

First, Do No Harm: Student Ownership and Service-Learning

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Abstract

America prides itself on being a civically engaged democracy, but we have seen a continuing rise in citizen apathy and a decline in citizen participation. This trend is worst among our nation's youth. Not only have students become less interested in politics, but their educational performance has weakened as well. Many have suggested service-learning as an answer to both problems. However, research on service-learning has been mixed, with some large-scale research studies yielding modest results, while studies of exemplary programs produced sizable changes. We argue that when students participate in service-learning projects in which they have ownership, they become more engaged in the classroom and also build an appreciation for civic values. However, when all the programs are examined together, there are virtually no effects. This occurs because programs that gave students little ownership actually produce negative effects on the students' civic orientations. The policy implications are sizable, and our caution is that educators should strive to "first, do no harm."

In the recent past, we have seen significant growth in the use of service-learning. This growth has been the result of a host of factors, one of which is the perception that there have been declines in education and civic engagement. This is particularly of concern in metropolitan areas. As Jim Wallis (1994) notes, "Things are unraveling, and most of us know it."

In 1985, the presidents of Georgetown University, Brown University, and Stanford University, with support from the Education Commission of the States, created a coalition of college and university presidents who are committed to supporting civic education through community service and service-learning. Campus Compact has now grown to nearly 1,000 members, and more than 25 state Campus Compacts. Similarly, in 1997, representatives of the state education agencies met and, in 1998, they created an organization devoted to supporting service-learning in K–12 schools in America—the State Education Agency Network (SEANet).

Thus, universities and schools are seen as a mechanism to foster civic education and to help address some of the problems in America—urban, rural, and suburban. Unfortunately, previous research on civic education has produced mixed results, with many studies of individual classes producing large results, while larger studies produce at best modest effects. Similarly, much of the direct research on service-learning also produces conflicting data, with some research revealing large impacts and others showing no impact at all.

This paper engages these different bodies of research and provides an explanation for the divergent results. We argue that the key factor in improving students' attitudes and behaviors is the level of student leadership in the process and ownership in the project, which we call "student voice." When the service-learning project is one in which the students have a significant, age-appropriate level of voice, there are substantively large and statistically significant changes in the students' academic and civic educations. When the quality of youth leadership is ignored, we find virtually no effects. In short, service-learning, if done correctly, can be an extremely effective pedagogical tool and can help build better citizens. If projects are developed without student input, however, service-learning can have no—or as we find, negative—impacts on those involved; indeed, the program can actually cause harm.

First, we turn to an explanation of the theoretical model that explains the effectiveness of experiential learning methods like service-learning. Second, we examine the mixed findings regarding the effectiveness of service-learning and argue that these results are not necessarily inconsistent when one takes program quality into account. Next, we discuss the study and the importance of student voice in improving students' academic and civic education. Fourth, the results of eleven different models dealing with academic and civic education are presented. Finally, we raise some important implications of our study.

