academic knowledge and civic skill. The influence of the "better understanding of how to make a difference" item also

suggests the particular importance of efficacy as a concept embedded in each of the components.

Altering the statistical assumptions allows the more nuanced relationships among variables to emerge to help refine the model of civic competence. First, because some statisticians have deemed Kaiser's criterion too strict, the option of retaining components with eigenvalues over .7 was employed (Field, 2009). This approach retained four factors, with combined extraction sums that explained 57% of the variance. Next, following the procedures for best interpretability outlined by Green et al. (2000) and Field (2009), orthogonal rotation was conducted using the varimax technique and maximum likelihood method of extraction. The orthogonal rotation yielded more evenly weighted loadings (21% for Factor 1, 16% for Factor 2, 14% for Factor 3, and 6% for Factor 4). The correlation matrix did not show any variables that did not correlate with other variables, with all but three items falling between .300 and .674. This interrelationship reinforced the earlier determination that the 14 CSEQ-Outcome items hold together as a single concept. The rotated solution yielded four interpretable factors (shown in Appendix D). Displayed in Appendix D with the proposed components and domains of the epistemological model of civic competence (and lower factor loadings removed for clarity), the results offer strong confirmation of the epistemological model of civic competence. Although the slight variations in how items combined further inform the proposed model of civic competence, the overall concepts were supported by exploratory factor analysis.

Each factor that emerged from the principal component analysis adds to the theory underlying the epistemological model of civic competence. Four items loaded onto the first factor, all of which fall into the skills component of civic competence in the proposed model. These four items are “This course enhanced my communication skills” (factor loading = .618), “In this course I improved my ability to analyze ideas from multiple view points” (factor loading = .662), “This course enhanced my ability to work with others as a team” (factor loading = .628), and “I improved my ability to solve problems in this course” (factor loading = .628). This factor stands as a robust confirmation of skills component as proposed.

The second factor emerged with four items, originally from three different domains: “The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this Capstone” (academic knowledge, factor loading = .413), “My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations” (academic knowledge, factor loading = .613), “I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community” (attitudes, factor loading = .739) and “I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course” (efficacy, factor loading = .608). This factor provides several insights in support of the model.

One point revealed in analysis of this second factor is related to the alignment of domain items. The academic knowledge items held together as a domain, confirming that concept. The other two items in this factor, however, were proposed as representing separate ideas: “I feel that the community work I did benefited the community” and “I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course.”

Close analysis of the language of these items is revealing. A clue as to the most appropriate place to categorize each of these items lies in the opening phrase, “I feel” and “I felt,” which are attitudinal prompts. The proposed model included attitudes as a domain, and this finding implies that both items should be categorized as attitudes. Though the proposed model included civic, social, and personal responsibility literature under the component of identity, these concepts could logically be associated with attitudes as well. This realignment also builds on previous scholarship, such as Perry and Katula’s (2001) work in which they refer to civic responsibility as an attitude of citizenship. To further verify this shift of the concept and items related to responsibility to attitudes, an item analysis was run with these two attitudes items, generating a Cronbach’s alpha of $r = .706$, higher than the original dispositions component Cronbach’s alpha of $r = .593$. This stronger association reinforces the decision to adjust the model and the categorization of items.

Though these two items linguistically point to attitudes, what they are attitudes about is less clear, particularly with the item “The community work I did benefited the community.” Close scrutiny highlights two possible interpretations of this item. With an emphasis on “I did,” students answering this question could have been thinking about their own work—whether they felt like they made a contribution to the community. This interpretation would be a reflection of efficacy as proposed. If students emphasized “benefited the community” in their reading of the item, however, their response could mean something different. Students responding to this question could have felt personally efficacious but like the work itself was not a benefit to the community. If the

work was not meaningful, for example, or if the student did not believe it had value to the community, this item could be more an indication of attitude or a reflection of the service rather than of student learning. In fact, all four of the items that emerged in this second factor relate to the community work, a possible indication of the importance of well integrating service into the course.

Moreover, the second factor that emerged from factor analysis supports another theoretical aspect of the epistemological model of civic competence, which is that the components of civic competence are mutually reinforcing. Two domains emerged together in the second factor, academic knowledge and attitudes. The strength of their relationship is an indication of the intertwining nature of these concepts. The individual correlations illustrate this point. For instance, whether students felt that their community work benefited the community had a moderately strong correlation with the community work helping to better understand course content ($r = .590$). This relationship could be interpreted to mean that when students are learning, they feel better about the service they are doing, and visa versa. All items in this factor specifically reference the community work students performed, which could be an underlying influence on these outcomes. That students who are learning course content also tend to have a positive attitude about their service contribution is a strong indication of the interactive effects posited in the model of civic competence.

Analysis of the third factor that emerged from factor analysis procedures suggests another realignment of items, but overall continued confirmation of the epistemological model of civic competence. Four items loaded onto the third factor: "I believe this course

deepened my understanding of political issues” (factor loading = .612), “I believe this course deepened my understanding of local social issues” (factor loading = .784), “I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community” (factor loading = .514), and “This course helped me to understand those who are different from me” (factor loading = .384). Understanding social and political issues were the items originally proposed for the civic knowledge domain. Understanding how to make a difference and understanding those who are different were originally proposed in other domains—efficacy and values respectively. Nonetheless, scrutiny of the wording in these four items highlights the common thread of “understanding,” or civic knowledge. Therefore moving the item “I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community” to the civic knowledge domain is warranted, especially given that the factor analysis suggests it holds together best with those items. A new Cronbach’s alpha was generated for this revised combination of civic knowledge outcomes of $r = .801$, an increase from $r = .753$ previously. The revised items also increased the overall knowledge correlation from $r = .698$ to $r = .791$. This move does not detract from the item’s multifaceted value as a representation of the idea of efficacy in action as described above.

Likewise, the fourth item in this factor was “This course helped me to understand those who are different from me.” This item was originally posited as an indicator of values, related to appreciation of diversity and social justice. Again, attention to linguistic subtleties adds to the theoretical foundation of the model of civic competence. “Understanding” is different from “appreciation,” and that this item emerged through

factor analysis with the other civic knowledge items suggests that understanding difference is more an indicator of knowledge than of values, though the two could be closely related. In fact, this realignment enriches the notion of civic knowledge, implying that understanding diversity is a critical aspect of understanding how democratic society operates. To be sure that shifting “I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community” and “This course helped me to understand those who are different from me” to the civic knowledge domain and knowledge component makes sense, new item analysis procedures were conducted. This time civic knowledge items held together even more strongly than with just the original two items, with a new Cronbach’s alpha of .801 (in contrast to .753 previously), as did all knowledge component items, with a new Cronbach’s alpha of .851 (.791 prior to revision). Thus the factor analysis informed a slight revision in the civic knowledge items, but statistically substantiated the conceptual propositions of the epistemological model of civic competence.

A fourth and final factor emerged from the factor analysis that suggests another slight revision to the model. This factor consisted of two items: “I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course” (factor loading = .358) and “In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major” (factor loading = .421). Intention to continue volunteering is an indication of the action domain. As noted in the development of the model, application of knowledge predicts other learning outcomes (Eyler & Giles, 1999) and enhances understanding (Colby et al., 2007; Perry & Katula, 2001). Though this relationship between application

and understanding was discussed as part of knowledge, application itself is an action. Applying knowledge or skills, such as using one's understanding of math to tutor children or a skill in graphic arts to design a logo is an act of integrating service with course work—precisely the intention of community-based learning. Thus while applying knowledge and skills is clearly related to those components, the emphasis on the act of application supports realignment of this item to the action domain. Item analysis confirmed this adjustment. These two items (“I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course” and “In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major”) had a Cronbach's alpha of .506—moderate, but large enough to support this slight realignment of items in the model and its conceptual foundation.

Final Model of Civic Competence. The statistical data strongly indicate substantiation for the original epistemological model of civic competence with only slight revisions. In other words, the overarching structure and essential concepts of the model of civic competence have been supported, and, while a pre-existing survey, this instrument is reflective of the model, with an overall Cronbach's alpha of .917 for all items. Nevertheless, the realignment of some items has implications for the components and domains within the model and the outcome variables that will be used to answer Research Question 2 (*Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?*).

Table 7 displays the CSEQ-Outcome items realigned as described above based on the combination of item analysis and factor analysis procedures. The statistical

procedures described above have justified the rearrangement of four items, bolded in the table. With this adjustment, the knowledge and skills components remain largely the same as proposed in the original model, with two items added to the civic knowledge domain and one removed from the academic knowledge domain. The effect of the realignment is greater on the other two components, however. Dispositions as posited consisted of two items, one of which (“This course helped me to understand those who

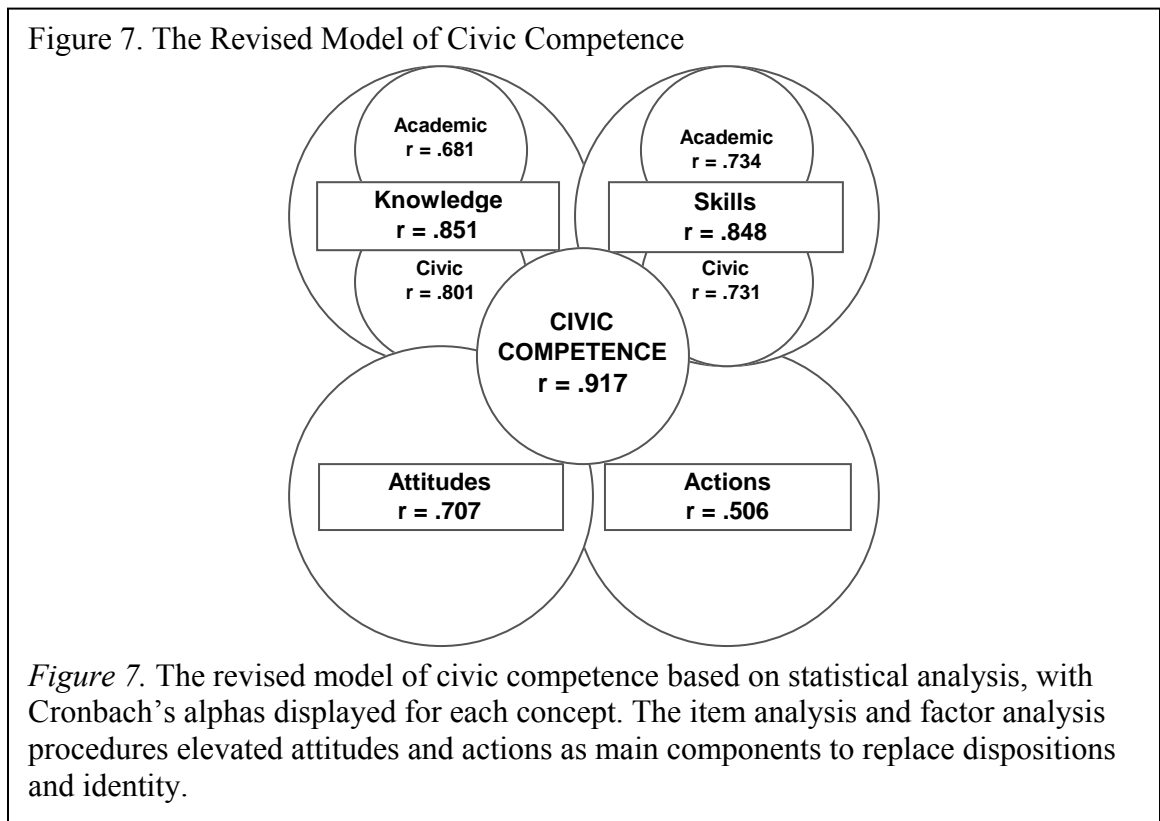
Table 7
Realigned CSEQ-Outcome Items based on statistical evidence

CSEQ Items	Proposed Component	Proposed Domain	Final Component	Final Domain
My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations.	Knowledge	Academic	Knowledge	Academic
The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this Capstone.	Knowledge	Academic	Knowledge	Academic
I believe this course deepened my understanding of political issues.	Knowledge	Civic	Knowledge	Civic
I believe this course deepened my understanding of local social issues.	Knowledge	Civic	Knowledge	Civic
I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community.*	Identity	Efficacy	Knowledge	Civic
This course helped me to understand those who are different from me.*	Dispositions	Values	Knowledge	Civic
This course enhanced my communication skills.	Skills	Academic	Skills	Academic
In this course I improved my ability to analyze ideas from multiple view points.	Skills	Academic	Skills	Academic
This course enhanced my ability to work with others as a team.	Skills	Civic	Skills	Civic
I improved my ability to solve problems in this course.	Skills	Civic	Skills	Civic
I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community.	Dispositions	Attitudes	Attitudes	
I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course.*	Identity	Efficacy	Attitudes	
I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course.	Identity	Action	Actions	
In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major.*	Knowledge	Academic	Actions	

* denotes realigned items

are different from me”) was statistically determined to be a better fit with civic knowledge (as explained above), especially logical given the language of “understanding” common to all the civic knowledge items. The other dispositions item, “I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community” was joined by another attitudinal measure, “I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course.” This pairing was supported by a Cronbach’s alpha of .706. However, moving the item about understanding difference to civic knowledge eliminates the one item in the instrument that had been proposed as an indicator of the values domain. The addition of another attitudes item and subtraction of the values item elevates attitudes as a main component in the model.

