

**A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE NOBIS PROJECT –  
A CREATIVE PROCESS APPROACH TO SERVICE-LEARNING AND  
GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION**

**by**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The Nobis Project is an innovative creative process approach to service-learning and global citizenship education aiming to teach secondary school students six dimensions of civic engagement: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, and empathy. It guides students to comprehend current affairs and to devise ways to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients.

This thesis examines the claims of the Nobis Project program using data collected from a series of five case studies each with an international focus. It analyzes how far the Nobis Project (1) realizes the goals of service-learning to teach civic engagement, and (2) teaches the civic goals of global citizenship.

This thesis argues that the Nobis Project, refined in the light of this research, represents a significant contribution to the practice of service-learning in secondary schools. Its method incorporates an original creative-process model, a practice not usually found in service-learning. As a program, it redefines the scope of service-learning by including international service recipients, thus contributing to a recognized need of global citizenship education, opportunity for action.

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband, my inspiration, and my friend, Gerome who has patiently and graciously supported me through this process. From crossing the Atlantic to every answer of the bell, a very special thank you for your practical and emotional support and for providing encouragement at those times when it seemed impossible to continue.

To my parents, who taught me the value of education, and who have been sources of encouragement and inspiration to me throughout my life. Thank you both for actively supporting me in my determination to realize my potential, and to make this contribution to our world.

I cannot overlook my great fortune to have the support of my brother and countless teachers and friends. For their unconditional love and encouragement throughout the course of my studies, I also dedicate this dissertation to them.

Finally, this thesis is dedicated to all those who teach and who believe in the richness of learning.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

DfES.....Department for Education and Skills

DfID.....Department for International Development

DEA.....Development Education Association

EMAP.....Emergency Material Assistance Program

GCE.....Global Citizenship Education

QCA.....Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

S1.....School 1

S2.....School 2

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Origins of The Nobis Project**

The Nobis Project was conceived as a response to a personal life transition. When contemplating what was lacking in my life I recognized that the absence of service<sup>1</sup>, an element so influential in my upbringing, was the cause of my discontent. After questioning the origins of my call to service, I deduced that it was the foundation of my learning at the Quaker<sup>2</sup> school I attended for secondary school. My time at the Friends School was a life changing experience that rests above almost any other. The Quaker ethos permeated every dimension of the school; from the content of coursework, to the manner of interactions between teachers and students. I can describe the essence, but I had no formal understanding of what it meant to be Quaker. To answer my need for a change in life direction, I began to look more closely at the history and contemporary practice of Quakerism. I found it unusual that my previous experience at a Quaker school impacted my life so profoundly, but that I had no concept of the foundations of the religion. In my research of Quaker literature I found that I had adopted the Quaker testimonies as my life philosophy without ever being explicitly told of them. I had been taught the Quaker testimonies through osmoses, through a hidden curriculum. It became clear that my call to service came from my understanding and value of the four Quaker testimonies; peace, equality, integrity and simplicity. Recognizing the impact

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<sup>1</sup> For this research the term service is used interchangeably with the term relief work. Community or volunteer service typically refers to work carried out in a local community. Relief work or service work encompasses activities that benefit people both inside and outside of the local community (Pritchard 2002, 6-7).

<sup>2</sup> For this essay, the terms Quaker or Friends are used interchangeably to refer to the Religious Society of Friends.

that this ‘hidden curriculum’ had on my commitment to service work, I set out to design a means to distribute this experience to other learners.

The final form of what is now called the Nobis Project, is a design that combines service-learning with a focus on global awareness. The design combines the two approaches through the use of an innovative creative process approach. The creative process approach draws on my previous experience as an artists and analysis of how other artists use their art as a tool for connecting and communicating.

The Nobis Project aims to teach youth the six dimensions of civic engagement: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, and empathy (see 3.3).<sup>3</sup> It is designed to direct students in understanding current affairs by developing meaningful ways to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients.

The topic of international understanding or global awareness appears as a Quaker concern in both Britain and America. In an opening address to a British Quaker education conference the speaker defines education as ‘a collection of experiences which enhances self-knowledge, enhances knowledge of the world as it is and as it is becoming, and develops the capacity to make informed choices’ (Hubbard 1988, 9). A group of educators gathered at this conference composed an essay that describes the need, role and function of teaching global awareness (Serner *et al.* 1988, 19). The authors assert that [Quaker] educators who fail to initiate the process of change and action are failing in their purpose (Serner *et al.* 1988, 25). It is the

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<sup>3</sup> This kind of reference always refers to other parts of this thesis.



Quaker dedication to action and change that complements my research. An American Friend who shares this commitment to teaching international understanding writes,

But where is the Quaker school ... which prepares its students for the 21<sup>st</sup> century? Such a Quaker school or college may exist but I have inquired widely and not yet found one institution which has taken seriously the need ...[to] construct total programs which are world-centered. The child-centered school needs to remain. So does the community-centered school. And the nation-centered school. But education for tomorrow needs to be world-centered, too (Kenworthy n.d., 34-35).

Another American Quaker educator offers twelve queries on how Friends' schools should be different because of their Quaker witness. Out of the queries presented two specifically reflect on what my research explores.

Are we teaching students to develop a chronic social conscience?  
Do we educate students to be world-minded and loyal to a global view, rather than restricted to nationalism? (Kenworthy n.d., 52).

Quaker schools are historically noted for preparing students for the society, not as it is, but as it ought to be (Brinton 1967, 8). It is this belief and the Quaker concern to educate for international understanding that makes Friends' schools an ideal environment for conducting my research. American Friends schools have been selected to serve as research sites because of their compatible educational philosophy, their existing commitment to service-learning, their openness to experiential education and my ability to gain access due to prior affiliation with the selected institutions. The research findings, however, should be replicable in any high school that welcomes experiential teaching.

## **1.2 Research Question**

This thesis examines the claims of the Nobis Project programme using data collected from a series of five case studies, each with an international focus. The Nobis Project's goals include

teaching secondary school students six dimensions of civic engagement: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, and empathy (see 3.3). It also aims to guide students to comprehend current affairs and to devise ways to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients. The thesis analyses to what extent the Nobis Project (1) realizes the goals of service-learning to teach civic engagement, and (2) teaches the ‘civic goals’ of global citizenship.

This chapter provides a brief overview of service-learning, global citizenship education and creative-process theory. An extended review of scholarship on service-learning (2.2) and global citizenship education (2.3) is presented in chapter two. Creative-process theory is discussed in chapter three (3.2.4). This chapter also outlines the original contributions of this thesis: ‘the use of a creative-process model in service-learning’ and ‘the combination of the practice of service-learning and GCE’. This chapter concludes with a summary of the organisation of this thesis.

### **1.3 Service-Learning Defined**

Service-learning, in its broadest sense, is an experiential approach to education in which community or volunteer service that is linked with curricular activities is a vehicle for learning (Billig and Welch 2004, ix).

Waterman (1997, 3) argues that the fundamental assumption is that students ‘develop a better understanding and appreciation of academic material if they are able to put that material into practice in ways that make a difference in their own lives and/or in the lives of other people’.

In volunteer or community service, the action of ‘serving’ is primary: no formal focus on the educational potential of the experience is present. In service-learning programmes, academic learning is linked to service experiences, theoretically enhancing both the service and the learning (Eyler and Giles 1999).<sup>4</sup>

There is no unifying definition of the specifics of service-learning. Kendall (1990) reports finding 147 definitions. Waterman (1997) also states that there are numerous definitions but claims that the distinctions between them are often subtle. Waterman (1997, 2) argues that the definition given by the United States Commission on National and Community Service (1990) contains the major defining features of service-learning. For the purposes of this research this definition is used. It states:

Service-learning is a method

- (a) under which students learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet actual community needs and that are coordinated in collaboration with the school and community;
- (b) that is integrated into the students’ academic curriculum or provides structured time for the student to think, talk, or write about what the student did and saw during the actual service activity;
- (c) that provides students with opportunities to use newly acquired skills and knowledge in real-life situations in their own communities; and
- (d) that enhances what is taught in school by extending student learning beyond the classroom and into the community and helps to foster the development of a sense of caring for others (National and Community Service Act of 1990).

For this definition to encompass the Nobis Project’s objective of expanding the discipline of service-learning to include an international dimension, the term ‘community’ in (a) above denotes ‘global community’. The Nobis Project claims that all other elements of the definition are implemented without amendment (3.2.1).

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<sup>4</sup> Eyler and Giles are pioneers in the small group of individuals who have completed extensive research on the outcomes of service-learning programs (Eyler 2000). For this reason, their research is particularly referenced.

In addition to the definition above, the generally accepted service-learning pedagogical process includes four steps: ‘planning or preparation’; ‘action’; ‘reflection’ and; ‘celebration’ (Billig and Welch 2004, 225; Payne 2000, 10-11). The function of this cycle and its role in the Nobis Project is discussed in chapter three (3.2.1).

#### **1.4 Global Citizenship Education Defined**

GCE<sup>5</sup> is a relatively new educational initiative (Davies 2006, 6). It exists in the UK as a component of Citizenship Education (TeacherNet n.d.) and the World Studies curriculum (Davies 2006, 6). Davies (2006, 6), and Davies *et al.* (2005, 85) argue that the global dimension in World Studies emphasizes learning about global interdependence, cultural diversity, the examination of values, and political activity as opposed to political science or community involvement. Davies (2006, 6) claims that the global dimension in Citizenship Education goes beyond the World Studies’ aim to build international awareness of policy and culture and is directly concerned with social justice, ‘rights and responsibilities, duties and entitlements, concepts which are not necessarily explicit in global education’. Davies (2006) illustrates the numerous ways to define the implementation of GCE.

- (a) global citizenship + education (definitions of the ‘global citizen’, and the implied educational framework to provide or promote this)
- (b) global + citizenship education (making citizenship education more globally or internationally relevant; think global, act local)
- (c) global education + citizenship (international awareness plus rights and responsibilities)

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<sup>5</sup> Although Global Citizenship Education is practiced in many other countries, for the purposes of this thesis the focus on global citizenship education is limited to the practice in the United Kingdom, unless otherwise noted (Davies 2006; Pigozzi, 2006; Schweisfurth 2006). GCE exists to a lesser extent in the United States and is not nationally recognized, as curriculum requirements are set by each state (United States Department of Education n.d.).

- (d) education + citizenship + global (introducing ‘dimensions’ of citizenship and of international understanding into the school curriculum, but not necessarily connected) (Davies 2006, 13-14).

This research examines the potential practice of option (a) global citizenship + education and the current practice of option (b) global + citizenship education. These options were selected because of their compatibility with the goals of service-learning through their emphasis on creating a sense of responsibility or duty and preparing students for active participation in society (2.4). In other words, they are the definitions that best fit the Nobis Project design. The details of practice and theory of (a) global citizenship + education (2.3.3) and (b) global + citizenship education (2.3.2) are discussed in detail in chapter two. For this research, a combination of global citizenship + education’s focus on shared fate and social rights and global + citizenship education’s attention to skills and action were used to test the Nobis Project programme. The ‘civic goals’ of this amalgam model are discussed in chapter two (2.4) and the implications for scholars are found in chapter seven (7.5.3).

## **1.5 Creative-Process Theory Defined**

Both philosophers and psychologists study how innovative processes or ideas are conceived (Westland 1969, 127). The creative-process, also referred to as creative problem solving, is defined by Isakesen *et al.* (1994, index) as,

A broadly applicable process containing various components and stages to provide a framework for generating and developing new and useful outcomes or action for a broad range of situations (opportunities, challenges, concerns, or problems). [Creative problem solving] can be used by individuals or groups to recognize and act on opportunities, respond to challenges, and overcome concerns.

For the purpose of this research the above definition is used. The Nobis Project established a creative-process approach called the ‘Action Steps’, which follows Isakesen’s definition of

the creative-process (3.4). Chapter three examines the Action Steps against two creative-process theories of Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall (3.2.4). The mutual themes of these theorists' models and the Action Steps include, 'identification of problem', 'purposeful analysis', 'imaginative idea generation', and 'critical evaluation and implementation'. Each model is discussed in detail in chapter three (3.2.4) and table 3-1 illustrates how the models support the Action Steps design.

The next section reviews the two original contributions of this thesis.

## **1.6 Original Contributions**

This thesis argues that the Nobis Project, refined in the light of this research, offers two original contributions to the scholarship on service-learning and GCE. First, it makes a valuable contribution to the practice of service-learning through its inclusion of an original creative-process model. Second, as a programme, it expands the breadth of service-learning and GCE by combining the two. The significance of each of these contributions is discussed in turn.

### **1.6.1 Creative-Process Model**

The first original contribution of this thesis is the Nobis Project's innovative mode of delivery using a creative-process approach; a method not found in the current practice of service-learning (3.2.4, 7.3.1). The occasional use of the creative-process in service-learning programmes is restricted to using art to process experiences or as an in-kind contribution

(Pennsylvania Service-learning Alliance n.d.). I have found no reference to service-learning projects that use art or the creative-process to assist international recipients. The Nobis Project creative-process approach, ‘Action Steps’ (3.4), follows the parameters of Dewey’s experiential education theory (3.2.2) and socially conscious art methodology (3.2.3) to enable students to respond to knowledge on global concerns in a self-directed, creative and meaningful way.

### **1.6.2 Combining Service-Learning and Global Citizenship Education**

The second original contribution of this thesis is the innovation of combining the practice of service-learning and GCE. This merger is fundamental to the Nobis Project design (3.2), which maintains that students in service-learning programmes can perform international service from a domestic location. The current definition of service-learning, as described in 1.3, infers that service is carried out in the local community. Accordingly, the existing domestic service-learning programmes have no international focus (Global Education through Dance n.d.; Institute for Global Education and Service Learning n.d.; Global Service Institute Network n.d.; International Partnership for Service Learning and Leadership n.d.; Volunteer Abroad n.d.). The Nobis Project defines community to encompass the global community (1.3, 2.1) and is supported by the idea that service-learning does not need to be limited to local communities. With regards to GCE, a primary criticism of its current practice, as argued by Davies (2006, 6, 10, 11, 13), is the absence of implementation, or action, which hinders GCE students from experiencing the principles GCE advocates (2.3.2, 2.4.1.5). This thesis argues that the Nobis Project provides the necessary framework to bridge the two

educational approaches, service-learning and GCE, in order to expand the definition of service-learning and as a method for incorporating action into GCE.

The next section reviews how this thesis is organized.

## **1.7 Organisation of Argument**

This chapter outlines the origins of the Nobis Project (1.1), the research question (1.2), definitions of scholarship integral to this research (1.3, 1.4, 1.5), and the original contributions of this research (1.6). This section provides an outline of how the findings are presented.

The next chapter reviews previous scholarship of service-learning and GCE. It examines the origins (2.2, 2.3), criticisms (2.2, 2.3), goals (2.4), and commonalities between the two approaches (2.4.2), including the shared service-learning and GCE civic engagement goals (2.4). Chapter two also reveals how the common goals of the two approaches create an optimal opportunity for each field to learn from the other (2.6).

Chapter three outlines the five influences on the Nobis Project design: ‘the service-learning process’ (3.2.1); ‘Dewey’s experiential education theory’ (3.2.2); ‘socially conscious art methodology’ (3.2.3); ‘creative-process theory’ (3.2.4) and; ‘global citizenship’ (3.2). The design objectives and outcomes are summarized (3.3), followed by an explanation of how the Nobis Project incorporates a creative-process theory (3.4). The chapter concludes with an overview of the defining elements of the Nobis Project design (3.5): ‘inspiring introduction’



(3.5.1); ‘student responsibility’ (3.5.2); ‘research’ (3.5.3); ‘Action Steps’ (3.5.4) and; ‘reflection’ (3.5.5).

Choices of methodology are considered in chapter four. The chapter outlines the research question (1.2, 4.2) and how research criteria were selected (4.2.1) and measured (4.2.2). It then discusses the collective case study research style (4.3). Details on the selection of schools, process of gaining access (4.4.1), and relationships with teachers (4.4.2.1) and students (4.4.2.2) are explained. Data collection and analysis methods (4.5), interviews (4.5.2), surveys (4.5.3), and class recordings (4.5.1), are each considered. The chapter concludes with reflexivity on my experiences during the research process (4.6).

Chapter five provides necessary information from each case study for understanding contextual differences between studies. Long-term results of each case study and other consequences of the case studies are considered. Chapter six presents the research findings on each of the civic engagement criteria.

Chapter seven analyses the findings presented in chapter six (7.2), defines the original contributions of this research (7.3), discusses the implication for the practice of service-learning (7.4.1) and GCE (7.4.2), implications for scholars of civic engagement (7.5.1), service-learning (7.5.2), GCE (7.5.3), and creative-process theory (7.5.4), and concludes with recommendations for future research (7.6).

## **1.8 Chapter Summary**

As stated above, this chapter outlines the research question (1.2): To what extent does the Nobis Project (1) realize the goals of service-learning to teach civic engagement and (2) teach the civic goals of global citizenship? The definitions of scholarship integral to this research, including service-learning (1.3), GCE (1.4), and creative-process theory (1.5), are then provided. Next, the two original contributions of this research are discussed: ‘the use of a creative-process model in service-learning’ and ‘the combination of service-learning and GCE’. This chapter concluded with an outline of how the findings will be explained (1.7). The next chapter reviews previous scholarship of service-learning and GCE, beginning with the origins (2.2, 2.3), criticisms (2.2, 2.3), goals (2.4), and commonalities of the two approaches (2.4.2).

## **CHAPTER TWO: SERVICE-LEARNING AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviews previous scholarship and examines the origins, aims, commonalities, and criticisms of service-learning and GCE. This chapter concludes with a discussion of how the commonalities between the service-learning and GCE, complement one another and allow for new practices that improve outcomes (2.6).

### **2.2 Service-Learning**

To better understand the function and goals of service-learning, its historical roots in experiential education and education for citizenship are considered in turn.

#### **2.2.1 Experiential Education**

Service-learning emerged from the experiential education approach conceived by philosophers and educators, such as Piaget<sup>6</sup> and Dewey,<sup>7</sup> who argued that student learning is enhanced when students actively participate in their own learning and when learning has a relevant and meaningful purpose (Dewey 1990, 148). Within experiential education theory, Dewey (1990, 148) claimed that allowing students to actively discover relationships between

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<sup>6</sup> Piaget's work is not discussed in this chapter because Dewey is considered the primary proponent of service-learning (Waterman 1997, 2; Eyler and Giles 1997, 59; Warchal and Ruz 2004, 91; Harkavy 2004, 16).

<sup>7</sup> Though David Kolb and Paulo Freire (Kolb and Fry 1975; Freire 1972) have made significant contributions to experiential education, their works are not included because of their emphasis on adult education.

ideas and answer questions derived from personal curiosity, rather than merely receiving information, fostered student development. Waterman (1997, 3) adds that the basic assumption underlying experiential learning is that students will comprehend and retain more when material is put into practice than when it is presented in lectures or readings.

As mentioned above, there are two fundamentals to experiential education, ‘learner-constructed activity’ and ‘relevance’. Dewey asserted that student development is fostered more by learner-constructed activity than conventional instructional approaches (Dewey 1990, 146-147). Dewey also maintained that relevance, or answering questions derived from meaningful and relevant problems, increases student engagement (Dewey 1990, 148). Relevance, in relation to concrete activity, correlates to how knowledge becomes understanding. Knowledge, often in the form of short-term memory recall, prepares students for tests but does not necessarily produce understanding or the ability to access information needed to respond to a new situation. Understanding is the ability to not only recall relevant information but also correctly utilize the information. As Eyler and Giles (1999, 64) argue, ‘Material that is understood has meaning for the learner’. Dewey (1990, 91) argues that knowledge will be more readily accessible for use if it is attained in the context of its use. In this view, there should not be a separation between learning and concrete activity, or between the classroom and the outside world (Dewey 1990, 91).

Eyler and Giles (1999, 92) argue that when students contemplate something they refer to previous experiences as a basis for understanding. The experiential approach claims to create new experiences that deepen understanding by providing opportunities for students to comprehend abstract or difficult concepts first-hand (Eyler and Giles 1999, 94). Experiential

learning's aim is to instill a new perspective of learning in which students seek learning opportunities beyond the chalkboard or worksheet that create understanding through first-hand interaction in a relevant situation. Eyler and Giles (1999, 96) assert that, 'learning occurs within context. Much of the failure to transfer what is learned in the classroom to use in the world occurs because students have not learned the material in a way that makes sense to them in new contexts'.

In service-learning, the experiential dimension occurs when students serve others in a real-world context. The relevant and meaningful component of service-learning corresponds with students offering a service that benefits others. Students learn and use various skills related to the type of work they perform at a service location. Accordingly, the learner-constructed activity is dependent on placement quality (Eyler and Giles 1999, 32-33) (7.4.1), which can affect the service-learning experience both positively and negatively. Factors contributing to placement quality include the level of student responsibility, variety of tasks assigned to students, and the students' perception of efficacy (Eyler and Giles 1999, 32-33).

The next section describes a second influence on service-learning, education for citizenship.

### **2.2.2 Education for Citizenship**

The second component in the origins of service-learning is education for participatory citizenship. The combination of experiential learning and service work evolved from joining two significant historical United States traditions: community service and experiential education (Alt and Medrich 1994). The intent of this merger was to fulfil Dewey's ultimate

vision for education, the advancement of the student's ability to be active, productive contributors in a democratic society (Archambault 1964, 12). Dewey (1990, 91) considered the connection between community and school to be essential to learning. As he saw it, what is learned in the school must be applicable to life beyond the classroom, both for the development of the student and the advancement of society. Service-learning embraces these ideas by connecting classroom learning about social problems with hands-on experiences in which students address the problems through social action. The underlying principle is, 'Experience enhances understanding; understanding leads to more effective action' (Eyler and Giles 1999, 8).

As early as 1915, United States schools documented the implementation of curriculum-based service work (Learn and Serve n.d.). Today service-learning is commonly practiced in the United States at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels (Waterman 1997, xi). The expansion and continued interest stems from the proven benefits of service-learning programmes, including the ability to provide education for citizenship (Billig and Welch 2004, ix), a societal need that some characterize as a national crisis (Newman 1985). In a report published by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the foundation president, Ernest Boyer, stated, 'To regard the American education as somehow unrelated to national concerns is as grievous as it is dangerous in a complex, interrelated world. To fail to provide students with a perspective beyond self-interest is to fail the nation' (Newman 1985). Harkavy (2004, 5) elaborates on the potential of service-learning, claiming that 'service-learning can and has served as the driving force and center of an intellectual movement to create democratic schooling from pre-K education through higher education'. Researchers have actively examined various aspects of the field, including effective practice, scholarly

and community benefits, and personal development of the learner (Alt and Medrich 1994; Melchior 1997; Shumer 1997; Astin and Sax 1998; Andersen 1998; Eyler and Giles 1999; Gray *et al.* 1999; Eyler *et al.* 1999). The civic goals of service-learning, outlined in 2.4, stem from service-learning's historical roots, which called for participatory citizenship education through service work.

### **2.2.3 Criticisms of Dewey**

Critics of Dewey's educational theories, relevant to his influence on experiential and service-learning claim that he promoted a cultureless education (Karier *et al.* 1973; Gonzalez 1990; Phillips 1997); sacrificed knowledge, facts, and subject matter to skills and processes (Hirsch 1988; Phillip 1997); and rejected the authority of teachers (Wilentz 1993; Phillips 1997). Each criticism and counter-criticism is discussed in turn.

#### ***Cultureless Education***

Phillips (1997, 211) argues that Dewey instigated in education 'a savage doctrine of individualism which would effectively abandon children to a world without culture ... Children were to be taught to discount their culture and tradition'. This argument alleges that Dewey supported the teaching of a single common culture over the inclusion and recognition of multiple cultures. Karier *et al.* (1973, 92) also criticised Dewey's views on culture and argued that 'Dewey viewed ethnic and religious differences as a threat to the survival of society, to be overcome through assimilation'. Gonzalez (1990, 17) concurs by claiming that Dewey wanted to introduce 'a common culture that would bind together the various classes'. Putnam and Putnam (1993, 373) counter these arguments by stating that Dewey intended

‘that the curriculum be cognizant of the variety of homes [and cultures] from which the children come’. Dewey (1916, 205) himself pointed out that:

the American is international interracial in his make-up ... The American is himself Pole-German-English-French-Spanish-Italian-Greek-Irish-Scandinavian-Bohemian-Jew and so on. The point is to see to it that the hyphen connects instead of separates. And this means at least that our public schools shall teach each factor to respect every other, and shall take pains to enlighten us all as to the great past contributions of every strain in our composite make-up.

Petrovic (1998, 516) argues that ‘it is evident that Dewey recognised and respected the backgrounds and cultures of all groups’. For as Dewey (1916, 24) envisioned, schools must create an environment where ‘each individual gets an opportunity to escape from the limitations of the social group in which he was born, and to come into living contact with a broader environment’. Petrovic (1998, 516) concludes that in such interactions students learn the common values necessary to promote democratic society.

### ***The Sacrifice of Knowledge, Facts, and Subject Matter to Skills and Processes***

Another criticism of Dewey’s work, voiced by Hirsch (1988, xv) claims that Dewey promoted ‘content-neutral curricula’ that encouraged intellectual development ‘without regard to the specific content of education’. Hirsch suggests that Dewey prioritized the process of learning over learning essential content, such as multiplication tables or historical facts. Dewey (1975, 10) mentions the subject matter that Hirsch demands when he notes, ‘for the child properly to take his place in reference to these various functions [relating to being a good citizen] means training in science, in art, in history ...’. Petrovic (1998, 516) contends that Dewey did not reject the teaching of subject-matter or facts, but rather having them ‘pigeon-holed into singular textbooks or courses of study which disconnect the various subjects and ignore their intimate relationship with others ... What he rejects is the “piling up”



of these things for no apparent reason'. For Dewey, the process, or activity-centred learning, was not done at the expense of subject matter; it was the means to teach the knowledge and facts inherent to the activities (Petrovic, 1998, 517). In Dewey's view the process enhanced retention and recall of content, rather than diminish its necessity and value.

### ***The Authority of Teachers***

The third argument against Dewey's work is Wilentz's (1993, 13) and Phillips' (1997, 211) claim that Dewey rejected the authority of teachers. Because of Dewey's emphasis on child-centred learning, Wilentz and Phillips assert that Dewey did not value the teacher as a source of information. As Garrison (1996, 21) points out, 'Dewey was misunderstood because he tended to emphasize a student's activity within the larger act of coordinating a student and teacher's activity regarding the subject matter'. That is to say, critics view Dewey's philosophy as singularly child-centred when in fact Dewey was equally teacher-centred in his philosophy (Petrovic 1998, 517). As Petrovic (1998, 517) asserts, '[Dewey does not] ignore the importance of the teacher and the teacher's knowledge in shaping and guiding children's activities so that they are educative'. For as Dewey (1938, 21) himself maintains, 'it does not follow that all authority should be rejected, but rather that there is need to search for a more effective source of authority'.