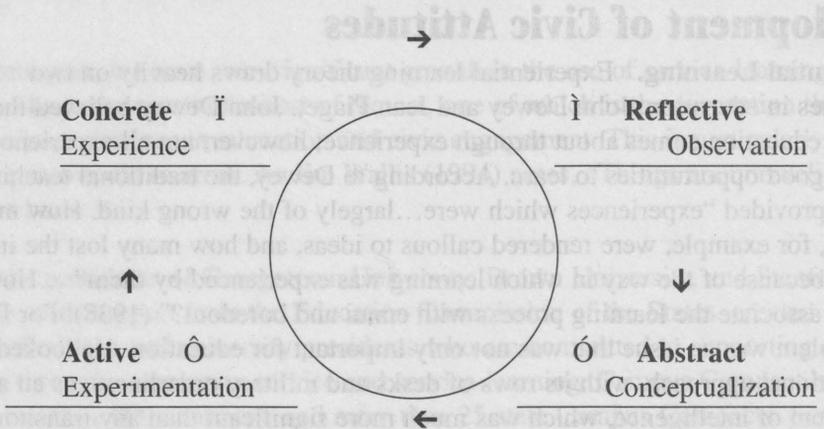
Development of Civic Attitudes

Experiential Learning. Experiential learning theory draws heavily on two luminaries in education: John Dewey and Jean Piaget. John Dewey believed that all genuine education comes about through experience; however, not all experiences provide good opportunities to learn. According to Dewey, the traditional teaching method provided "experiences which were...largely of the wrong kind. How many students, for example, were rendered callous to ideas, and how many lost the impetus to learn because of the way in which learning was experienced by them? ...How many came to associate the learning process with ennui and boredom?" (1938). For Dewey, this problem was an issue that was not only important for education. He looked upon the traditional approach, with its rows of desks and military orderliness, as an assault on freedom of intelligence, which was much more significant than any transitory challenge to physical freedom. Dewey suggested that education existed for, by, and of experience. And it was through this experiential learning in a classroom, which was not "straight-jacketed," that students would achieve true learning and develop the skills needed to participate in a democracy (Dewey 1923).

Swiss biologist Jean Piaget proposed a model of cognitive development that adds to this understanding of the importance of direct experience (Piaget 1952). While behaviorists viewed humans as passive respondents to environmental conditions, Piaget argued that people are active processors of information. They do not merely respond to events around them, but also manipulate these events and learn from what occurs. It is through this interaction with their physical and social environment that children learn and develop cognitively.

Drawing Dewey and Piaget together, we see a process that starts with an experience that is followed by a collection of data and information about that experience. The person then examines this information and makes conclusions that are used to guide future behaviors (Kolb 1984; Lewin 1951). This learning process is expressed graphically in Figure 1. A person can enter this cycle at any point, but must complete the entire cycle for effective learning to occur. For example, if the students begin with abstract conceptualization, they must also experience active experimentation, concrete experience, and reflection to more completely master the concepts. If they only have the abstract conceptualization but do not experiment, apply, or reflect upon it, the knowledge will be shallow and will probably not persist (Brock and Cameron 1999). An example of Kolb's model would be a service-learning project that involves volunteering at a homeless shelter (concrete experience). For the learning experience to be most effective, students must participate in class discussion about the experience and/or keep journals (reflective observation), read books and articles about social policy (abstract conceptualization), and examine different ways homeless shelters can improve (active experimentation). Next, we turn to a discussion of what service-learning is and how it can succeed or fail as an effective pedagogical tool.

Figure 1:
The Experiential Learning Model



- Ī Concrete Experience, “*Learning from feeling*”
- Ì Reflective Observation, “*Learning by watching & listening*”
- Ó Abstract Conceptualization, “*Learning by thinking*”
- Ô Active Experimentation, “*Learning by doing*”

Source: Adapted from Kolb (1985).

Service-Learning. Service-learning occurs when students are engaged in meaningful community service that is clearly linked to the learning objectives of an academic course. For example, students study water quality in class, while working with a local agency to monitor water quality. Service-learning can trace its roots back to books like *Emile*, by Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and the works of John Dewey. However, it was not until the 1960s that it became more clearly articulated as a pedagogical approach, and not until the 1980s when it received more direct support from educational organizations (Sigmon 1996). More recently, the use of service-learning has increased substantially due to the support of organizations like the Corporation for National Service, the Points of Light Foundation, the Campus Compact, and National Youth Leadership Council. Service-learning has become a popular education program; therefore, we need to have a solid understanding of its effectiveness. Though there is increased support for service-learning, there is a relatively weak research base regarding its effectiveness (Conrad and Hedin 1986).

There are many different levels in the quality of service-learning projects. Research points to a variety of factors that might impede the impact of service-learning. Key among those is the level of student voice in planning and conducting the service project (Morgan and Streb 2001, 2002; Morgan 2002). There are two explanations for why students who are captivated with the project are more likely to benefit from it. The most obvious explanation is that students will simply be more absorbed in the project if they decide the topic. Another rationale is that when the students participate in projects of their own design, the project provides the students with a real opportunity to succeed in a task that has much greater significance than a student paper or quiz. Success provides the students with the knowledge that they are capable, and this fact can make the entire process one that can foster positive self-concept and engage the students in the political process.