The implication of the realignment of items is similar for the fourth component, proposed as identity. Two of the three identity items were moved to other components (“I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community” to civic knowledge and “I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course” to attitudes), but one of the items originally categorized as academic knowledge (“In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major”) was realigned with “I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course” as action (Cronbach’s alpha = .506). With the identity and efficacy items dispersed, action also emerges as a main component in the model. These changes are represented in a revised model of civic competence displayed in Figure 7.



These revisions are logical based on the statistical analysis and review of the literature, but a few points are worth noting before using the revised model of civic competence as the basis for investigating pedagogical catalysts of civic competence in Research Question 2. First, and most importantly, while these four factors are not identical to the four main components proposed in the model, they are a refinement of the same essential constructs. The use of the term “dispositions” in the original model was drawn from Bowen (1977) but its limited use in community-based learning literature was acknowledged earlier. Attitudes may be a more parsimonious way to encapsulate the subjective feelings about community-based learning or civic participation more broadly and is more readily apparent in the CSEQ survey. Unfortunately, this scale does not

adequately include content related to social justice or appreciation of diversity (beyond understanding difference)—a critical area of elaboration for future research—but such items could reasonably fall under the heading of attitudes as a main component of civic competence, rather than a separate domain of values.

Similarly, the redistribution of identity and efficacy items does not diminish their conceptual value, and allows actions to stand alone as a clear component of civic competence. The action component is of tremendous importance to this model, integrating the act of service as an essential conceptual addition to scholarly understanding of civic competence. Its elevation to a main component highlights this unique contribution to the field and simplifies the construct.

Moreover, that identity and efficacy were not retained in the revised model as a main component and domain does not mean they are no longer important to civic competence. Rather, their redistribution emphasizes that these concepts are where there is the most overlap and mutual reinforcement among constructs. As described in the proposed model, efficacy in the civic domain incorporates confidence in knowledge and skills, but is also related to attitudes that motivate behavior (Bandura, 1997; Colby et al., 2007; Reeb et al., 1998). In the revised model of civic competence, efficacy is dispersed throughout the components. For example, “I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community” is an indicator of civic knowledge and “I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course” is in the attitudes component, but both items also refer to the community, overlapping with the act of service.

Identity was defined in the proposed model as having a positive attitude toward the responsibilities of citizenship, and seeing oneself as a socially responsible citizen with the capacity for active and effective participation in democratic society. This description encapsulates attitudes as well as knowledge and skill (effective participation) and connects to Knepelcamp's (2008) assertion that civic identity develops through engagement with others in real work—again overlapping with the act of service.

Indeed, perhaps this explanation is why efficacy and identity did not emerge in factor analysis as separate constructs of civic competence—they are embedded in all components of civic competence. This observation only builds upon the proposed model, which included efficacy and identity in the original definition of civic competence as the academic and civic knowledge, skills, dispositions, and efficacious identity necessary for effective participation in democratic society. This point is also supported by the statistical analysis—the item, “I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community” was originally proposed as an indicator of efficacy and was the one item that accounted for 52% of the variance in the strictest factor analysis procedure with eigenvalue set at 1. Thus the revised model of civic competence is somewhat different from the proposed version, but the revisions simplify, clarify, and emphasize the constructs and definitions first presented.

Furthermore, the now revised epistemological model of civic competence is a new, statistically tested conceptual approach to the civic outcomes of community-based learning. The results of the item analysis and factor analysis procedures suggest that the epistemological model of civic competence is conceptually sound—civic competence is

characterized by the four main components of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions. The items proposed in conjunction with the components and domains have held together with minor adjustments through both item analysis and factor analysis procedures. The skills component was strongly supported through item analysis (Cronbach's alpha = .848) and factor analysis, in which all items loaded most highly on the same skills factor. The knowledge component was also supported, buttressed especially through the addition of understanding how to make a difference in the community and understanding others who are different to the civic knowledge domain, along with understanding social and political issues. Attitudes and action emerged as more salient descriptors for what had previously been dispositions and identity with moderately strong Cronbach's alphas of .707 and .506 (respectively). Further, the results underscore that civic competence is characterized by efficacy and identity, which tie knowledge, skills, and attitudes together with action.

The item analysis and factor analysis in conjunction not only provide support for the epistemological model of civic competence, but also indicate that the Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire is an adequate instrument for the exploration of the relationship between pedagogical elements and civic competence that undergirds this study. With an overall Cronbach's alpha of .917, the items were all strongly related. Statistical analysis and careful parsing of words have aligned these items well with the components and domains of civic competence. The instrument is limited in that in the revised categorization of items only two items each represent attitudes and action. While there is no empirical evidence at this time to suggest that additional domains exist within attitudes and action, nor is there evidence to refute it—additional domains could be

established through further research and an expanded instrument, particularly around social justice in the attitudes component, for example. Nevertheless, strong conceptual and statistical support for the epistemological model of civic competence indicated by the CSEQ data suggests that this outcome data could be matched with pedagogical data to provide valuable information about the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence.

Creation of Outcome Variables. In order to prepare the outcome data for correlation with the pedagogical data, new outcome variables were computed in SPSS based on the revised epistemological model of civic competence. Using the technique recommended by Green et al. (2000), new variables were computed using the mean score of the items comprising each variable. This procedure was used to transform each of the components and domains from the revised groupings of items into new variables. Thus a variable for academic knowledge was created with the mean of the two items in this domain (“My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations” and “The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this Capstone”) another with the four items in the revised civic knowledge domain, and so on for academic and civic skills, and the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions components. A new variable was also computed with the mean of all items together, representing the overall construct of civic competence. These nine outcome variables were now ready in SPSS to analyze for Research Question 2 (*Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?*).

Are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence?

Summary of the Data. This analysis employed correlating the CSEQ-outcome variables (knowledge, skills, attitudes, actions, academic knowledge, civic knowledge, academic skills, civic skills, and civic competence) with the two sections of the CSEQ that describe pedagogical practices, the CSEQ-Learning Activities section and the CSEQ-Instructor section. These items indicate the pedagogical elements of community-based learning, the outside ring of the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence (see Figure 8).

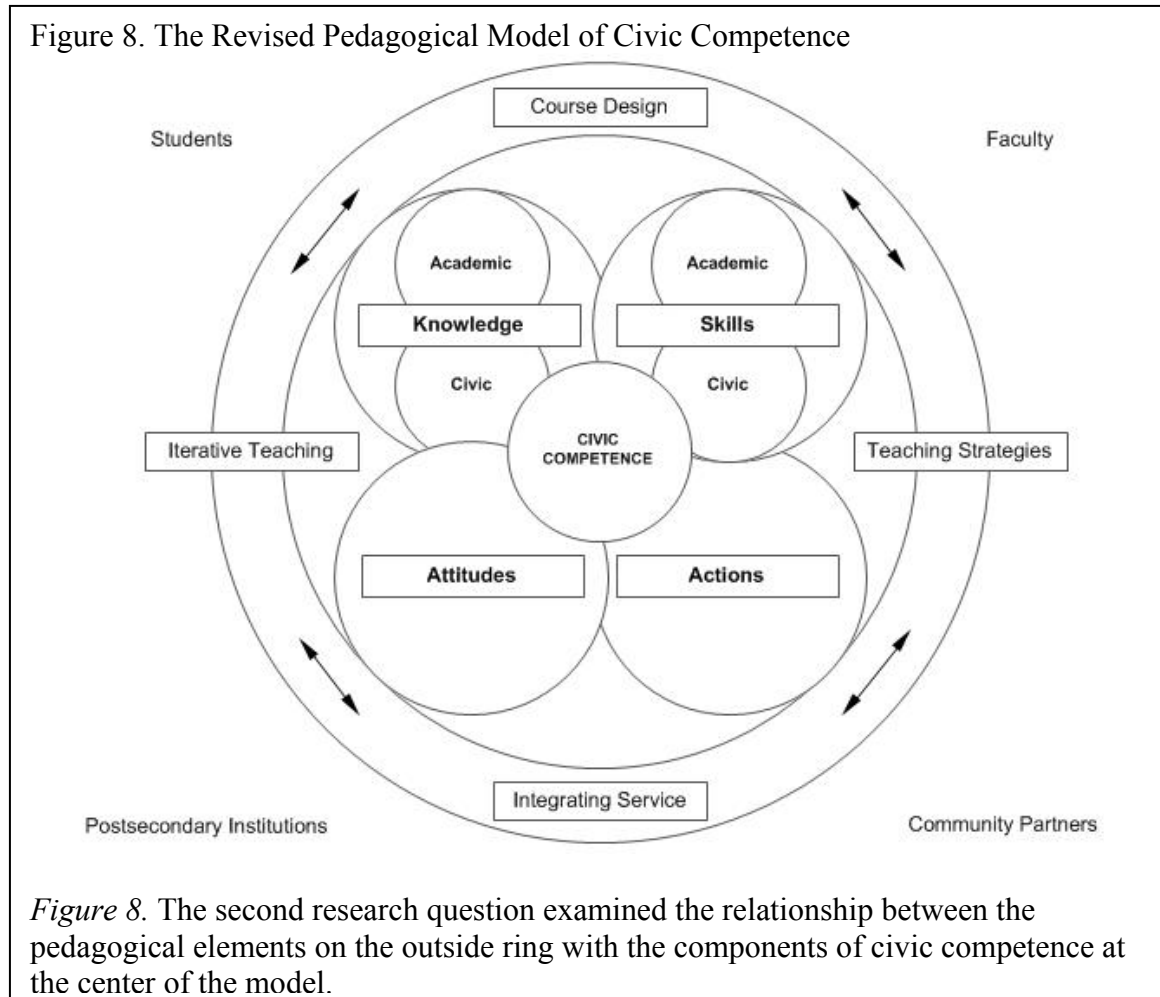


Table 8 summarizes the data from the CSEQ-Learning Activities section and lists the pedagogical element associated with each item. It is clear from this table that some teaching strategies, such as class discussion are prevalent in most Capstone courses, with 89% of students indicating that their instructors use these techniques. Similarly, most courses cover certain topics, such as social issues (84%). Other pedagogical elements are uncommon—only 4% of Capstone instructors use exams, 18% use portfolios, and 19% use extensive lecturing. Perhaps surprising given its attention in the literature, only 74% of students indicated that that their faculty use reflective journals, compared to 80% for required attendance or 81% for group decision-making. Indeed, the range of scores in this section indicates wide variability in how faculty teach, highlighting the importance of investigating how pedagogy affects outcomes.

Table 8

Summary, 2005-2010 CSEQ-Learning Activities section, by Frequency

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Frequency (n = 10,974)
Class Discussion	Teaching Strategies	89%
Social Issues	Course Design	84%
Group Decision-Making	Teaching Strategies	81%
Required Class Attendance	Course Design	80%
Collaborative Projects	Teaching Strategies	80%
Reflective Journals	Teaching Strategies	74%
Student Presentations	Course Design	73%
Civic Responsibility / Citizenship	Course Design	70%
Racial and Ethnic Issues	Course Design	54%
Political Issues	Course Design	54%
E-communication Tools	Teaching Strategies	47%
Women and Gender Issues	Course Design	39%
Extensive Lecturing	Teaching Strategies	19%
Portfolio	Course Design	18%
Exams	Course Design	4%

Table 9
Summary, 2005-2010 CSEQ-Instructor section, by Percent Agreeing

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Percent Agreeing (n = 10,974)
Created an atmosphere that encouraged active student participation	Teaching Strategies	94%
Related course material to real-life situations	Teaching Strategies	93%
Showed a personal interest in my learning	Teaching Strategies	92%
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies	90%
Presented course material in a way that was clear	Teaching Strategies	89%
Scheduled course work at an appropriate pace	Course Design	89%
Encouraged interaction outside of class	Teaching Strategies	88%
Provided clear instructions for assignments	Course Design	87%
Provided helpful feedback on assignments	Teaching Strategies	86%
Provided clear grading criteria	Course Design	84%
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service	83%
This course explored issues of diversity (such as race, class gender, sexual orientation, ability)	Course Design	79%

Similarly, Table 9 shows the results of the Likert-type CSEQ-Instructor section. The overall trends show that students give their instructors high ratings on these items. Just under 95% of students agreed that their instructors “Created an atmosphere that encouraged active student participation,” a remarkably high level of agreement. In contrast, only 79% agreed with “This course explored issues of diversity (such as race, class gender, sexual orientation, ability).” While this finding is not surprising in light of the results indicating that only 54% of faculty cover topics of race and ethnicity issues and only 39% cover women and gender issues, the variability in pedagogy around issues of diversity could have implications for outcomes, as discussed further below with the correlation results. In addition, while still receiving above 80% agreement, both

“Provided clear grading criteria” (83%) and “The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work” (84%) were lower than most other percentages in this section.