While critics still contest Dewey's theory, numerous academics continue to emphasize the value of service-learning and Dewey's role in shaping new theory (Eyler and Halteman 1981; Batchelder and Root 1994; Boss 1994; and Eyler and Giles 1999).

The next section reviews scholarship on global citizenship.

## **2.3 Global Citizenship**

This section begins with a discussion of the argued need for GCE followed by an examination of the potential practice of global citizenship + education and the current practice of global + citizenship education.

### **2.3.1 The Need for Global Citizenship Education**

Davies and Harber (n.d.) suggest a need for GCE, stating that the ‘increased pace of globalisation and dramatic shifts in international relations’ are changing the nature of citizenship education. Ibrahim (2005, 192) argues

The concept of global citizenship implies a shift towards more inclusive understandings of citizenship and suggests a need to reinterpret the objectives of citizenship education. In the context of global interdependence there is a need to develop a vision of global citizenship education that encourages critical understanding of and respect for human rights and responsibilities. It must also empower students to work for a more just and sustainable world through democratic processes.

Davies *et al.* (2005, 86) in their critique of global education and citizenship education, call for ‘greater integration between the two areas’, noting that only citizenship education has found its place in England’s national curriculum. Department for International Development (DfID) (2003, 2) notes that Education Ministries across the UK recognize the ‘need to ensure that global perspectives and development issues form part of any balanced education programme’. DfID (2003, 3) developed a support strategy, as outlined in the ‘Enabling Effective Support’ consultation document, ‘founded on the proposition that young people have a right to an education that will prepare them for today’s globalised society’.

There is also international recognition of a need to address through education the challenges presented by ongoing inequalities and injustices around the world. The initiative to form the UN Decade for Human Rights Education, for example, sought to attend to this challenge (UN, 1994). Nation states have acknowledged this challenge through their endorsement of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989, whose aims of education include: ‘the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations’; ‘respect for the child’s parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own’, and ‘the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples’ .

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation’s (UNESCO) member states reached international consensus on the need for citizenship education which will prepare

... all young people acquire the competencies required for personal autonomy and for citizenship, to enter the world of work and social life, with a view to respecting their identity, openness to the world and social and cultural diversity (UNESCO 2004, 3).

Additionally UNESCO calls for ‘education for active and responsible citizenship’ where young people might acquire:

... the willingness and the capacity to live together and to build peace in a world characterized by inter-state and internal armed conflicts and by the emergence of all forms of violence and war. (UNESCO, 2004, p. 3)

Recognizing GCE as a needed element for preparing students for an increasingly globalized society, the next two sections discuss two approaches for teaching global citizenship: ‘global + citizenship education: current practice’ and ‘global citizenship + education: potential practice’.

### **2.3.2 Global + Citizenship Education: Current Practice**

Davies *et al.* (2005, 74) argue that the practice of global education and citizenship education are both lacking in crucial areas. Although they recognize that there is some overlap between the two approaches, they maintain ‘education for global citizenship does not yet exist’ (Davies *et al.* 2005, 75-76). To understand the workings of global + citizenship education we must look at the practice and aims of citizenship education.

In September 2002, citizenship education became a statutory part of England’s national curriculum in secondary schools (Osler and Starkey 2006, 435). The citizenship education curriculum aims to teach nationalism, the inter-workings of government, and skills necessary to participate in society (Brownlie 2001; Osler and Starkey 2003, 245).<sup>8</sup> GCE, as currently practiced, incorporates a global perspective into citizenship lessons. The government document ‘Developing the Global Dimension in the School Curriculum’ elaborates on the

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<sup>8</sup> In the United States the promotion of civics education, the subject most comparable to the British citizenship curriculum, appears in United States education from the country’s founding and continues into the 21st century. Currently civics is not a required course for United States students (Comber 2005, 1). The United States emphasis on volunteer work, often as a secondary school graduation requirement, confirms that the United States values students’ ability to understand the effects of an individual’s contribution to society (Prichard 2002, 4). Subsequently, service-learning is also seen as a model for learning citizenship (Ehrlich 1997) (cited in Eyler and Giles 1999, 12).

global dimension of citizenship education, that at key stage 3 and 4 students are expected to develop:

their understanding of their role as citizens within local and global contexts and extend their knowledge of the wider world. Their understanding of issues such as poverty, social justice and sustainable development increases. They realise the importance of taking action and how this can improve the world for future generations. They critically assess information available to them and challenge cases of discrimination and injustice (DfES *et al.* 2005, 6).

The ‘Developing the Global Dimension in the School Curriculum’ document also defines the goals of learning global citizenship as:

- (a) Gaining the knowledge, skills and understanding of concepts and institutions necessary to become informed, active, responsible citizens,
- (b) Developing skills to evaluate information and different points of view on global issues through the media and other sources,
- (c) Learning about institutions, declarations and conventions and the role of groups, NGOs and governments in global issues,
- (d) Developing understanding of how and where key decisions are made,
- (e) Appreciating that young people’s views and concerns matter and are listened to; and how to take responsible action that can influence and affect global issues,
- (f) Appreciating the global context of local and national issues and decisions at a personal and societal level, and
- (g) Understanding the roles of language, place, arts, religion in own and others’ identity in other countries (DfES *et al.* 2005, 16).

Brownlie (2001) summarizes the role of the global dimension to citizenship education in the following passage.

Society needs its citizens to contribute to an informed public opinion. Including the global dimension to citizenship education helps pupils to understand international conventions, such as the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the connections between UK law and international law and the global dimension to topical issues. It provides young people with the skills to enable them to identify issues that are important to them and to participate in the democratic process at a range of levels. The global dimension gives pupils the knowledge and skills they need in order to participate in their society and the world around them. As future citizens with a vote, young people need to be equipped with the skills that will help them to make decisions. Government policies affect individuals’ lives and the issues that people need to assess have an increasingly global dimension (Brownlie 2001).

The above summaries of GCE objectives each mention the role of action, ‘importance of taking action’, ‘gaining the knowledge, skills and understanding ... to become informed, active, responsible citizens’, and ‘giving pupils the knowledge and skills they need in order to participate in their society and the world around them’. Holden and Clough (1998, 18) argue that students who actively participate in their learning will become ‘action competent’: able to reflect critically upon their own values and draw upon generic skills to respond to key issues. Although the above GCE objectives assert that action is a desired outcome, the current GCE curriculum does not incorporate active participation as a method of instruction (Davies 2006, 6, 10, 11, 13). One method GCE does employ when teaching about other cultures and perspectives is correspondence programmes with school communities overseas. Brownlie (2001) argues that these experiences ‘offer opportunities for research and exchange of knowledge – [and] can bring global issues vividly to life’.

Another element of the objectives listed above is the role of citizenship. In each passage, identity as a British Citizen remains constant, and students are asked how they, as British citizens, perceive and respond to international relationships. Teaching global citizenship under a national citizenship curriculum incites a debate between ‘patriotism versus global identity’ and the apparent conflict of interest (Nelson 1991). Osler and Starkey (2003, 245) argue that there are other potential controversies in teaching citizenship and assert that citizenship is a ‘contested concept’ and consequently, ‘education for citizenship is potentially a site of debate and controversy’.

There are structural features that are likely to impede the effective implementation of citizenship education programmes. First, citizenship is contested. Secondly, it is a site of struggle. Thirdly, the reality for many living in Europe is that their status as non-citizens severely limits their capacity to participate (Osler and Starkey 2002, 143).

Expanding on the third objective, Osler and Starkey (2002, 144) suggest citizenship education programmes ‘need to take into account the wide range of experiences that students bring to their studies’. A discussion of other criticisms of GCE, is found in 2.5.2.

### **2.3.3 Global Citizenship + Education: Potential Practice**

To understand the global citizenship + education perspective, definitions of global citizenship must be considered. Oxfam describes a global citizen as someone who:

- (a) Is aware of the wider world and has a sense of their own role as a world citizen
- (b) Respects and values diversity
- (c) Has an understanding of how the world works economically, politically, socially, culturally, technologically and environmentally
- (d) Is outraged by social injustice
- (e) Participates in and contributes to the community at a range of levels from the local to the global
- (f) Is willing to act to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place
- (g) Takes responsibility for their actions (Oxfam 1997)

Oxfam’s definition contains the two basic principles that, Arneil (2007, 301) argues form the foundation of global citizenship: ‘social rights (in order to address the least well off) and shared fate (in order to draw the links between the north/south and east/west)’. Arneil (2007, 316) elaborates on the view of global citizenship as shared fate,

Global citizenship as shared fate means that the fate of any human being, even members of the most powerful nation in world, is deeply dependent on the fate of all others. Shared fate rather than shared values or membership is what ultimately makes us global citizens.

Osler, Vincent and Starkey offer an alternative to global citizenship, where social rights and shared fate concepts are both considered, and national and global identities exist without conflict. Osler, Vincent and Starkey challenge what they call the ‘narrow conceptions of global citizenship’ found in literature and propose ‘cosmopolitan citizenship’ as ‘a

reconceptualization of citizenship education that incorporates local, national and global perspectives' (Osler and Vincent 2002; Osler and Starkey 2003, 243-254; Osler and Starkey 2005; Osler and Starkey 2006, 445-446). Osler and Starkey (2002, 144) contend that although nation states were 'constructed on the basis of patriotism and nationalism they have evolved in many cases and citizens now may have multiple loyalties within and beyond the State'. 'Multiple loyalties' and diversity within society challenge the dynamics of citizenship education and gives heed to the need for a citizenship education that accounts for this development. Osler and Starkey (2003, 253) assert,

Education for cosmopolitan citizenship is about enabling learners to make connections between their immediate contexts and the national and global contexts. It is not an add-on but rather it encompasses citizenship learning as a whole. It implies a broader understanding of national identity. It also requires recognition that British identity, for example, may be experienced differently by different people. Cosmopolitan citizenship implies recognition of our common humanity and a sense of solidarity with others. .... The challenge is to accept shared responsibility for our common future and for solving our common problems. It implies dialogue and peer collaboration to address differences of opinion...

Under Osler and Starkey's (2002, 145) vision of education for cosmopolitan citizenship, citizens build on and develop their identity as local, national and global community members. Using their definition of cosmopolitan citizenship, individuals strengthen their national identity while developing a global identity without conflict. Osler and Starkey (2003, 247-248) claim that 'educated cosmopolitan citizens will be confident in their own identities and will work to achieve peace, human rights and democracy within the local community and at a global level'.

By separating GCE from the national citizenship education curriculum, the conflict of patriotism and global identity diminishes. Incorporating the idea of cosmopolitan citizenship, with its inclusion of social rights and shared fate concepts, and global + citizenship



education's emphasis on teaching skills, creates a more well-rounded model of GCE that avoids marginalizing students who hold multiple citizenship allegiances. For this research the combination of global citizenship + education, cosmopolitan citizenship, and global + citizenship education's attention to skills and action were used to test the Nobis Project programme. The goals of this amalgam model are discussed in 2.4 together with the claims of service-learning, and the implications for scholars are found in chapter seven (7.5.3). The previous sections define and provide an overview of the history and defining elements of service-learning and GCE. The next section examines the goals, reported benefits and commonalities of these two approaches.

## **2.4 Goals of Service-Learning and Global Citizenship Education**

### ***Claims of Service-Learning***

Literature on service-learning originates from both practitioners and academics.<sup>9</sup> There has been a surge of research on service-learning, including national and small scale studies, since 1990, with the majority of studies examining the impact of service-learning programmes on students (Alt and Medrich 1994; Melchior 1997; Shumer 1997; Astin and Sax 1998; Andersen 1998; Eyler and Giles 1999; Gray *et al.* 1999; Eyler *et al.* 1999). The research suggests that 'students learn more in experiential programs than classroom learning' (Shumer 1997, 29). The benefits from student involvement in service-learning programmes can be grouped into four categories: (a) 'community benefits', (b) 'institutional benefits',

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<sup>9</sup> For the purpose of this research only academic literature was considered, unless otherwise noted.

(c) ‘academic engagement’, and (d) ‘civic engagement’. The focus of the thesis is on the operationalization of civic engagement in service-learning programmes. Consequently, while categories (a), (b) and (c) are touched on briefly, category (d) is the primary focus of this section.

### ***Community Benefits***

The benefits to a community are determined by the services rendered to the partnering organisations. These benefits range from providing volunteer staffing, creating a pool of experienced volunteers from which to recruit future participants and leaders, and allowing organisations to play a role in educating and challenging student perceptions about current community issues (University of Minnesota n.d.). Service-learning programmes depend on finding community organisations that need volunteers and are willing to supervise volunteers. As discussed earlier, benefits depend on placement quality, including the nature of the service, the quality of supervision, and the degree of responsibility given to the student (Eyler and Giles 1999, 32-33) (7.4.1). Beane *et al.* (1981), Astin *et al.* (1999), and Eyler and Giles (1999, 147) report that there is limited evidence that service-learning may lead to future community involvement.

### ***Institutional Benefits***

Service-learning programmes have the potential to build partnerships between schools and community organisations. Researchers comment on the positive connections they have witnessed (Eyler and Giles 1999, xiv). Service-learning can promote interest in and relationships between students and community institutions. These connections, Waterman (1997, 5) argues, show students the value and impact of their involvement and often result in

students committing to future service and engaging in activities such as voting, political involvement and even political protest. Waterman (1997, 4) also asserts that student relationships with organisations can lead to career interest.

### ***Academic Engagement***

Service-learning aims to enhance the learning process and, as Kendall *et al.* (1986, 38) argue, allows students to comprehend problems in a more complex way and conceive a variety of solutions. Research shows positive student outcomes in attendance, academic achievement (Anderson *et al.* 1991; Klute 2002; Meyer and Billig 2003) and grades (Dean and Murdock 1992; Shumer 1994; Follman 1998; O'Bannon 1999), as well as motivation and attitudes towards school (Shumer 1994; Loesch-Griffin *et al.* 1995; Supik 1996; Follman 1998; Weiler *et al.* 1998; Melchior 1999; O'Bannon 1999; Melchior and Bailis 2002; Scales *et al.* 2002; Meyer and Billig 2003; Meyer *et al.* 2004). Researchers on academic achievement report positive results of service-learning on standardized test scores (Anderson *et al.* 1991; Klute 2002; Meyer and Billig 2003), and improvement in four academic disciplines: mathematics (Rolzinski 1990; Supik 1996; Akujobi and Simmons 1997; Melchior 1999; Morgan 2000), language arts (Rolzinski 1990; Supik 1996; Akujobi and Simmons 1997; Weiler *et al.* 1998; Morgan 2000), science (Melchior 1999; Melchior and Bailis 2002) and social studies (Melchior and Bailis 2002). Kendall *et al.*'s (1986, 38) research on service-learning's link to motivation claims that the combination of service and experiential education results in students who are 'more curious and motivated to learn'. Eyler and Giles (1999, 91) also emphasize learning from authentic tasks and argue that 'Genuine problems provide the most powerful need to know and are thus motivating for many students'.

The researchers above note positive changes in students' engagement at school. When students learn through experience the 'personal and intellectual are connected', resulting in students placing value and vested interest in their learning (Eyler and Giles 1999, 2). Eyler and Giles (1999, 2, 58, 68) report, given that students learn and apply information in real-world settings, students believe their learning is richer and that the quality of their learning is greater than traditional classroom learning.

#### **2.4.1 Civic Engagement**

Service-learning is a model of experiential education whose goal, amongst others, is to promote civic responsibility in students. The very nature of service allows students the opportunity to witness, first-hand, social problems in need of creative solutions. When curriculum is combined with service experiences that include organized reflection, it illuminates the connections between thoughts and feelings, school and life, self and others. The result, Eyler and Giles (1999, xiv) claim, is 'better learning and ... learning [that] leads to more effective community service'.

Ehrlich (2000, vi) defines 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'. These five categories – action, knowledge, skills, values, and commitment – appear repeatedly in other definitions of civic engagement. Dewey emphasizes the role of values and argues that education should go beyond developing students' propensity for civic engagement to also cultivate moral and ethical convictions (Simpson *et al.* 2005, 109). Dewey outlined the following aims:

- (a) attitudes that advance a personal practice of democratic values even when the legal backdrop and social environment are unsupportive
- (b) character that enables a person to choose democratic ideals over personal privilege and social esteem
- (c) habits that incline a person to promote democratic living in everyday activities and choices
- (d) faith that enables a person to adhere to democratic means of freedom, education and discussion over authoritarian and dictatorial means to achieve democratic goals (Simpson *et al.* 2005, 109).

Eyler and Giles (1999) describe the central aims of service-learning as leading students to an understanding and appreciation of civic engagement. This includes

[connecting] the personal and intellectual, to help students acquire knowledge that is useful in understanding the world, build critical thinking capacities, and perhaps lead to fundamental questions about learning about society and to a commitment to improve both. Service-learning aims to prepare students who are lifelong learners and participants in the world (Eyler and Giles 1999, 14).

Eyler and Giles (1999, 15) state that one of their concerns with learning in service-learning is ‘measuring personal attitudes and values, feelings of connectedness and commitment to the community and interpersonal skills. These contribute to personal growth, but they are also tied to further academic learning’. They offer the ‘Five Dimensions of Citizenship’ as a measurement tool used in their research of higher education service-learning programmes (Eyler and Giles 1999, 156). For the purpose of this research I also utilize this model, with an added sixth dimension – ‘empathy’, for measuring the impact of the Nobis Project. The dimensions are:

- (a) Values – *I ought to do,*
- (b) Knowledge – *I know what I ought to do and why,*
- (c) Skills – *I know how to do,*
- (d) Efficacy – *I can do, and it makes a difference,*
- (e) Commitment – *I must and will do,* and
- (f) Empathy – *I show understanding through change in behaviour.*

The five dimensions presented by Eyler and Giles mirror the categories presented by Ehrlich, with the replacement of the term ‘action’ with ‘efficacy’. There is a clear difference between action and efficacy. Action, as described by Dewey, encompasses ‘habits that incline a person to promote democratic living in everyday activities and choices’ (Simpson *et al.* 2005, 109). Efficacy, according to Eyler and Giles (1999), is a precursor to action. They argue that students who question whether their efforts make an impact will be less likely to take part in community action (Eyler and Giles 1999, 161). In addition to being a precursor, efficacy also incorporates a certain level of action and commitment, as illustrated in Dewey’s comment about ‘habit’. Using the term efficacy instead of Ehrlich’s (2000) description of action allows measurement of the conditions that may lead to action and commitment. For example, commitment is difficult to measure without a longitudinal study. Therefore, assuming that Eyler and Giles are correct that feelings of efficacy lead to a willingness to participate in social action, the measurement of efficacy can be used as an indicator of students who may later develop a commitment to service.

The sixth dimension, ‘empathy’, appears as a component to other civic engagement categories, such as values, skills and commitment (2.4.1.1, 2.4.1.3, 2.4.1.5). It can be argued that it does not need to be measured separately. However, seeing that this research determines whether the Nobis Project can replicate the claimed benefits of service-learning, and since the Nobis Project does not offer direct contact with service recipients, the ability for students to experience empathy without a tangible connection is of particular interest and was chosen to be measured independent of the other categories.

### ***Goals of Global Citizenship Education***

The goals of GCE share all of service-learning's civic engagement objectives. Brownlie (2001) and Ibrahim (2005, 178-179) support Oxfam's organisation of the goals of GCE into the following categories:

- (a) *knowledge and understanding* of the background to global problems (such as conceptual understanding of social justice and equity, peace/conflict, diversity, sustainable development and globalisation/interdependence);
- (b) *skills* (such as critical thinking, effective argumentation, cooperation/ conflict resolution, respect for people and thing and the ability to challenge injustice); and
- (c) *values and attitudes* (such as empathy, commitment to social justice and equity, value and respect for diversity, concern for the environment and sustainable development, a sense of identity and self-esteem and belief that people can make a difference) (Oxfam 2006, 4).

The objective for students to learn efficacy is found under skills, and commitment and empathy are described under values and attitudes. Davies (2006, 6) asserts that a 'drive to action' is an additional key element in learning global citizenship. For the purposes of measurement 'drive to action', discussed further in 2.4.1.5, best correlates with service-learning's civic engagement category of commitment. Table 2-1 illustrates the commonalities between GCE and service-learning's civic engagement objectives.

<b>Service-Learning</b>	<b>Global Citizenship Education</b>
Knowledge	Knowledge and Understanding
Skills	Skills
Values	Values and Attitudes
Efficacy	Within 'Skills'
Commitment	Drive to Action
Empathy	Within 'Values and Attitudes'

Table 2 –1: Service-Learning and GCE Civic Engagement Objectives

Each of the civic engagement objectives is discussed in turn.

#### **2.4.1.1 Values**

Research on service-learning and GCE argues that values taught through service-learning or GCE include ‘role and responsibility to society’ (Shumer 1997, 35; Eyler and Giles 1999, 158; Oxfam 2006, 2), ‘valuing social justice’ (Oxfam 1997, 15; Eyler and Giles 1999, 158), ‘political responsibility’ (Eyler and Giles 1999, 158), ‘increase in tolerance for diversity’ (Oxfam 1997, 15; Eyler and Giles 1999, 29), ‘care and concern for a common and shared life’ (Archambault 1964, 11-12; Oxfam 1997, 15), and ‘concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development’ (Oxfam 2006). Waterman (1997, 4) suggests, ‘from an educational perspective, the goal is to promote a reflective development of attitudes and values, not the forming of particular attitude or value contents’. Simpson *et al.* (2005, 103) counter, ‘Do we really think that being neutral on issues of respect, fairness, and freedom is well-advised if it is even possible, much less ethical?’ Dewey argued that education should foster a democratic culture that includes,

- (a) The will to cooperate with others,
- (b) The right of everyone to share in cultural and material resources,
- (c) The desirability of a just and humanitarian society,
- (d) The advantages of a common understanding, and
- (e) The importance of mutual compassion and benevolence (Simpson *et al.* 2005, 100-101).

It was these experiential learning priorities that paved the way for the service-learning model.

Eyler and Giles (1999, 157) argue that one recognized benefit of service-learning experiences and the first step in participatory citizenship is ‘Feeling a sense of social responsibility’.



Dewey argued that the goal of education is to develop ‘reflective, creative, responsible thought’ (Archambault 1964, xviii). Shumer (1997, 35) argues that the most important element students take from service-learning is discovering ‘how they fit in the world’. In service-learning programmes, first-hand experience in the community can influence how students define service, society and themselves by challenging previous assumptions through action and reflection (Eyler and Giles 1999, 17). The service dimension teaches students the responsibility and value of giving, and in turn, makes giving a part of how they define themselves (Eyler and Giles 1999, 157).

Participation in service-learning allows students to recognize areas in need of social change (Eyler and Giles 1999, 158). This awareness coupled with a motivation to continue service can lead to ‘active citizenship’ (Eyler and Giles 1999, 157). Eyler and Giles (1999, 158) contend,

The belief that one should be actively involved in community change also rests on a vision of the need for change. We found that service-learning affected students’ valuing of social justice and the need for political change, as well as their belief that it is important to have an impact on the political system.

Dewey asserted that ‘educational work, is social’, that students need to develop a worldview, beyond the personal, that takes into consideration the interest of others (Archambault 1964, 11-12). Traditional education encourages competition over collaboration and self-interest over selflessness. The acquisition of skills should not be the end goal, but rather how to use learned skills for the betterment of a ‘common and shared life’ (Archambault 1964, 11-12).

Eyler and Giles’ (1999, 29) comprehensive research of service-learning experiences found that ‘One of the most consistent outcomes of service-learning is in the reduction of negative

stereotypes and the increase in tolerance for diversity'. Wilson suggests that students who participate in political or social service become more open-minded than students who take part in other types of service (Alt and Medrich 1994). Dewey states that teachers have a twofold responsibility—promoting the growth of positive qualities, such as kindness, tolerance and respect, while discouraging the development of other characteristics, including fear, jealousy, hatred, and distrust (Simpson *et al.* 2005, 103). With this charge, service-learning enables educators to provide real and intimate experiences for students to test and define their values.

Values and attitudes, as defined by GCE curriculum, include 'commitment to social justice and equity', 'respect for diversity', and 'a sense of common humanity, needs and rights' (Oxfam 1997, 15). Oxfam argues that whilst knowledge and skills elements are important, 'the values and attitudes of young people will shape the kind of world in which we will live' (Oxfam 1997, 13). Ibrahim (2005, 181) states, 'By putting values on the agenda, teachers and young people are provided with an opportunity to examine their own values and attitudes as part of the process of teaching and learning'. Oxfam outlines six components of 'values and attitudes': a 'sense of identity and self-esteem', 'empathy', 'commitment to social justice', 'value and respect for diversity', 'concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development', and 'belief that people can make a difference'. Each of these require students to be committed to carrying out the lessons learned under other categories of civic engagement. Unlike the other categories, where factual information or participatory learning teaches a skill, this category involves student commitment. Oxfam (2006, 2) summarizes,

Education for Global Citizenship encourages children and young people to explore, develop and express their own values and opinions, whilst listening to and respecting other people's points of view. This is an important step towards children and young

people making informed choices as to how they exercise their own rights and their responsibilities to others.

### *Values Summary*

The commonalities of service-learning and GCE's objectives are evident. Both share the goal of teaching students about their 'role and responsibility to society', 'valuing social justice', 'increase in tolerance for diversity', and 'care and concern for a common and shared life'.

There are two areas where service-learning and GCE differ. Service-learning calls for students to 'identify a need for political change' (Eyler and Giles 1999, 158), which is not included in GCE stated values. GCE does mention the need to teach students about the political implications of actions under the category of knowledge (Brownlie 2001) (2.4.1.2).

The other element, 'concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development' (Oxfam 2006), only appears as a GCE objective. This value is too narrow in scope for the practice of service-learning, which welcomes a variety of service projects, not just environmental projects. This difference points out one way that service-learning and GCE would not be ideally compatible. A service-learning programme could focus on a project that involved the environment and sustainable development, but meeting this objective would be limited to classes that opted to select this type of focus.

Another discovery to highlight from this section is the inclusion in Oxfam's definition of values and attitudes of three other civic engagement categories: empathy, efficacy, and commitment. This inclusion confirms that GCE shares all six of the service-learning civic engagement goals (table 2-1).