What would a service-learning program look like if it were low in student leadership or voice? A project with a low level of student voice would be one in which the teacher selects the specific service project, plans the logistics, and then involves the students only in the actual performance of the service. For example, a project in which the teacher decides that there is a need to clean up a park, makes arrangements with the park staff, and then has the students involved only to do the clean up would be considered a low voice project. An example of a project with high levels of student involvement would be a project in which middle school students in a home economics class begin by doing some simple community needs assessment and picking their service project (a homeless shelter) based on their appraisal. Next, the students would work with staff and clients to develop the project, and then plan the project (with appropriate support) and arrange funding. Then, they would begin an ongoing tutoring program (literacy and life skills). It is clear that these two projects are profoundly different. We believe that student voice is a major component of any service-learning program and it is only when students have input in their project that the pedagogical approach will have a positive effect on participants; otherwise, service-learning is likely to do harm.

Mixed Effects of Civic Education Efforts. As Dan Conrad and Diane Hedin (1991) note, “Very little, if anything, has been ‘proved’ by educational research. Advocates of almost any practice...can find research evidence in its favor. Detractors and empirical purists can likewise find reasons for discounting the results of almost any study.” This is particularly problematic in service-learning research.

Even the CEO of the Corporation for National Service, the agency responsible for promoting service-learning, is unimpressed with the present quality of the research. In remarks prepared for the National Youth Leadership Conference’s (NYLC’s) service-learning conference in March 2002, Leslie Lenkowsky references a study by Mary Kirlin. “There is little empirical evidence that the programs result in one of their chief aims: measurable increases in civic engagement.”

There appears to be a disconnect between the findings of studies that rely on qualitative data and those that use quantitative data, with the small qualitative studies reporting a significant impact, with the quantitative studies often providing mixed results. A few studies combine both, and they have generally reported strong qualitative results, but only modest quantitative impacts (Hamilton and Fenzel 1988).

When researchers conduct a much larger, quantitative study, they examine many different projects at the same time. As discussed earlier, this can produce mixed results because the projects are so different. For example, when environmental, advocacy, and literacy programs are lumped together, should we expect the environmental attitudes of all the students—regardless of their project—to change?

One significant challenge is that much of the service-learning “research” is really an evaluation in which different standards are employed. For example, few studies on service-learning use control groups, pre-tests and post-tests, large samples, and multivariate analysis to control for background factors (Myers-Lipton 1996). Hamilton and Fenzel (1988) note that there are inconsistent findings as well as small effects for research on self-esteem and social responsibility. This could be due to the problems in the research, including ceiling effects, limited duration of the service, and the fact that these studies are on specific programs with important differences.

One of the few large-scale studies of service-learning was conducted by Alan Melchior on behalf of the Corporation for National Service (1998). This study selected only “high quality” programs that had been in existence for a few years and were fully implemented. In looking at the effects over time, there were a variety of positive effects on the students’ civic orientations.

We believe that this emphasis on program quality is the key factor in explaining the mixed results regarding the effects of civic and academic educations and service-learning programs. In large scale surveys of randomly selected students, we find minimal changes in student attitude; however, in studies that examine quality programs there are much larger effects.

The Study

Participants in the study were 220 high school students from 19 different classrooms in a total of 10 different schools. The study was conducted during the 1997–1998 school year in five states: Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Massachusetts, and Kentucky. The participants were almost evenly split between each grade in high school (ranging from 23% to 26%), with a handful of eighth grade students who worked on high school projects.

Roughly three out of four of the participants were female (76%), primarily because three of the largest classes were almost entirely composed of females. A few of the service projects occurred through home economics courses that attract primarily women—although the data do not allow us to determine which students participated in which classes. However, the oversampling of females should not be a concern; the findings remained almost identical when controlled for gender.

While the gender of the respondents was somewhat skewed, the racial composition of the sample looks similar to the racial make up of school-age youth. Seventeen percent of the respondents were African-American, compared to sixteen percent nationally. Similarly, about three percent were Asian or Pacific Islanders, compared to five percent nationally (Indiana Youth Institute 1999). Given that there were slightly more than two hundred respondents, this sample is more representative than we would have expected.