These overall summaries provide the background to explore the results in light of the research questions. In order to identify the patterns of relationship between civic competence and community-based learning pedagogy, several types of correlations were run, including bivariate correlations using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and cross tabs (Chi square) between the pedagogical elements and each of the components and domains of the model, as well as the overall civic competence outcome.

Model Correlation Results. First, correlation procedures were run with the four composite component variables of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions, as well as the four computed domain variables of academic knowledge, civic knowledge, academic skills, and civic skills and the overall civic competence variable. Each of these combinations was used to explore the relationship between the components of civic competence and the different pedagogical elements in the CSEQ-Instructor section. Then crosstabs were run for the categorical CSEQ-Learning Activities items and each of the components and domains, and for civic competence. Cramer’s V is the appropriate coefficient for effect size with nominal variables (Green et al., 2000).

Knowledge Results. Knowledge was correlated with each CSEQ-Instructor item. All items were significantly related ($p \leq .001$). Though the coefficients for the knowledge component were generally lower than individual item correlations, they were generally higher for the knowledge component than for the other three components.

Importantly, the three strongest correlations were with three different elements from the pedagogical model of community-based learning (course design, teaching strategies, and integrating service). The highest correlation among all components with the CSEQ-Instructor items was between knowledge and the integrating service item, “The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work” ($r = .577$, $p \leq .001$). Similarly high was the correlation with course design item “This course explored issues of diversity” ($r = .565$, $p \leq .001$). An instructor who used the teaching strategies of engaging students in their learning ($r = .522$, $p \leq .001$) and relating course material to real-life situations ($r = .499$, $p \leq .001$) and were also strongly related to knowledge. All items had at least moderate coefficients above .3 with the knowledge component.

Crosstabs procedures were used to examine the relationship between each component of civic competence and the categorical variables in the CSEQ-Learning Activities section. In the crosstabs analysis significance was figured using Pearson’s Chi-Square, with Cramer’s V coefficient and the frequencies providing additional information for interpretation (Field, 2009). For the knowledge component, all items were statistically significant, with the exception of exams, which was not significantly related to any of the outcome variables (and seldom used by faculty, consistently reported with about 4% frequency). The frequency totals revealed that class discussion, ($\chi^2(4) = 66.396$, $p \leq .001$) had the highest percentage (80%) of students both reporting that activity’s use and reaching the knowledge outcome (agreeing with its constituent items), though the effect size was small ($V = .078$) (Pallant, 2007). Class discussion was the most commonly reported teaching strategy (89%), so given that the overall outcome

numbers were high, it is not surprising that this activity would have a high frequency of agreement. Though 89% of students reported that their faculty used class discussion, only 80% also increased knowledge (as computed in the knowledge component variable). Thus while class discussion appears to have some effect on knowledge, the influence is small.

Seventy-four percent of students both agreed that their faculty covered social issues and attained knowledge outcomes ($X^2(4) = 323.243, p \leq .001$). Though the effect size was moderate ($V = .172$) according to Pallant (2007), coverage of social issues appears to have an influence on knowledge outcomes. Other topics revealed an interesting pattern. Though race and ethnicity, women and gender, and political issues were not covered with as great a frequency, their effect sizes were higher than most other items. For example, only 50% of students both attained the knowledge outcome and agreed that their faculty covered political issues but the strength of the effect was relatively high ($X^2(4) = 375.788, V = .186, p \leq .001$), the highest correlation for the knowledge component). The pattern was similar for race and ethnicity ($X^2(4) = 391.912, V = .190, p \leq .001$). This finding suggests that while these topics might not be part of course design as frequently as other Learning Activity items, when they are they appear more strongly related to attainment of knowledge outcomes. Table 10 summarizes the strongest correlations for the knowledge component.

Table 10

Pedagogical Items Most Strongly Associated with the Knowledge Component

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Effect size (p ≤ .001)
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service	r = .577
This course explored issues of diversity	Course Design	r = .565
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies	r = .522
Related course material to real-life situations	Teaching Strategies	r = .499
Political Issues	Course Design	V = .186
Race and Ethnicity Issues	Course Design	V = .190
Social Issues	Course Design	V = .172
Women and Gender Issues	Course Design	V = .171

Domain level analysis emphasized the importance of a clear syllabus for both academic knowledge ($r = .534, p \leq .001$) and civic knowledge ($r = .530, p \leq .001$). Relating the course material to real-life situations was more strongly correlated with academic knowledge ($r = .470, p \leq .001$) than civic knowledge ($r = .462, p \leq .001$), though both associations were moderately strong. Exploring issues of diversity was more strongly related to civic knowledge ($r = .578, p \leq .001$) than academic knowledge ($r = .412, p \leq .001$). Since understanding diverse others was one of the items figured into the civic knowledge variable, this moderately strong relationship to the coverage of diversity topics is not surprising. However, that the relationship is also moderate for academic knowledge is noteworthy—this finding suggests that including diversity in community-based learning courses enhances all knowledge outcomes. Activities allowing for students' personal engagement with their learning was also particularly related to academic knowledge ($r = .488, p \leq .001$) and civic knowledge ($r = .486, p \leq .001$).

For the Learning Activities items, 83% of students who reported that their faculty used class discussions attained academic knowledge outcomes, but the effect size was small ($X^2(4) = 54.202$, $V = .071$, $p \leq .001$). The percentage was lower for civic knowledge outcomes (77%), but the effect size was slightly higher ($X^2(4) = 72.696$, $V = .082$, $p \leq .001$). Further, even though only 49% reported coverage of political issues, the effect size with civic knowledge was the highest of all items when they did ($X^2(4) = 527.174$, $V = .220$, $p \leq .001$), a strong correlation that highlights the important role inclusion of political issues could play in civic competence. Coverage of race and ethnicity was similarly low (50%) but with a relatively high effect size ($X^2(4) = 471.274$, $V = .208$, $p \leq .001$). These results highlight the potential of coverage of political issues and race and ethnicity as way to enhance civic knowledge outcomes.

For both the Learning Activities section and the Instructor section, some items also had a pattern of lower frequency of use or effect. As stated earlier, exams did not have a significant relationship with knowledge variables. Portfolios were not used frequently (16% of the time) among those who attained the knowledge component outcomes, and though they were significantly related, the effect sizes were small (e.g. $V = .032$, $p \leq .001$ for knowledge). Perhaps more surprising, collaborative projects had a significant but minimal effect with academic knowledge ($X^2(4) = 16.940$, $V = .040$, $p \leq .05$), but was not significantly related to the knowledge component ($X^2(4) = 7.127$, $V = .026$, $p \geq .05$) or civic knowledge ($X^2(4) = 2.215$, $V = .014$, $p \geq .05$). This finding is interesting and concerning. Students reported that 80% of Capstones involve collaborative work, and perhaps faculty assign collaborative tasks because they believe it

can help students learn. This data raises the possibility that collaborative work is not particularly effective, at least for the knowledge outcomes.

Skills Results. The skills component was the second analyzed, and it too was most strongly correlated with items representing the different pedagogical elements of course design, integrating service, and teaching strategies. The skills component was most strongly correlated with “Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning” ($r = .469, p \leq .001$). A few other items were moderately correlated with the skills component, though all relationships were statistically significant. These other items included “This course explored issues of diversity” ($r = .453, p \leq .001$), and “The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work” ($r = .435, p \leq .001$). For the crosstabs analysis, while class discussions (78%, $X^2(4) = 25.666, V = .050, p \leq .001$) and coverage of social issues (74%, $X^2(4) = 82.637, V = .090, p \leq .001$) were most frequently associated with students’ reaching the skills outcomes, the correlations indicate a stronger relationship with civic responsibility and citizenship ($X^2(4) = 112.545, V = .105, p \leq .001$), race and ethnicity ($X^2(4) = 104.934, V = .101, p \leq .001$), and group decision-making ($X^2(4) = 102.749, V = .100, p \leq .001$). Table 11 shows the items most strongly associated with the skills component. While the strength of the effect between skills and race and ethnicity is noteworthy, the influence of specifically covering civic responsibility and citizenship is less surprising. Also important is that the teaching strategy of group decision-making was found to have a moderate effect on skills, a support of the argument made by Kirlin (2003) and others that practice may be particularly important for skill enhancement.

Table 11
Pedagogical Items Most Strongly Associated with the Skills Component

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Coefficient (p ≤ .001)
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies	r = .469
This course explored issues of diversity	Course Design	r = .453
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service	r = .435
Civic Responsibility and Citizenship	Course Design	V = .105
Race and Ethnicity	Course Design	V = .101
Group Decision-Making	Teaching Strategies	V = .100

At the domain level, academic skill and civic skill effect sizes tended to be lower than many of the coefficients for knowledge. The single item most strongly associated with civic skills was “Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning” ($r = .422, p \leq .001$). While this instructional element was also relatively highly related to academic skills ($r = .455, p \leq .001$), others were as well, such as exploring diversity ($r = .455, p \leq .001$) and a clear syllabus ($r = .422, p \leq .001$). In the Learning Activities section, social issues was shown again to be used successfully and frequently (75% for academic skills and 73% for civic skills), with moderate effect sizes ($X^2(4) = 86.446, V = .092, p \leq .001$ for academic skills and $X^2(4) = 56.491, V = .074, p \leq .001$ for civic skills). The results were similar for class discussions (78%, $X^2(4) = 46.844, V = .068, p \leq .001$) and academic skills, but lower for civic skills (75%, $X^2(4) = 18.447, V = .043, p \leq .001$). Group decision-making (73%) had a stronger effect ($X^2(4) = 72.408, V = .084, p \leq .001$) with academic skills than class discussion, and a considerably larger effect with civic skills ($X^2(4) = 121.552, V = .109, p \leq .001$).

However, despite lower use, the relatively strong effect sizes between academic skills and coverage of race and ethnicity (49%, $X^2(4) = 104.934$, $V = .101$, $p \leq .001$), women and gender (35%, $X^2(4) = 129.656$, $V = .113$, $p \leq .001$), and civic responsibility (63%, $X^2(4) = 112.545$, $V = .105$, $p \leq .001$), indicate that these elements are related to the communication and critical thinking, the concepts embedded in the academic skills items. Also of note in the civic skills domain is the number of pedagogical items that were *not* significantly related to the outcome, including required attendance, student presentations, exams, and portfolios. For a data set in which students generally tended to answer the same way (thus the high degree of significance throughout), this lack of relationship implies that civic skills might need particular pedagogical attention—this outcome does not follow along the same pattern as others. Also interesting, even though group decision-making had a moderately large effect with academic and civic skills, collaborative projects did not ($X^2(4) = 13.838$, $V = .037$, $p \leq .05$ for academic skills and $X^2(4) = 15.999$, $V = .040$, $p \leq .05$ for civic skills), similar to the result for this pedagogical item and the knowledge outcomes.

Attitudes Results. Next the attitudes component was analyzed. Following a pattern established with the knowledge and skills components (see Table 12), the attitudes component was most clearly and strongly related to the CSEQ-Instructor item: “The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work” ($r = .471$, $p \leq .001$). Using activities that allowed personal engagement was another moderately strong correlation for this component ($r = .401$, $p \leq .001$), nearly matched by exploring diversity ($r = .385$, $p \leq .001$). The trends seen for knowledge and

skills continued for the Learning Activities section as well. Civic responsibility and citizenship ($X^2(4) = 173.380$, $V = .127$, $p \leq .001$), social issues ($X^2(4) = 159.326$, $V = .122$, $p \leq .001$), and race and ethnicity ($X^2(4) = 149.682$, $V = .118$, $p \leq .001$), had the highest effect sizes. Women and gender ($X^2(4) = 112.787$, $V = .102$, $p \leq .001$), was not far behind. However, 83% of students both attained the attitudes outcomes and agreed that their instructors used class discussions, the highest frequency for all items, even though the effect size was small ($V = .038$). These findings reiterate the pattern of support for a combination of course design, teaching strategies, and integrating service in facilitating civic competence development. Student presentations and exams were not significantly related to attitudes, while items such as collaborative projects ($V = .031$) and extensive lecturing ($V = .031$) were significantly related ($p \leq .001$) but with very small effect sizes.