#### **2.4.1.2 Knowledge**

As indicated by its name, service-learning combines learning and service (2.1). The category of ‘knowledge’ describes both the increase in academic learning and the transformation of information to understanding by demonstrating an ability to apply knowledge to social problems (Eyler and Giles 1999, 159). Bloom defines six levels of learning as:

- (1) [Acquisition of] Knowledge: observation and recall of information, knowledge of dates, events, places, knowledge of major ideas, mastery of subject matter
- (2) Comprehension: understanding information, grasp meaning, translate knowledge into new context, interpret facts, compare, contrast, order, group, infer causes, predict consequences
- (3) Application: use information, use methods, concepts, theories in new situations, solve problems using required skills or knowledge
- (4) Analysis: seeing patterns, organization of parts, recognition of hidden meanings, identification of components
- (5) Synthesis: use old ideas to create new ones, generalize from given facts, relate knowledge from several areas, predict, draw conclusions
- (6) Evaluation: compare and discriminate between ideas, assess value of theories, presentations, make choices based on reasoned argument, verify value of evidence, recognize subjectivity (Bloom 1984).

Bloom’s definition of levels of learning was selected as the measurement tool for this research because it provides a scale by which to measure students’ use of knowledge. Seeing that Bloom’s ‘application’ category seeks to measure the ability to apply skills, for this research ‘application’ was measured under the civic engagement category ‘skills’ (2.4.1.3).

Other researchers support various aspects of this scale (Kendall *et al.* 1986, 38). Kendall *et al.* (1986, 38) argue that service-learning programmes that follow good practice methods produce students that ‘Understand problems in a more complex way and can imagine alternative solutions’. As the means to measure synthesis of knowledge, Kendall *et al.*’s claim is tested.

Eyler and Giles argue that when students display an ability to imagine alternative solutions, they demonstrate a level of knowledge that prepares them to actively contribute to society (1999, 159). Eyler and Giles (1999, 160) argue,

Even students with a sophisticated understanding of social issues and public policy options may be unaware of how to proceed to make a difference. One of the particular strengths of service-learning is in helping students acquire practical experience for community action.

Eyler and Giles (1999, 159) continue, ‘It is not enough to feel committed to community. Students also need the expertise and cognitive capacity to make intelligent decisions about what needs to be done’. By measuring students’ ability to imagine alternative solutions, insight on student synthesis and possibly evaluation of knowledge can be determined, the final steps of Bloom’s levels of learning.

GCE describes the category of knowledge and understanding in terms of specific areas of knowledge. Oxfam (2006, 4) calls for student understanding and knowledge in the following areas: ‘social justice and equity’, ‘diversity’, ‘globalisation and interdependence’, ‘sustainable development’, and ‘peace and conflict’. Each of these elements is discussed in turn.

### ***Social Justice***

To foster knowledge and understanding of global problems the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) recommends that students ‘be taught about the world as a global community and the political implications of this and the role of the European Union, the Commonwealth and the United Nations’ (Brownlie 2001). This foundation, in conjunction with an introduction to rights documents, such as the Universal Declaration of

Human Rights or the Convention on the Rights of the Child, teaches the fundamentals of ‘social justice and equity’ while creating what Ibrahim (2005, 181) calls a key element of GCE, ‘developing learners as politically literate global citizens with understanding of how they can influence political processes of decision-making at different levels’.

Wringe (1999, 6) argues that social justice means participating in ethical decision-making that does not ‘secure the better life of some at the expense of a much worse life for others’. For Wringe the inclusion of social justice as a key element of global citizenship confirms a drive to action that goes beyond offering international service that perpetuates a situation and instead requires individuals to understand and act on the underlying political, cultural and economic factors that led to the situation (Davies 2006, 7). See 2.4.1.5 for further discussion on drive to action.

### ***Diversity***

To make informed decisions Oxfam (2006, 5) recommends teaching for an understanding of diversity, including but not limited to racial, ethnic, religious, gender or sexuality differences. Nussbaum (2002, 292) reminds us that many nations have opportunities to learn and interact with diverse populations within national borders. Nussbaum (2002, 290) calls for students to use the local learning opportunities when developing ‘the ability to think as a citizen of the whole world, not just some local region or group; and ... the ability to imagine what it would be like to be in the position of someone very different from oneself’. According to Nussbaum’s recommendation, an understanding of a national diversity will aid in students’ ability to understand differences both within a nation and internationally.

### ***Globalisation and Interdependence***

Griffiths (1998) argues that what primarily ties humanity together is not cultural, national, political, civil, social or economic, but ethical. This perspective becomes increasingly relevant as globalisation increases, and national interdependence becomes more apparent. Nussbaum (2002, 292) argues, 'As citizens we are also increasingly called upon to understand how issues such as agriculture, human rights, ecology, even business and industry, are generating discussions that bring people together from many different nations'. When searching for solutions to global problems, the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) asserts we are more likely to find solutions when we genuinely understand 'our mutual interdependence, ... of that between humans and the natural world' (DfES *et al.* 2005, 5). Davies (2006, 9) concurs with the potential benefits of teaching interdependence in GCE and affirms the value of the now familiar slogan 'act local, think global'. Davies (2006, 9) argues, 'Because of the mesh of international linkages, the idea is that a local action (for example on pollution or choices that contribute to global warming) could have a wider impact'.

### ***Sustainable Development***

Educating for sustainable development works hand-in-hand with teaching about interdependence. Educating for sustainability, according to Pigozzi (2006, 3), 'is about educating global citizens who can act both locally and globally'. UNESCO's International Implementation Scheme for the Decade (quoted in Pigozzi 2006, 3) identifies four key values that underpin sustainable development and identifies education as a central in promoting such values:

respect for the dignity and human rights of all people throughout the world and a commitment to social and economic justice for all; respect for the human rights of future generations and a commitment to intergenerational responsibility; respect and care for the greater community of life in all its diversity which involves the protection and restoration of the Earth's ecosystems; respect for cultural diversity and a commitment to build locally and globally a culture of tolerance, non-violence and peace.

### ***Peace and Conflict***

The final component Oxfam outlines under knowledge and understanding is peace and conflict. This component encompasses understanding the consequences of actions, causes and impact of conflict, conflict resolution skill building, conditions conducive to peace, and the relationship between peace and conflict (Oxfam 2006, 5). Service-learning supports the inclusion of conflict resolution as part of interpersonal skills (Eyler and Giles 1999, 114-115), but does not focus on the cause or impact of international conflicts.

### ***Knowledge Summary***

Although GCE and service-learning share the category of knowledge, each approaches the category differently. For service-learning the emphasis is on building critical thinking, decision-making, and interpersonal skills to prepare students to apply knowledge to social problems. For GCE the focus includes the skills listed above and adds specific areas of knowledge that relate to global awareness, such as holding governments accountable, understanding the global economy, and understanding the causes of global conflicts (L. Davies 2008, pers. comm.). These differences, however, are not mutually exclusive.



#### **2.4.1.3 Skills**

The experiential nature of service-learning provides students with concrete opportunities to learn new skills (Payne 2000, 11-12). Eyler and Giles (1999, 41) argue that, ‘One of the greatest benefits of service-learning is that students have the opportunity to learn using arrangements that are more consistent with the learning they will be doing throughout their adulthood in the workplace and community’. The skills used and acquired from service-learning depend on the nature of the experience. Interpersonal skills are one of the most frequent skills students use (Eyler and Giles, 1997, 70-71). This often takes the form of working as a team and building greater confidence working with adults (Eyler and Giles 1999, 163).

Waterman suggests that service-learning experiences may aid high school and college students in choosing a career path (Waterman 1997, 4). Service-learning exposes students to diverse work places and offers opportunities for students to recognize their strengths and interests. For some students this exposure may incite, confirm or disprove decisions about career goals, especially careers in social service (Waterman 1997, 4).

Various researchers and curriculum contributors discuss the role of skills in GCE (Oxfam 1997, 14– 15; DfES *et al.* 2005, 5; Davies 2006). Ibrahim (2005, 178) argues that ‘The primary response to the impact of globalisation on education policies in the UK has been the development of relevant skills and competences for a global economy’. It is important, according to Ibrahim (2005, 191), for students to:

develop skills of communication, critical reflection and active participation in the context of understanding global structures and processes and human rights and responsibilities. This is more likely to facilitate understanding of the complexity of global issues, promote dialogue and discussion between and within different groups and allow opportunities for reflection on values.

The Oxfam curriculum argues that students should develop skills to ‘assess viewpoints and information in an openminded and critical way’ and ‘select appropriate action for change’ (Oxfam 1997, 14– 15). The DfES maintains that the global dimension of citizenship education ‘contributes to thinking skills by encouraging pupils to analyse, evaluate, question assumptions; and creatively identify ways to achieve positive change’ (DfES *et al.* 2005, 5). In addition to the critical thinking skills, Oxfam, argues that GCE can promote students’ ‘ability to argue effectively’, ‘ability to challenge injustice and inequalities’, build ‘respect for people, and things’ and develop skills for ‘cooperation and conflict resolution’ (Oxfam 1997).

The difference between GCE’s and service-learning’s inclusion of skills is determined by the difference in teaching approach. GCE is classroom based and service-learning is site specific. GCE lists desired skills and aims to teach interpersonal skills. Whereas service-learning offers students concrete opportunities to learn a variety of new skills, including but not limited to interpersonal skills. Considering that the Nobis Project does not include a site-specific experience, it is likely that participants will learn skills more commonly associated with GCE.

#### **2.4.1.4 Efficacy**

This section explores researchers' claim that the quality of learning in service-learning programmes depends on the level of student ownership (Shumer 1997, 32). This section also discusses how service-learning programmes create higher levels of empowerment when students believe their actions effect change (Waterman 1997, 4-5).

#### ***Student Ownership***

Numerous researchers refer to the role student ownership plays in creating a sense of efficacy for students. Payne (2000, 11-12) defines a model service-learning programme as providing 'concrete opportunities for youth to test new roles in an environment that encourages risk-taking and rewards competence'. Shumer (1997, 32) reports that the quality of learning is dependent on the level of responsibility given to the student. Serow (1997, 17) found that students were drawn to projects by their 'desire to help others deal with personal difficulties of some type, and the desire to be personally efficacious in so doing'. Waterman (1997, 70-71) argues that,

Students who felt they made a contribution or who found their service project interesting reported that their service-learning experience was of higher quality than regular classes, stating that they learned more and were more intellectually stimulated. Additionally, these students felt their experience contributed to learning subject-matter, personal growth, social commitment, and interpersonal skills.

Each of these researchers recognizes student ownership as a contributing factor in student identification of a high quality or model programming. The use of student ownership reflects service-learning's roots in experiential learning where learner-constructed activity is primary (2.2.1).

Furco's (2002, 47-48) research suggests that efficacy is linked to the service component of service-learning and is not exclusive to service-learning. Furco (2002, 47-48) analysed whether service-learning is really better than community service. He found that all three forms of service he researched, community service, service-learning, and service-based internship, contributed to students' feelings of empowerment and created a sense of ownership (Furco 2002, 47-48). These themes did not emerge in the 'no service' classes studied (Furco 2002, 47-48).

### ***Ability to Effect Change***

As Dewey asserts, 'Not knowledge or information, but self-realization, is the goal' (Dewey 1990, 187). This category explores the claim that efficacy and increased self-worth is likely to occur in service-learning experiences (Waterman 1997, 4-5; Shumer 1997, 29). '*Self-efficacy* refers to the perception that one has the ability to bring about desired outcomes' (Bandura 1977) (cited in Waterman 1997, 4-5). Efficacy, in service-learning experiences, results from students being able to see first-hand the impact of their contributions in a way that is generally not available from classroom learning (Waterman 1997, 4-5). Shumer (1997, 35) asserts that one of the most important lessons students learn from service-learning is 'how they ... connect with others to accomplish things on a social setting'. Waterman (1997, 4-5) adds 'higher levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem will only result if the students experience themselves as making useful contributions to projects they believe are worth their efforts'. Students' perceptions that they are making useful contributions supports the experiential-education tradition of providing students with relevant and meaningful activity. The action of providing service is seen as a valuable contribution; however, placement quality can vary and tasks that are not necessarily viewed as useful may be assigned. For instance, answering the

phones or completing administrative work, though integral to an organisation's operations, does not necessarily compute as meaningful work to a student. For the Nobis Project, site work is not a component, and teachers and students influence the level of student involvement and the type of work selected.

Eyler and Giles (1999, 161) warn:

Being effective requires knowledge and skills, and it depends on the willingness to take the risk of involvement, which depends on personal self-confidence. People who do not believe that their skills will make a difference are less likely to participate in community action.

In the Nobis Project, the teacher's role as facilitator has a great impact on creating a safe environment for learning where risk taking and student ownership is encouraged (3.5.2).

For GCE, Oxfam (2006, 4) mentions efficacy as an objective, briefly, under the category of values and attitudes, stating that the aim is to provide students with 'a sense of identity and self-esteem and belief that people can make a difference'. The absence of action in GCE programmes limits opportunities for students to learn efficacy.

#### **2.4.1.5 Commitment**

Researchers define the category of commitment as the 'creation of a desire to continue work' (Eyler and Giles 1999, 132). Eyler and Giles (1999, 162-163) assert that,

The ultimate test for the impact of service-learning on citizenship is behavior. ... For some, their experience creates a real urgency to do something about social justice...Service-learning has the capacity to develop students who feel connected to community and have the capacity to make a difference; perhaps most important it helps students incorporate community involvement into their sense of self.

Eyler and Giles (1999, 132) argue that the indicator of effective service-learning is the movement of 'students beyond charity to active, committed citizenship'. Measuring commitment requires longitudinal studies, which are difficult to implement. For this study, student identification of an interest to continue or act again in the future is considered.

Within GCE, the category of commitment is encapsulated by Oxfam's objective to impart values and attitudes, and Davies' call for a 'drive to action'. Numerous sources call for the preparation, encouragement, participation in and the learning from 'action'. The QCA (1999, 15) expects students, by the end of key stage 4, to know about 'opportunities for individuals and voluntary groups to bring about social change, locally, nationally, in Europe and internationally'. Ibrahim (2005, 184) interprets this requirement as an 'agenda to develop politically literate citizens who understand and are willing to engage in action for change at all levels'. Brownlie (2001) advocates that students respond to the global dimension of citizenship education in 'active and responsible ways'. The Oxfam (2006, 6-7) curriculum also links understanding of global issues with action for change through the development of specific skills and commitment to values.

In Davies' (2006) paper, 'Global Citizenship: Abstraction or Framework for Action', she examines GCE's drive to action. She identifies two key components, 'social justice, rights and engagement with culture and with cultural conflict' and argues that

These imply action in that if one perceives injustice and/or abuse of rights, one is more likely to seek ways at least to publicise these; similarly, if one learns about the links between conflict and interpretations of culture, one is less likely to accept passively the imperatives of unquestioning adherence to cultural traditions (Davies 2006, 6-7).

Davies (2006, 11) also argues that the elements, ‘knowledge and understanding’, ‘skills’ and ‘values and attitudes’ are integrally linked and best learned through experience in which the student learns first-hand how the components work with one another.

For global citizenship education to have a real impact, it would need to be set within a learning environment which not only taught knowledge and skills, which not only gave some experience of participating as a citizen of the school, but which enabled comfort with uncertainty and fluidity (Davies 2006, 18).

Davies (2006, 17) acknowledges the limitations of providing all students with this type of experience. Davies (2006, 17) argues that ‘It is possible that the charitable, welfare side of active citizenship, fund-raising for poor countries, does reach more pupils than representative democracy in the school’. The DfID (2003) does recommend community service in the citizenship guidelines. While creating opportunities for international service is typically limited to travelling abroad, GCE practitioners use other ways to build international links. These include exchange schemes that focus on awareness or parallel projects in which a UK school pairs with an international school to work on a common project (L. Davies 2008, pers. comm.).

Yates and Youniss (1999) argue that for community service or charitable work to attain the goals of citizenship education, the experience must provide students with the knowledge and skills to make them confident that they can a difference, which goes beyond international awareness. Yates and Youniss are describing the principles of service-learning: linking service experience to academic learning. However for global citizenship goals, as discussed in 2.4, community service rarely involves international recipients, and as Davies (2006, 18) argues, international service ‘would still seem to be an important breeding ground for that sense of efficacy which is crucial to active global citizenship’. Davies (2006, 18) suggests

that service work with ‘refugees, asylum seekers or with disadvantaged ethnic minority groups, would immediately provide a global dimension to thinking about social structures’. The Internet also creates new opportunities for international service that does not involve travel. Davies (2006, 14) argues that ‘the young are actually much more global in outlook than their elders; this is reflected particularly in developing countries where young people are making use of global knowledge exchange [through the Internet] in the way their parents or teachers lack confidence’.

Because this research examines an experiential learning programme that claims to teach global citizenship, the role of ‘action’ in GCE is of particular interest. The data suggests that GCE curriculums’ inclusion of action vary in aims and are limited in practice, specifically actions that serve international recipients in ways that impart both knowledge and a sense of empowerment for students. This thesis argues that the Nobis Project bridges the two fields of service-learning and GCE in order to expand the definition of service-learning and offer GCE a method for incorporating an action into the curriculum that teaches knowledge, skills and efficacy.

In summary, the difference between service-learning and GCE’s definition of commitment relates to the role of action in each approach. For service-learning, action is incorporated in the programme, and commitment exists when students seek and participate in new service actions. For GCE, action is not incorporated in the programme, so the ‘drive to action’ refers to how learning from GCE content drives students to participate in a service action. Both approaches hope to impart a desire to continually participate in service.



#### **2.4.1.6 Empathy**

Meek defines empathy as ‘the capacity to put oneself in the place of another person to understand his feelings, attitudes, and viewpoint’ (Meek 1957, 107). In practice, according to Levine, empathy is a combination of social skills that include ‘high-levels of listening, perspective-taking, decision-making, and helping others’ (Education World n.d.). Sutherland (1986, 143) argues ‘empathy seems pre eminently an emotion which should be educated if such education is possible’.

For nearly two hundred and fifty years social theorists have contemplated the nature of the individual’s reaction to the experiences of another: Smith (1759) identified a differentiation between ‘instinctive sympathy (or empathy), which he described as a quick, involuntary, seemingly emotional reaction to the experiences of others, and intellectualized sympathy, or the ability to recognize the emotional experiences of others without any vicarious experiencing of that state’ (Davis 1980, 3). Almost one hundred years later, Spencer (1870) similarly identified the cognitive/emotional separation of empathy. Davis argues that contemporary research in empathy needs to integrate the cognitive and affective components of empathy, as they work as ‘an interdependent system in which each influences the other, and which never can be fully understood as long as research efforts concentrate on one aspect to the relative exclusion of the other’ (Davis 1980, 3). Davis calls for the research of empathy to employ assessment of ‘1) the cognitive, perspective-taking capabilities or tendencies of the individual, and 2) the emotional reactivity of such individuals’ (Davis 1980, 3). In this research both the cognitive and affective elements of empathy are considered.

Eyler and Giles (1999, 84) acknowledge the role of empathy in service-learning experiences stating that, 'Intellect cannot be separated from the heart; just as true understanding is linked to action, learning needs to be 'wholehearted', tying feeling to intellect'. Fitch (2004, 110) claims that service-learning allows students to learn empathetic behaviours, such as adaptation, through 'accommodating one's perspective'. Fitch (2004, 110) also asserts that 'empathy is a hallmark' of behavioural changes. I argue that there are two flaws to Fitch's claim. First, behavioural changes do not necessarily equate with empathy. Second, Fitch's argument does not clarify whether positive or negative changes are expected as a result of experiencing empathy. To clarify the areas lacking in Fitch's argument, this research measures empathetic behavioural changes.

Eyler and Giles' (1999, 15) research shows that students' first strong interest in service-learning projects occurs when they connect on a personal level with someone whose experiences differ dramatically from their own. The Nobis Project does not offer this opportunity and this research aims to test whether Nobis Project participants experience empathy through a sense of connection or change in behaviour without direct contact with service recipients.

In GCE, as argued by Brownlie (2001),

The global dimension emphasises the moral imperative to understand and empathise with fellow human beings. It provides young people with a sound foundation on which to base and build their value system. It helps them to make decisions and take action – based on knowledge of the world – which respect the nature of the world we live in and the rights and dignity of others in an interdependent world.

In this statement, the category of empathy is tied to values and a drive to action. Under service-learning, discussion on empathy appears under values—expressing an increasing tolerance for diversity and care and concern for a common and shared life; skills—interpersonal skills; and commitment—desire to continue work. As mentioned earlier, empathy appears as a component of other civic engagement categories, and it can be argued that it does not need to be measured separately. Because the Nobis Project design does not require students to have direct contact with service recipients, the ability for students to experience empathy is of particular interest and is tested separately from other criteria.

#### **2.4.1.7 Summary**

The six dimensions of citizenship explored above are shared goals of both service-learning and GCE. This section summarizes the commonalities and differences between the two fields under each of the citizenship dimensions.

Two of the citizenship dimensions, values and empathy, are defined similarly by both service-learning and GCE. For the other dimensions of citizenships, differences between service-learning and GCE are evident. For the category of knowledge, service-learning emphasizes building critical thinking and decision-making skills to prepare students to apply knowledge to social problems. For GCE the focus is on specific areas of knowledge that relate to global awareness.

The objective to teach skills occurs through the experiential nature of service-learning programmes, which provide students with tangible opportunities to use and learn new skills

(Eyler and Giles 1999, 41; Payne 2000, 11-12), frequently interpersonal skills (Eyler and Giles 1997, 70-71). GCE research supports the value of teaching interpersonal skills, such as cooperation and conflict resolution, and also lists other desirable skills, including critical thinking, ability to argue effectively, ability to challenge injustice and inequalities, and build respect for people, and things (Davies 2006, 11).

Efficacy in service-learning programmes, according to researchers, corresponds with the level of ownership and responsibility given to students. The use of student ownership supports service-learning's roots in experiential learning where learner-constructed activity is primary. GCE research mentions efficacy, briefly, under the category of values and attitudes, stating the aim of providing students with an identity as someone who can make a difference (Oxfam 2006, 4). It is unclear how students learn efficacy from GCE without an experiential curriculum.

It is argued that effective service-learning leads to committed citizenship (Eyler and Giles 1999, 132). Service-learning empowers students to respond to social injustices (Eyler and Giles 1999, 132). For GCE, the category of commitment is considered under 'drive to action'. GCE curriculums have not yet found a way to include action, specifically service to international recipients. Davies (2006, 6, 10, 11, 13) argues that the absence of implementation, or action, in GCE limits its ability to teach students, first-hand, the principles it advocates. She adds that finding a whole school approach is critical (Davies 2006, 17). This desire to apply a whole school approach is also evident in some of the 7400 UNESCO Associated Schools around the global who are committed to UNESCO principles of peace,

democracy, human rights and sustainable development (Davies *et al.*, 2002). Davies *et al.* (2002), in their report of 50 years of ASPnet schools identify variation in what schools could accomplish, and schools' interpretations of global citizenship. This variation also supports the need to establish a method for widespread implementation.

The next section discusses the criticisms of service-learning and GCE.

## **2.5 Criticisms of Service-Learning and Global Citizenship Education**

Criticisms of service-learning and GCE, discussed in turn, appear in two contexts, theory and practice.

### **2.5.1 Criticisms of Service-Learning**

Limited discussion of either the theory or practice of service-learning exist. The limited quantity of research and identification of areas in need of research are addressed in the two sections below.

#### ***Theory***

Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 23) argue that there is limited discussion of service-learning theory because researchers have neglected to study or account for theory, including researchers' objectives and the role of context. Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 23) report that service-learning research has recently come under criticism for 'not being grounded sufficiently in theory and for lacking precision in specification and measurement'. They

argue that ‘Service-learning research should be built on a strong foundation of theory, values discussion, and concern for context’ (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 23). Bringle (2003) also argues that to advance service-learning research a stronger theoretical foundation is necessary. Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 32-33) add, ‘Without this foundation, any empirical work is by its nature ad hoc and incoherent. For example, without a theory of student learning, how can we investigate the role of service-learning in that process?’ The multi-layered facets of service-learning require a multitude of theories. For example,

the theory that explains service-learning’s contribution to student understanding of course content will not be the theory necessary to explain what motivates student civic engagement, or the theory necessary to explain enhanced student appreciation of multiculturalism or ethnic diversity (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 32-33).

Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 32) argue that specialized theoreticians dedicated to developing this theoretical foundation are needed to amend this deficiency. ‘These theories will provide insights into why service-learning works and not just whether the presence of service-learning is statistically significant’ (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 33).

Accounting for researcher’s objectives and understanding context are other areas Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 26, 33-34) argue is lacking in service-learning research. Researchers value service-learning pedagogy for different reasons, such as its ability to teach content experientially or its ability to promote civic engagement (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 33-34). Occasionally these goals are in conflict with one another (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 33-34). For example, if research focused on how content influences the service-learning process, rather than the service-learning experience’s capacity to teach civic engagement, the results of the study may not clearly identify where students’ learning derived, from the content or the service. In such instances, research is compromised. Ziegert and McGoldrick

(2004, 34) recommend being ‘up front about goals and values in the first place, and then ask what difference it makes rather than to omit a discussion of values’. They continue, ‘Advocating a role for values in analysis is not suggesting that research is subjective. Instead we are arguing that as researchers we should discuss our goals and our reasons for selecting particular goals’ (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 34). It is arguable that researchers do not always need a rationale for their goals, and that there is value in researchers being open to their data analysis to reveal information or insight beyond an originally stated goal. However, without a clear discussion on the intent of the research it can be difficult to determine the applicable situations the research can be applied. For this research a discussion of stated goals (1.2) and the rationale for such goals (1.3) are outlined in chapter one.

Eyler (2002) claims that another inherent problem in service-learning research is selectivity-biases. These occur, according to Eyler (2002), ‘when research does not control for the possibility that those who are more likely to be benefited through service-learning practices are indeed the individuals who choose such experiences’. Control groups or long-term evaluations of learning are ways to counter selectivity-biases (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 25).

Hecht’s (2003) work focuses on the integral role of context in understanding service-learning outcomes. Hecht (2003) argues that since student learning occurs as a result of an experiential experience, researchers should account for the context of learning, including site specifics, student and teacher backgrounds, course content, scheduling, reflection practices and planning. Serow (1997, 22) supports this argument: ‘Service-learning tends to be flexible with respect to goals and objectives; what one gains from the experience may depend less on

an instructor's preconceptions about good and appropriate knowledge than on the actions and interactions in which the learner engages'. The diversity of potential experiences creates dynamic and difficult conditions for research.

Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 34) conclude their argument for the research deficiencies of service-learning stating, 'Failure to include any one of these components, theories, values, or contexts will result in an imprecise and incomplete understanding of service-learning'. While Ziegert and McGoldrick, Eyler, Hecht, and Serow present a strong case for the failings of current research on service-learning, they maintain that more and better-focused research is necessary. The methodological considerations for this research, with consideration to the above criticisms, are reviewed in chapter four (4.5).