The survey was given both before the students began the project and then after they had completed their service project. Attrition is always a concern with panel studies, and about 31 percent of the sample was lost over the course of the study. The attrition occurred almost entirely because a few classes did not have the students complete the second survey, though a small number of students simply were not at school when the follow-up survey was given. The primary reason that a few classes did not complete the post survey was because the service project occurred at the end of the year and in the final rush of the last week of school the surveys were not finished. In two cases, the service project was not completed, therefore the second survey was never given. Thus, the attrition rate should not necessarily produce any significant amount of bias.

The programs varied in many ways. Each project had goals in three different areas: community impact, student learning, and student development. Many of these projects varied in focus. Some targeted community problems like homelessness, while others focused on groundwater pollution or illiteracy. Some projects focused on student reading, while other projects helped single mothers plan their family budgets. Other projects concentrated on developing conflict resolution skills or increasing tolerance and civic engagement.

Our primary focus in this paper deals with the amount of voice students were allowed in creating and implementing the project. The major problem with service-learning as a pedagogical tool is that the quality of the projects varies immensely. Some students show up for class, are given a project, and have the project completely planned out for them without the ability to provide input or make important decisions. We think this

approach to service-learning is dangerous and can actually have a *negative* effect on students. If students have little input into the project, they are likely to view the project as meaningless and as a waste of their time; they certainly will not be excited about going to class. Because of these factors, we created a student voice index to measure the impact that student involvement had on their school and civic educations. We believe that including a student voice variable in our model will help to explain the findings of previous work that such civic education efforts had minimal effects. Student voice should make the learning authentic and significant to the student (Dewey 1938; Beyer 1996).

Methods and Measures

Previous research (Melchior 1998) suggests that there is great variety in the quality of federally funded service-learning programs. Because of this finding, we are concerned whether the service projects provide ample opportunities for student ownership in the project; in other words, “student voice.” The student voice index was created based on participants’ answers to four questions (Conrad and Heiden 1985; Melchior 1998). Students were asked to rate on a four-point scale how strongly they agreed with the following statements:

- (1) “I had real responsibilities.”
- (2) “I had challenging tasks.”
- (3) “I helped plan the project.”
- (4) “I made important decisions.”

This variable was created by summing the responses to the four questions and then dividing by the number of questions. Thus, a one unit change is equal to moving one unit on the original four point scale (e.g., agree to strongly agree).

Some of the questions that make up the dependent variable indexes used Likert scale responses (0 = strongly disagree, 1 = disagree, 2 = neutral, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree), but others asked for specific information such as the number of school days skipped in the last four weeks or the number of political knowledge questions that the student could answer correctly. As with the student voice variable, for each of the Likert scale indexes, questions were added together and then divided by the number of questions in the index. In other words, each index is coded in its original metric, so that a one-point change is equal to the student’s opinion moving from “neutral” to “agree.”

We analyzed the effects of the service-learning project on four different dependent variables related to school education: whether the student **discusses school** with others outside of class, **political knowledge**, **personal competence**, and the number of school **days the respondent has skipped** in the past four weeks (see Table 1 on page 45 for a complete list of questions that comprise each dependent variable). Again, when student voice in the project increases, we expect the dependent variables to increase as well, with the exception of the number of days of school skipped, which should decrease.

To control for the effects of other variables that have the potential to influence student responses as well as to determine the effects of student voice, we used robust regression. As mentioned, the key variable we are looking at is the amount of voice the student reported having in the project. Because we examine change over time, it is not as important for us to control for the impacts of other variables. However, we want to make sure that we control for factors that might explain student voice or student attitudes about school to ensure that the impact is caused by the level of student voice in the project. For this reason, we control for student GPA, how much the student likes school, and whether she is prepared for class. Students' grades are simply their GPA on a four-point scale. The "likes school" and "prepared for school" variables are both on the same five-point scale as the dependent variables. The questions asked in the survey are "I like school" and "I come to class prepared to do the day's work." We also control for the student's grade in school (8th through 12th grade), gender, and the respondent's race (whether she is white). These variables are included simply as control variables and are not interpreted.