Table 12

Pedagogical Items Most Strongly Associated with the Attitudes Component

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Coefficient ($p \leq .001$)
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service	$r = .471$
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies	$r = .401$
This course explored issues of diversity	Course Design	$V = .385$
Civic Responsibility and Citizenship	Course Design	$V = .127$
Social Issues	Course Design	$V = .122$
Race and Ethnicity	Course Design	$V = .118$
Women and Gender	Course Design	$V = .102$

Actions Results. The action component correlations followed a similar pattern as the knowledge, skills, and actions. The correlations and effect sizes were noticeably lower than for the others, though, perhaps a consequence of consisting of only two items

(both of which had overall lower rates of agreement than most other items). Only three items had correlation coefficients above .3 for the Instructor section items: “The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work” ($r = .316, p \leq .001$), “Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning” ($r = .321, p \leq .001$), and “This course explored issues of diversity” ($r = .305, p \leq .001$). In the Learning Activities section, the strongest relationship predicting action outcomes was coverage of civic responsibility and citizenship ($X^2(4) = 159.463, V = .122, p \leq .001$), a clear signal that explicitly incorporating civic responsibility and citizenship into a course has the potential to enhance the action outcomes. No other items neared that strength of correlation for action, though race and ethnicity ($X^2(4) = 95.956, V = .094, p \leq .001$), women and gender ($X^2(4) = 58.697, V = .074, p \leq .001$), and political ($X^2(4) = 60.559, V = .075, p \leq .001$) and social ($X^2(4) = 55.296, V = .072, p \leq .001$) issues were the closest contenders. Table 13 lists the pedagogical items most closely related to the action component. They again support the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence by showing a pattern of relationship between pedagogical catalysts such as the Syllabus and the action component of civic competence.

Table 13

Pedagogical Items Most Strongly Associated with the Action Component

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Coefficient (p ≤ .001)
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service	r = .316
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies	r = .321
This course explored issues of diversity	Course Design	r = .305
Civic Responsibility and Citizenship	Course Design	V = .122
Race and Ethnicity	Course Design	V = .094
Political Issues	Course Design	V = .075

Civic Competence Results. As one final way of exploring the relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence, the single computed measure of civic competence, based on the means of all outcome items, was analyzed with respect to each pedagogical item. The results reiterate the patterns found within the components, as would be expected. The instructional items most strongly correlated with civic competence are having a syllabus that clearly connects the course content and community work ($r = .569, p \leq .001$), exploring issues of diversity ($r = .552, p \leq .001$), and personally engaging students in their learning ($r = .539, p \leq .001$). These results have been consistent for all four components, a strong endorsement of their importance for the development of civic competence and therefore of the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence.

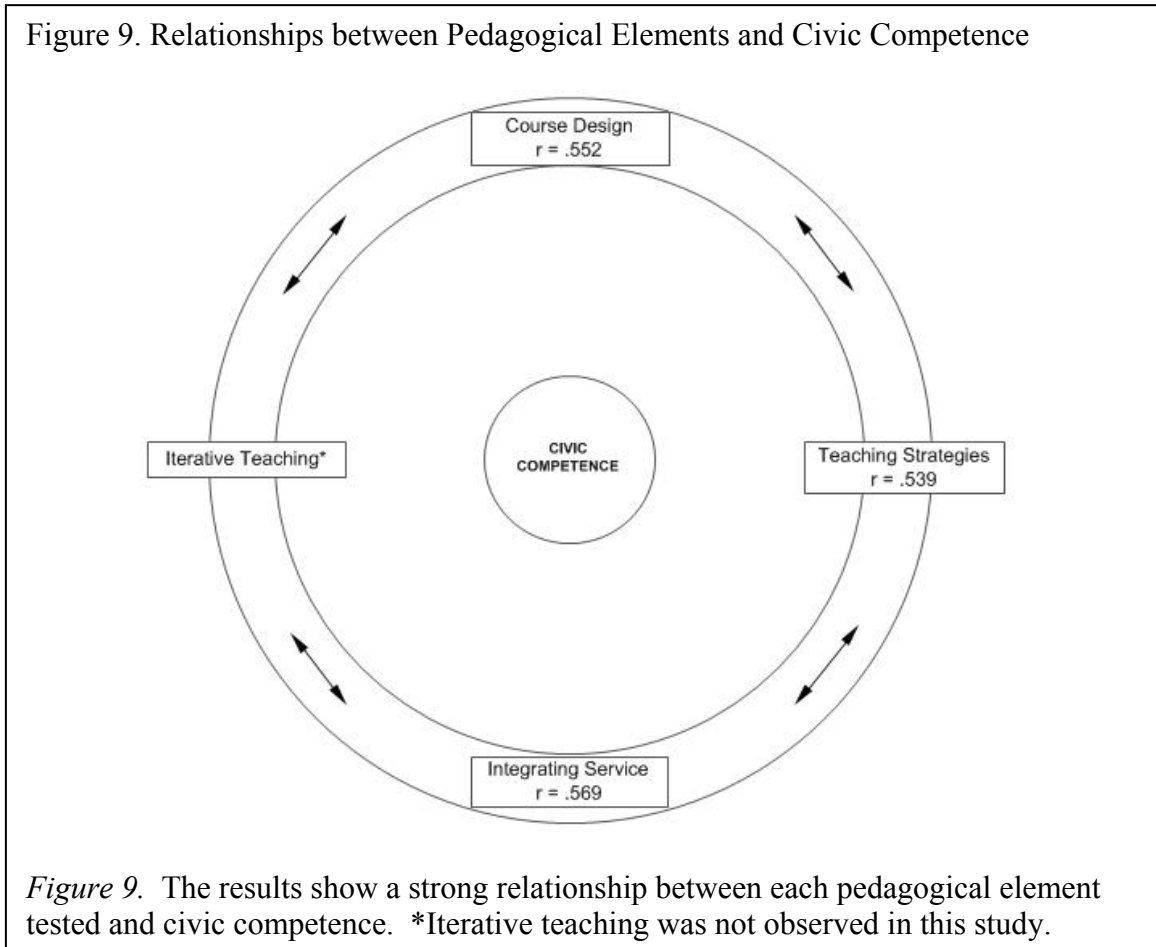
With the Learning Activities, the results adhered to a similar consistent pattern. Class discussions were reportedly used most frequently (80%) by those attaining the civic competence outcome, but the effect size was relatively small ($X^2(4) = 66.007, V = .078, p \leq .001$). Social issues also had a high rate of agreement (76%) but a much stronger effect size ($X^2(4) = 223.647, V = .143, p \leq .001$). However, as has been the case throughout this analysis of the model in relation to pedagogical elements, the topics of race ($X^2(4) = 272.369, V = .158, p \leq .001$), gender ($X^2(4) = 206.694, V = .138, p \leq .001$), civic responsibility ($X^2(4) = 254.537, V = .153, p \leq .001$), and political issues ($X^2(4) = 194.504, V = .134, p \leq .001$) are all less frequently used but the most highly correlated and therefore could potentially be used successfully with greater frequency. Also

repeating earlier findings, collaborative projects and exams were not significantly related to civic competence. Table 14 summarizes these overall results for civic competence.

Table 14
Pedagogical Items Most Strongly Associated with Civic Competence

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Coefficient (p ≤ .001)
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service	r = .569
This course explored issues of diversity	Course Design	r = .552
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies	r = .539
Race and Ethnicity	Course Design	V = .158
Civic Responsibility and Citizenship	Course Design	V = .153
Social Issues	Course Design	V = .143
Women and Gender	Course Design	V = .138
Political Issues	Course Design	V = .134

Summary of Correlations and Crosstabs. This analysis has elucidated the patterns of relationship between elements of community-based learning pedagogy and development of civic competence (see Figure 9). All correlations between the components and domains of civic competence and the CSEQ-Instructor items were statistically significant. The Learning Activities items were more varied in significance. Exams were not frequently used and never significantly correlated with the outcomes. Collaborative projects, perhaps assumed to be beneficial (particularly for developing skills in working with others), did not appear to be so, an important finding with implications for faculty development and best practices. This finding held even for civic skills, which was strongly related to group decision-making. That students perceived a distinction between collaborative projects and group decision-making and found one more valuable than the other is also noteworthy.



Moreover, a few pedagogical items emerged with strong and consistent correlations with civic competence, as shown in Table 15. For the CSEQ-Instructor items, these items included “The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work,” “This course explored issues of diversity (such as race, class gender, sexual orientation, ability),” and an instructor who “Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning.” The finding that these three items were repeatedly the most strongly related to each component of civic competence is a strong substantiation for the idea that pedagogical practices do in fact affect civic outcomes, and that particular aspects of course design (exploring diversity), teaching

strategies (engaging activities), and integration of service (clearly connected in the syllabus) are important pedagogical catalysts of civic competence.

Table 15

Relationship between Instructor Items and Civic Competence

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Effect size (Pearson's r)
This course explored issues of diversity (such as race, class gender, sexual orientation, ability)	Course Design	.569
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work	Integrating Service	.552
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning	Teaching Strategies	.539
Presented course material in a way that was clear	Teaching Strategies	.487
Related course material to real-life situations	Integrating Service	.482
Showed a personal interest in my learning	Teaching Strategies	.473
Provided clear instructions for assignments	Course Design	.445
Provided clear grading criteria	Course Design	.438
Created an atmosphere that encouraged active student participation	Teaching Strategies	.429
Provided helpful feedback on assignments	Teaching Strategies	.424
Scheduled course work at an appropriate pace	Course Design	.408
Encouraged interaction outside of class	Teaching Strategies	.372

Likewise, for the CSEQ-Learning Activity section, a few main patterns emerged (see Table 16). The first is that class discussions and social issues appear to be used frequently and successfully to reach civic outcomes, but with fairly small to moderate effect sizes (larger for social issues than class discussions). The second is that coverage of diversity (both race and gender), politics, and civic responsibility are not used as frequently, but have stronger effect sizes with civic outcomes than other pedagogical elements. This finding cannot be overstated; through both the Instructor and Learning Activity results it is clear that opportunities to learn about diversity are essential to civic competence. Additionally, civic competence is strengthened when political issues and

civic responsibility are explicitly covered in the course. The importance of diversity as a pedagogical catalyst of civic competence is a key finding of this study, as is the centrality of civic and political topics.

Table 16

Relationship between Learning Activity Items and Civic Competence

CSEQ Item	Pedagogical Element	Effect size (Cramer's V)
Racial and Ethnic Issues	Course Design	.158
Civic Responsibility / Citizenship	Course Design	.153
Social Issues	Course Design	.143
Women and Gender Issues	Course Design	.138
Political Issues	Course Design	.134
Reflective Journals	Teaching Strategies	.090
Group Decision-Making	Teaching Strategies	.079
Class Discussion	Teaching Strategies	.063
Required Class Attendance	Course Design	.060
E-communication Tools	Teaching Strategies	.058
Extensive Lecturing	Teaching Strategies	.052
Student Presentations	Course Design	.047
Portfolio	Course Design	.042
Collaborative Projects	Teaching Strategies	.025*
Exams	Course Design	.025*

* not significant ($p \geq .05$)

In contrast, exams do not appear valuable to civic competence. Two other items also showed a pattern of *not* being significantly or strongly related to civic competence: Collaborative projects and student presentations. The reasons for these findings could be numerous, including projects in which the work is not truly collaborative (such as when one group member does not participate) or student presentations that invoke nervousness among presenters or boredom in the audience. Exams may not be intended to facilitate learning, but rather to measure it.

Also important in these findings are the items that have gone without much mention in the analysis because their effects were not noticeably large or small. Though

not generally among the highest correlations, clear presentation of material and relating material to real-life situations were also consistently well correlated with the civic outcomes. For example, the overall civic competence variable was moderately correlated with instructors who related the course material to real-life situations ($r = .482$) and presented material in a way that was clear ($r = .487$).

Other pedagogical elements, such as reflective journals and required attendance had moderate use and correlation coefficients, suggesting that they may be valuable but perhaps not as influential in civic competence as other items. In the case of reflective journals, this finding is interesting given the attention this practice has received in the field (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Batchelder & Root, 1994; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hatcher & Bringle, 1997). The numbers suggest that while reflective journals are used by 74% of faculty, they are not consistently associated with civic outcomes. Reflective journals did have the strongest relationship with the knowledge component ($\chi^2(4) = 124.027$, $V = .107$, $p \leq .001$), though this finding was overshadowed by even stronger correlations between knowledge and the diversity items or political, social, and civic topics. This only moderate influence of reflective journals has a few implications, one of which is that while important, reflection journals should not be the sole focus of pedagogical research in community-based learning since other aspects of teaching are just as or more influential on civic competence results. Further, perhaps the moderate strength of correlations indicates a possible area for faculty development—maybe the reflection journals have not been used as effectively as they could be to achieve civic competence.

Extensive lecturing, use of electronic communication tools, and portfolios were generally not frequent or strongly correlated with the components of civic competence, though they were for the most part significant correlations (portfolios were not significantly correlated with the skills component or civic skills domain). There could be a range of quality or format involved with all three of these items, however, which could explain part of this result. In fact, the limitation of the instrument to provide detail on any of these items highlights the need for qualitative data to further elaborate these results.