### ***Practice***

Eby (1998) acknowledges the limited publication of criticisms of the practice of service-learning. He states, 'Unfortunately these voices [of criticism] are often informal and sporadic. Much of the discussion about service-learning is carried on by advocates'. Eby (1998) offers a broad analysis of the faults and limitations of the practice and research of service-learning. He starts by arguing that most published research on service-learning is conducted by academics who focus on the learning side of service-learning, 'One of the challenges facing service-learning is to bring to the service end of the service-learning equation the same level of rigor, expertise, and critical analysis that has been applied to learning'. Eby (1998) identifies four deficiencies in service learning: the 'variety of stakeholders'; its failure to 'address real community problems'; its diversion of 'effort from social policy reform to



volunteerism’ and; the influence of ‘logistical constraints’ on programme design. Each is described below.

The first area of research on good practice of service-learning that has been overlooked is attention to the variety of stakeholders in service-learning programmes. These stakeholders include ‘students, faculty, educational institutions, service recipients, community agencies, and communities’ (Eby 1998). Participants in the service-learning process bring their own agendas and interests, which can exist at the expense of others (Eby 1998). Eby (1998) asserts that,

Often service-learning is organized to respond to the needs of an academic institution which sponsors it, the needs of students, the needs of an instructor, or the needs of a course. The needs of the agency and the community often come last. There are other forces which dilute both the motivation and the performance of service ... Colleges and universities sometimes use service-learning as a public relations device to enhance their reputations in their communities ... Agencies use service-learning to get free labor and to gain prestige.

Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 33-34) also express concern over the goals and values of stakeholders. They assert that teachers’ goals and values, for example ‘will affect how service-learning is incorporated into a classroom setting, which community partners are chosen, and a host of other issues that will directly impact the outcomes of the service-learning experience’.

The second criticism of service-learning, according to Eby (1998), is the claim that ‘it does not address real community problems, ... because it teaches students inadequate understandings of service and social issues’. There are four aspects to this argument: ‘limits due to duration’, ‘blaming the victim’, ‘objectification over compassion’, and ‘needs as deficiencies’. Each is described in turn.

The first aspect to Eby's claim concerns the effects of the duration of service work. Philipsen (2003, 236) argues, 'Service learning classes may not last long enough to lead students to question deeply ingrained beliefs and stereotypes; instead such classes may occasionally reinforce them'. Eyler and Giles' (1999, 29) research reports opposite findings, they found a reduction in stereotyping by students, even in service-learning experiences of limited duration and without much opportunity for reflection (6.2.3). The second aspect to Eby's claim is the tendency for students to blame the victim. Hironimus-Wendt and Lovell-Troy (1999, 367) argue that 'unless properly trained, students engaged in service learning may fall into the trap of blaming the victim'. This may occur when students are not provided with adequate information or reflection opportunities specific to their placement.

Hironimus-Wendt and Lovell-Troy (1999, 367) offer a third perspective to Eby's argument. They add that some students cannot imagine having life circumstances similar to those less fortunate. 'The result of such a conception, therefore, is a continued objectification of the other, rather than a compassionate understanding' (Hironimus-Wendt and Lovell-Troy 1999, 367). Again, proper and substantial training and reflection can aid in preventing the objectification of recipients.

Eby (1998) offers the fourth view, arguing that poor service-learning programmes teach students to define needs as deficiencies, which allows students 'to separate themselves from the problems they encounter'. To deem a need as a deficiency that must be filled by an outside person 'exaggerates the importance of the person who serves, demeans the person served and ignores resources in the community such as peers, families and community leaders. It fails to recognize the political, social and economic factors which create the need'

(Eby 1998). Eby (1998) also warns that there is a ‘danger of “using” individuals and communities in inappropriate ways as laboratories or as subjects for experiment and practice’. As stated above, each of the above potentially negative outcomes of service-learning programmes can be influenced by the use of reflection and proper training. These criticisms emphasize the important role of reflection and training on the service-learning experience.

The third criticism is whether service-learning diverts effort from social policy reform to volunteerism (Eby 1998). Eby (1998) claims that

The existence of a ready source of well motivated and generally competent service-learning volunteers encourages agencies to divert energies to meet the needs and interests of the volunteers sometimes at the expense of their own mission. Time spent catering to needs of volunteers and participating in their learning robs time from agency work. Time required to develop and run programs designed for short-term, untrained volunteers from outside the community detracts from time needed to involve community residents in working at community issues ... The short term nature of service-learning almost forces it to rely on settings which provide opportunity for direct service.

To combat this tendency Eby (1998) recommends that service-learning programmes consult with community agencies ‘to design programs which have long term structural impacts’.

The fourth criticism stems from the nature of service-learning design where logistical constraints influence programme design (Eby 1998). At the secondary school level, schedule mandates and available transportation present obstacles. Safety and liability considerations affect what tasks students can undertake. The time demands on the school, and faculty in particular, to solicit and develop community partnerships can be taxing. These logistical burdens can undermine the quality of the service. The short-term relationships that students form with agencies and service recipients can also negatively affect students’ learning when,

for example, service experiences affirm ethnocentrism or racism (Eby 1998). Research on high quality programmes suggests that this can be reduced with proper use of reflection (Eyler and Giles 1999, 101).

Eby's (1998) recommendations for improved practice include involving community leaders and residents who demonstrate a commitment to community development and structural change. He calls for service-learning instructors to 'carefully examine what students learn about social problems and social structure' and for researchers to 'examine the subtle effects of service on communities' (Eby 1998). Eby (1998) asserts that principles of good practice must be followed and that the learning agenda must include social structural issues. Eby (1998) concludes his recommendations by emphasizing the importance of broadening the scope of service-learning programmes to include advocacy and community development. It is clear from the limited scholarly discussion on criticisms of service-learning that modification and more research is needed, yet his criticisms are not innate flaws. The emphasis on following good practice, including ample reflection, is evident in the Nobis Project design (3.5.5).

## **2.5.2 Criticisms of Global Citizenship Education**

Criticisms of global citizenship's theory and practice are discussed in turn.

### ***Theory***

GCE theory has been criticised in two main ways. The first centres on the tensions between 'patriotism versus global identity' and the apparent conflict of interest in teaching global

citizenship under citizenship or civics education (Nelson 1991). The second, as argued by Miller (1998) and Neff (1998), questions whether global citizenship is possible, let alone desirable. They question whether a global citizenship framework would conflict with the principles of national sovereignty and territorial integrity (Miller 1998; Neff 1998). Arneil (2007, 301) asks, 'how can global citizenship have any real meaning if there is no world government?' Other critics include Pagden (1998), Hindess (2002), Gregory (2004) and La Torre (2005), who each argue that 'globalized citizenship is a new kind of western imperialism ... in which the west uses the rubric of "citizenship" to impose its own values and political and economic systems on non-western peoples' (Arneil 2007, 302).

These criticisms of the value and role of global citizenship should be considered in continued examination of the practice and development of GCE programmes, curriculum and models. For the purpose of this research, the teaching of global citizenship was conducted separately from a citizenship education curriculum, which eliminated the conflict of interest between teaching patriotism over global identity. Asking students to debate this duality would be a valuable learning exercise, which could incorporate a discussion on ethics, human rights and the historical impact of colonialism.

### ***Practice***

Separate from criticisms of GCE theory, issues of resources and implementation also hinder the practice of GCE. The MORI survey on children's knowledge of global issues reports that 'The vast majority of pupils (81%) believe that it is important to learn about global issues at school and that young people need to understand global matters in order to make choices about how they want to lead their lives' (DfID 2003, 3). Schweisfurth (2006, 48) states, 'in

the present international climate, global citizenship issues are on the verge of eclipsing everything else—but that schools have not caught up with this reality’. This section examines the factors limiting the practice of GCE. The literature reveals two such factors, ‘resource issues’ and ‘implementation issues’ (DfID 2003, 7-8). Each of these factors and their corresponding elements are discussed below.

Resource issues include lack of, or insufficient, resources and training. UNESCO (2001) claims that although there is a wide reaching commitment for education designed to promote equality, justice and greater international cooperation, these types of educational initiatives have not always been supported by adequate resources. UNESCO (2001) reports that:

Progress has been achieved in fostering a greater awareness of, on the one hand, the importance of such education for the harmonious development of countries and, on the other, the need to integrate all the aspects of such education in an overall strategy for citizens’ education and training at all levels. However, there is not always an observable match between the commitments made and the means allocated for their implementation (in particular in the field of training and the production of textbooks and educational materials). Efforts should be made to allocate greater resources to developing this type of education.

DfID’s ‘Enabling Effective Support’ initiative has been specifically designed to provide teachers with more effective and sustained support to incorporate a global dimension into their teaching (DfID 2003, 2). DfID (2003, 7-8) found that teachers wanted to incorporate the global dimension, yet they reported ‘a sense of isolation in promoting these issues’ and ‘a lack of access to teaching materials’. In addition to the teachers’ perceived constraints, DfID (2003, 7-8) also found that many teachers were unfamiliar or unaware of support available to them. The DfID initiated a planning and consultation process on how to provide support. One of their findings highlighted the need ‘for creative work to explore how teachers introducing

global perspectives into their teaching can be practically and effectively supported’ (DfID 2003, 4).

Another resource factor hindering practice is the focus of global citizenship texts. Ibrahim (2005, 191) compared the available global citizenship texts from the development sector and those commercially produced. He found that the development sector placed more emphasis on process, while the commercially produced texts were more content based. As a result, he suggests that ‘teachers need to draw on a range of texts to enable students to develop critical understanding of global issues and skills for active participation’ (Ibrahim 2005, 191). When leading a class, the process and content should be integrally linked. Without materials that link the two, teachers must spend more time collecting, reviewing and pairing materials when planning lessons.

Schweisfurth (2006), from her research in Ontario schools, reported a possible solution for teachers who found it difficult to find resources and those who felt a sense of isolation in promoting global issues. Schweisfurth (2006, 48) reported that individual teachers who prioritized global citizenship issues found support from ‘a network of like-minded individual teachers’.

This network allows teachers to stay in touch with each other, and to share resources and ideas. It is a powerful force; not only does it provide encouragement and inspiration in what might otherwise be a rather isolating environment, but teachers acknowledged that they feel accountable to the network and its coordinator (Schweisfurth 2006, 48).

This network provided the support needed to embrace a creative approach to implementing the curriculum. Schweisfurth (2006, 48) adds that

While the teachers were not actively discouraged by their colleagues, and were in any case far too professional to be likely to criticize them, there was agreement that ‘that kind of activism isn’t really part of the image of teaching’ and that ‘the bureaucracy in teaching discourages it’. As one put it: ‘a lot of what I do is off the radar screen’.

Osler and Vincent (2002) concur that the teaching of global citizenship in England is marginalized and receives little support within teacher education.

To address the resource limitations described above, Pigozzi (2006, 3) asserts that GCE requires ‘far-reaching changes in teacher training, the revision and development of textbooks and curricula, and the general improvement of learning environments so that stereotypes, violence, prejudice and discrimination have no place’.

Implementation issues reported by teachers to DfID, include ‘an apparent overload of education policy initiatives which are felt to be prioritised over the global dimension’, ‘a lack of time to develop ideas’, ‘anxiety about dealing with potentially controversial issues’ and a ‘lack of confidence in dealing with unfamiliar material and ideas’ (DfID 2003, 7-8; Holden *et al.* n.d.). Davies *et al.* (1999) found similar results in their study of over 700 teachers in England. The teachers regarded GCE as valuable but reported little confidence in teaching the subject (Yamashita 2006, 28). The teachers were unable to offer suggestions for how to build their confidence (Yamashita 2006, 28).

The lack of time to develop ideas or teachers’ perception of higher prioritized policy initiatives significantly limit current practice. However, the lack of confidence and the concern over teaching controversial issues presents a larger obstacle for GCE’s future. The QCA advocates for the inclusion of teaching controversial issues. ‘Education should not



attempt to shelter our nation's children from even the harsher controversies of adult life, but should prepare them to deal with such controversies knowledgeably, sensibly, tolerantly and morally' (Brownlie 2001).

Encouragement for teachers to teach controversial lessons does not lessen their intimidation.

Yamashita (2006, 27) offers the following observation:

Students want to learn about complex contemporary issues, particularly war and conflict, and have sophisticated understandings and questions. Yet, for teachers, these topics were to be avoided if possible. They felt inadequately prepared and 'haunted stories' about upsetting children and other problems deterred them from teaching about sensitive issues. Teachers' fears also result from unclear government legislation and advice.

The unclear advice Yamashita refers to can be found in the DfES handbook on citizenship.

The handbook recognizes the value of teachers sharing personal opinion, but advocates for the opinion to remain neutral.

...it is important to recognise that to express a personal opinion is not necessarily the same as to advocate it. You can also express personal opinions for educational reasons—for example, to provoke discussion or encourage young people to consider ideas they would not otherwise have thought of (DfES 2004, 6).

The handbook continues by recognizing the importance of 'provoking discussion' to encourage students to think for themselves, yet warns that this practice, if taken too far, could be illegal. The handbook states, 'It would be quite wrong, as an educator, to advocate your own personal views on a controversial matter in a way which undermines the ability to young people to think for themselves. If you teach in a school, it could also be against the law' (DfES 2004, 6). With these conflicting messages, and the 'haunting stories' of teachers whose attempts to tackle controversial issues ended with frightened children, it is not surprising that the various studies mentioned above find resistance from teachers in their willingness and comfort in teaching of controversial issues. The problem with government

directives, such as the quote listed above, is the fine line that is drawn. Directives such as these do not provide sufficient guidance to teachers and can be seen as controversial.

Steiner (1992) reports that teachers who avoided teaching controversial global issues, instead focused on lessons about the environment or breaking down stereotypes (cited in Robbins *et al.* 2003, 93). Although these elements are valuable, GCE will need to find ways to build teachers confidence in teaching GCE, including the controversial issues. Davies goes further in her analysis of the current needs of GCE by suggesting that teachers need more than confidence in the material and in their ability to teach controversial issues. GCE also requires a flexible curriculum model to allow for its ‘unpredictable’ nature (Davies 2006, 20).

In summary, the criticisms of GCE theory consist of the controversy over teaching ‘patriotism versus global identity’ and whether global citizenship is possible, let alone desirable. The issues facing the practice of GCE manifest in both resource limitations and implementation factors. Each area requires further research. The latter area is considered in more detail in chapter seven (7.6).

The next section discusses the potential benefits each field may contribute to the other.

## **2.6 Potential Benefits of Merging Service-Learning and Global Citizenship Education**

In this globalized world the field of service-learning should consider ways to expand the community it serves to include the global community. In doing so, service-learning students’ knowledge of citizenship and civic engagement would broaden to encompass global citizenship. Conversely, while GCE advocates claim that participatory involvement by

students is an objective, the current practice of GCE lacks an experiential approach for students to participate first-hand in global affairs. Accordingly, GCE would benefit from the incorporation of service-learning's experiential method as a means to offer students opportunity for action.

This thesis suggests that the shared civic engagement goals of service-learning and GCE create a conducive opportunity for combining the two fields. By doing this, the Nobis Project expands service-learning to include an international dimension and offers GCE a method to incorporate action into the curriculum. The Nobis Project offers purposeful opportunities for students to gain knowledge, practice skills, test values, learn efficacy, and experience empathy in a classroom setting, and makes it possible for a larger number of students to participate (1.6.2, 3.4).

## **2.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter explained the history, practice and criticisms of the United States tradition of service-learning and British discipline of GCE. Service-learning derives from experiential education where active student participation is primary. For GCE, emphasis on global awareness is primary. Both service-learning and GCE share the core civic engagement objectives: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment and empathy. The potential benefit of merging service-learning and GCE, adding action to GCE and international service to service-learning, enhances each field's scope.

The next chapter examines how the Nobis Project integrates these two fields. It outlines how service-learning and GCE theory and practice influence the Nobis Project design, as well as introducing three other influences: ‘Dewey’s experiential education theory’, ‘socially conscious art methodology’, and ‘creative-process theory’. The design objectives and outcomes are then discussed. The chapter concludes with an overview of each defining element of the Nobis Project design.

## **CHAPTER THREE: PROGRAMME DESIGN**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter outlines the five influences on the Nobis Project design: ‘the service-learning process’; ‘Dewey’s experiential education theory’; ‘socially conscious art methodology’; ‘creative-process theory’; and ideas of ‘global citizenship’. The design objectives and outcomes are then discussed, followed by an explanation of how the Nobis Project incorporates a creative-process theory, the ‘Action Steps’. The chapter concludes with an overview of each defining element of the Nobis Project design: ‘inspiring introduction’; ‘student responsibility’; ‘research’; ‘Action Steps’; and ‘reflection’.

### **3.2 History of Development**

The Nobis Project is designed to guide students to perform service for local, national or international communities. The idea for this programme originated from a survey conducted through the American Friends Service Committee’s Emergency Material Assistance Program (EMAP), where Quaker schools were contacted to determine what service projects they conducted and what challenges they faced. The results revealed that the schools were eager to increase service opportunities but lacked the necessary resources (Clougherty 2001).

Teachers felt students benefited more when a tangible connection was made between the giver and receiver. Consequently, they preferred projects in which the students physically participated. This preference, however, limited the schools’ to service activities within their local communities. EMAP’s mission includes ‘giving volunteers the means to provide

service, learn about the needs of people from all over the world and ways to help in a direct way' (Emergency Material Assistance Program n.d.). It is this component – helping people from around the world in a direct way – that is missing from school service curricula. The Nobis Project addresses this incompleteness in service-learning.

The decision to include an international dimension in the Nobis Project design also comes from the recognition that with an increasingly globalized world young people need to learn about global responsibility (Davies 2006, 6, 12). GCE aims to prepare students for their role as global citizens. As discussed in chapter two (2.3.3), the definition of a global citizen selected for this research contains two basic principles, social rights and shared fate. Critics of GCE question if global citizenship is achievable or desirable (2.5.2). The Nobis Project is based on the argument that social rights and shared fate are not exclusive to global citizenship but are desirable as independent goals.

Osler and Starkey (2003, 253) challenge GCE to teach students the value of working across countries and cultures to solve common problems and take responsibility for our common future. To teach these aims, Osler and Starkey call for students to engage in dialogue and peer collaboration to address different points of view. The Nobis Project design fosters this aim by including a creative-process model that guides students to build and participate in a group project that will respond to and inform others of a current international crisis. Students are asked to 'directly respond', which requires researching and understanding the needs of someone else from a culture very different from their own.

To meet the goal to ‘help people from around the world in a direct way’, service-learning was identified as a conducive method for serving an international recipient because of its experiential learning foundation and common use by schools. The next section reviews how the service-learning process influenced the Nobis Project design.

### **3.2.1 Service-Learning Process**

One influence on the Nobis Project design is the research and practice of service-learning. The existing models of service-learning lack international focus (1.6.2). However, previous research on benefits from service-oriented experiential education contributes to the Nobis Project design and objectives (Payne 2000, 11-12). Payne (2000, 10-11) defines the service-learning process as ‘preparation’, ‘action’, ‘reflection’ and ‘celebration’. The first step, preparation, involves presenting necessary information to students to prepare them for the demands of the service experience. This may take the form of assigning readings about the people being served, holding a class discussion on what type of encounters students can expect, or pre-service training by the community agency. For the Nobis Project, the preparation step consists of presenting an inspiring presentation followed by assigning students to research the topic under investigation.

The second step in the process is action, which corresponds to the service itself. Payne (2000, 10-11) argues that the action must meet certain criteria:

- (a) Be meaningful
- (b) Have academic integrity
- (c) Have adequate supervision
- (d) Provide for student ownership
- (e) Be developmentally appropriate

For the Nobis Project, objective (a) is accomplished using experiential learning theory (2.2.1), which argues that learning has meaning for students when it grows naturally out of some question with which the students are concerned and is explored through learner-constructed activity (Archambault 1964, 365-366). Accordingly, students are asked to identify an issue of concern, select a recipient of service, and design and implement service. Objective (d) is also achieved using the principle of learner-constructed activity, where student ownership occurs as a result of giving students responsibility to decide and design the direction of their learning. Shumer (1997, 32) argues that the degree of responsibility given to the student determines the quality of the student's learning. Payne (2000, 7) recommends involving students in project selection and states that in doing so 'ownership is significantly enhanced'. The Nobis Project follows this recommendation.

Objectives (b), (c), and (e) fall to the teachers who are asked to facilitate student learning by preparing companion assignments throughout the term that correspond to the student-selected action. A future evolution of the Nobis Project aims to assist teachers with meeting objective (b) and (e) by providing them with resources on various global situations (7.2.4). Another charge that falls to the teacher is the consequence of transferring responsibility to students. Giving students responsibility over their learning involves risk for teachers and students. Teachers must be prepared to facilitate learning at every opportunity, especially in the event of failure (Horwood 1995, 284).

The third step of the service-learning process, reflection, occurs throughout the process. Reflection enables students to think critically about their service experience and promotes self-awareness by linking the experience to learning (Payne 2000, 10-11). When students



reflect, they think about their experiences, share them with others, and learn from them (Payne 2000, 10-11). Time should be structured to allow for this process. (Waterman 1997, 8). They can reflect through discussion, reading, writing, the arts, presentations and other projects (Payne 2000, 10-11). Waterman (1997, 8) claims that reflection aids students to identify personal changes that result from their service projects. Boud *et al.* (1985, 26) assert that the quality of the reflection directly effects the quality of learning. Shumer (1997, 29) supports this claim, arguing that students in programmes with reflective seminars report a greater degree of learning than those in programmes without a reflective component. The Nobis Project encourages formal and informal reflection throughout the process.

The final component of service-learning process is celebration. This step recognizes students for their contributions and provides closure. Payne (2000, 10-11) argues that society needs to let young people know that their contributions are valued. The Nobis Project incorporates celebration as part of the action. As described further in 3.4, the Nobis Project requires students to design an action that meets three criteria; it must ‘be creative’, ‘inform others’, and ‘directly respond’. By requiring students to inform others, students must coordinate an event that shares with others what they have learned about the selected topic. Although sharing information about other countries in conflict is not an occasion for celebration, the Nobis Project claims that offering students the opportunity to share what they have learned and to receive feedback rewards students and creates a sense of efficacy.

Critics of the Nobis Project may argue that it does not follow the definition of service-learning because the service does not take place in the community it serves (1.3). Regardless, the Nobis Project meets five of the six service-learning civic engagement objectives and

follows the service-learning process. In addition, the project includes two innovations, the use of a creative-process method and a global dimension. The creative-process model developed for the Nobis Project, Action Steps, combines Dewey's scientific method and socially conscious art methodology. Each is discussed in turn.

### **3.2.2 Influence from Dewey**

As indicated in chapter two (2.2), Dewey's work is the most notable and comprehensive in the field of experiential education (Boydston 1967-1991). Dewey claims that education is necessary to prepare coming generations for a more just and humane society, and he proposes using experiential education to provide youth with the means to change society (Archambault 1964, 114). Dewey claims education must prepare the individual for meaningful participation in society that creates the potential for societal improvement (Archambault 1964, 120). To achieve these goals, Dewey argues, education should promote creativity, individuality and social consciousness (Archambault 1964, xxvii). The Nobis Project uses Dewey's experiential education model because of its emphasis on these goals.

Experiential education follows Dewey's scientific method, which consists of six steps:

- (1) Identify a real and meaningful problem (Archambault 1964, 178-179).
- (2) Make suggestions towards a solution
- (3) Clarify the problem
- (4) Develop a hypothesis
- (5) Consider possible results of acting on hypotheses, choose one
- (6) Test the hypothesis by explicit or imaginative action (Archambault 1964, xvi)

Elements of this method were incorporated into the design of the Action Steps, including steps (1), (2), and (3). Steps (4), (5), and (6) do not correlate with the goals of the Nobis

Project to respond to a situation through service. Dewey's use of 'hypothesis' implies proposing an explanation for the occurrence of a phenomenon. The Action Steps seek not only to understand a situation but also to devise a response to the situation. In lieu of the hypothesis step, the Action Steps incorporate strategies used by socially conscious artists. These strategies, discussed in the next section (3.2.3), offer techniques for designing ways to respond to a situation. Dewey contends that education contributes to society through its ability to produce imaginative and creative individuals (Archambault 1964, xxvi). However, for the Nobis Project, Dewey's scientific method is insufficient in teaching the creative-process. Section 3.2.4 explores how Dewey's scientific method influenced the design of Nobis Project's Action Steps.

Another key element of Dewey's experiential education theory that influenced the Nobis Project design was the emphasis on the relation of knowledge to action (Archambault 1964, vii). The information learned must be applicable to everyday life (Dewey 1990, 91). To achieve this objective the project must lie within range of the experience of students and connect to their needs (Archambault 1964, 177).

Using the parameters of Dewey's experiential education theory, the Action Steps enable students to respond to knowledge of global concerns in a direct, creative and meaningful way.

Dewey claims that a project's success depends on whether it meets the following needs:

Does it grow naturally out of some question with which the students are concerned?  
Does it fit into [the students'] more direct acquaintance so as to increase its efficacy and deepen its meaning? (Archambault 1964, 365-366).

To meet these criteria, the Nobis Project design emphasizes the importance of beginning the project with an inspiring presentation followed by student-led inquiry on 'where do we go

from here?’ (3.5.1). For students to better connect with the material and topic, the Nobis Project design asserts that the inspiring presentations include personal accounts relating to the global crisis, conflict, or condition being studied.

A good project, according to Dewey, ‘is sufficiently full and complex to demand a variety of responses from different children and permit each to go at it and make his contribution in a way which is characteristic of [him/herself]’ (Archambault 1964, 177-178). Additionally, the project should acknowledge problems relevant to community life, be it local, national or international, with the intention of developing social insight and interest (Archambault 1964, 371-372). The Nobis Project design addresses these criteria by requiring students to respond to a social injustice and allowing students to envision and complete a project from start to finish. Students take on a high level of responsibility in both decision-making and project implementation.

To permit students this level of independence, the teacher must assume the role of facilitator (3.5.2). The teacher’s responsibility is to ‘promote the development of ideas in the pupil’ (Archambault 1964, xxvii-xxviii). Dewey views the relation between teacher and student as reciprocal. The process of learning should be collaborative, not authoritarian (2.2.3). The teacher should serve as guide by presenting a stimulus that acts as a catalyst for students to make their own connections between action and knowledge (Archambault 1964, 10).

The teacher, as the member of the group having the riper and fuller experience and the greater insight into the possibilities of continuous development found in any suggested project, has not only the right but the duty to suggest lines of activity, and to show that there need not be any fear of adult imposition provided the teacher knows children as well as subjects (Archambault 1964, 179).