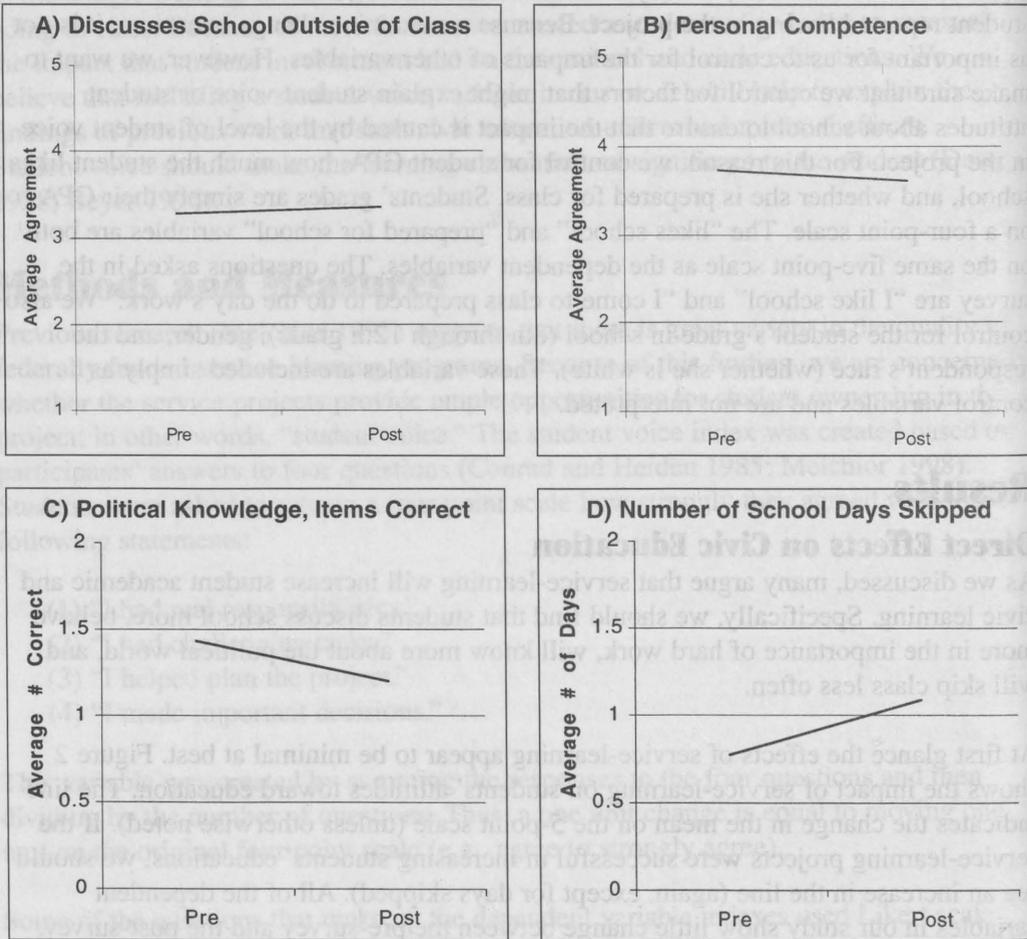
Results

Direct Effects on Civic Education

As we discussed, many argue that service-learning will increase student academic and civic learning. Specifically, we should find that students discuss school more, believe more in the importance of hard work, will know more about the political world, and will skip class less often.

At first glance the effects of service-learning appear to be minimal at best. Figure 2 shows the impact of service-learning on students' attitudes toward education. The line indicates the change in the mean on the 5-point scale (unless otherwise noted). If the service-learning projects were successful in increasing students' educations, we should see an increase in the line (again, except for days skipped). All of the dependent variables in our study show little change between the pre-survey and the post-survey, an indication that the service-learning projects did not have the intended results. In fact, the number of questions that students answered correctly dropped significantly, while the number of days of school skipped showed a substantial increase.

Figure 2:
Main Effects of Service-Learning Participation on School Education



Source: 1998 High School Service-Learning Survey

Note: N = 220; For “Discusses School” and “Personal Competence,” 5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree

While our initial results do not appear to be positive, it would be premature to assume that service-learning is not effective because the quality of the service-learning program is not taken into account—student voice is held constant. Participation in service-learning projects that limit student input may create resentment, making the project unlikely to change students’ civic values and certainly not making them more excited and active in the classroom. Students need to have real responsibilities, have challenging tasks, to help plan the project, and to make important decisions in order for the project to have a positive influence.