Indeed, alternative explanations cannot be ruled out without further research. As discussed previously, the single institution design of this study is an important limitation to consider in analysis. For example, the importance of a syllabus that clearly connects the service work to the course content has been suggested by Howard (2001) and Heffernan (2001) and strongly supported through the data in this study. Because Capstone courses must go through an approval process through a special committee, Capstone syllabi may be particularly well designed. Still, even if Capstone syllabi are substantively different from courses at other institutions or in other programs, the results still suggest that for a large sample at an urban university, the syllabus is important and helps students learn.

Conversely, the finding that collaborative projects were not significantly correlated with action, civic knowledge, or the overall civic competence outcome was somewhat surprising and counterintuitive. Scholars such as Colby et al. (2007) have discussed collaboration as one way to practice civic skill building. Portland State

University, though, has a non-traditional student body largely comprised of students who are working full-time or part-time jobs, many with family responsibilities as well. Group work can be logistically challenging and frustrating for students when class is not necessarily the whole team's top priority. Perhaps these frustrations influenced the relationship with civic competence, an explanation that could not be known without further study. Similarly, additional factors that could facilitate or inhibit the development of civic competence were discussed in Chapter 2, such as student development, faculty expertise or support, postsecondary institution policies or culture, and variables of the community partner, like layoffs or transition of leadership.

Nevertheless, the clear relationships between course design, teaching strategies, and integrating service and civic competence outcomes over five years and approximately 700 classes is still striking. On the whole, the patterns between pedagogical elements and civic competence outcomes strongly suggests that the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence has merit as a way of identifying and understanding the pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to articulate a comprehensive but parsimonious model of community-based learning for civic competence and identify pedagogical factors that facilitate civic competence development. This purpose has been met. The pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence was drafted through the literature review and tested and refined through analysis of data from a sample of over 10,000 students in a required community-based learning course. Results

indicated that the epistemological model of civic competence was conceptually sound as proposed but strengthened further with slight revision, such as realigning some items and simplifying constructs. In addition, the Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire was found to be a suitable instrument for analysis, though it too could be refined for future use.

Examination of the relationship between the components and domains of civic competence and the pedagogical elements the pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence identified several pedagogical factors that are consistently associated with the attainment of civic competence. Most importantly for the social justice aims of community-based learning, exploration of diversity significantly enhances all civic competence outcomes, warranting a new title for this conceptualization: the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence (Figure 10). Thus the analysis of data has yielded numerous findings that have helped determine the pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning for civic competence.

Item analysis results indicated that the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence holds together conceptually, with high degrees of multicollinearity (Cronbach's alpha = .917) for all civic outcomes tested and for the individual components and domains. Factor analysis results highlighted the overlapping and mutually reinforcing relationship among components, with the items proposed as efficacy indicators more strongly associated with knowledge or attitudes. As a result of their realignment, however, attitudes and actions emerged as more clear and appropriate labels for what had been termed dispositions and identity. The shift maintains the structural

Figure 10. The Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence

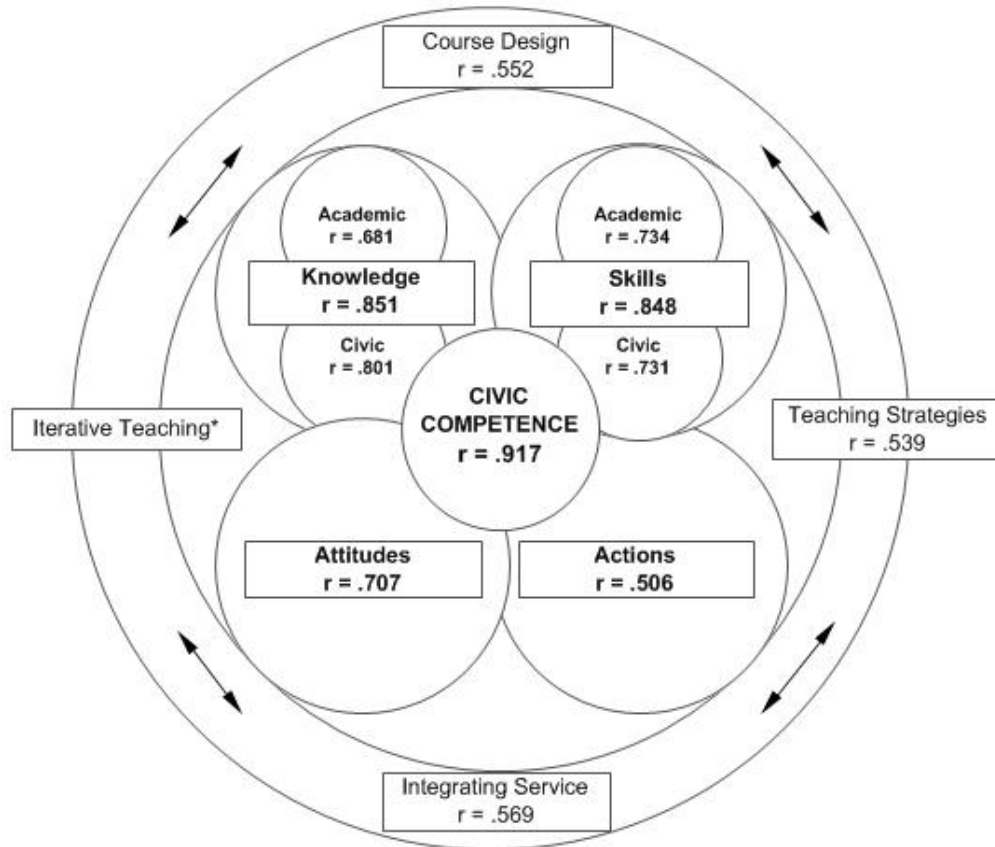


Figure 10. The revised pedagogical model of civic competence is displayed here along with the highest correlation between each pedagogical element and civic competence. *Iterative teaching was not analyzed in this study.

integrity of the model of civic competence with four main components, and elevates action as the critical service piece. Efficacy and identity are not lost, but embedded in the other concepts and still essential to the definition of civic competence.

Furthermore, examination of the patterns of relationship between pedagogical elements of community-based learning and civic competence outcomes was likewise informative. The practices with the strongest relationships to civic competence are:

- a syllabus that clearly connects service work to course content
- exploration of diversity (such as race, class gender, sexual orientation, ability)
- explicit coverage of social issues, political issues, and civic responsibility or citizenship
- group decision-making
- class discussion.

The results showed both what faculty are successfully doing already (e.g. class discussion and coverage of social issues), as well as what might enhance outcomes if utilized more frequently (e.g. coverage of political issues and diversity topics such as race, ethnicity, and gender).

The data also underscored the importance of a syllabus that clearly connects the course content to the community work, exploration of diversity, and engaging students in their learning, each of which warrants future research. With respect to the pedagogical ring of the model, the data indicate that as implied by the model, course design, teaching strategies, and integrating service are all significant contributors to civic competence, though future research needs to explore iterative teaching.

Further research is also needed to flesh out other aspects of the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence. For example, teaching practices should also be explored from the faculty perspective. Nonetheless, the results of this analysis provided statistical support for the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence through community-based learning and identified pedagogical catalysts of civic competence. These results and their implications for theory, practice, and research will be discussed further in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This study has explored the pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning for civic competence. The Capstone Student Experience Questionnaires (CSEQs) contain rich data and come from a large sample of undergraduates. Through statistical analysis this research was able to both explore the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence through community-based learning and determine relationships between elements of pedagogy and the components and domains of the model. The epistemological model of civic competence was determined to be a conceptually sound rendering of the civic outcomes of community-based learning. Patterns of relationship between civic competence and specific pedagogical catalysts emerged when the components and domains of civic competence were correlated with data about pedagogical practices. These pedagogical catalysts exemplify the three pedagogical elements observed in this study: course design, teaching strategies, and integrating service, additional evidence that the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence through community-based learning is a valid conceptual model.

Three key findings thus stand out as significant contributions to the fields of community-based learning and civic education:

1. The results of this study strongly substantiate the proposed pedagogical model of civic competence with minor revisions and warranted naming the model the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence.
2. Diversity is essential to the development of civic competence, which supports the social justice aims of community-based learning.
3. Service must be thoroughly integrated into a course through the syllabus and community partnership in order to maximize civic competence.

These findings have important implications for community-based learning theory, practice, and research and further Kuh's (2008) claim that community-based learning is high-impact educational practice. While the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence has now been empirically tested, this study leads to areas for further theoretical elaboration. Still, this preliminary research suggests some recommendations for faculty and institutions seeking to develop civically competent citizens. In addition, both the theoretical and practical implications of this study point to future scholarship investigating the pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning for civic competence.

The Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence

The results of this study support the theoretical assumptions of the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence and inform its future development. This research set out to explore both the epistemological model of civic competence as a way to conceptualize the civic outcomes of community-based learning and the pedagogical model that focuses on what faculty do to facilitate civic competence in their students. This effort built on previous work conceptualizing academic and civic outcomes as separate and additive components, as shown in Figure 11. Both the teaching and learning aspects of this study have been supported, and the final Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence has been reproduced in Figure 12.

Figure 11. Traditional Conceptualization of Community-Based Learning Course Outcomes

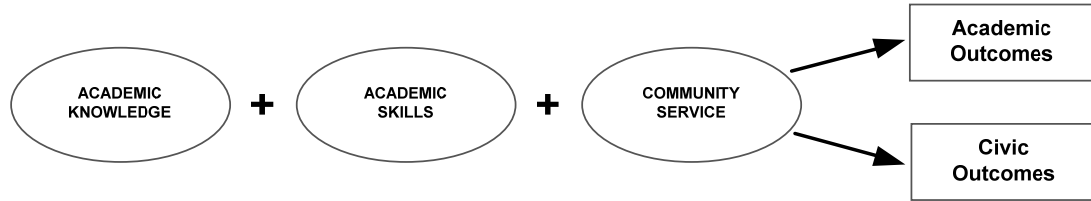


Figure 11. Traditional conceptualizations of the relationship between community-based learning and civic outcomes have not addressed the interactive and overlapping nature of the components of civic competence.

Figure 12. The Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence

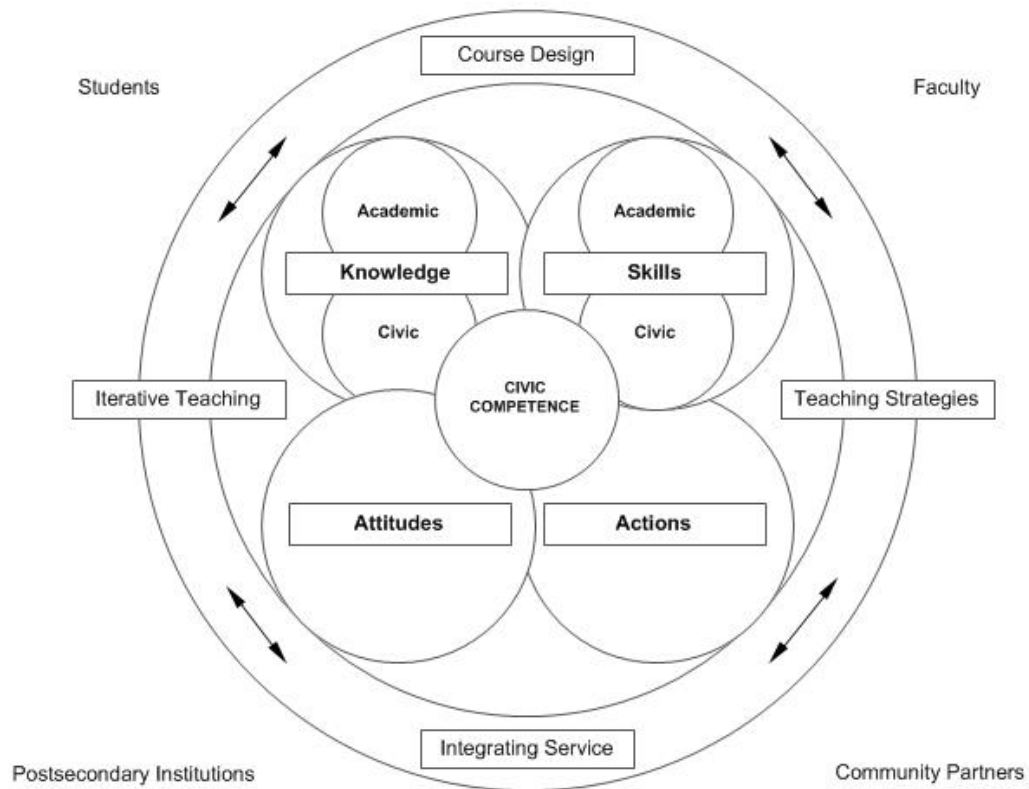


Figure 12. The Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence, developed and tested in this study, positions the four key elements of community-based learning pedagogy (course design, teaching strategies, integrating service, and iterative teaching) around the components of civic competence they can catalyze. Additional factors that can influence civic competence are also noted outside the circle of teaching and learning.