This quote from Dewey counters the claim that Dewey rejects the teacher as authority (2.2.3). The teacher's integral role as facilitator is emphasized, but the responsibility of the teacher to provide opportunities for exploration and direct student learning is central to Dewey's philosophy.

The next section defines the second design influence on the Action Steps: socially conscious art methodology.

### **3.2.3 Socially Conscious Art Methodology**

Section 3.2.2 above describes how Dewey's scientific model was insufficient to serve as the sole foundation for Action Steps because it did not support the Nobis Project's goal of devising a way to respond to a situation, as opposed to simply understanding it. This section first defines socially conscious art methodology with examples of three artists' work and concludes by describing how this methodology was used to compensate for the deficiencies in Dewey's model.

Within this particular approach to art, socially conscious artists use two primary strategies to communicate social realities, 'compassion' and 'confrontation' (Clougherty 2004).

Successful examples of these approaches can be found in the work of Jenny Holzer, Mierle Laderman Ukeles, and David Hammons. The goal they share is to heighten social awareness and potentially create an environment for social change (Clougherty 2004).

Art, as an extension of language, communicates a perspective of reality (Diepeveen and Van Laar 1998). Mason *et al.* (2006, 1) assert that ‘Art is widely viewed as one of the main communication systems in most cultures and as a medium for transmission and transformation of culture’. Diepeveen and Van Laar (1998, 28) claim that artists are often acute observers and decisive reporters who play a critical role in documenting and visually, conceptually, or emotionally revealing the realities of the world. As reporters, each artist chooses to create art that either reflects or shapes the world (Diepeveen and Van Laar, 1998, 27). By examining techniques used by artists, the Nobis Project presents examples to students on how these techniques can be used to inform others and potentially influence societal change.

The two roles of an artist mentioned above, reflector and shaper, often overlap. Holzer innovatively presents ideas with the hope of altering perceptions. In the late 1970s she caught the attention of thousands as the phrase ‘ABUSE OF POWER COMES AS NO SURPRISE’ and others filled the electronic billboards in Times Square (Diepeveen and Van Laar, 1998, 7) (fig. 2-1). These *Truisms*, 1977-79, and subsequent public projects, disseminated ideas in public areas (Walter Art 2003). Holzer’s *Truisms* use confrontation to communicate her idea. Confrontation permits artists to engage audiences and bring attention to a social situation or condition. Just as advertising dominates the images Americans encounter daily, Holzer employs the same media – LCD and LED displays, billboards, t-shirts, parking metres, street signs, stickers and posters – to communicate her artistic messages.



Figure 2-1: Jenny Holzer, *Truisms*, text installation, Times Square Billboard, New York City, NY 1977-1979 (Zakros n.d.).

Commenting on her choice of medium, Holzer says, ‘People are used to seeing something surprising, but they’re used to seeing something surprising selling breath mints. They are not used to looking at anything serious...(and) you know, serious is shocking a lot of the time’ (Howell 1988, 126). The similarity between her art and commercial media is deliberate. She exploits a technique that has a reputation of communicating a message. The notable difference, the assertion of an idea that is designed to make the viewer stop and think, makes Holzer’s work revolutionary.

Holzer carefully considers not only her message but also the means to broadcast it to the larger community. By selecting public venues to display her work, Holzer reaches a wider audience. She effects the unexpected by catching them off guard. Using a system of ‘anonymous authority’ (Geocities 2003), she compels viewers to question the proclamation

and consequently decide whether to agree or disagree. Holzer's art impacts the audience on a deeper level, a level that, Howell (1988, 126) argues, many artists have failed to achieve.

Jacob comments on Holzer's approach,

Hers is profoundly inspiring work, which sets it apart from the other contingent of artist using similar means—prominent, important artists—whose work is pessimistic. Theirs confirms the emptiness of contemporary life, while Holzer's jars you and makes you think—and this gives you hope that emptiness can be overcome (Howell 1988, 126).

This hope implies action, action the artist and the viewer must take to implement change.

In contrast to Holzer's work, the artist Ukeles employs compassion to create performances and installations. Ukeles' *Touch Sanitation* (fig. 2-2) lasted eleven-months and involved personally shaking hands with each of the 8,500 members of the New York City Sanitation Department. Reflecting on her work, Ukeles explains, 'The real artwork is the handshake itself. When I shake hands with a sanitation man...I present this idea and performance to them, and then, in how they respond, they finish the art' (Gablik 1991, 70). Ukeles elaborates on her intention, which speaks to the transformative quality of her work, 'I hope that my handshakes will eventually burn an image into the public's mind that every time they throw something out, human hands have to take it away...This piece is about healing bad feelings and the worker's sense of isolation' (Gablik 1991, 70). This example demonstrates how appealing to, and even modelling compassion can influence an audience.

It is Ukeles' skilful ability to integrate herself among sanitation workers and transform her audience into empathic viewers that makes her socially conscious artwork successful (Gablik 1991, 73). She recognized a population of people in need of respect and recognition and then sought to conjure empathy, not only from herself but also from those who viewed her art. Her



acts alter the way viewers connect with and understand the importance of the sanitation department. The inter-connected relationship, between artwork, artist and audience, strengthens Ukeles' work.



Figure 2-2: Mierle Laderman Ukeles, *Touch Sanitation*, performance art comprising of shaking hands with all workers of the New York City Department of Sanitation, New York City, NY, 1978-1980 (Community Arts 1982).

The relationship between artist and audience has many forms. Artists seek to connect with an audience through a variety of means. Confrontation can produce a powerful, immediate, ‘gut’ response. Artists who attempt to transform the world often chose to boldly reveal their perceptions of the inter-workings of society (Diepeveen and Van Laar 1998, 4). Determining the audience, as mentioned above, allows an artist to forecast the cultural language of viewers (Aiken 1998, 13). Cultural associations of symbols, objects, ideas and incidents evoke specific emotional responses (Aiken 1998, 15). For many artists, the creative-process consists of exploring, exposing and manipulating these culturally determined relationships (Aiken 1998, 154).

The goal of socially conscious artists is to balance the complicated dynamics between viewer and culture (Diepeveen and Van Laar 1998, v). Hammons is an artist whose work explores such culture dynamics. He eloquently assembles culturally significant objects that signify his visual wit and refined observations about the urban black experience (Heiss 1991, 8).

Hammons realizes the power and potential for symbolic recognition and subsequent understanding by a larger audience (Jones 1991, 25). In *Higher Goals* (fig. 2-3), Hammons assembled five twenty- to thirty-foot tall basketball hoops with backboards and blanketed them with thousands of bottle caps, mostly from beer bottles. Nailed in place, the bottle caps form designs reminiscent of Islamic decoration and African textiles (Jones 1991, 28). By using everyday objects, Hammons uncovers unexpected emotions in his viewers' consciousness (Jones 1991, 34), deeply affecting and connecting with them.

By reusing society's discards and culturally recognizable items, Hammons draws his audience into a story. These narratives are then woven into the backdrop of his community (Jones 1991, 34). Hammons' work illustrates the integration of culturally specific symbolism into artwork and how site selection relates to audience selection. When exploring cultures other than their own, artists must research and collect information on culturally significant symbols, objects and ideas (3.2.4). Hammons work demonstrates the need for careful consideration when acquiring access to a site and understanding how the site determines the audience (Jones 1991, 34).

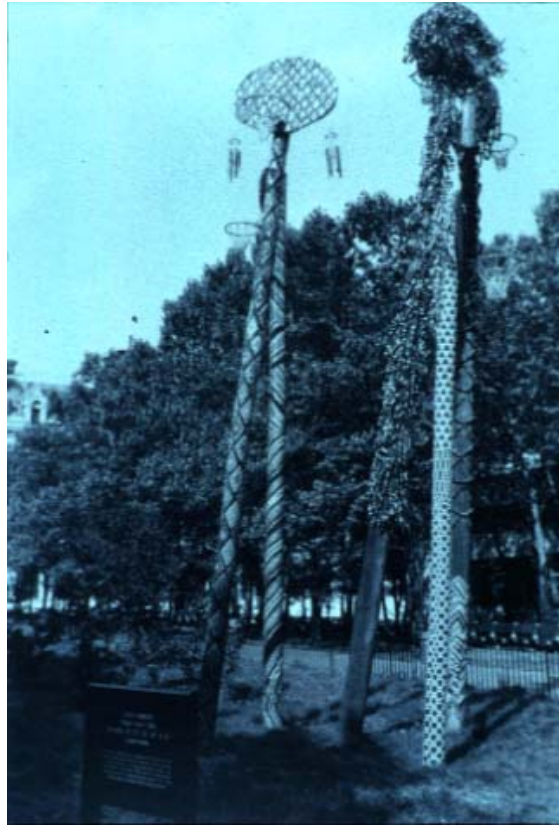


Figure 2-3: David Hammons, *Higher Goals*, mixed media: bottle caps, telephone pole, basketball hoops and backboards, Brooklyn, NY, 1986 (Community Middlebury n.d.).

There is much to learn from socially conscious artists. In Ukeles's and Hammons' work, compassion and healing determine the composition, and 'Empathy becomes affirmation, in the sense that it validates rather than denies the individuation of self and others' (Gablik 1991, 71). Holzer's work communicates messages effectively by utilizing a highly public and confrontational approach. For each of these socially conscious artists communication with their selected audience is central to their work. These artists use a variety of communication methods. Examining the work of these artists reveals the importance of audience and site selection, knowing how to capture audience attention and the value of researching and understanding the details of the topic being creatively represented. The key elements described here, selecting a communication method and understanding factors affecting site

selection, in combination with Dewey's scientific method, form the framework for the Nobis Project's creative-process model, Action Steps. Section 3.4 describes how these principles are incorporated in the model. Counter arguments against socially conscious art methodology do not exist, as it has not been debated academically.

The next section demonstrates how two creative-process theories support the combination of Dewey and socially conscious art methodology.

#### **3.2.4 Creative-Process Theory**

The Nobis Project guides students to design and implement a creative service project. The expectations of design, form, and function are defined by the Action Steps, a creative-process model. The Action Steps combine principles of the scientific method used in Dewey's experiential education theory (1.5, 2.2.1, 3.2.2) and socially conscious art methodology (3.2.3). To validate this combination, the creative-process theories of Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall are considered. Other creative-process theorists support varying aspects of the Action Steps, however, there remains an ongoing debate over what theoretical approach to the creative-process is most comprehensive. The qualifications of Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall are discussed in this section. The common and supporting themes of these theorists' models include, 'identification of problem', 'purposeful analysis', 'imaginative idea generation', 'critical evaluation', and 'implementation'. Each model is discussed in turn. Table 3-1 illustrates how each model supports to the Action Steps design.

According to Westland, (1969, 127) philosophers and psychologists disagree over the nature of studying creativity. ‘There are those,’ he says, ‘who doubt the validity of the psychologist’s methods and pour scorn on the very idea of applying scientific method to the study of aesthetics and creativity’ (Westland 1969, 127). Creativity is usually associated with the arts. As Eysenck (1957, 308) puts it, ‘The idea that objects of beauty, as well as their creation and appreciation, are subject to scientific scrutiny appears abhorrent to most people’. But for psychologists, the study of creativity broadly investigates how humans create, not deciding what constitutes creativity (Westland 1969, 128). The two models presented here were each designed, not by psychologists or philosophers, but by practitioners: a founder of an advertising firm and professors of architectural design. The widely accepted practice of the first method, and the first-hand knowledge of the practice and teaching of creativity, as found in the second model, made their models appropriate candidates for comparison with the Action Steps.

The first creative-process theory that supports the Action Steps design is Osborn’s (1963, 86) ‘creative thinking’ model. Osborn is considered one of the pioneers in creativity theory and known as the inventor of ‘brainstorming’ (Creative Education Foundation n.d.). Wheeler claims that Osborn’s book, *Applied Imagination*, first printed in 1953, has become one of the most widely known textbooks on creativity (Institute for Scientific Information 1998) (quoted in Wheeler 1999). Osborn (1963, 86) defines his creative-process as a ‘creative problem-solving process’ consisting of three tiers.

- (1) Fact-finding
  - (a) Problem-definition: pointing up the problem
  - (b) Preparation: gathering pertinent data
  - (c) Analysis: breaking down the relevant material

- (2) Idea-finding
  - (a) Idea-production: thinking up tentative ideas as possible leads
  - (b) Idea-development: selecting likely resultants, adding others, and reprocessing
- (3) Solution-finding
  - (a) Evaluation: verifying the tentative solutions
  - (b) Adoption: deciding on and implementing solution (Osborn 1963, 86)

Integral to his model, and similar to Dewey, the creative-process originates from the identification of a problem. Once the problem is identified, collection and analysis of information follows. The second tier of Osborn's process, which involves imagination, is broken into two phases, idea-production and idea development. Action Steps follows Osborn's model and separates the imaginative component into two tracks (3.4). Osborn's 'idea-production' corresponds to the Nobis Project's 'design an action', and Osborn's 'idea-development' corresponds to the Nobis Project's two components that share their influence with socially conscious art methodology, 'identify audience' and 'determine effective and creative means to communicate with selected audience' (3.4).

Under the next tier, solution-finding, Osborn calls for 'evaluation', which supports the Nobis Project's influence of service-learning and the role of reflection (3.4). The Action Steps call for ongoing reflection. The final element, 'adoption', refers to the implementation of the idea, which is found in the Action Steps under 'implement design' (3.4).

A second model that supports Action Steps is the 'Universal Traveler Model' by Koberg and Bagnall. This framework is based in the theory that problem-solving is a 'universal' practice and that a single approach can be used to devise creative solutions. Koberg and Bagnall (1981) were professors of design and developed the Universal Traveler Model by referencing their teaching and professional practices (Calploy News 2002).

- (1) Accept the situation (as a challenge)
- (2) Analyze (to discover the ‘world of the problem’)
- (3) Define (the main issues and goals)
- (4) Ideate (to generate options)
- (5) Select (to choose among options)
- (6) Implement (to give physical form to the idea)
- (7) Evaluate (to review and plan again)

Koberg and Bagnall’s first step shares Osborn and Dewey’s call for the identification of a problem, yet Koberg and Bagnall heighten the identification to a personal challenge. The concept of viewing a problem as a challenge is a useful approach for the Nobis Project, which calls on students to respond to a course assignment rather than by independent investigation. Strategies the Nobis Project uses to inspire students to view the assignment as a challenge are described in 3.4.

The Koberg and Bagnall model also supports Action Steps’ requirement to ‘analyse the problem’, which includes ‘collecting information’ (3.4). The next step is again in agreement with the Action Steps, ‘define the main issues and goals’. Action Steps breaks ‘define’ into a few elements. Participants must define an audience, determine a means to address the problem, and set goals or measures of success (3.4). These requirements are taken from socially conscious art methodology (3.2.3). Setting goals, defining the audience and means of communication can help generate ideas, which is the next step in Koberg and Bagnall’s model. These steps, ‘define’ and ‘ideate’, are reversed in the Action Steps, based on the belief that they can succeed in the inverted sequence (3.4). Step five, ‘select’, is present in the Action Steps but also in a different sequence (3.4). The Koberg and Bagnall model then calls for ‘implementation’ followed by ‘evaluate’. As with Osborn’s model, the category ‘evaluate’ corresponds to reflection, yet in this model it also implies that the creative process

is continuous – ‘to review and plan again’. This view is unique to Koberg and Bagnall’s model and is not present in the Action Steps.

The common threads in Dewey, Osborn, Koberg and Bagnall, and the Action Steps include the ‘identification of problem’ and ‘purposeful analysis’. Osborn, Koberg and Bagnall, socially conscious art methodology, and the Action Steps also all include ‘imaginative idea generation’, ‘critical evaluation’ and ‘implementation’. In addition, the Action Steps incorporate Dewey’s call for the ‘identification of a real and meaningful problem’ and Koberg and Bagnall’s innovative inclusion of ‘accepting the situation as a personal challenge’. What the Action Steps offer, that Dewey, Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall lack, is the requirement that the culminating action both informs and serves others. In addition, by naming the steps as explicit instructions, the Action Steps are presented to students in a way that is easy to follow.

Now that the Nobis Project influences have been outlined, the next section defines the Nobis Project’s objectives and outcomes.



	Dewey	Social Conscious Art Methodology		Action Steps		Osborn		Koberg and Bagnall
1	Identify a real and meaningful problem		1	Identify issue of concern	1-a	Problem-definition	1	Accept the situation
			2	Collect information on issue	1-b	Preparation	2	Analyse
2	Suggestions towards a solution		3	Select a recipient of action	1-c	Analysis	3/5	Define/Select
3	Clarification of the problem		4	Collect details on recipient	2-a	Idea-production	4	Ideate
		Create a piece to inform others	5	Design an action that meets the following criteria: a. Be Creative b. Directly Respond c. Inform others	2-b	Idea-development	5	Select
		Identify audience and Site selection	6	Identify audience and negotiate access	2-b	Idea-development		
		Compassion or Confrontation: Effective communication with audience	7	Determine effective and creative means to communicate with selected audience	3-a	Evaluation		
			8	Determine desired impact	3-a	Evaluation		
			9	Set goals or measures of success			3	Define
			10	Creatively design presentation				
6	Test hypothesis by explicit or imaginative action	Create artwork	11	Implement design	3-b	Adoption	6	Implement
			12	Reflect on audience interaction and/or response to presentation			7	Evaluate

Table 3-1: Comparison Between Action Step Influences and Creative-Process Theories

### 3.3 Design Objectives and Outcomes

Developed from the previous scholarship in experiential education, service-learning and GCE, the Nobis Project is an educational programme for students to follow and for teachers to facilitate. There are two innovative elements in the Nobis Project design. First, classes can conduct international service from a domestic location. This method of service-learning has not been researched or practiced. The second innovation is the incorporation of a creative-process. The results of the programme offer students the dual benefit of understanding the

cultural and political influences of current global issues while building the skills to creatively respond to international situations in a constructive and purposeful way.

As stated earlier (1.2), the goals and objectives of the Nobis Project include:

- (a) Teaching secondary school students six dimensions of civic engagement: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, and empathy.
- (b) Guiding students to comprehend current affairs and to devise ways to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients.

To understand how the Nobis Project aims to meet these objectives, the next section defines how influences from Dewey and socially conscious art methodology are implemented in the Nobis Project's Action Steps.

### **3.4 Action Steps: A Creative-Process Model**

This section highlights how influences from Dewey and socially conscious art methodology are incorporated into the Action Steps. The common and supporting themes of Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall's creative-process theory are considered as a means to verify the authenticity of the components found in creative-process theory.

There are twelve steps in the Nobis Project creative-process model, double the number found in most creative-process models. Dewey asserts that learning should be presented as 'an orderly development' (Archambault 1964, 179). Accordingly, the Action Steps break the

creative-process into manageable, explicit steps. These steps are designed to be completed by a team of students:

Step 1: Identify issue of concern (related to the topic presented by teacher)

Step 2: Collect information on issue

Step 3: Select a specific recipient of Action

Step 4: Collect details on recipient

Step 5: Design an Action that meets the following criteria:

(a) Be Creative – in design, in concept, in presentation

(b) Directly Respond – to the issue under research

(c) Inform Others – about the issue

Step 6: Identify audience (local, school community, etc.) and negotiate access

Step 7: Determine effective and creative means to communicate with selected audience

Step 8: Determine desired impact (reflecting if chosen impact is realistic)

Step 9: Set goals or measures of success

Step 10: Creatively design presentation, from collected information, for selected audience

Step 11: Implement design

Step 12: Reflect on audience interaction and/or response to presentation

Each step is defined in turn with an explanation on how each correlates to creative-process theory.

***Step 1: Identify Issue of Concern (Related to the Topic Presented by Teacher)***

Before students begin the Action Steps, the teacher presents to students the concept of the class and the topic on which the class will focus. Students are challenged to work together as a team to build a creative action project that responds to a specific aspect of the class topic. Students are given the responsibility of selecting the issue the class will address. In doing so, as Payne (2000, 7) claims, ownership is enhanced because students are permitted to define what they will be learning.

Dewey, Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall's models refer to step one, the identification of a problem (3.2.4). This step follows Dewey's claim that asking students to identify a real and meaningful problem, rather than present them with a hypothetical scenario, prompts the students to respond to the responsibility of participating in a real-life conflict (Simpson *et al.* 2005, 136) (3.2.2). This step also supports Koberg and Bagnall (1981) model's inclusion of accepting the situation as a personal challenge (3.2.4).

***Step 2: Collect Information on Issue***

After students identify an area of concern, they are instructed to gather information on the issue. Collection of information on a student-selected issue utilizes the common element of analysis found in the creative-process models and Dewey (3.2.4, 3.2.2). The level of analysis depends on the requirements set by the teacher and the degree of difficulty in finding sources. The Internet provides a plethora of information, both creditable and inaccurate. Teachers are encouraged to (a) incorporate media literacy lessons into the classroom work, (b) require students to use a variety of sources

(primary, secondary, print, virtual, etc.) and (c) direct students to organisations that address the topic under investigation.

### ***Step 3: Select a Specific Recipient of Action***

After collecting the information, students again apply analysis in selecting a specific recipient. Students review the collected information and determine, as a group, the direction they would like to explore further and ultimately respond. If students have not already contacted organisations working in the selected area, teachers are to encourage students to do so. These organisations may have ongoing projects in which the students can participate or have resources to guide students in choosing a recipient.

By allowing students to select the issue under investigation, students are given ownership over their experience (Payne 2000, 7). This step again reaffirms the Koberg and Bagnall's method of accepting the situation as a personal challenge as well as implementing Koberg and Bagnall's call to 'define' and 'select' (3.2.4).

### ***Step 4: Collect Details on Recipient***

In step four, students continue their identification of a real and meaningful problem. This step supports Dewey's promotion of 'clarification of the problem' and the other models' attention to analysis and definition of goals (3.2.2, 3.2.4). The level of research conducted by students depends on time allowance, availability of materials, and expectations set by the teacher. The goal is for students to become familiar with the material and comfortable with informing others on the specifics of the topic, the issue, and the recipient.

Collection of details on the recipient, in conjunction with identifying and collecting information on an issue, each support service-learning's and GCE's goal of promoting knowledge and understanding (2.4.1.2) as well as building research skills (2.4.1.3).

This step combines the varying definitions of the civic-engagement goal of knowledge by meeting service-learning's aim to engage students in critical thinking and GCE's goal to teach global awareness (2.4.1.2).

***Step 5: Design an Action that Meets the Following Criteria:***

- (a) Be Creative - in design, in concept, in presentation***
- (b) Directly Respond - to the issue under research***
- (c) Inform Others - about the issue***

Action Steps, like the two creative-process models outlined above (3.2.4) and socially conscious artists (3.2.3), incorporate action into the design. Three criteria for the action, unique to this model, are defined.

Criterion (a) requires that students' projects be creative in design, construction and concept, but not necessarily artistic. This criterion requires the use of imagination, a theme found in the two creative-process models described above (3.2.4). This criterion is used to encourage students to use creative problem solving to tackle the difficult challenges they face throughout the Nobis Project process. By asking students to think and act creatively, it also opens the parameters of possibility. The students are not asked to reproduce a method, but to conceive, construct and implement a new way of approaching a problem. This innovative approach supports Dewey's claim that student engagement is enhanced when students answer questions derived from 'intrinsic interest' (Dewey 1990, 148) (3.2.2). The goal of requiring

students to use the creative-process is to demonstrate for students, through first-hand experience, how to envision, design and implement an original idea.

Criteria (b) and (c) include a service requirement, which is not consistent with other creative-process models (Plsek, 1996). It is included in this model to meet the Nobis Project's goal to teach students how to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients. Criteria (b) and (c) ask students to create two types of action: 'direct' and 'indirect' service. Direct service typically refers to service actions in which contributors offer physical assistance, such as building a house (Chavez Foundation n.d.). Indirect service applies to service in which the contributor offers a non-tangible service, such as the donation of clothing (Chavez Foundation n.d.). The Nobis Project re-defines direct and indirect service. For the Nobis Project, direct service means contributing in a way that tangibly benefits a recipient, such as donation of supplies or funds. This definition corresponds to criteria (b). Indirect service, according to the Nobis Project, refers to the action of informing others about the issue, as described in criteria (c). The act of informing functions as a form of service when it leads, for example, to influencing the outcome of an election or inspiring others to take action. By combining the criteria of creativity with direct and indirect service, students are encouraged to re-evaluate their definition of service, including ways that they can regularly participate in service.

***Step 6: Identify Audience (School Community, Local Community, etc.) and Negotiate Access***

Once the recipient and action are selected, students follow step six, seven, and eight, which follows Osborn's inclusion of idea-development (3.2.4). Action Steps breaks the process of

idea-development into three steps to guide students through the process. These steps follow the components utilized by socially conscious artists (3.2.3). In step six students are asked to identify their audience and select a site for their work. This process requires students to think about an appropriate audience to receive their message and what location would best communicate their message. For example, if the selected audience is primary school students, then the language used and imagery selected should be appropriate to the age group.

***Step 7: Determine Effective and Creative Means to Communicate with Selected Audience***

In step seven students again employ the imaginative component of creative-process theory (3.2.4). Students are also asked to follow the practices of socially conscious artists and select a mode of effective, creative communication, through either compassion or confrontation, with a selected audience (3.2.3).

***Step 8: Determine Desired Impact (Reflecting if Chosen Impact is Realistic)***

After students determine the audience and the site and mode of communication, they are asked to consider the desired impact of their project. This step supports Osborn's inclusion of 'evaluation' and requires students to use analytical skills to reflect on their chosen design (3.2.4). Students are asked to determine if the desired impact is realistic. For example, if students desire to set-up an interactive game for primary school children that teaches about global warming, then the class must decide how and what lessons the game will teach. Students should also consider the logistics of the design, such as would teachers be willing to bring their class to the event. Requiring students to think through the desired impact – and the design's likelihood of achieving that impact – will enable them to determine if their plan is worth pursuing. Without this evaluation process students may be left with a plan that is too



complex to execute. This step forces students to assess what is involved in their plan and if it is realistic to implement.

#### ***Step 9: Set Goals or Measures of Success***

Once students have reaffirmed the project design, they are asked to set goals or measures of success as a group. This step specifically addresses working with youth. The Nobis Project engages students in a dynamic process that incorporates risk and consequences. Acknowledging possible outcomes as a step in the process creates the opportunity to evaluate expectations, discuss the potential for failure, and identify strategies to reach success. Koberg and Bagnall's model supports this approach in their 'define the main issues and goals' category (3.2.4).

#### ***Step 10: Creatively Design Presentation, From Collected Information, For Selected Audience***

To accomplish the criteria, 'inform others' and 'be creative' students are asked to creatively design an informative presentation for a selected audience. In this step, students work as a team to organize and build a creative and informative presentation. This presentation can be integrated into the project design or carried out as a separate event.