Student Voice and Effects on Civic Education

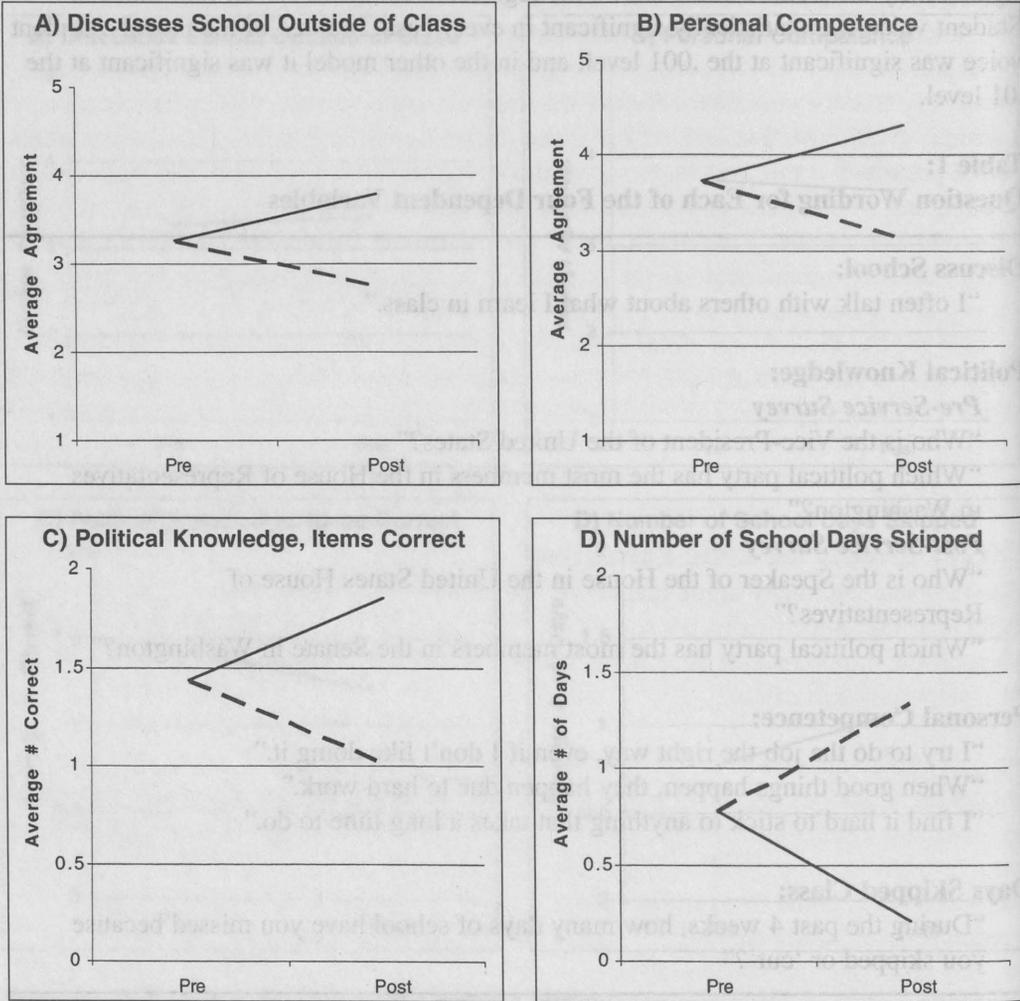
When student voice in the project is taken into consideration, the results are significantly different. Table 1 shows the regression estimates for all four models. Student voice was statistically significant in every case. In three of the models, student voice was significant at the .001 level, and in the other model it was significant at the .01 level.

Table 1:
Question Wording for Each of the Four Dependent Variables

Discuss School:
“I often talk with others about what I learn in class.”
Political Knowledge:
<i>Pre-Service Survey</i>
“Who is the Vice-President of the United States?”
“Which political party has the most members in the House of Representatives in Washington?”
<i>Post-Service Survey</i>
“Who is the Speaker of the House in the United States House of Representatives?”
“Which political party has the most members in the Senate in Washington?”
Personal Competence:
“I try to do the job the right way, even if I don’t like doing it.”
“When good things happen, they happen due to hard work.”
“I find it hard to stick to anything that takes a long time to do.”
Days Skipped Class:
“During the past 4 weeks, how many days of school have you missed because you skipped or ‘cut’?”