The structural notion of components and domains that organize the various aspects of civic competence is supported by the data, but further exploration of the component and domain constructs is needed. The primary reason a comprehensive but parsimonious model of civic competence has been warranted is that previous scholarship has not thoroughly grappled with what civic competence really means. Varying terminology and labels (e.g. AAC&U, 2010; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Wang & Jackson, 2005) necessitated reconceptualizing civic competence in a way that could capture both its simplicity and complexity. In addition, because community-based learning is a counternormative pedagogy (Howard, 2001) with exceptional opportunity to develop civic competence, any such reconceptualization needed to integrate the act of service.

The structure of four components of civic competence builds on the work of Saltmarsh (1995, 2005), Eyler and Giles (1999), and Wang and Jackson (2005), who have discussed knowledge, skills, values, efficacy, commitment, and responsibility as civic outcomes of community-based learning. The domains emerged primarily from research studies investigating the outcomes of community-based learning (e.g. Astin & Sax, 1998; Colby et al., 2007; Cress, 2005; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Kiely, 2005; Markus et al., 2003; Moely et al., 2005; Reeb et al., 1998). Thus rooted in the scholarship to date but advancing theory, the components (knowledge, skills, dispositions, and identity) and domains (academic knowledge, civic knowledge, academic skills, civic skills, values, attitudes, efficacy, and action) of civic competence were drafted.

This study found that with slight revisions, the structure of components and domains held together through statistical testing and analysis. The academic and civic

domains and knowledge and skills components were particularly well established in statistical testing. The construct of civic knowledge was deepened through analysis. Civic knowledge is the combination of understanding issues, understanding others, and understanding how to make a difference. This characterization of civic knowledge epitomizes the “informed citizen” so essential to democracy. Furthermore, this theoretical development is bolstered by earlier work such as Galston’s (2001, 2007) emphasizing the importance of civic knowledge.

Likewise, attitudes and actions emerged as more salient constructs than dispositions and attitudes. This slight revision was in each case warranted by close parsing of the language in the survey items as well as the statistical evidence, and the result simplifies both concepts. Additional domains could be revealed in future research, but the limited number of items in each of these components restricted analysis in this study. For example, no survey items sufficiently indicated attitudes toward government as suggested by the literature (e.g. Kiesa et al., 2009; Kovacs & Shea, 2010) as important to civic competence. This study therefore cannot conclude that no additional domains exist, but rather that attitudes and actions stand firmly as components of civic competence based on existing evidence.

Furthermore, the other defining structural feature of the model of civic competence is the overlap among components and domains. The mutual reinforcement within the model was proposed to incorporate the overlapping meanings within the various constructs. Communication skills, for example, are necessary for both academic and civic success. The results have indicated that efficacy and identity are not separate

constructs, but threads that run throughout all components of civic competence as a conceptual reinforcement in keeping with the definition of civic competence. Students must feel efficacious in their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions as part of their identity as civically competent citizens. The integration among components and domains relates to the theoretical understanding of this model of civic competence as an epistemological model in which the four components act together to facilitate a new way of knowing.

Moreover, this model's overlapping components could be construed as a form of integrative learning (Huber, Hutchings, & Gale, 2005). Integrative learning weaves together knowledge and skills from multiple perspectives and includes application to experience (Kuh, 2008)—the kind of learning that this model of civic competence also represents. Like personal and social responsibility, integrative learning is another of AAC&U's (2010a) Essential Learning Outcomes of a liberal education. Kuh's (2008) report identifying high impact practices in higher education was framed around the AAC&U Essential Learning Outcomes. Kuh (2008) recommended that students experience two or more of these high-impact practices during college. The Senior Capstone program offers two in one course—community-based learning and a culminating experience. The results of this study support Kuh's (2008) recommendations and offer pedagogical strategies to facilitate the learning essential for college graduates (AAC&U, 2010a; Bowen, 1977).

To that end, in addition to the epistemological conceptualization of civic competence, this study's findings supported the elements of pedagogy encompassing

civic competence. Course design, teaching strategies, and integrating service are all significantly related to student civic outcomes. In each area, specific pedagogical catalysts of civic competence were identified, such as designing the course to include topics of diversity, using teaching strategies that personally engage students, and integrating the service and course content in the syllabus. Some facets of teaching, such as reflection and dialogue have been widely discussed in the literature, but were not the most salient pedagogical elements in this study (though they were still significant). Class discussion, however, was prevalent and could include both reflection and dialogue. Further inquiry could examine these practices in order to better understand the critical nuances of teaching community-based learning.

Other facets of teaching did not specifically come through as important catalysts of civic competence, such as grading and assessment or sequence and schedule. In both cases, items in the survey indicated these instructional pieces, but they were not strongly related to any of the components of civic competence. In addition, the fourth pedagogical element, iterative teaching, was not examined at all in this study. Nevertheless, the bulk of the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence has now been tested and supported, offering a comprehensive but straightforward approach for conceptualizing the relationship between pedagogy and civic outcomes in community-based learning. Such a conclusion leads to more specific implications of this study.

Diversity, Social Justice, and Civic Competence

Perhaps the single most interesting finding of this study is that exploring diversity is a pedagogical catalyst of civic competence. That community-based learning can

facilitate understanding of diversity is not a new conclusion. Jay (2008), Dunlap and Webster (2009), Einfield and Collins (2008), Laird et al. (2005), Sperling (2007), and Vogelgesang (2004) are among the scholars who have discussed how community-based learning can facilitate students' understanding of diversity. However, the more significant contribution of this study is that understanding of diversity enhances civic competence. Several items in the Instructor and Learning Activities sections of the CSEQ indicated pedagogical inclusion of diversity, and all were consistently significantly and strongly correlated with civic competence. This result highlights the importance of diversity for the theoretical understanding of civic competence and for faculty practitioners of community-based learning, though future research is needed to more fully investigate this effect.

This study underscores the notion that diversity is essential to civic competence. Its centrality is both rooted in the origins of democracy and in its modern demands. Democracy at its core is a way of empowering people to peacefully resolve differences of opinion. President Wilson's words quoted in the opening paragraph of this study are a reminder that democracy enables collective wisdom, rather than a single person's understanding. Diversity of thought leads to better decisions for whole communities (Putnam & Feldstein, 2003), and according to Kuh (2008), opportunities to interact with different kinds of people is one of the reasons the practices he recommended have a high impact on learning. Extending that reasoning, diversity of culture is not just something to be tolerated, but welcomed and embraced as a benefit of pluralism. As noted previously, not all community-based learning courses ostensibly relate to diversity, such as those

focused on environmental issues. Still, this study suggests that the diversity of thought and experience that are the bedrock of democracy are nonetheless essential for civic competence and perhaps could be creatively woven into all types of community-based learning as a way of helping students understand how to solve problems in a democratic society. Moreover, scholars such as Chickering (2008), Battistoni et al. (2009), Flanagan and Levine (2010), and Plater (2010) have discussed the idea of global citizenship. Globalization requires that citizens work with diverse others, whether in their places of employment or in solving problems that cross national borders, such as climate change. If in fact what educators are striving for is interculturally competent citizens, then this research suggests that community-based learning can meet that aim. The relationship between diversity and democracy goes beyond multicultural competence, though—it is also a matter of social justice.

While not an inevitable link, diversity and social justice are clearly related. Astin et al. (2000), Eyler and Giles (1999), Astin and Sax (1998), Markus et al. (1993), and Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) found that community-based learning reduced racial stereotypes, increased students' tolerance of others, or enhanced their interest in promoting racial understanding. Certainly one could be committed to social justice without really understanding the complex dynamics of race, but surely a thorough understanding of race incorporates a social justice lens with which to view the history of racial oppression in this country. The same could be said of other dimensions of diversity, such as gender, ability, sexual orientation, and so on. Tatum's (1997) work illustrates this point well. She described how understanding others' experience can

debunk the “myth of meritocracy” (p. 103), leading to the uncomfortable realization that one’s own success might not be due solely to hard work, but to others’ oppression.

Some scholars have framed the relationship between diversity and social justice as developmental in nature. For example, Bennett’s (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity outlines a progression from ethnocentric to ethnorelative stages of intercultural sensitivity. Bennett aligns denial of difference with possible exploitation, while the most advanced stage of the model, Integration, is associated with shared power. Community-based learning has the potential to develop socially just intercultural competence, but research to date suggests that careful planning is necessary to do so. Bennett’s model could be used in professional development to help faculty move their courses (and perhaps themselves) from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism and a more critical pedagogical approach.

While covering diversity can help to achieve civic competence outcomes, critical pedagogy is needed for students to deeply consider the implications of diversity for democracy and for social justice. As argued earlier, democratic engagement is inextricably linked to social justice. Einfield and Collins’ (2008) asserted that “an ideal democratic society is a socially just society” (p. 105), and Wang and Jackson (2005) emphasized that faculty must be quite intentional if they want to achieve social justice outcomes. Thus in order to maximize the opportunity to learn from diversity and promote social justice as an essential democratic ideal, faculty must adopt a critical pedagogical approach. Souza (2007) explained that “Critical pedagogy inspires students to question (Nieto, 2004), to engage in dialogue, and to take action” (p. 194).

Community-based learning is an ideal tool of critical pedagogy since action is inherent to its implementation.

Nevertheless, this research has demonstrated that the best outcomes of community-based learning are achieved when students can see how their service work relates to the academic course content—in other words, when their action is directly connected to their learning. Furthermore, this study has shown that students' attitudes about their community work—whether they feel it benefits the community or assume personal responsibility for their own impact on the community—contributes to civic competence. Students' attitudes toward their service work are undoubtedly connected to how they are experiencing diversity in the course—their interactions with peers and members of the community, their processing of diversity topics, and their own stage of intercultural sensitivity development (Bennett, 1993). Perhaps their attitudes are affected by White guilt, for example, or what it means to return to one's own community to serve, but with educational privilege. A critical pedagogical approach is necessary to most deeply and effectively help students understand service as a force of social change, to create space for dialogue around issues of privilege and difference, and to challenge systems of oppression through the academic content (Kitano, 1997; Yep, 2011). Through critical pedagogy, faculty can not only enact Freire's (1970) notion of liberation through praxis—reflection and action—but they can also empower their students to do the same (Souza, 2007). However, further research is needed to elucidate this implied relationship between diversity, critical pedagogy, and civic competence.

Though the finding that diversity can play a critical role in civic competence is a valuable contribution to the field, much work remains to fully understand this relationship. As noted earlier, the survey was limited, so future research could pick up where it leaves off. For example, the items related to diversity are broad. That students have marked a check box that indicates whether the topics of race and ethnicity or women and gender have been covered in the class is informative, but does not provide nearly the depth of information needed to be most valuable for faculty. Was the topic covered through assigned readings, a passing reference in discussion, or through exposure to diverse others in the service placement? The answer could add more detail to help faculty determine how best to incorporate diversity into their courses. Likewise, because this study focused on Capstone survey data that is from the students' perspective, further research is needed with faculty to see whether and how they mean to include themes of diversity, or what has worked best for them when handling these often sensitive topics.

To that end, the apparent need to incorporate critical pedagogy in community-based learning courses as a way to enhance civic competence also opens a clear path for faculty development. Tatum (1997) explained that "For many Whites, this new awareness of the benefits of a racist system elicits considerable pain, often accompanied by feelings of anger and guilt. These uncomfortable emotions can hinder further discussion" (p. 9). Yep (2011) offered a poignant example of how faculty can facilitate such issues when they arise. The possibility of emotionally charged and challenging conversations in class is an intimidating prospect for faculty not confident in their ability

to help students grapple with deep issues of identity and privilege—after all, faculty are typically trained in their discipline, not in counseling students. Further, though use of community-based learning is more common among women and faculty of color (Abes et al., 2002; Antonio et al., 2000), that is no guarantee that faculty have done their own work around identity and privilege.

Nonetheless, as Martin Luther King, Jr. (1964) so eloquently reminded White clergy in his “Letter from Birmingham Jail,” “justice too long delayed is justice denied” (p. 3). King used that maxim to argue that it is a privilege of those in power to determine when it is “appropriate” to discuss social justice, while those living with oppression must feel its effects every day. This point returns to Freire’s (1970) claim that education is not neutral—if faculty are not actively fighting injustice, then they are by default supporting it. Faculty *must* be willing to delve into the topics of diversity if social justice is their aim, lest they risk reinforcing the systems of oppression that community-based learning could otherwise help dismantle. But faculty need not enter this terrain without support and guidance, and this is where educational institutions can step in to do their part.