#### ***Step 11: Implement design***

In step eleven students implement their project design. Like other creative-process models, socially conscious artists, and Dewey's scientific method, Action Step includes implementation within the model (3.2.4, 3.2.2, 3.2.3).

### ***Step 12: Reflect on Audience Interaction and/or Response to Presentation***

During step twelve the students evaluate whether their goals were attained and reflect on the experience. Teachers should guide the students in reviewing what was learned, what they would change if repeated, and how the Action Steps could be used in other situations.

Students should also use formal and informal reflection throughout the process, as dictated by service-learning methodology (3.2.1), to recognize the correlation between classroom learning and the service created through the Action Steps. The inclusion of reflection supports Koberg and Bagnall's evaluation category, which calls for the overall process to be reviewed and revised for future implementation (3.2.4).

### ***Summary***

This section defined each of the Action Steps and described how the steps correlate with Dewey's definition of the scientific method and Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall's creative-process theories. How the innovative inclusion of using a creative-process to culminate in a creative service action was also explained, including how socially conscious art methodology is incorporated. The next section reviews the defining elements of the Nobis Project design, including the role of Action Steps.

## **3.5 Defining Elements of Design**

The defining elements of the Nobis Project include 'inspiring introduction', 'student-led learning', 'research', 'Action Steps', and 'reflection'. In this section the function of each of these elements is defined.

### 3.5.1 Inspiring Introduction

The teacher captures the imagination and interest of the class through their introduction of an assignment (Horwood, 1995, 4). Dewey (1990, 148) claims, ‘If there is sufficient intrinsic interest in the material, there will be direct or spontaneous attention’. In the Nobis Project, where much of the learning is independently carried out, the introduction to the topic and project is critical to soliciting commitment from students. Teachers first engage students by opening a discussion in which students share what they know about the topic. The discussion is followed by an *inspiring* presentation. The goal of the presentation is to inform students about the topic while generating interest and awakening a new curiosity. To bridge the distance between the international topic and the classroom, the presentation must capture the personal experience behind the topic. Suggested formats include video, guest speaker or written personal accounts. Following the presentation, another discussion commences in which the class identifies what questions they would like to answer. Dewey claimed that an educative experience fosters student development by allowing students to answer questions derived from personal curiosity rather than merely receiving information (Dewey 1990, 148). By asking students to identify the questions they want to answer, the learning becomes student-directed. Dewey also maintains that answering questions derived from intrinsic interest and relevant material creates learning that enhances student engagement (Dewey 1990, 148). The Nobis Project follows this guidance and asks students to identify and respond to a global issue in need of service. At this point the teacher presents the details of the project by showing the presentation ‘Instigating Social Change’.

### ***Presentation: ‘Instigating Social Change’***

The ‘Instigating Social Change’ presentation offers students a conceptual foundation of the function and potential outcomes of completing the Action Steps. The presentation defines creative action and discusses traditional methods of protest, such as letter writing campaigns, meeting with a member of Congress, using the media, conducting a teach-in or holding a demonstration. Creative action refers to creatively capturing the attention of others using an imaginative, often visual, activity (Oxfam America n.d.). The goal of creative action is to engage and inform others about an issue (Oxfam America n.d.). Oxfam provides this example of creative action: *100 Chairs*: To demonstrate the wealth divide in the United States, line up 100 chairs. Ten people spread out over 70 chairs while 90 people have to fit on the remaining 30 chairs. This shows that 10 percent have 70% of the wealth, and 90% have only 30% of the wealth (Oxfam America n.d.).

There are two beneficiaries of the use of creative action in the Nobis Project, students and viewers. The students are asked to conceive and implement a creative action to meet the ‘inform others’ criteria. This requirement encourages students to use their imagination and teamwork skills. This process also demands that students determine the best methods for communicating their message to a selected audience. The skills learned and used in the process of designing and building a creative action mirror many useful skills needed in adult life, including but not limited to interpersonal skills, organisational skills, and research skills.

The second beneficiary is the viewer. The interactive or visual element in the creative action demonstrates complex information that is difficult to comprehend, such as statistics or living conditions. Another form of service is advocacy, or informing others and spreading awareness (Chavez Foundation n.d.). Learning how to inform others through creative action is one way students of the Nobis Project provide service.

The presentation concludes with a discussion on socially conscious artists, such as the three described above (3.2.3), who explore the idea of creative action in their artwork, primarily through, ‘compassion’ and ‘confrontation’. For socially conscious artists, communication with their selected audience influences the design of their work. These artists use a variety of communication methods, including principles of advertising, interactive artwork and performance. The presentation offers students examples of approaches to consider when designing their project as well as illustrating the importance of audience and site selection, and knowing how to capture the audience’s attention. The presentation also underscores the value of researching and understanding the details of the topic that will be creatively explored. After watching the presentation on creative action, students are introduced to the creative-process model, Action Steps.

### **3.5.2 Student Responsibility**

After the introduction of the topic and project the teacher’s role changes from instructor to facilitator, and the students become responsible for their learning. For the Nobis Project the learning occurs during the student-led process (Herbert 1995, 26). It includes problem-solving, working as a team, and designing a project from start to finish. When students take part in decision-making they take responsibility in seeing the project through (Herbert 1995, 24). This includes managing the subsequent consequences (Horwood 1995, 281).

The risk and uncertainty created by the presence of real consequences provide students with a learning opportunity. Dewey (1938, 79) states that ‘growth depends upon the presence of difficulty to be overcome by the exercise of intelligence’. Herbert (1995, 23) elaborates, ‘The

difficulty Dewey refers to can be physical, emotional, social or intellectual...In using this discordant atmosphere, the teacher must also take care to create an environment of trust and support, without which the learner will not risk anything'. In the presence of risk, the teacher's role as supporter cannot be underestimated (Warren 1994, 255). Students benefit from continual reassurance that the presence of obstacles plays an integral part in their progress and success (Warren 1994, 255). When offering guidance, teachers should be mindful of their influence and how their opinion can directly impact student decision-making (Herbert 1995, 26).

The role of facilitator comes with its own responsibility. Warren warns, 'The teacher's role in the student-directed classroom is challenging in its subtlety' (Warren 1994, 251). This includes permitting students to make decisions, even bad ones, (Herbert 1995, 24), while maintaining an emotionally and physically safe environment (Horwood 1995, 282). Teachers should set boundaries and keep informed of all aspects of the project's process (Horwood 1995, 282).

When students take ownership over their learning, they begin to comprehend how to bring their new knowledge into their daily lives. They walk away from the class with an understanding and self-confidence in their knowledge, abilities and skills (Waterman 1997, 4-5; Serow 1991). This self-realization is actualized by the support and guidance of their teacher.

### **3.5.3 Research**

In the Nobis Project students learn about an international issue through independent and group research. After the inspiring presentation and the introduction of the project, students select an aspect of the topic to further investigate. The quality and quantity of the student research depends on the criteria set by the teacher and the length of time allocated to the project. Teachers are advised to include lessons on media literacy alongside the student-led research. The aim of the research element is to take students through Bloom's six levels of learning: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Bloom 1984). Research, as a defining element of the Nobis Project, combines two types of knowledge acquisition: critical thinking – as common to the practice of service-learning (2.4.1.2), and global awareness from specific international content – as found in GCE (2.4.1.2).

The Nobis Project's research component works in conjunction with the reflective aspect. Organized class discussions, preferably student led, help students interpret and analyse the collected information. Dewey asserts that 'reflective attention ... involves judging, reasoning, deliberation; it means that the child has a question of his own and is actively engaged in seeking and selecting relevant material with which to answer it' (Dewey 1990, 148). The combination of research and reflection prepares students for the subsequent Action Steps where students use their knowledge to serve others.

#### **3.5.4 Action Steps**

Service to others occurs during the Action Steps (3.4). Students determine a need, related to the topic, and a means to directly respond. This service, unlike traditional service-learning programmes, does not involve students having direct contact with the service's recipients (2.1). Through this unique service student learn how to envision, design and implement a project as a team. The students employ and build their communication, organisation and interpersonal skills. The independence of creating a project from start to finish gives students a sense of accomplishment and empowerment (3.5.2). At the completion of their project, students recognize the process by which they reached their goal and the satisfaction of knowing their actions benefited someone else.

#### **3.5.5 Reflection**

Ongoing organized reflection along each step of the Nobis Project is critical (Shumer 1997, 29). The service-learning research and practitioner guides both emphasize the valuable role reflection plays in the learning process (Brooks-Harris and Stock-Ward, 1999, 8). Boud *et al.* (1985, 26) argue that, 'One of the most important ways to enhance learning is to strengthen the link between the learning experience and the reflective activity which follows it'.

Incorporating reflective activities may result in 'a new way of doing something, the clarification of an issue, the development of a skill or the resolution of a problem' (Boud *et al.* 1985, 34). Reflection also aids students' understanding of their emotional responses to learning by providing a safe place for students to explore and take ownership over their feelings (Boud *et al.* 1985, 64). For the Nobis Project, reflection also serves as a means for teachers to take the pulse of the class while providing time for students to make connections



between their classroom experiences, their previous knowledge and the new knowledge under investigation.

### **3.6 Chapter Summary**

This chapter outlines how previous work in service-learning, experiential education, socially conscious art methodology, and creative-process theory influenced the Nobis Project design. The defining elements of the Nobis Project design – ‘inspiring introduction’, ‘student responsibility’, ‘research’, ‘Action Steps’ and ‘reflection’ – were then considered.

The Nobis Project aims to address the lack of international focus in domestic service-learning programmes. Experiential education and service-learning both view the experience as primary and require linking experience to the curriculum. Service-learning requires that the action benefit recipients. Both recommend tireless reflection practices to enhance the learning. The Nobis Project adheres to the above guidelines and supplements service-learning’s sole domestic focus by having students determine how to directly respond to the international topic under investigation.

This programme is an innovative model for teaching global citizenship through service from a domestic location, a model until now untested. The Nobis Project claims that through its creative process approach it can teach students the six principles of civic engagement while giving students a direct and meaningful way to act, help or respond to global issues. In doing so, it carries out Dewey’s (1990, 91) experiential education goal to link action to knowledge.

The next chapter examines the methodology used to test whether the Nobis Project (1) realizes the goals of service-learning to teach civic engagement and (2) teaches the civic goals of global citizenship.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter examines the methodological decisions made during the design, implementation and analysis of this research. I begin by restating the research question and how research criteria were chosen and tested. I then discuss the initially selected research style, action research, and how the results from the research pilot dictated changing to a collective case study approach. Particulars on selection of schools, ability to gain access, and relationships with teachers and students are then discussed. Data collection and analysis methods, interviews, surveys, and class recordings are each considered in turn. The chapter concludes with reflection on my experiences during the research process, with specific attention to the role of bias.

### **4.2 Research Question**

As mentioned in 1.2, the Nobis Project is an original creative-process approach to service-learning and global citizenship education constructed to teach secondary school students six dimensions of civic engagement: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, and empathy. It directs students to understand and devise ways to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients. This thesis examines the claims of the Nobis Project using data collected from a series of five case studies, each with an international focus. It analyses how far the Nobis Project (1) realizes the goals of service-learning to teach civic engagement, and (2) teaches the civic goals of global citizenship.

#### 4.2.1 Setting Criteria

The objective of this research was to test the efficacy of the Nobis Project in teaching civic engagement. To determine what constituted efficacy, I investigated what civic engagement objectives service-learning and GCE independently claim to achieve (2.4).

At the start of my research, I intended to investigate the Nobis Project's efficacy according to only service-learning criteria. After completing the case studies and beginning data analysis, however, I realized that I needed a way to measure the international dimension. As an American student studying at a British university, I concurrently began to investigate the practice of service-learning in the UK. I found that service-learning programmes at the university level in Britain were designed for international students in study-abroad programmes. These programmes integrated volunteer service but were not typically intended for British student participation (The International Partnership of Service-Learning and Leadership n.d.; Foundation for International Education n.d.; University of Manchester n.d.). After consulting a British academic, I was directed to the subjects of citizenship education and GCE. Citizenship education shares service-learning's goal to teach civic responsibility. GCE adds an international dimension that is not found in traditional service-learning experiences and that the Nobis Project was designed to incorporate. This introduction to GCE provided the measurement tool needed for testing the Nobis Project's international dimension. The inclusion of GCE also expanded the research scope of this thesis to include a comparison of the goals and practices of the American service-learning approach and the British<sup>10</sup> inclusion of GCE as part of their national citizenship education curriculum.

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<sup>10</sup> In addition to British research and implementation of GCE, other European and Canadian researchers have contributed to the study of GCE (Pigozzi, 2006; Schweisfurth 2006).

From a review of service-learning research, I found four categories of reported outcomes: ‘community benefits’, ‘institutional benefits’, ‘academic engagement’, and ‘civic engagement’ (2.4). Because a longitudinal study would be necessary to measure the first three categories, these areas were not considered. The category of ‘civic engagement’ was left as the primary service-learning category to test against the Nobis Project’s efficacy. As discussed in 2.4.1, Eyler and Giles present a five-tier measurement of civic engagement in service-learning programmes: ‘knowledge’, ‘skills’, ‘values’, ‘efficacy’, and ‘commitment’. This measurement tool was adapted for my research with my added element of ‘empathy’ (2.4.1.6), an area in which I anticipated finding results. I was curious if students would empathize with recipients of their service work without having direct contact. Measuring for empathy was a means to test my hypothesis. After choosing to work from Eyler and Giles’ civic-engagement theory, I realized the potential for comparing my research findings with the results from their data collection and analysis methods.

Once GCE was identified as the way to measure the international dimension, I selected Oxfam’s proposed outcomes for GCE, ‘knowledge and understanding’, ‘skills’, and ‘values and attitudes’, each of which fell neatly under the service-learning criteria outlined by Eyler and Giles. I selected Oxfam’s outcomes because of the frequency with which researchers and practitioners refer to their criteria (Brownlie 2001; Ibrahim 2005, 178-179). The service-learning element of ‘commitment’, defined as ‘I must and will do’, allowed for the incorporation of Davies’ emphasis on ‘drive to action’, another identified component of GCE (2.4.1.5). Davies’ (2006, 6) criterion, ‘drive to action’, was added because of its compatibility with service-learning’s focus on action.

My research question and corresponding criteria are listed in table 2-1.

#### **4.2.2 Determining How to Measure Criteria**

I determined that measuring my selected criteria through triangulation would provide, as Berg (1998, 5) argues, a ‘more substantive picture of reality’. Triangulation works under the assumption that each method ‘reveals slightly different facets of the same symbolic reality’ (Berg 1998, 4). Therefore, the use of multiple methods, typically three or more independent sources, leads to a fuller understanding of the subject matter under investigation (McNiff 1994, 84). Denzin (1978, 295) takes this theory further and argues that triangulation is more than the use of multiple data-gathering techniques; it actually involves the collection of multiple sources of data and the use of a variety of investigators, theories, and methods. The variety of data sources I selected included teachers and students. The array of collection methods included conducting pre- and post- surveys, post interviews with teachers and students, teachers’ and students’ journals, recording all classes, and a researcher guided post-project group reflection. The investigators were myself, the case study teachers and the students. The role of using multiple investigators is discussed further in 4.4.2.1 and 4.4.2.2.

After selecting triangulation and the other methods I planned to implement, I then determined which data collection method would allow me to measure the civic engagement criteria. I aimed to measure each criterion with at least three methods (table 4-1). This triangulation approach (Berg 1998, 4) allowed for information to be gathered quantitatively, through surveys, and qualitatively, through interviews, recorded classes and final group reflection. After finding little to no statistical significance in the surveys collected from the pilot case

study (4.5.3), although means were in expected directions, the quantitative aim of my research was replaced with a solely qualitative focus. The abandonment of surveys as a data collection instrument is discussed further in section 4.5.3. The change in methodological focus is discussed in the next section.

<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Sub-criteria</b>	<b>Corresponding Interview Questions</b>	<b>Survey</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Class Recording/ Group Interview</b>
<b>Values</b>					
	Role and Responsibility to Society	m, n, t, u, v	X	X	X
	Value Social Justice	m, n, t, u, v	X	X	X
	Political Responsibility	t, u, v	X	X	X
	Increasing Tolerance for Diversity	e, f, t, u, v	X	X	X
	Care and Concern for Common and Shared Life	e, f, t, u, v	X	X	X
	Concern for the Environment and Commitment to Sustainable Development	t, u, v	X	X	X
<b>Knowledge</b>					
	Knowledge	d, p, q, r, v	X	X	X
	Comprehension	p, q, r	X	X	X
	Analysis	p, q, r		X	X
	Synthesis	p, q, r		X	X
	Evaluation	p, q, r		X	X
<b>Skills</b>					
	Interpersonal Skills	d, e, f, h, v	X	X	X
	Planning and Organisational Skills	d, e, h, v		X	X
	Presentation Skills	d, e, h, v			X
	Research Skills	d, e, h, v			X
	Leadership Skills	d, e, h, t, u, v		X	X
	Self-Motivation	d, e, h, t, u, v		X	X
	Experience Working with Adults	e, g, v	X	X	X
<b>Efficacy</b>					
	Ability to Effect Change	d, e, f, o, r, t, u, v	X	X	X
<b>Commitment</b>					
	Desire to Continue Work	t, u, v	X	X	X
<b>Empathy</b>					
	Sense of Connection	d, t, u, v		X	X
	Change in Behaviour	s, t, u, v		X	X

Table 4-1: Civic Engagement Criteria Measurement

### 4.3 Research Style

When planning my research design I initially selected ‘action research’. McNiff (1994, 5) claims that traditional education research tries to measure and quantify what happens in the classroom, whereas action research attempts to make sense of situations by collaboratively exploring and informing practice by testing ideas and results against several tests. Wisker (2001, 160-161) argues, ‘Action research involves researcher and researched in a shared activity that usually leads to change’. It is an experiential method that tries to solve a problem or test a hypothesis to improve practice (Wisker 2001, 121). I was drawn to action research because it permits research to expand and enhance practice rather than only describing what currently takes place (McNiff 1994, 126). Its experiential approach complemented my focus on experiential learning and permitted changes in research design as new information or variables emerge. This method, commonly used in educational settings, allows for the programme under investigation to evolve from one trial to the next. Seeing that the Nobis Project design had not been implemented, and existed to this point only on paper, the action research method would allow for significant structural changes with each cycle.

At the conclusion of the pilot, it became evident that no significant changes would be needed for the following case studies and therefore following the action research method would not be the best approach to measure the case studies implementation of the civic engagement criteria. I determined that following a ‘collective case study’ approach would more appropriately support my research because of its ability to identify commonly shared themes between similarly operated case studies. Berg (1998, 212) describes the case study method as a systematic gathering of information about a particular person or group to ‘to permit the researcher to effectively understand how it operates or functions’. A collective case study



examines multiple ‘instrumental cases’ with the intention of better understanding a commonly shared theme (Berg 1998, 217). The case itself, in instrumental cases, is of secondary importance to the issue or interest being researched (Berg 1998, 216). The instrumental case study’s aim, to identify a commonly shared theme, supported my research’s intent to assess the efficacy of the Nobis Project model to teach civic engagement, as carried out in five case studies.

Berg (1998, 217) argues that two important elements to consider when working with cases studies are ‘objectivity’ and ‘generalizability’. He asserts that qualitative research is often ‘viewed as suspect when questions of objectivity are asked’ (Berg 1998, 217). Objectivity, however, is closely linked with reproducibility, an element researchers can address by documenting all procedures so that others can replicate the research (Berg 1998, 217). In my research, I have taken care to record and articulate my research process so that others may, if they choose, replicate my study. Because of the influence of the initial action research design, to test a method over a series of cycles, and since little change was needed after the conclusion of the pilot study; I ultimately conducted nearly identical procedures five times. The findings of the case studies are discussed in chapter six.

With regards to generalizability, Berg (1998, 218) suggests that a ‘necessary assumption for all behavior science research’ is that ‘human behavior is predictable’. If this assumption is made, Berg (1998, 218) contends that there is then scientific value in the case study approach. The case study is designed to find the behavioural patterns made over a course of time (Gerring 2007, 19). In my instrumental case studies, specific civic engagement behaviours or attitudes were defined (2.4.1), and data collection methods, surveys and interviews were

designed to isolate student experiences with these behaviours and attitudes. The data collection processes are described in full under 4.5.

The influence of action research methodology remained evident in my overall research design. I chose to continue with the inclusion of teachers and students as co-researchers throughout the process, rather than viewing them as subjects. This choice reflects my interest in gaining trust and consequently deeper insight from the teachers and students on their experience and their recommendations for future cycles. By sharing with students that the project would be repeated and hopefully, widely implemented, I aimed to share the ownership of the Nobis Project method with them with the hope that they would actively recognize and share ideas on how the process needed to be modified. The same strategy was also applied to the teachers, yet most of them commented on their plans to implement the Nobis Project design in future classes. Their attention to areas in need of modification was personally motivated, and this perhaps provided an elevated awareness to the method under investigation (4.4.2.1).

#### **4.4 Case Studies**

The collective case study approach selected for this research, according to Berg (1998, 217), allows ‘better understanding or perhaps enhanced ability to theorize about some larger collection of cases’. This section reviews information specific to the case studies, including school selection, gaining access, teacher/course selection and relationship with teachers. This section concludes with detailed descriptions of relationships with students, specifically focusing on issues related to working with youth.

#### **4.4.1 Access at Selected Schools**

Dewey (1990, 93) argues, ‘An experiment demands particular favorable conditions in order that results may be reached both freely and securely’. My selection of schools was made with Dewey’s argument in mind. Quaker schools are historically known for preparing students for society, not as it is, but as it ought to be (Brinton 1967, 8). It is this belief and the Quaker concern to educate for service and international understanding that made Friends’ schools an ideal environment for conducting my research. Although most American Quaker schools matriculate only a small percentage of Quaker students and staff, these schools were selected to serve as research sites because of their compatible educational philosophy that focuses on a commitment to service, their openness to experiential education and my ability to gain access due to prior affiliation with the selected institutions (Franek 2004). The research findings, however, should be replicable in any secondary school that welcomes experiential teaching.

Negotiating access, especially within educational settings, can be, as White (2002, 36) argues, a ‘particularly sensitive process’. My experience, however, was uncomplicated and straightforward. My previous relationship with the two schools, described below, and the fact that I was completing my postgraduate work at the Centre for Postgraduate Quaker Studies, eased the process.

I am an alumnus of School One (S1). Because of the small size of the school, I built strong relationships with my teachers and have maintained active friendships with many of them since graduation. One of these relationships was with Mary<sup>11</sup> who recently became head teacher of the upper school. I contacted Mary during my first year of postgraduate studies to

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<sup>11</sup> To ensure confidentiality of those who participated in the case studies, all names have been changed.

seek permission to conduct my research at S1. She received my request with enthusiasm and agreed to be involved.

During my undergraduate studies I worked at School Two (S2) in the lower school afterschool programme. While there I befriended the teacher Anne, who has since become upper school vice principal. I contacted Anne about conducting my research at S2, and she forwarded my inquiry through the proper channels. The school agreed to be involved and after granting permission, asked me to teach a two-week introductory course on Quaker History to the 2005 freshman class in the upper school. I accepted and during my visit I was able to begin to build relationships with the upper school faculty and staff. During this time at S2 I realized that many of the students I supervised in the lower school afterschool programme were now students in the upper school (4.4.2.2).

### *School Demographics*

As a discrete sample, the two research sites, S1 and S2, offer distinctive attributes.

Differences between the schools are demonstrated in table 4-2:

<b>S1</b>	<b>S2</b>
Trimester – 10 weeks	Semester – 15 weeks
Call teachers by first name	Call teachers by title and last name
Graded by written evaluation	Graded by traditional letter grades
Rural setting	Urban setting
17% of students receiving tuition aid	24% of students receiving tuition aid
23% students of colour	24% students of colour
8% students/staff Quaker	5% students/staff Quaker
Approx student body: 500	Approx student body: 1000
Approx Upper School student body: 150	Approx Upper School student body: 400
Student-teacher ratio average: 9/1	Student-teacher ratio average: 15/1

Table 4-2: Demographic Differences Between Schools

### ***Change In Number of Schools Selected***

In the early conception of my research design, I planned to conduct field research at a third school. When the time came to draw up a detailed schedule for data collection, however, I recognized that conducting research at a third school would be difficult to coordinate. I compensated for this change by repeating the case studies five times, three with S1, including the pilot, and two with S2, rather than once at three schools. Table 4-3 outlines the title and timeframe for each case study.

<b>Case Study Title</b>	<b>Time of Study</b>
S1-Pilot	Spring 2006
S1-Fall	Fall 2006
S2-Fall	Fall 2006
S1-Spring	Spring 2007
S2-Spring	Spring 2007

Table 4-3: Case Studies Titles and Time

### ***Determining My Role at Research Sites***

Ideally I would have preferred to be present for the duration of each case study. This was unrealistic on two accounts. First, the financial and logistical challenges of staying in two towns, neither of which was my residence, for ten to fifteen weeks respectively were too great. Second, being present for the entire run of each case study would have not allowed for multiple case studies to operate concurrently at the two schools where I was able to gain access, and who offered varying demographics. It would have taken another year of data

collection. The benefit of having been present would have allowed for more observations of student interaction, a greater degree of collaboration with teachers and students, and first-hand knowledge of areas in need of modification. The benefit that did occur from operating the case studies from a distance included an expedited refinement of the Nobis Project teacher materials and communication with teachers on the expectations and project method. Most significantly, the distance forced the Nobis Project materials to be comprehensive enough to stand on their own, as they were originally intended. By the final two studies, S1-Spring and S2-Spring, I only met with the class at the close of the term. These teachers were given additional materials and completed all the areas I initially introduced with the other case studies (4.4.2).

### *Age of Students*

The S1 head teacher advised that the Nobis Project would best work with upper level students (juniors and seniors) due to their level of emotional development and independence. The pilot and both courses at S2 consisted mostly of seniors. Having primarily seniors for the pilot, which was conducted in a separate school year, aided the potential dilemma of diminishing the upper level pool of students to work with. At S1 with an upper school student body of 150, less than half the school's total enrolment, and an average class size of twelve-fifteen, I would meet with nearly half of the upper level student body during the three case studies. Having seniors participate in the pilot, and holding the pilot in a separate school year, eliminated these students from the pool of students for the following case studies. This was beneficial in assuring participation by the maximum number of students. In the end only two students participated in two case studies. Ultimately, because of the small school size at S1, the age of students was determined by teacher availability and course offerings.

Consequently, S1-Fall and S1-Spring courses were a mix of intermediate students, primarily sophomores and juniors. No apparent discrepancies between the intermediate and upper level students surfaced, with the exception of seniors distracted by their impending separation from the school.