Figure 3 shows the distinct differences in school and civic education when students have a large voice in the project compared with when they do not. In all cases, those students participating in service-learning programs in which they had little voice reported a decrease in the school and civic educations after the project was completed; some of these differences were quite large.

Figure 3:
Impact of Service-Learning on School Education, by Level of Student Voice



Source: 1998 High School Service-Learning Study
 Note: N = 220; Lines from regression estimates in Table 2; Solid line is high voice, dotted line is low voice. For “Discusses School” and “Personal Competence,” 5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree.

On average, those students with more of a voice in their service-learning projects reported over a one-point increase in talking about school outside of class and in personal competence. A one-point increase is the equivalent of those with low voice responding “neutral” to the “talks about school” and “personal competence” questions, while those in high quality programs answered “agree.” These results make perfect sense. Students who had positive service-learning experiences should become more engaged in school. Therefore, they are more likely to discuss with others what they learned either in school or through the service-learning project. Also, having real

responsibilities in the program shows the importance of hard work and persistence. Those students that had little input in the project are less likely to be proud of the changes that their project made, and they will not necessarily see the importance of hard work. Student voice is clearly an important variable in making students more likely to discuss school and feel competent.

Students with more voice also demonstrated a significant increase in political knowledge. Slightly greater than 40 percent of the students in high quality projects answered one more political question correctly than they did before their involvement in the service-learning program. This finding is especially impressive because students were asked only two questions. The students' increase in knowledge may have resulted from a rise in political interest because of voice in the project.

Besides an increase in political knowledge, those students with more of a voice in the project were less likely to skip days of school. On average, participants with little voice in the project reported "cutting" class over one day more during a four-week period than those students with a greater voice. Involvement with good programs makes students want to be in class.

Caveats

The analysis above uses self-reported voice as an independent variable. One may not be convinced with our findings because students who feel as though they had more of a voice in the project may report greater changes in the dependent variables. While we do control for the effects of student academic performance and how much they like school, we feel this is an issue that deserves further concentration. To make certain this problem does not exist, we examined the changes in students' attitudes depending on the level of student voice in each class. In this case, we are interested in the level of student voice that the teacher allows in the service project (average for the class), not the different level that each student reports. In each of the four cases, the results hold. Even when examining the class average voice instead of the self-reported voice, service-learning projects appear to make students better citizens. This analysis can be made available by the authors.

It is important to note that this research does not suggest that the level of student voice is the only factor that can mediate the impact of service-learning. Other researchers have noted that student reflection is important (Melchior 1998), as is the overall time spent on the project (Melchior 1998). Other factors could include whether the students performed direct service to other people and whether they were able to work in a group or individually (Morgan 2002).

Readers may be skeptical of the results because one might think these projects were conducted in places where we would expect change to occur—suburban, middle-class school districts. However, most of these projects were conducted in inner-city schools. In fact, because of the types of school districts in the study, a bias actually exists against our findings. The fact that such significant and large results occurred says

wonders about the benefits of service-learning. Many students involved in these projects are “at-risk” children who are unlikely to do well in school and certainly not apt to become politically active. By giving these students a voice in the project, they had a feeling of accomplishing something real and positively helping someone’s life. Indeed, service-learning is a powerful pedagogical tool, which can help build a stronger democracy.

Conclusion and Implications

Reconciling Research Results

Previous research has shown mixed results in the service-learning literature. The positive effects often emerge from small studies of effective programs. Other research shows that, in the aggregate, the effects of civic education courses tend to be small or nonexistent (though see Niemi and Junn 1998 and Morgan 2002). The figures presented in this paper provide a clear understanding of how both results can emerge.

The first battery of figures revealed only minimal results when we looked at the effects of all programs together. However, as the second set of figures indicated, programs where the students had true ownership in the project produced significant and substantively meaningful effects on the students’ civic and academic orientations. Thus, in research such as this, we must pay close attention to not just the *number* of courses a student has taken, but the *quality* of the courses.