Providing support for faculty undertaking community-based learning is a marker of its institutionalization (Furco & Holland, 2004). Education for democracy is one of the primary functions of higher education (Battistoni, 1997; Boyte, 2008; Colby et al., 2003; Dewey, 1915; Ehrlich, 2000; Saltmarsh, 2005). If campus administrators are truly committed to the civic mission of education—not to mention social justice—then faculty development around critical pedagogy could help accomplish that mission. Otherwise, as scholars such as Mitchell (2008) have pointed out, community-based learning runs the

risk of recreating the power dynamics of oppression and failing to graduate citizens prepared to solve problems in a pluralist democracy. In addition, given the importance of promotion and tenure for faculty decisions about community-based learning (Abes et al., 2002; Astin et al., 2006; Kezar & Rhoads, 2001; Saltmarsh & Gelmon, 2006), institutional policies supporting community engagement work could also entice faculty to take a critical approach to community-based learning pedagogy despite any hesitation around dealing with issues of diversity. Integrating diversity into a course is also related to another key finding of this study, the integration of service.

Integration of Service for Civic Competence

For over ten years scholars have maintained that in order to maximize benefits and make genuine contributions to community, community-based learning must be well integrated into course work (Cress, 2011; Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthia, 2004; Eyler, 2002; Howard, 2001). Community-based learning does not meet its potential when the community work is merely an “add-on” tacked onto an existing course. This research has highlighted two critical ways to accomplish such integration: the syllabus and the community partner.

Course Syllabus. This study has shown that one of the most effective ways to integrate service is through the syllabus. Even at a university nationally recognized for its institutionalization of community-based learning (Tetreault & Rhodes, 2004) that serves a city with a culture of civic engagement (Putnam & Feldstein, 2003), if faculty are not attending to the details of syllabus construction, student learning will not be maximized. In contrast, a syllabus that clearly connects the community work to the

course content is strongly associated with enhanced civic competence outcomes. One practical implication of this finding is that to increase their students' civic competence, faculty can start with a syllabus review.

This study demonstrates that calls to carefully develop community-based learning course syllabi from scholars such as Howard (2001), and Heffernan (2001) are well founded. Cress (2011) asserted that "While not every issue can be addressed through thoughtful course design, ensuring effective learning processes and outcomes is to a large extent requisite upon a strong syllabus" (p. 44). Kitano (1997) described the syllabus as a "course guide" (p. 19), and urged faculty to carefully match the activities of the course with actual teaching. Kitano's work was focused on using the syllabus as a tool for multicultural course change, and is relevant here because of the need articulated above to emphasize diversity and as an analogous approach for clearly integrating service work into the course syllabus. The present study suggests that careful integration of multiculturalism would likely enhance civic competence outcomes, as would such deliberate integration of the service work with course content.

Kitano (1997) described four elements of a syllabus: content (e.g. purpose, goals, objectives, schedule, readings, materials), instruction (e.g. assignments, schedule, course description), assessment (e.g. assignments, policies), and dynamics (e.g. educational beliefs, course description, support services). She argued for the integration of multiculturalism throughout each element of the syllabus. This strategy could be applied to service integration as well. For example, Kitano delineates three levels of multicultural course change. An Exclusive course does not represent multicultural

perspectives or learning. An Inclusive course continues traditional content, but also represents multiple perspectives and caters to diverse learning styles. A Transformed course challenges mainstream perspectives and redistributes power in ways that enhance students' growth.

Kitano's (1997) concept of syllabi that are Exclusive, Inclusive, and Transformed could also be applied to service and to civic competence. An Exclusive course would not include service at all, or only as a short "drive-by" (Colby et al., 2007, p. 38) experience with little obvious connection to the course. An Inclusive course might range from an "add-on," such as a 10-hour service option in lieu of a paper, to an improved degree of inclusion, such as a service connecting service to course content through regular reflection papers. A Transformed course would weave together the service with other aspects of the course. Cress (2011), for example, outlined ways to integrate service in various parts of a syllabus, such as course descriptions, learning objectives, and class activities. She recounted a course syllabus in which the instructor used a tiered course description, the first level being the typical catalog course description and the second given out at the beginning of the term with a full explanation of how the community-based learning related to the course content. Kitano's model could be used as a way to evaluate course syllabi and determine areas for improvement—both in the course content and in the way such content is communicated to students: the syllabus itself.

Moreover, this study provides another layer to Kitano's (1997) model. Building on Cress's (2011) approach of integrating service into various parts of the course, each component of civic competence could be woven into the syllabus. After all, it was not

just overall construction of civic competence that was associated with a clear syllabus, but *each* component and domain. Faculty could examine the four elements of a syllabus identified by Kitano (content, instruction, assessment, and dynamics), and determine whether knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions are clearly represented throughout. This deliberate approach to course planning enacts a key finding of this study and could help faculty to develop a transformed syllabus for civic competence that clearly integrates the service and enhances outcomes.

Furthermore, Cress (2011) recommended utilizing Bloom's Taxonomy in the formation of community-based learning objectives. Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, and Krathwohl (1956) grouped verbs according to their cognitive complexity. Bloom's Taxonomy established six progressively complex kinds of learning (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) and a pathway to move students through increasingly higher forms of critical thinking that lead to action. Cress (2011) provided examples of community-based learning objectives at various levels of Bloom's Taxonomy that could be adapted to specific contexts, such as "Identify and describe the needs of the community population (knowledge)," "Analyze economic, political, and social factors contributing to the challenges (analysis/synthesis)," and "Recommend leverage points for creating systemic change on the organizational and community levels (evaluation)" (p. 48). Bloom's Taxonomy could likewise be applied to civic competence, helping faculty to elicit the increasingly deep learning that is necessary for democratic problem solving and other civic action. For example, both Bloom's Taxonomy and the model of civic competence include knowledge, analysis (which falls

under skills in the model of civic competence), and application (a form of action). Like Kitano's (1997) model, Bloom's Taxonomy could also be used as a way to assess course syllabi and provide faculty with new language to describe the civic competence outcomes they seek.

Indeed, drawing from both Kitano (1997) and Bloom (1956) faculty could have a tangible multistep process for revising their syllabi to most effectively catalyze civic competence:

1. Identify sections of the course syllabus, such as the elements identified by Kitano (content, instruction, assessment, and dynamics).
2. For each section, rate the degree of service integration according to Kitano's levels of Exclusive, Inclusive, and Transformed.
3. In the Learning Objectives section, also use Bloom's Taxonomy to assess levels of cognitive engagement expected in the course.
4. Revise syllabus to align with intended goals for civic competence. Reword learning objectives, add content, better describe the service work, and so on to more fully integrate service.
5. Review to check work. If developing civically competent citizens is faculty intention, then service is woven into all sections of the syllabus, appropriately high levels of cognitive complexity are articulated in the learning objectives, and each of the components of civic competence is represented throughout the syllabus.

Repeating this process for multiculturalism in line with Kitano's (1997) intention would also ensure that critical pedagogy is adequately included as discussed above. This same general approach might also be successful used for other pedagogical elements, such as teaching strategies. Appendix E shows the application of Kitano's model to service integration for civic competence, adding the layer of service integration to her already valuable approach to multicultural course change. This new Stokamer Taxonomy of Course and Syllabus Change for Civic Competence could be invaluable for faculty

professional development workshops, program assessment, or individual review of course syllabi.

Kolb's (1984) work provides another framework through which to assess the integration of service. Notably, Kolb's model moves through a cycle of action and reflection that leads to increasingly complex and engaged learning. Kolb's model could be used as an analytical framework for integrating service not just in a syllabus, but in a whole course. Kolb recommended that faculty take their students all the way through the cycle of having an experience, reflecting on that experience, formulating ideas, generalizations, or theories, and then testing their formulations with action (McEwen, 1996). Numerous scholars have referred to Kolb in establishing the theoretical basis for experiential learning through service (Cress et al., 2005; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Jacoby, 2003; McEwen, 1996). Kolb maintained that learners have tendencies toward one of the four learning styles positioned throughout his cycle: reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, active experimentation, and concrete experiencing. Cress (2011) argued that "the most fully integrative learning honors (and responds to) individual preferences while offering experiences of learning that are less familiar and less comfortable" (p. 52). Thus faculty could use Kolb to assess whether or not their courses take students through all aspects of the cycle, integrating service with more traditional forms of classroom teaching to offer both the comfort and the challenge that Kolb viewed as necessary for the most effective learning.

Importantly, Kitano (1997) noted that multicultural course design is an ongoing process of experimentation and revision as the instructor gains more "multicultural

sophistication” (p. 19). This aspect of her model applies to civic competence as well and is akin to the iterative teaching proposed but as yet untested as part of the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence. Great courses develop over time and with the benefit of faculty trial and error that leads to improvement. This element of pedagogy can only be explored by hearing from faculty about how they have revised their courses year after year—a subject for future research.

Community Partnership. Of course, an additional aspect of the integration of service is the community partnership. Well integrated service hinges upon community work that is meaningful to both students and the community. Astin et al. (2000) reported that service activities in which instructors directly connected service to course material was key to academic understanding. Howard (2001), Colby et al. (2007), and Einfield and Collins (2008) have made similar points. Eyler and Giles (1999) found that outcomes improved when the service was interesting, challenging, and provided students with opportunities to take responsibility, as well as apply course material. Fiume (2009) recommended that faculty consider connection to course material and activities that could promote civic development as the criteria for selecting community partners. The current study adds further support to this previous scholarship with findings that civic competence is enhanced when students feel personally engaged in their learning. Such engagement in service requires collaboration with one or more community partners to provide appropriate and meaningful service opportunities.

Community partnerships are central to community-based learning but still relatively little research has explored this aspect of pedagogical practice. From the

scholarship that does exist, however, it is clear that faculty must work deliberately with community partners to both provide a high quality educational experience for their students and ensure that the community-based learning is reciprocal—the community learns and serves as well (Cress et al., 2005; Furco, 1996; Gottlieb & Robinson, 2002; Jacoby, 2003; Sigmon, 1979). Stoecker and Tryon (2009) and Sandy and Holland (2006) have called attention to the problems community-based learning can pose for community partners if faculty are not thoughtful about including them in the planning process for the community-based learning experience, and the community partner participants in their studies voiced a desire for faculty to have more direct involvement with the community work.

These kinds of concerns have led to numerous frameworks and guidelines for community partnerships (Jacoby, 2003). Organizations such as Community-Campus Partnerships for Health and Campus Compact have outlined principles of good practice for community partnerships that include such ideas as agreeing upon goals and outcomes (Seifer & Mauranna, 2000), basing relationships on trust and respect (Avila, Knoerr, Orlando, & Castillo, 2010; Seifer & Mauranna, 2000), and positioning all partners as co-educators, co-learners, co-servers, and co-generators of knowledge (Jameson, Clayton, & Jaeger, 2010). Such guidelines can help create the meaningful experiences that students need in order to feel personally engaged in their learning and otherwise have positive attitudes about their service work, but they are also necessary for the long-term sustainability of community-based learning. If faculty are not good partners for the

community, students will no longer be welcome for placements at host organizations (Stoecker & Tryon, 2009).

Future inquiry into how these kinds of principles are incorporated (or utilized at all) by faculty is necessary to more fully understand how to create meaningful and well integrated service experiences. Indeed, inviting partner collaboration on the integration of service into the syllabus might be one way of effectively creating both a transformed syllabus (Kitano, 1997) and a viable long-term partnership for a course to maximize civic competence outcomes. Thus while the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence provides a target for faculty who want to develop civically competent citizens, this kind of deliberate course planning is what is necessary to ensure their teaching is aimed in the right direction.

Recommendations

The discussion of this study's findings have generated numerous implications for practice. Based on the evidence analyzed in this investigation, the following recommendations can be made:

1. Faculty should deliberately explore issues of diversity, politics, and civic responsibility in their courses to attain the greatest civic competence outcomes.
2. Institutions should support faculty development to skillfully and conscientiously include diversity in community-based learning courses.
3. Faculty should review their community-based learning syllabi using the Stokamer Taxonomy of Course and Syllabus Change for Civic Competence adapted from Kitano (1997) and familiar tools such as Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) and Kolb's (1984) cycle of learning.
4. Faculty should work with community partners in creation of the syllabus to ensure meaningful and well integrated service opportunities.
5. Future research should be conducted to elaborate the results of this study.

Each of these recommendations can help educators thoughtfully utilize community-based learning to achieve the greatest civic competence outcomes, but the last recommendation is particularly important for community-based learning scholarship.