#### **4.4.2 Cooperative Inquiry**

McNiff (1994, 4) warns that teachers are often wary of outside researchers with underlying motives. With this in mind, I asked for teachers to volunteer to work with me and presented the research as a cooperative inquiry. To show my appreciation for their willingness to work with me, I offered, as a collaborator, to complete any work pertaining to the class, such as collecting materials on a certain topic or reading papers. Three teachers asked for assistance in collecting materials for their courses.

Denzin and Lincoln (1998b, 285) claim that cooperative inquiry is ‘more likely to be successful with a group of people who experience themselves as relatively empowered and who wish to explore and develop their practice together’. To implement Denzin and Lincoln’s recommendation, I explained the long-range potential of ‘our’ research to teachers and students. I described how the Nobis Project, if proven to be effective, could be used when teaching a variety of subjects and that teachers across the world could learn how to implement the programme. I shared that the long-term goal of the Nobis Project is to build a website for the programme where teachers and students can log on and upload information on other schools’ projects from around the world. The students were excited over participating ‘as guinea pigs’ in a project that one-day might be offered worldwide. Each teacher who

volunteered to participate expressed an interest in the Nobis Project's potential. As mentioned earlier, many of the teachers quickly became interested in reproducing the Nobis Project method in future classes and therefore exhibited a vested interest in the research process (4.3).

I presented the research as a collaborative and cooperative inquiry by initiating formal and informal opportunities for teachers and students to share concerns, observations and suggestions. These opportunities with teachers consisted of periodic e-mail or phone correspondence throughout the process as a means to show my support and collect information on class progress (4.4.2.1). Only one teacher was effective at maintaining regular correspondence (4.4.2.1). For the pilot I scheduled phone meetings during the team teachers' planning period and made multiple trips to S1 to assess the progress and lead a few class discussions. This level of involvement reflected the need to clarify for teachers how to implement the Nobis Project design. For the two fall courses I only met the class early in the term and at the conclusion of the semester. For the two spring courses I met the classes only at the close of the term. My decrease in participation with the case studies was purposeful, as it was the intention for the Nobis Project to operate with as little outside intervention as possible. Accordingly, my reliance on case study teachers increased, as did my attempts to initiate correspondence.

For students in the first three case studies, opportunities to share concerns and suggestions took the form of sending letters home with students that included my contact information with the intent that they would contact me or assigning students to send an e-mail introduction to my e-mail account. I would reply with a personalized response in order to



foster rapport and lines of communication. It was difficult to engage the students as collaborators. When letters were sent home, no students responded. When assigned to e-mail, students completed the assignment but rarely continued communication. Further discussion on correspondence with students is found in 4.4.2.2.

Serow (1997, 21) asserts, 'In return for being granted access to a full range of potential data sources, researchers would accept obligation to produce usable information, that is, findings and conclusions that are relevant to curriculum and instruction'. I took Serow's recommendation and presented my research to the school administration and faculty as a method they could potentially use across subjects. The administrators' and teachers' enthusiasm over the apparent success of the project created difficulty when teachers requested a finite summary of results to share with colleagues and supervisors before all the case studies and analysis were completed. White (2002, 37) warns of this scenario when 'loyalties are split between the researchers and the researched'. I now recognize that I would have benefited from forewarning teachers of a realistic timeline in expecting a formal report on results.

#### **4.4.2.1 Teacher Selection and Participation**

When first contacting prospective teachers, I prepared a one-page introduction of the Nobis Project and outlined the research requirements (appendix I). My expectations of teachers consisted of selecting an international focus for the class or guide the class to select an international topic, leading the class through the Nobis Project's Action Steps, build on-going reflection assignments into the syllabi (typically in the form of journal writing), and audio

recording each class. After teachers agreed to participate, they were provided with an information packet that included an explanation of the Nobis Project, research expectations, and supplemental materials designed to assist them in curriculum design and grading (appendix II).

### ***Maintaining Access***

White claims that, 'Every researcher has commitments which he or she must fulfill as part of "research bargain" '. These commitments 'usually extend much further' than the interviewer and interviewee. 'In much educational research elements of the research bargain can be traced from the students, through staff, headteachers, and finally to the university department and organisation sponsoring the research project' (White 2002, 35). I took White's position to be useful advice. However, because of my ease in gaining access, I anticipated that maintaining access would be a minimal concern. I did find that I was eager to please the teachers, as I perceived them as 'doing me a favour'. I now recognize that I did not need to perceive them in that way. My methods of showing appreciation were well received, such as meeting with heads of school for regular updates; leaving thank-you notes with the teachers, heads of school and heads of departments; and always verbally thanking the faculty and staff who helped me during my visits to the schools.

#### **4.4.2.2 Relationship with Students**

Practical strategies for working with youth involve deciding how to present my research and myself as researcher. Renold (2002, 122) reports that new methods of sociology perceive the child as

active, constructive and value producing and worthy of study in their own right. From the 'object' to the 'subject' of research, children are no longer researched 'on' but 'with' and their accounts of social reality and personal experience are taken as competent portrayals of their experiences.

I followed this new sociological trend and, as mentioned earlier, the action research practice of presenting research with students as collaborative. Another concern that I struggled with was the power dynamic between researcher and student. I followed the recommendation of Luttrell (2005, 243) and Mathner and Docuet (1997, 138) who argue that power tension between researcher and subject cannot be eliminated and instead should be named so that other researchers can decide for themselves what has been lost or gained because of the dynamics that existed. Luttrell (2005, 244) advocates that 'researchers think about their research decisions in terms of what is lost and what is gained, rather than what might be ideal'. An example from this research is the sacrifice of not being present for the duration of the research (4.5.1). Below I describe other researchers' recommendations for working with youth and a step-by-step account of how I presented myself and research to students.

Renold (2002, 125) argues for listening carefully to children's stories. 'What was important', he said, 'was not just listening to their stories, but taking them seriously and not trivialising their accounts'. I followed this advice when interviewing students and I took extra care to be attentive to their answers. Thorne (1993, 14) asserts that 'to learn from children, adults have to challenge the deep assumption that they already know what children are "like", both because, as former children, adults have been there, and because, as adults, they regard children as less complete versions than themselves'. The task of keeping my assumptions on students' experiences in-check was especially relevant when working with S1 students, my

former high school, where I felt I had intimate knowledge of the type of student found in the S1 community.

### ***Constructing Partnership***

When first meeting a class, I would introduce myself by my first name. Renold (2002, 124) recommends operating on a first name basis when working with children as a means to ‘overcome some of the boundaries of authority’. At S1 teachers are addressed by first names, whereas S2 teachers are more formally addressed by titles and last names. I would continue my introduction by sharing that I am an alumnus of their school, as in the case with S1, or an alumnus of a Quaker school, as in the case of S2. By doing this I aimed to establish a connection with the students.

From there I would share my educational background and other significant activities I had engaged in since graduation from high school, such as travels abroad and my work as an artist. I would continue by sharing that my interest in the use of art as activism prompted my PhD work at the University of Birmingham. I would then state something along the lines of,

My current research, and what brings me here today, is a service-learning curriculum that aims to teach international understanding. Your class is one of the first trials of this method. I am hoping to learn if the program works, how it needs to be changed, and if it could be useful for future classes. Your participation will be instrumental to my research.

I would add that the long-term goals for the programme was, if successful, to market it to other schools around the world. By discussing the long-term potential of the research, I hoped to communicate to students the potential impact their involvement may have on a greater scale. By listing my various achievements and interests, I hoped to build rapport with student by allowing them to potentially identify areas of common interest.

After taking time to answer students' questions, I, in the first three case studies, showed a PowerPoint presentation entitled 'Instigating Social Change' (3.5.1). Much of the presentation was drawn from work for my MA thesis (Clougherty 2004). Pilot study results suggested that the presentation should include more about general activism methods and less on the history of selected artists and artistic methods. The revised PowerPoint opened with commonly practiced methods of activism and then showed a variety of examples of creative activism by artists and laypeople (3.2.3). For the final two case studies, I did not meet the students until the close of the term. The teachers presented the PowerPoint with a prepared script and then described my research, the Nobis Project, and me – the researcher.

To engage the students in the research process, the Nobis Project incorporates student-initiated learning into its design as a means to stimulate ownership over the learning process. Payne (2000, 7) supports this strategy of providing opportunities for ownership as a strategy for engagement. The Nobis Project's student-led approach was emphasized when describing the project to teachers and students. Most students initially responded with excitement to the opportunity to independently design the group project. A few students at S2 expressed immediate concern over assessment and grading criteria. Once the project was underway, nearly all students expressed frustration over not having boundaries or expectations to guide them through the process. Hearing these concerns from students in the pilot study, additional attention was given to explaining the project and setting expectations for the later case studies. The Action Steps (3.4) were printed in poster format to be hung in each classroom. With these added elements, students spoke less of frustrations regarding boundaries and expectation, yet continued to express frustration about the early process of working together as a group and making decisions as a team. Reflecting on my methods of presenting this

research as collaborative, I now question if there were more ways I could have included the students or if including them at a higher level would have influenced interview data. In the end, I am satisfied with the level of collaboration between students and researcher.

When determining my relationship with students I struggled with reactivity. Bryman (1988, 112) defines reactivity as

...the reaction on the part of those being investigated to the investigator and his or her research instruments. Surveys and experiments create an awareness on the part of subjects that they are being investigated; the problem of reactivity draws attention to the possibility that this awareness creates a variety of undesirable consequences in that people's behaviour or responses may not be indicative of their normal behaviour or views.

Bryman (1988, 112) adds that subjects are prone to being influenced 'by what they perceive to be the underlying aims of the investigation'. Reflecting on my methods I question how the data may have been influenced by what I stated as the intentions of the research. I deliberately withheld the list of criteria I was measuring because I did not want to influence their responses to my interview and survey questions. Instead I stated that my intentions were 'to see if the method worked'. By stating that I wanted to see if the method work may have influenced students, and teachers, to respond to my interview question with only positive observations of the programme. To combat this possibility I employed two strategies. First, at the time of the interview I reiterated that the goal of the research was to determine what worked and what did not work so I could make changes for the future. This statement supported my consideration of students as co-researchers. The second strategy was to add research questions that asked students what areas of the programme were frustrating. Nearly all students reported frustrations or negative areas of the programme, which provides

evidence that they did not withhold all negative information. This evidence, however, does not eliminate the possibility that student reactivity influenced the research in other ways.

Another aspect of reactivity, according to Bryman (1988, 112), is the influence of the characteristics of the interviewer. When working with youth, one characteristic of the interviewer, which can be particularly sensitive, is authority. In relation to my research I made explicit and repeated attempts to inform students that their interactions with me would have no influence on grading and their responses would remain confidential. I also made attempts to find ways to put the students at ease in my presence. One example included my introduction where I identified areas that the students and I had in common. My identity as being a student from a Quaker school presented at least one area I had in common with all students. Concerns related to the ethics of working with youth are considered in the next section.

### ***Ethics of Working with Youth***

Ball (1981) and Burgess (1984) argue that conducting research in educational settings raises particular ethical issues. This research followed the ethical guidelines for research involving children provided by the United States Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) (n.d.). I followed, for example, the OHRP's guidelines for child assent and parental/guardian permission. Burgess (1984, 207) urges researchers to continually self-evaluate and reflect on their experiences in order to confront and understand 'the moral dilemmas and the compromises' that have to be made in the context of social research. My reflection practices consisted of regular journal writing and monthly summaries sent by e-mail to my supervisor.

Pugsley and Welland (2002, 35) warn of the dangers of ‘reciprocity’, arguing that interaction with students, teachers and administrators each present different ethical issues.

It is important not to engage in any kind of ‘reciprocity’ with students (and for that matter staff) which may compromise the participating institution or any members of this staff in any way. ‘Reciprocity’ with students during interviews may be particularly volatile in this respect, as could many other forms of intervention, as the possibility of undermining staff or institutional authority is ever-present (Pugsley and Welland 2002, 37).

In my research, this type of scenario could have occurred if a student had admitted during an interview to stealing funds raised by the class and I had responded by offering my advice on the situation and not reported the incident to a school staff member. Before conducting interviews I mentally prepared for how I would respond in such a situation. I was fortunate that no circumstances arose where inappropriate reciprocity occurred.

However I found, when transcribing the interviews, that I affirmed students’ behaviours or intentions. For example, one student stated that he felt the class could have taken the initiative to better publicize their event and then listed a number of methods that could have been used. I responded by asking if he had shared these ideas with the class. He said, no and added that he was not one for speaking up in class. I told him that he should have intervened because it was an excellent idea. This exchange demonstrates an area where, I, as a researcher needed to practice phrasing my affirmations in the form of a question. I could have responded by asking, ‘If you had spoken up and shared your idea – and the class had followed your advice – do you think the project would have benefited?’ Or by asking, ‘now that you see the results of holding back your ideas, would you consider acting differently next time?’ Either of these responses would have led the student to see future benefit of taking a risk and sharing his ideas without injecting my judgement about how the situation could have



occurred. An alternative way to view this exchange would be that as collaborators there is no harm in researcher and student sharing observations through positive reciprocity.

An ethical dilemma that arose during my research appeared when trying to build trust between students during the interview process. At the start of the interview, I told most students that ‘what they shared with me would not be shared with their teachers’. In addition, the instructions to the survey read, ‘Your responses will be confidential, and no one at your school will have access to your individual answers’, and I asked students to list their name so that I could match their answers to answers they gave in the post-survey. With regard to the confidentiality of the interviews, I found that I had to stop myself a couple of times from revealing to teachers what specific students shared. The teachers were eager to learn what my interviews uncovered, as each teacher expressed interest in repeating the programme in future classes. This excitement to hear about my findings from the interviews, and the small class sizes, often made keeping the identity of students from the teacher difficult. Having students share their perspectives on the teachers’ influence over the project was a helpful component of the research. I quickly learned to inform teachers that I could not report on my results until my research was complete, and to refrain from sharing specific comments students shared and instead offer generalizations. This was difficult and again called into question the degree of ‘genuine’ collaboration between researcher and teacher.

The logistics of maintaining the confidentiality of the surveys proved difficult because the teachers dispensed and collected the surveys. No method was put into place to assure that teachers did not review the surveys before they were mailed. In retrospect I had two alternative options. I could have eliminated the confidentiality statement, which may or may

not have influenced student responses, or I could have implemented extra precautions to assure confidentiality, such as asking an outsider to collect the surveys, having each student insert their completed survey into an envelope that would be immediately sealed and mailed, or asking students to mail the completed surveys directly to me in self-addressed envelopes. None of the students or teachers shared concern over the confidentiality of their survey, interview, or any other aspect of their involvement with me as researcher.

Consent is another significant ethical factor when working with youth. I addressed this by creating an introductory letter, signed by the teacher and headteacher of the upper school, and accompanied by a consent form (appendix III). The headteacher's signature was added to demonstrate to the parents the school's support for the project. The letter included an outline of the nature of the research, an introduction to the researcher, the expectation from participants, and the right for participants to decline participation. These letters and forms were drawn up, dispensed and collected for all student participants. For those students who were minors, a permission form was sent home for parents/guardians to sign and return. Consent forms were also collected from teachers.

A logistical concern arose regarding students who declined to participate. Would they be required to drop the class, or could they participate in class independent of the research? I was concerned how to account for a student who turned out to be instrumental to the outcome of the project, but was not participating in the research. When consulting the S1 headteacher, she assured me that it would be very unlikely that a student or parent would not want their child to participate. She implied that the schools' philosophy towards service work drew families to the school that would be excited to participate in a programme like the Nobis

Project. It was at this point that the headteachers' name was added to the letter sent to parents explaining the project, which served as an extra means to secure participation from all students enrolled in each course. In the end, no students or parents declined participation in the research.

## **4.5 Data Collection and Analysis**

In the following section, the data collection and analysis methods used in this research, interviews, surveys and class recordings, are discussed.

### **4.5.1 Class Recordings**

Researchers, according to Serow (1997, 18), must 'be able to describe in some detail the process through which the changes occurred'. Class recordings were selected to aid in determining how the process of change, if any, occurred in students. As discussed earlier (4.4.1), it would have been my preference to be present for the duration of each class. Logistics and financial means prevented the opportunity and I was reliant on collecting information from class recordings, interviews and teacher correspondence.

To record classes, I delivered my digital voice recorder to each S1 case study. The teacher received a one-page summary of instructions and was encouraged to designate a student to oversee the recording of each class and downloading files weekly. At the time I was making plans to work with the sole S2 teacher, she was considering purchasing a digital voice recorder for her own use. I advised her on my search for different models and she chose to

purchase the same model I purchased. This allowed for easy transfer of digital files, as the software was the same for both recorders.

My choice to ask students to operate the recorder was supported by McNiff's (1994, 80) suggestion that, 'Pupils may be taught to be efficient operators [of recording devices], enjoying the task and feeling a responsible part of the action'. As anticipated, the teachers were wary of how to use the recording device and eagerly passed on the responsibility to students. The accuracy of each case study in remembering to record each class varied and remembering to download files in order to make room for new recordings was consistently a problem. This illustrates one of the downfalls of the researcher not being present for the duration of the case study and of relying on technology. Ultimately the inconsistency in which classes were recorded invalidated the usefulness of the recordings in this research. One benefit that was attributable to recording daily classes, the students gained comfort in the presence of the candy bar size recorder making the presence of the recorder at the end of term for individual interviews inconsequential.

#### **4.5.2 Interviews and Journals**

Serow's (1997, 19) research on service-learning programmes suggests that 'none of the research techniques presently available to the social sciences is capable of conclusively establishing the precise causation of an observed behavior'. Highlighting the complexity of analyzing causality, Serow (1997, 21) reflects, 'What makes the assessment of service-learning so challenging is that it ultimately requires the evaluator or researcher not only to capture the essence of the experience itself, but also to show that students are converting that

experience into other outcomes'. Berg (1998, 64) suggests interviewing as a useful technique to collect information from interviewees on 'how participants come to attach certain meanings to phenomena or events'. With Serow's warning in mind, I designed my research to collect multiple forms of data from students and teachers: interviews, journals, and surveys. One area I identified would need close attention is how to account for students' pre-existing goals and values as it related to their perception of the project experience (Serow 1997, 17). The pre-class and post-class survey was designed as a method to address this concern. However when the surveys were abandoned (4.5.3), the emphasis was placed on interviews.

The leading data gathering methods for case studies, according to Berg (1998, 214), include interviews and observation. Berg defines the interview as a 'conversation with a purpose... the purpose to gather information' (1998, 57). Linde (1993, 60) disputes the prevailing view that the interview is distinct from non-contrived social situations and argues that the interview is a naturally occurring form of communication. A common example includes doctor-patient relationships (Linde 1993 60). Other scholars offer supporting positions on interviewing approaches. Oakley (1981, 41) maintains that the best means of gaining trust and building rapport is when the interviewer invests his or her identity into the relationship and avoids a hierarchical arrangement. White (2002, 33) views the interview as a form of social interaction and the behaviours of interviewer and interviewee dictate the dynamics of the interview. Douglas (1985) offers the term 'creative interviewing': a method that encourages the interviewer to create a climate for mutual exchange where the interviewer displays his or her own feelings during the interview as a means to elicit feelings from the interviewee. These conversationalist approaches suggest that the flow of the interview should follow the natural rhythm of personal conversation where a balance between sharing and

receiving information is present. Benny and Hughes (1956, 142) argue for ‘both parties [of an interview to] behave as though they are of equal status for its duration, whether or not this is actually so’. Each of the above positions was considered before engaging in the interview process.

Interviewing, both with an individual or group, offers an opportunity and stimulus for participants to reflect on their experiences (Pugsley and Welland 2002, 40). Denzin and Lincoln (1998a, 154) claim that stories are the closest a researcher can come to understand the experience of an individual. Experiences, in this view, are the stories people live. The act of retelling affirms the experience and captures the essence of personal and social history (Denzin and Lincoln 1998a, 154). In addition to interviewing, it was my intention to collect and analyse on-going student and teacher reflection from journal writing as a written form of story-telling.

Mandating journal writing from students was dependent on whether the teacher was persistent in assigning journal writing as homework or offering in-class time to write. The use of the journal varied greatly from one case study to the next, and I ultimately decided that the data collected from interviews provided ample material for analysis and did not press the teachers to mandate journal writing for my research purposes. I continually encouraged teachers to employ a variety of reflection methods throughout the term.

Mandating journal writing from teachers was also abandoned, due to my concern over maintaining access and positive working relationships. Other teachers advised me that the request would be seen as burdensome. Instead I scheduled regular phone meetings, where I

took notes, or initiated periodic e-mail exchanges. Only one teacher was diligent in providing a written reflection throughout the process.

For two of the five studies, I conducted the interviews before all aspects of the Nobis Project were complete, as I travelled to attend the initial event of their project. This was not preferred, but was a logistical choice to be present for an event rather than going at the close of the term. In these instances, if I had gone at the close of the term, students would have been preoccupied with preparing for exams. By attending the event I hoped to show students my commitment to their project and to witness first-hand the feedback from other attendees.

### ***Group Interviews***

On the first day back to class following the projects, I arranged to meet the class in their classroom<sup>12</sup> during their regularly scheduled class time and lead a group interview or reflection on the project. Quinn (2005, 11) suggests that group interviews, ‘like group conversation of all kinds, do turn up information and insights that might not otherwise emerge’. I aimed to create conditions in the group interview that would foster one student’s reflection inciting another student to recall similar or counter experiences. With these recent reflections in mind, I coordinated, when logistics permitted, to implement the individual interviews after the group interview had been conducted. I also chose to lead the group interview directly after the project to assure that an organized reflection opportunity would be carried out, as in accord with the service-learning methodology. This choice is supported by Payne’s (2000, 10-11) view that the practice of reflection is when the learning is solidified.

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<sup>12</sup> All group interviews were conducted in their classroom with the exception of S1-Fall, which was held in the large room where their project was displayed.

White (2002, 40) concurs stating that interviewing 'is often a welcome opportunity and stimulus for those involved as participants to reflect on their own experiences'. By timing the group and individual interviews directly after the conclusion of the Nobis Project I sought to capture a fresh perspective from students and teachers on their experiences.

My role in the group interview, as advised by Renold (2002, 126), was to serve as facilitator, only interjecting when the conversation stalled or to probe students to further explore an idea. Renold (2002, 126) shares that she would 'refrain from asking questions and as far as possible allow the children themselves to set the agenda for the topic of discussion'. This technique supported the student-led style of the Nobis Project. Unfortunately, when put into practice, only the vocal students would answer the prompts and a lively discussion never took place. Accordingly, I resorted to asking lots of open-ended questions and making a point to ask the quieter students to add their perspectives. In retrospect, although the group conversation may have led to new insights, and in some cases was a valuable source of information that students referred back to during one-on-one interviews, the alternative approach would be to use the one-on-one interview as a mode of reflection, and the group interview may have been more dynamic after students had already processed their opinions. During the group interview I asked a few questions similar or identical to questions asked during the interview (appendix IV). This tactic resulted in some students commenting, 'When you first asked that question in class I thought [XXX], and after thinking about it I now think [XXX]'. Indicating that holding the group interview first did influence data collection.



### ***Individual Interviews***

I chose to hold individual interviews on the school campus. The students registered for a thirty to forty minute meeting time on a schedule I prepared according to the school's schedule and was passed around during class. The available times ranged from the start of school day to approximately two hours after school. The majority of students signed up to meet with me during their free periods, lunch breaks, or asked their teachers to miss a class. A small number met with me after school hours. At S1 the other faculty agreed, when appropriate, to let students miss class to meet with me. At S2, the students have different lunch breaks, and each have a period allotted for independent study. This, and the small class sizes, allowed for trouble-free scheduling. Most interviews lasted between fifteen and twenty minutes. The thirty to forty minute interview blocks allowed for slow starts (on more than one occasion I had to track down a student) as well as permitting time for me to write notes, between student interviews, and reflect on the preceding interview.

I coordinated locations for the interviews before my arrival. At S1 I was able to secure offices in the main building, all of which housed comfortable sofas and chairs, and floor to ceiling windows. At S2 I was able to secure starkly appointed rooms, with no windows, that were used as tutoring rooms or music practice rooms. In both locations I arranged the seating so that the interviewee and I would face one another. My voice recorder was placed on a side table in peripheral view and at optimal recording distance. My choice of using the digital voice recorder as my method of data collection is supported by Quinn's position that recording devices are less intrusive than note taking. She states, 'In my own view, nothing is more intrusive...than a listener scribbling madly rather than looking at you while you talk. ... Tape recorders, in this sense, may well be *less* intrusive than paper and pen or pencil ... since

they free the interviewer to be a good listener and pay attention’ (Quinn 2005, 20). Quinn (2005, 20) adds that recorders are now ‘small and quiet, so that their presence is almost always quickly forgotten’.

After securing the location for my interviews, I next examined how I would present myself at the interview. Berg (1998, 75) argues that reactivity and rapport is largely dependent on the interviewee’s perception of the interviewer’s demeanour and appearance. Stone (1962, 88) states, ‘Clothes often tell more about the person than his conversation’. Taking these perspectives under advisement I selected ‘professional’ clothing that felt comfortable when sitting. At S1, a campus nestled in the woods and where the primary upper school building is a log cabin, both teachers and students dress casually. At S2, the oldest school in its city, built in the mid-1800s, a dress-code exists. My professional dress was considered dressy for S1 and typical of faculty at S2. My rationale, taking into account the discrepancy, was I wanted to appear that the students’ time was important to me and that I was important. Seeing me as important was a strategy used, not to intimidate, but to reaffirm that students should not miss their scheduled meeting time.

I began each interview with an informal greeting while I turned on the recorder. I then stated an introduction. Below is a version of what was stated.

I’m here with, [STUDENT NAME]. This way I’ll remember who I was talking with when I go back to listen to the recording later. I’m going to ask you a short list of questions about your experience with the [XXX] class. The more open and honest you are with me, the better. I’m trying to learn what worked, what didn’t work and how to make the program better for future groups.

Referencing the fact that I was going to listen to the recording later may have impacted students’ candour although my intention was to explain, in a joking way, why I was talking to

the recorder. With some students I added a line about not sharing the interview information with their teacher. I added this when meeting with students whom I knew the teacher was having difficulty with, or whom I intuitively felt would be more apt to sharing if they felt their information was confidential. With very shy students or students whom I met with the first period of the day I often started the interview with casual questions about their day, the class they had next, or how long they had been a student at this school. During the early minutes of the interview I found myself recalling Berg's (1998, 80) discussion on 'nonverbal channels' of communication and I began to focus on my placement of arms and hands, nods of head, and facial inflections. With my role as listener, I recognized that these nonverbal clues I shared towards the interviewee should reflect my attentive interest. Reciprocally, I was watchful of nonverbal clues shared by students and took a record of them at the close of the interview.