Implications for Quality Service-Learning

The figures show that it is simply the case that programs in which students have a voice have significant effects, while when averaged together there are no effects. These findings also illustrate that, without ownership, service-learning produces negative effects. Students in programs with little student voice become less likely to want to discuss school, to believe in the importance of hard work, and even to show up to school!

These results provide a strong caution for service-learning practitioners. While there can be large positive effects on participants in service-learning programs, these programs must be well designed to afford the students with ample opportunities to be involved in the leadership and management of the programs. When the students are involved in meaningful service and are allowed leadership positions in the project, they will develop the skills and attitudes that are important to a democracy. However, if the course is not designed correctly, then they can become even more apathetic and disinterested in politics. Thus, we must strongly caution service-learning practitioners to “first, do no harm.” These findings held for projects that took place in a rural environment as well as for programs that were held in an urban environment.

Table 2:
Impact of Service Learning on Students' School Education,
By Level of Student Voice

Independent Variable	Discusses School	Personal Competence	Political Knowledge	Days Skipped
Voice	0.52*** (0.15)	0.60*** (0.13)	0.42*** (0.10)	-0.57** (0.22)
Likes School	-0.10 (0.07)	-0.24** (0.08)	-0.05 (0.54)	0.08 (0.12)
Prepared for School	-0.34** (0.11)	-0.28** (0.09)	-0.15* (0.08)	0.30 (0.16)
GPA	0.02 (0.13)	-0.09 (0.13)	-0.01 (0.10)	0.11 (0.22)
School Grade	-0.10 (0.07)	-0.05 (0.08)	0.01 (0.05)	0.04 (0.12)
White	0.20 (0.17)	0.13 (0.19)	0.02 (0.13)	0.15 (0.30)
Constant	2.34** (0.92)	2.56** (0.96)	0.21 (0.61)	-1.65 (1.51)
R-squared	0.14	0.17	0.11	0.06

Note: Standard errors are in parentheses. ***p-value<.001; **p-value<.01; *p-value<.05.
 Source: 1998 High School Service-Learning Survey.

Practitioners should also be aware that there may be implications beyond service-learning classes. If a faculty member is conducting a civic education program at a university, she should be aware that the students should have the opportunity to make key decisions in the process. Similarly, the director of a community service program should be sure to provide the participants with opportunities and support to manage the service programs on their own. Other research (Morgan 1995) suggests that this also makes the process of running the program easier for the administrators and faculty.

These findings have a number of implications for education policy. First, educational institutions, ranging from California Institutions of Higher Education to Chicago Public Schools, have begun to mandate community service for their students. These policies are supported by well-meaning individuals who believe that student involvement will help foster civic attitudes while accomplishing positive results in the community. However, the results of this study suggest that mandating service could backfire if the projects do not provide the opportunity for the students to have a significant voice in the projects.

Second, the role of professional development has been overlooked in most federal and state policies that support service-learning. The vast majority of the resources have gone to support the specific programmatic costs of the service, but these findings suggest that there should be intensive work with educators to ensure that the service-learning is effective and productive. If program quality is important, and can make the difference between having a positive impact on the participants and harming them, resources should be in place to support professional development. Similarly, Education Departments at colleges and universities should provide some training about service-learning if it is expected it to be done well.

Third, as schools and teachers move toward implementing effective service-learning, they are also moving toward implementing effective teaching—instruction that is student-centered and involves the students in meaningful ways. It is experiential in nature and actively involves the students in their own learning experiences. It encourages collaboration between teachers and with the community.

The results of this research suggest that service-learning can be both a blessing and a curse. It can have a large effect on students' civic and educational attitudes and behaviors, and that effect can be positive or negative. As parents, we should support service-learning, but only if it can be effectively implemented. As citizens, we should ensure that the rules that govern these policies support professional development so service-learning can be effectively implemented. As educators, we should involve the students in the decision-making and coordination of service-learning projects to make sure they are effective. Service-learning is an extremely powerful pedagogical tool, as long as we "first, do no harm."

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