Future Research

The key findings of this study make a significant contribution to the theory and practice of community-based learning for civic competence, but the limitations are clear. Most notably, the single-institution design of the study and limitations of the Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire warrant further research. Though this instrument was a valuable starting point for assessment of civic competence, it should be further developed with precision if it is to be used as a valid assessment of civic competence. For example, the survey consisted of a relatively small number of items to represent a complex concept such as civic competence. The wording on some of the items also left room for different interpretations, and some of the concepts embedded in the civic competence model were not sufficiently represented in the data (e.g. attitudes toward government). Additional outcome items could enhance understanding of the relationships within the model, flesh out the concepts, and further explore their merit. Additional pedagogical items could explore instructional details not specifically referenced in the existing instrument, such as field trips and guest speakers.

Demographic data would also enable analysis of student experience at a different level. If there are trends related to students' racial or socioeconomic backgrounds, for instance, these would be important to the field and to postsecondary institutions. Particularly necessary is exploration of whether the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic

Competence holds true for students of diverse backgrounds. Given Cress and Duarte's (2009) finding that Latino students in their study benefited from a pedagogy of community and opportunities for group decision-making, for example, there could be variations in the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence reflecting cultural influences on learning.

Moreover, other approaches could add clarity and richness to the analysis. Qualitative data sources such as document analysis and interviews could be fruitful. For example, the importance of a clear syllabus has been documented in this study and analysis of course syllabi is therefore a logical extension of this research. Similarly, faculty experience is essential to add a pedagogical perspective to the current project's results. Interviews or focus groups with faculty could generate details to support and elaborate the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence. This research should also be expanded to other institutions, testing the model in courses that are not interdisciplinary or required, or not part of a well established community-based learning program like the Senior Capstone. Further study could also explore the external factors such as student development, faculty motivation, institutional structure, or community partner issues acknowledged earlier as possible influences on the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence.

Conclusion

Amidst increasingly complex local, national, and international challenges, community-based learning offers hope for a vital democratic society in which diverse and competent citizens can effectively work together to shape communities and engage in

collective problem solving. Institutions of higher education have a responsibility to develop competent citizens (Bowen, 1977) with the knowledge, skills, attitudes, actions, and efficacious identity necessary for effective participation in democratic society. The growth in community-based learning over the past 15 years (Campus Compact, 2008; Learn and Serve America, 2008; Robinson, 1999) indicates increasing confidence among faculty and administrators that community-based learning is a valuable tool for both learning and community betterment. Though ample research has found small but consistent gains in civic outcomes as a result of community-based learning (Batchelder & Root, 1994; Cress et al., 2010; Eyler et al., 1997; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gallini & Moely, 2003), a gap has existed in the literature around how faculty teach for civic competence. Moreover, the field has lacked a conceptualization of community-based learning for civic competence that adequately addressed its complexity but provided a clear approach for faculty.

This investigation was undertaken to articulate a comprehensive but parsimonious model of community-based learning for civic competence and identify pedagogical catalysts that facilitate civic competence development. The pedagogical model of community-based learning for civic competence developed through a thorough review of the literature was statistically tested and found to be a viable conceptual representation of community-based learning for civic competence, titled the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence. The epistemological model of civic competence within the pedagogical model is distinguished by the integration of action with knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Service in combination with development of knowledge, skills, and

attitudes creates opportunities for students to develop efficacy in action, a new way of knowing civic competence. How faculty design their courses, the teaching strategies they use, and how they integrate service into the course do affect civic outcomes, indicating that the topic of pedagogical catalysts of community-based learning is an important area of future research. Community-based learning is not a panacea, but it can develop civic competence when the service is well integrated into a course and when faculty use critical pedagogical approaches to incorporate diversity and question systems of power.

Indeed, careful attention to the development of civic competence is perhaps the most important demand on faculty in this already challenging pedagogy. Developing knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions while maintaining a partnership, teaching course content and facilitating challenging reflective discussions is no easy feat. Faculty should not delve into community-based learning as an afterthought—the stakes are too high. And they do not need to be expert citizens or educators to teach for civic competence—the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence takes time to refine for any particular course or partnership. Teaching for civic competence continues to “raise the pedagogical bar” (Howard, 1998, p.23) for faculty, but this study has suggested that at least in the Senior Capstone program at Portland State University, faculty can rise to the occasion. What’s more, they must.

No other pedagogical practice that has been so widely adopted has such strong potential to develop the kinds of citizens we all need for our collective future. While community-based learning should not be rushed, there is an urgency to developing civically competent citizens. Active and effective citizens are needed now to address the

pressing issues of today and prepare for those of tomorrow. The scope and complexity of those problems will only deepen as time goes by without the collaborative efforts that are needed to tackle them. Now is the time to capitalize on community-based learning as a burgeoning educational practice across the country and world. If faculty are committed to teaching for civic competence, then we must be deliberate in our attention to pedagogical practice. We cannot miss this opportunity to most effectively use the craft of teaching in service to our common civic future.

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Appendix A: Capstone Program Learning Objectives

Expectations for Student Learning: In Capstone courses students apply the expertise learned in the classroom to address real issues in the community. Each Capstone course should further students' sense of social responsibility and ethical reasoning. Through these community interactions, students prepare for public lives as citizens, members of communities, and professionals in a complex society (<http://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics/pdf/civicengagement.pdf>). The purpose of this assessment is to capture the wide variety of ways that students come to learn about social responsibility and ethical reasoning through direct and indirect service to a variety of communities.

Capstone courses will provide students the opportunity to do one or more of the following:

- Reflect on their personal efficacy to make a difference in lives of others in their local or global community through direct contact with community members (i.e. mentoring/ tutoring/ youth, interaction with senior citizens, assisting refugee resettlement, documenting oral histories) or indirect service activities (i.e. grant writing or creating marketing plans for a non-profit organization).
- Analyze new insights regarding the root causes of social and environmental issues (such as poverty, homelessness, hunger or environmental degradation) developed as a result of working with and/or learning about community issues.
- Examine grassroots efforts to change the structures which create or perpetuate social and environmental problems.
- Reflect on how their own perspectives have changed or developed in relationship to the community issues addressed as a result of the capstone experience.
- Consider the impact of their individual choices on broader societal issues (i.e. global warming, homelessness, poverty). This may include an examination of a wide variety of behaviors including everyday decisions, career choices, or political action,
- Reflect on their role and responsibility as a citizen to actively participate in working with others towards a public purpose (common good).
- Apply technical skills (marketing, science research, business, graphic design) in the community in order to address social issues and/or serve the common good. This may include reflections about scientists as engaged citizens, the importance of corporations' responsibility to serve the public good, and/or professional ethics and responsibility.
- Examine the systemic structures in society that create or perpetuate social problems.

Appendix B: Capstone Student Experience Questionnaire (CSEQ)

Dear Student,

This information is being collected by University Studies as part of an ongoing evaluation process for Capstone courses. Your involvement is completely voluntary. You are free to skip any question that you do not wish to answer. All responses will be held in the strictest confidence.

1) Have you completed the following PSU courses?

	Yes	No
Freshman Inquiry (FRINQ)		
Sophomore Inquiry (SINQ)		
Upper Division / Junior Cluster		
Transfer Transition		

2) Capstone Experience

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this capstone.					
I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community.					
I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course.					
I was already volunteering in the community before taking this course.					
I improved my ability to solve problems in this course.					
This course helped me to understand those who are different from me.					
My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations.					
This course enhanced my communication skills.					
This course enhanced my ability to work with others as a team.					
This course explored issues of diversity (such as race, class gender, sexual orientation, ability)					
In this course I improved my ability to					

analyze ideas from multiple viewpoints.					
I believe this course deepened my understanding of political issues.					
The syllabus clearly described how the course content connected to the community work					
I believe this course deepened my understanding of local social issues.					
I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community.					
In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major.					
In this Capstone I had an opportunity to engage with students from different areas of specialization					
I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course.					

3) What forms of learning did the instructor use? Please mark all that apply.

- Reflective journals
- Required class attendance
- Collaborative projects
- Group decision making
- Student presentations
- Class discussions
- Exams
- Extensive lecturing
- E-communication tools (Web CT/Blackboard, etc.)
- Portfolio

4) Which of these topics were covered in this course? Please mark all that apply.

- Racial and ethnic issues
- Women and gender issues
- Civic responsibility / citizenship
- Political issues
- Social issues

5) The primary reason I chose this Capstone is:

- it was related to my career interests
- it was related to my major
- it fit best with my schedule
- the issue it addressed is important to me

6) The Instructor:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Showed a personal interest in my learning					
Scheduled course work at an appropriate pace					
Provided clear instructions for assignments					
Created an atmosphere that encouraged active student participation					
Presented course material in a way that was clear					
Used activities that allowed me to feel personally engaged in my learning					
Provided helpful feedback on assignments					
Related course material to real-life situations					
Encouraged interaction outside of class					
Provided clear grading criteria					

7) What stands out as most important to your learning in this Capstone experience?

8) Are there elements of the course design you would change, and why?

Thank you for completing this survey. If you have any questions about the survey, please contact your instructor or Rowanna Carpenter, University Studies Assessment Associate, at (503)725-3445 or carpenter@pdx.edu.

Appendix D: Rotated Factor Matrix of CSEQ-Outcome Items

CSEQ Items	Proposed Component	Proposed Domain	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
I believe this course deepened my understanding of political issues.	Knowledge	Civic			.612	
I believe this course deepened my understanding of local social issues.	Knowledge	Civic			.784	
I now have a better understanding of how to make a difference in my community.	Identity	Efficacy			.514	
This course helped me to understand those who are different from me.	Dispositions	Values			.384	
This course enhanced my communication skills.	Skills	Academic	.618			
In this course I improved my ability to analyze ideas from multiple view points.	Skills	Academic	.662			
This course enhanced my ability to work with others as a team.	Skills	Civic	.668			
I improved my ability to solve problems in this course.	Skills	Civic	.628			
My participation in this Capstone helped me to connect what I learned to real life situations.	Knowledge	Academic		.413		
The community work I did helped me to better understand course content in this Capstone.	Knowledge	Academic		.613		
I feel that the community work I did through this course benefited the community.	Dispositions	Attitude		.739		
I felt a personal responsibility to meet the needs of the community partner of this course.	Identity	Efficacy		.608		
I will continue to volunteer or participate in the community after this course.	Identity	Action				.358
In this Capstone, I had the opportunity to apply skills and knowledge I have gained from my major.	Knowledge	Academic				.421

Appendix E: Stokamer Taxonomy of Course and Syllabus Change for Civic Competence (adapted from Kitano, 1997)

Syllabus Content	Exclusive	Inclusive	Transformed
Civic Competence Kitano*	Gives traditional mainstream experiences and perspectives; adds authors from different backgrounds who confirm traditional perspectives or support stereotypes. Traditional class-based course; any service is “drive-by” with no clear connection to the rest of the course.	Adds alternative perspectives through materials, readings, speakers; analyzes historical exclusion of alternative perspectives. Service is loosely integrated in the course; readings and assignments related to service and course are used.	Reconceptualizing the content through a shift in paradigm or standard; presents content through nondominant perspective. Service is deeply integrated into content; democratic aims of the course are explicit and opportunities to develop civic competence are clear.
Instruction Kitano*	Mainly lecture and other didactic methods; question-and-answer discussion; instructor as purveyor of knowledge.	Instructor as a purveyor of knowledge but uses a variety of methods to <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • relate new knowledge to previous experience • engage students in constructing knowledge • build critical thinking skills • encourage peer learning. 	Change in power structure so that students and instructor learn from each other; methods center on student experience/knowledge such as <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • analyzing concepts against personal experience • issues-oriented approaches • critical pedagogy
Civic Competence	Lecture and other didactic methods leave no opportunity for discussion or reflection on service work.	Students discuss community-based learning experiences; instructor provides information about service work; individual and group reflection. Multiple methods and alternatives to standard exams and papers; student choice.	Students and community partner take part in determining service work and learning objectives; redistribution of power explicitly linked to democratic civic competence. Alternatives that focus on student growth: action-oriented projects; self-assessment, reflection on the course.
Assessment Kitano*	Primarily exams and papers.	Reflection papers and alternatives that create opportunities for students to link course material to service work.	Alternatives that focus on student growth: action-oriented projects; self-assessment, reflection on the course. Alternatives that focus on student’s demonstration of efficacy in action; community partner participates in assessment.
Civic Competence	Log of service hours. No attention to student comportment at the service site.	Acknowledgment and processing of social issues in classroom; monitoring and ensuring equity in student participation. Students invited to process service experience in class; community partners report on student work; collective effort toward reciprocal community-based learning	Challenging of biased views and sharing of diverse perspectives while respecting rules established for group process; equity in participation. Service work positioned in range of tools for creating democratic social change; attention to issues of power and privilege in service; Reciprocal community-based learning partnership.
Dynamics Kitano*	Focus exclusively on content; avoidance of social issues in classroom; no attempt to monitor student participation. Pure charity model of community-based learning; no attempt to position service as a form of civic action. Community-based learning is not reciprocal.		

* Drawn directly from Kitano (1997, p. 24)