### ***Interview Style***

Initially my readings and peer discussions at research conferences encouraged me to take a conversational approach to the interview, as mentioned above (Berg 1998, 73). The argument for the conversational interviewing approach suggests interviewees are familiar with conversations and respond to this familiar style (Berg 1998, 73). I had intended to carry out the interview in this manner and prepared a list of prompt questions to refer to if needed and to make sure certain topics were addressed. When developing the question prompts, I followed Berg's (1998, 65) suggestion and created an outline of all the broad categories that might be relevant to the research, specifically relating to the civic engagement criteria (2.4.1). From this list, I developed a list of questions that address each of the criteria. Berg (1998, 65) claims that there are four essential types of interview questions that must be included in the

interview: ‘essential questions, extra questions, throw-away questions, and probing questions’. Berg’s (1998) definition of each type of question is listed below.

- (1) Essential questions pertain explicitly to the central focus of the study (1998, 65).
- (2) Extra questions phrase the question in slightly different context to confirm the reliability of earlier responses (1998, 66).
- (3) Throw-away questions either aim to build rapport, set the pace, change the flow of the interview or collect useful demographic information (1998, 66).
- (4) Probing questions are designed to draw out more information from the interviewee so the shared account can be fully understood (1998, 67).

Berg (1998, 67) warns that researchers must ‘ask questions in such a manner as to motivate respondents to answer as completely and honestly as possible’. Once the questions prompts were selected, I cross-referenced them to my mapping of how each criterion would be measured (table 4-1).

What I found during the first interview, almost instantly, was that students are accustomed to answering questions and responded favourably to this mode of interviewing over the conversationalist approach. I could ask open-ended question, after open-ended question, and every time the student answered only the question without elaborating. After quickly realizing this, and having interviews scheduled back-to-back, I began re-ordering and amending my list of questions with each interview. After approximately three interviews I had the format of the questions I used, with little variance, for the rest of my case studies.

My interview style thus changed to a semi-standardized interview. According to Berg (1998, 60), a standardized interview ‘uses a formally structured schedule of interview questions’. Researchers who ‘have fairly solid ideas about the things they want to uncover during the interview’ prefer this interview style (Berg 1998, 60). Seeing that I had determined the research criteria before conducting the interview, the standardized interview format proved to

be compatible. The semi-standardized interview, however, includes a set of pre-determined and pre-ordered list of questions, yet the interviewer is encouraged to digress from the format to probe further into topics the interviewee disclose (Berg 1998, 61). Since I had intended to probe further when answers appeared incomplete or were in need of further explanation, the semi-standardized structure better describes my interview style. I found that I was more successful in pulling more information from students during the early interviews of the day. By late in the day, my energy for probing students was limited. In retrospect, if logistics had permitted I should have limited the number of interviews I conducted to four or five a day, whereas I averaged eight a day in most instances. I found that it was more difficult to get students to talk during the first period of the day but my energetic start to the day was helpful in extracting conversation from these students.

### *Choice of Questions*

Berg (1998, 60) cautions that interviewers should carefully consider and test whether the interviewees can easily understand the wording of questions. This method of carefully testing wording did not formally happen due to the sudden change in interview approach. When editing my list of questions with each interview, I made notes when students responded to my question in a way I had not anticipated, and when my wording choice was confusing. In one instance, the alternative understanding of a question being asked created significant results; see question (s) below. These changes were all made during the first morning of interviews for the pilot. After the pilot was completed, and seeing that the surveys produced little to no statistical significance (4.5.3), I chose to keep the questions the same as a means to measure answers across all interviews. The sequence of the interview questions and corresponding measurement against criteria (table 4-4), is described below:

I began the interview with questions about first impressions and how first impressions changed.

- (a) ‘What was your first impression about what this class would be like?’
- (b) ‘How did your impression change over the duration of the class?’

These questions aimed to identify pre-existing expectations and to give a marker for measuring change. Mostly these questions served as ‘throw-away’ questions, which provided a way to jump-start the interview. I then asked students,

- (c) ‘How would you describe this class to other students who may want to take the class?’

This question is the first of eight that inquired about the practice of the programme. The goal of practice-oriented questions was to assess the programme model and identify areas in need of modification. This question in particular also forced students to describe the class in their own words and potentially reveal positive or negative attributes. It often revealed why the students selected the course and whether they knew before hand of the service or group work component.

The next question,

- (d) ‘Tell me how this class has been for you? List your highlights and frustrations.’

was designed as an open-ended opportunity for students to reflect on the positive and negative aspects of the course. Student responses revealed experiences with knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, or empathy. Answers to this question also spoke to practice when they identified areas where changes in the design were needed or areas where significant learning and/or self-actualization occurred. I later recognized that this is a double-barrelled question, which defined by Berg (1998, 70), is when a subject is asked to respond

simultaneously responding to two issues in one question. One remedy to this type of question would be to ask two separate questions. Not separating the two issues may limit some responses, as the interviewee may only comment on one issue in the question, while ignoring the other. I left the question in the format that appears above, yet would ask students to answer the other side of the question, highlights or frustrations, after they finished answering one side of the question. By not separating the question, I was able to see whether students were inclined to first describe their positive or negative experiences.

The next questions focused on the final project,

- (e) 'How do you feel the final project went?'
- (f) 'How did the group work together?'

These questions targeted the research criteria of efficacy, skills and values such as cooperation, tolerance and open-mindedness, all of which may manifest during teamwork.

The next three questions were written to solicit short responses. These questions were placed next to one another to pick up the pace of the interview and create a change in rhythm. I asked,

- (g) 'During the process did you have any interaction with adults? Describe these interactions. What did you learn from these interactions?'
- (h) 'List what skills you used or learned during the process.'
- (i) 'What role did journaling play in the class?'

The question regarding work with adults reflects a commonly found statement, that service-learning experiences offer students practical experience of working with adults (Moore 1981) (cited in Eyler and Giles 1999, 42). Seeing that this project did not travel to a service site, I

wanted to track whether students had experiences working with adults. The question asking students to list skills directly correlated with measuring the skills criteria. Inquiring on the role of journal writing sought to better understand practice and determine if journal writing was used as a reflection tool and if students recognized a benefit from keeping a journal. This allowed for the practices within case studies to be examined against one another.

The following three questions aimed to draw feedback from students on the Nobis Project method.

- (j) ‘What changes or feedback can you suggest for the next time this course is offered?’
- (k) ‘How was the balance between time for content and time for project?’
- (l) ‘Was the PowerPoint presentation, ‘Instigating Social Change’, helpful?’

The next question varied from S1 to S2. At S1 I would ask,

- (m) ‘What credit do you think this class should receive?’

At S2 I would ask,

- (n) ‘Should this class count towards your school’s required fifty hours of community service?’

At S1 students are required to take courses that fill a community service credit. By asking what credit they thought the class should be designated, I was interested if students thought a community service credit would be a valid fit. At S2 students are required to complete fifty hours of community service. By asking them if they thought this class could count towards those hours, I aimed to uncover whether students felt that the work carried out in their class



would be appropriately recognized as community service. Answers to these questions also potentially revealed student attitudes towards the values criteria.

The rest of the questions specifically targeted work completed for the Nobis Project. This choice follows Berg's (1998, 70) argument for more complex and sensitive questions to be added as the interview conversation progresses. These questions asked,

- (o) 'At what point, if any, did you take ownership over the project?'

I hoped to find out whether students experienced a sense of efficacy or ownership over their project. I now recognize that the wording for this question, which assumes that ownership over the project occurred, could have been better worded.

I then asked students to

- (p) 'Describe for me the current situation in [the country or topic selected for the project]?'

This question aimed to uncover the level of knowledge students retained. I found that my wording of this question was occasionally too open-ended and students appeared overwhelmed with where to begin. In these circumstances I would rephrase the question and ask about who is involved in the conflict, or tell me one thing you have learned about the situation. Once students answered one aspect of the question they were typically able to recall other aspects as well.

In the next question,

- (q) 'How did you describe this project to your friends? To your parents?'

I hoped to reveal how students described, in their own words, the project they designed and implemented. This question also provided another opportunity for students to share the knowledge they gained from the project as well as determining how clearly students understood the causation of the situation they investigated.

Continuing with the criteria of knowledge, the question,

- (r) 'Can you describe another way you could directly respond to [the topic selected for the project]?'

was intended to expose higher levels of knowledge comprehension as well as the students' sense of efficacy. The inspiration for this question came from the research of Eyler and Giles (1999, 216), where they would conduct 'problem-solving interviews' designed to examine 'how students' understanding of social problems as well as their critical thinking abilities changes as the result of their service-learning'. The problem-solving interview consisted of asking students to 'analyse the causes of and solutions to a problem related to their service and to justify their reasoning' (Eyler and Giles 1999, 217). To justify their reasoning the students were asked how they would 'deal with' a specific problem. My question aimed to determine whether the students were capable of describing an alternative project plan.

The next question asked,

- (s) 'Has this class changed your behaviours?'

This question aimed to reveal whether students experienced empathic behavioural changes. As Fitch (2004, 110) asserts, empathy can be marked by behavioural changes (2.4.1.6). With the wording 'change of behaviours', I had not intended for students to list mundane behaviours, but rather changes in behaviours or attitudes related to relief work. The pilot

produced interesting results. Students reported behavioural changes related to the knowledge gained from the project. I had expected students to report an increased interest in participating in projects aimed to help others; instead, student answers to this question, for example in the pilot, included comments about how their new knowledge on the topic of water conservation led them to use less water when showering or brushing teeth. After receiving these unexpected responses I saw the usefulness of the produced results in understanding how the project affected student behaviours. Consequently, I decided to keep the wording. Berg (1998, 68) states, ‘perhaps the most serious problem with asking questions is how to be certain the intentions of the questions have been adequately communicated’. Berg’s warning to carefully choose wording, in this instance, ultimately provided a new window of information, I had not intended to find, but proved to be useful.

In the next question,

(t) ‘Has this class changed your perceptions about relief work?’

I hoped to expose areas where students experienced change in their perceptions of efficacy and desire to continue work, or commitment. This question also had the potential to reveal experiences under the criteria of skills, values, and empathy. I now recognize that the question, ‘has this class changed your perceptions about relief work?’ implies to students that I expected a change. I was asking for what I wanted to hear rather than following D’Andrade’s (2005, 90) view that, ‘it is better not to ask informants directly about their model, but rather to ask something that will bring the model into play; that is, something that will make the person *use* the model’.

The following question held the same potential to meet the five criteria listed above.

- (u) ‘Did this process alter your perception on your ability to effect change?’

This question again implies my positive expectation of results and I now question whether students answered this question with what they thought I wanted to hear. If this study were to be reproduced I would advise re-writing these two questions.

Asking students,

- (v) ‘What was the most significant thing you will take from this class?’

was an opportunity for students to reflect on the course as a whole. Its open-ended nature allowed students to identify a specific experience that may fall under the six criteria measurements.

I closed the interview with a sincere thank you and asked if students had any additional comments they wanted to share.

### ***Teacher Interviews***

I prepared a list of question prompts for interviewing teachers (appendix IV). The prompts were rarely referenced as the teachers responded well to the conversationalist approach to interviewing and we had built a communication rapport. Most of the teacher interviews were dominated by discussion on the Nobis Project methodology, which translated to changes in subsequent case studies. The interviews with teachers typically took place in-between conducting student interviews. This allowed me to have some insight on how the students perceived the project and what degree of evidence was present for each of the civic engagement criteria. Accordingly I would ask teachers for insight on trends that were already beginning to emerge. The function of the teacher interview was to reflect on the experience as a whole, identify areas in need of change, and confirm areas that worked well.

## *Analysis*

To begin my interview analysis, I first transcribed each student and teacher interview. In early analysis, I merged all student answers to a single question into one document. I then wrote a summary for how the class responded to each question. I found that many students responded to different aspects of a question and that the answer a student provided under question [x], better fit with the answers found under question [y]. I abandoned this approach and instead created an index of categories, starting with the six civic engagement criteria. I grouped student responses that fell under each category and organized data that did not fit under the civic engagement category into new categories. From one class to the next I repeated the process while carrying-over and adding to the previous class' additional categories. After grouping each student's answers under the criteria and new themes, I then identified common sub-categories. With a complete index (table 4-4), I then counted the number of students from each case study who responded under each category. Before writing up the findings I added the tallies from each category across case studies.

There are two weaknesses to my analysis and qualitative research in general. As Miles and Huberman (1994, 144) argue, qualitative research is fallible because it relies, in part, 'on the explanations that people give us' and because we as researchers are also people and 'our own explanations are equally vulnerable' to misinterpretation. I aimed to combat these fallibilities by sorting through data searching for frequency and consistency before making a generalization. Miles and Huberman (1994, 253) claim that identifying a pattern or theme occurs by isolating the number of times something happens and checking the consistency of it happening in a certain way. They also argue that there are three good reasons for counting, 'to see rapidly what you have in a large batch of data; to verify a hunch or hypothesis; and to

keep yourself analytically honest, protecting against bias' (Miles and Huberman 1994, 253). All three of these conditions were present in my research. The volume of transcribed interview data was daunting. My research objective was to test a hypothesis: 'did students who participate in the Nobis Project identify experiencing each of the civic engagement criteria?' And I recognized that my bias was elevated because of my personal investment in the fabrication of the Nobis Project. (See 4.6.1 for further discussion on how I kept my bias in-check.) In addition to these areas of potential weakness, the question of the effect of the power dynamic between student and researcher during the interview still needed to be addressed. I noted a number of students who shared negative feelings towards the programme, the project, or the results, which could be an indicator of their level of honesty about other experiences. Following the recommendation of Luttrell (2005 243) and Mathner and Docuet (1997, 138), mentioned earlier, I have aimed to describe what steps I took to build rapport with students along with areas that could be improved in order for future researchers to decide what has been lost or gained because of my choices and the existing power dynamics. For this research, the success of the Nobis Project in teaching within a civic engagement category was indicated by the total of interview responses, across all five case studies, reaching seventy-five percent or above. The abandonment of the survey and the limitations of poorly worded interview questions limits what this methodology otherwise could have achieved.

### ***Conclusion***

During my research process I continually reflected on Denzin and Lincoln's (1998a, 159) advice,

...it is important for those who study personal experience to be open to a rich and sometimes seemingly endless range of possible events and stories and to be prepared to follow leads in many directions and to hold them all in inquiry contexts as the work proceeds.

As mentioned above, areas that I would implement differently if I were to repeat the study include: limiting the number of interviews executed in one day; altering wording of questions where my biases surfaced; avoiding double-barred questions; conducting the group interview after the individual interviews, and; asking more probing questions to gain further insight on students' report of experiencing the civic engagement criteria. However, overall, the interviews were successful in achieving their aims.

Interview Questions	Criteria Measured
a. 'What was your first impression about what this class would be like?'	Throwaway
b. 'How did your impression change over the duration of the class?'	Throwaway
c. 'How would you describe this class to other students who may want to take the class?'	Practice
d. 'Tell me how this class has been for you? List your highlights and frustrations.'	Knowledge, Skills, Efficacy, Commitment, Empathy, Practice
e. 'How do you feel the final project went?'	Values, Skills, Efficacy
f. 'How did the group work together?'	Values, Skills, Efficacy
g. 'During the process did you have any interaction with adults? Describe these interactions. What did you learn from these interactions?'	Skills
h. 'List what skills you used or learned during the process.'	Skills
i. 'What role did keeping a journal play in the class?'	Practice
j. 'What changes or feedback can you suggest for the next time this course is offered?'	Practice

k. 'How was the balance between time for content and time for project?'	Practice
l. 'Was the PowerPoint presentation, 'Instigating Social Change', helpful?'	Practice
m. 'What credit do you think this class should receive?'	Values, Practice
n. 'Should this class count towards the fifty hours of community service?'	Values, Practice
o. 'At what point, if any, did you take ownership over the project?'	Efficacy
p. 'Describe for me the current situation in [the country or topic selected for the project]?'	Knowledge
q. 'How did you describe this project to your friends? To your parents?'	Knowledge
r. 'Can you describe another way you could directly respond to [the topic selected for the project]?'	Knowledge, Efficacy
s. 'Has this class changed your behaviours?'	Empathy
t. 'Has this class changed your perceptions about relief work?'	Values, Skills, Efficacy, Commitment, Empathy
u. 'Did this process alter your perception on your ability to effect change?'	Values, Skills, Efficacy, Commitment, Empathy
v. 'What was the most significant thing you will take from this class?'	Values, Efficacy, Commitment, Knowledge, Skills, Empathy

Table 4-4: Interview Questions and Designated Criteria Measurement



### 4.5.3 Surveys

Berg (1998, 63) refers to the work of Cannell and Kahn (1968) on the choice between collecting survey and interview data. Cannell and Kahn (1968) assert that interviewing is typically chosen over surveys because of the interview's ability to produce the maximum opportunity to collect 'complete and accurate communication of ideas between the researcher and the respondent' (Berg 1998, 63). Desiring to conduct my research with triangulation, I designed my research to collect interviews, surveys and class recordings. As the novice researcher, I was afraid of not collecting enough information. I also found myself drawn to the illusion that quantitative data is conclusive. The purpose of my survey was to collect four bodies of information: demographics, pre-existing goals and values, measurement of research criteria, and reflection on project.

### *Design*

As mentioned in 2.4, Eyler and Giles are pioneers in the small group of individuals who have completed extensive research on the outcomes of service-learning programmes. Although Eyler and Giles' research focuses on higher education and my research studied programmes at the secondary level, their research examined many of what Giles *et al.* 1991 (cited in Eyler and Giles 1999, 212) refer to as the most frequently expressed goals of service-learning programmes; 'personal and interpersonal development, understanding and application of subject matter learning, critical thinking and perspective transformation, and citizenship skills and values'.

When examining the problem-solving demands of citizenship, Eyler and Giles (1999, 154) reflect on Dewey's view that education, democracy and citizenship are inseparable and

conclude that ‘the role of a citizen in a democracy as a solver of open-ended social problems’. They continue by arguing, ‘service-learning ... need[s] to pay attention to the problem-solving capacities of ... graduates in order to sustain lifelong constructive involvement in the community’ (Eyler and Giles 1999, 155). This stance on the role and function service-learning should play in the education system supports the Nobis Project’s incorporation of student-designed service experiences that directly respond to a student identified need. These compatible view points, and Eyler and Giles’ (1999, 225-238) extensive and well-presented research led me to use their work as a focal point to base much of my survey design (appendix VII). The majority of questions for my survey were directly pulled from Eyler and Giles’ work. Some modifications were made to account for the lower age group and international nature of the Nobis Project method (appendix VII).

### ***Delivery***

Teachers distributed pre-class surveys during the first week of class. Teachers were asked to dedicate class time for the completion of the survey. This assured full attention and completion of the surveys. Teachers collected completed surveys as students finished and mailed the surveys to my home. This same process was conducted after the group project was completed, typically during my final visit. As mentioned earlier, this method was not suitable in assuring confidentiality (4.4.2.2).

### ***Control Group***

A control group survey was implemented alongside the pilot study at S1. My initial concern was the difficulty of surveying an upper level control group at S1, with only sixty upper class students, thirty of whom I would have in my research over three cycles. The risk of surveying

control students who might become research participants in future cycles was so overwhelming that I questioned whether the information from the control group would be more valuable than research participants not seeing the survey before participating. I ultimately decided to pursue a single control group where I solicited senior students who would graduate before the next cycle would commence. This group of six volunteer senior students completed a nearly identical survey at the start and close of the term. Soliciting student volunteers was difficult, especially considering I was dependent on the help of teachers to implement and collect consent/permission forms as well as the pre-class and post-class surveys. As stated earlier, the qualitative analysis of the pilot surveys proved insignificant as did the results from the control group and were both dismissed.

According to Ziegert and McGoldrick (2004, 25) a control group for the entire programme would have been beneficial in accurately assessing the effect of the programme on measured outcomes. They argue that service-learning research's lack of control groups calls into question the true impact of presented findings (Ziegert and McGoldrick 2004, 25). I would recommend conducting full term control group of an experiential-based class if this research was to be repeated.

### ***Statistical Analysis***

The survey, which followed Eyler and Giles' (1999, 225) design (appendix VII), used the Likert scale and was measured using the Wilcoxon signed rank test. The pre-class and post-class survey differences were not statistically significant, though means were in expected directions. For this reason the pre-class and post-class surveys were replaced with a

questionnaire that collected demographics and course evaluation and data analysis became solely qualitative.

There are four probable rationales for the statistically insignificant results from the survey. The first the possible explanation is the small sample size, where too few students were surveyed in the pilot. In correlation with the first, the second cause may be related to the use of a convenient sample versus a random or representative sample. Without further investigation it is unknown if the sample of students were diverse or homogenous in their previous experiences, exposure, or interests. If the group was more homogenous in their exposure to the areas the survey covered, such as involvement with volunteerism, the results would be less likely to reveal statistically significant results. Additionally, if the sample were more inclined to volunteerism, for example, and selected the higher categories on the Likert scale in both the pre- and post-survey, no statistical significance would likely be present. The third possibility is there was no discrete difference between what the Likert scale indicates. That is to say, students did not recognize the discrete differences between categories of the Likert scale. For example, how one student interprets the category of 'somewhat' may be equivalent to how another student categorizes 'often'. Students' discrepancy in perceptions of words may have been great enough to interfere with the survey results. The qualifiers used may have needed to be more specific, and may not have been suitable to the subjects' interpretation. A fourth possibility is students inadequately identifying their dispositions in the pre-survey, and more adequately identifying their disposition after the project. This may result in the post-survey being a better measurement of their disposition. There is also the possibility that results that show statistically significant results do not occur due to a change

in disposition, but rather a change in perception. The use of interviews or other qualitative data collection can aid in identifying these instances.

The methods that could have been applied to address the aforementioned possible interference with the survey results include; running the pilot with the goal of identifying the idiosyncratic problems with the Likert scale, to conduct the research with a larger and random sample, and to pair the survey with qualitative data collection.

By eliminating the surveys, data collection relied on interview responses (4.5.2). One focus of the pre-class and post-class survey format was to identify pre-existing values as compared to values new to students after completing the case study. The ability of the interview questions to measure pre-existing values was restricted because the interviews only occurred at the close of the project and relied on student recall and perception of pre-existing values and attitudes (4.5.2). This limited collection of pre-existing values represents a methodological weakness of this research.

#### **4.6 Reflexivity**

The impact of personal experience and its influence on why I selected this study and how I conducted this research is considered below. Special attention to the role of bias is also discussed.

### ***Employment Situation***

To carry out this long distance research I successfully secured employment as resident innkeeper of a small inn in historic Savannah, Georgia. My husband and I shared the job, which allowed me to travel for up to two weeks to visit research sites. The flexibility of the job also permitted ample time between, during, and after the research to analyse and write-up my findings. Without this flexibility I cannot imagine another way I could have carried out this research in the same manner.

#### **4.6.1 Bias**

Burgess (1984, 207) urges for ‘constant self-evaluation and reflection’ of research experiences on the part of researchers in order to confront and understand the ethical dilemmas and compromises which are necessary when conducting social research. Macintyre (2002, 32) concurs that reflexivity on the research process helps to reduce personal and procedural bias. The objective of reflexivity is to continually question my perceptions while also taking into account the perspective of participants (Serow 1997, 19). The biases that I brought to this research included my interest in the research producing a positive outcome, my previous experience as an artist, my previous attendance at one of the site schools, and my relationship with the remaining faculty and administrators at that school. Continual journal writing and regular discussions with my supervisor were used as a way to reflect and prevent my personal and procedural biases from hindering the research progress.

### ***Interest in Positive Outcome***

As the creator of the Nobis Project, the most significant contributor to my bias was my interest in a positive outcome. My vested interest in its success was undeniable. Keeping my bias in-check was especially difficult during analysis. I found that I was quick to identify areas of success and had to make an exerted effort to look for areas that were not successful. When areas of weakness were identified, I would immediately conjure explanations to account for the weakness or failure. Strategies I used to keep my analysis impartial included, combing through my analysis by continually re-reading to look for areas of concern and recruiting readers to view my writing with the assignment to look for areas that appear to ‘neat’ or areas that are ‘silent’ or under-scrutinized. The use of counting also allowed me to see what areas I was wrong about and keep my bias in-check (Miles and Huberman 1994, 253). Nisbett and Ross (1980) (cited in Miles and Huberman 1994, 253-254) assert that people, including researchers, ‘habitually tend to overweight facts they believe in or depend on, to ignore or forget data not going in the direction of their reasoning, and to “see” confirming instances far more easily than disconfirming instances’. Miles and Huberman (1994, 253-254) argue that qualitative analysis with the aid of numbers ‘is a good way of testing for possible bias, and seeing how robust our insights are’. By using numbers I was forced to account for absences. If eleven students support this claim, how do I account for the forty-five students who do not comment on this area? My challenge has been being open to seeing the absences or failures.

### ***Experience as an Artist***

My experience as a socially conscious artist contributed to this research. In its early form, the Nobis Project’s Action Steps were composed based on my creative-process. As an artist, I

viewed the creative-process as a formula, personally constructed and unique to each artist. In my MA programme my professors guided each graduate student to identify their artistic style. I considered the artists' creative-process as an element that defined artistic style. I found it challenging to construct the Action Steps design as it forced me to re-evaluate my understanding of the creative-process. I have come to understand the creative-process as unique to each artist but containing common elements, as highlighted in (3.2.3).

### ***Previous Relationships***

As referenced earlier (4.4.1), my previous relationship with the two schools aided my ability to gain access. With these relationships came responsibility, specifically with regards to keeping my bias at bay. This was especially true for my relationship with my *alma mater*, S1. Whereas, my previous experience at S2 was limited to the lower school. The students I worked with in the lower school were now in upper school and two were students in the case studies. However, their memory of me was vague and easily transferred to viewing me in a new role, as researcher.

My experience at S1 was much different. When first re-visiting the campus I was instantly aware of my bias. Seeing that the school community is small and unique to other independent schools in the area, my experience as a student was emphasized by feelings of pride and ownership. In my ten years since leaving the school community I regularly refer my six years of schooling at S1 as the most intellectually challenging and spiritually influential experiences of my life. In this community I learned to foster my innate leadership skills, to define my creative-process and call myself an artist, to value service, and my moral responsibility of seeking justice for our shared world. The life lessons learned in this



community, and my international travels, led to my vision of the Nobis Project. Testing the Nobis Project in this community seemed fitting. However, re-entering this community as researcher came with its challenges.

I came back to S1 feeling that I *knew* the intricacies of community life. I walked the halls subconsciously expecting to see familiar faces in the students. Instead, I found only familiar faces in the teachers. My relationship with S1 teachers while enrolled as a student existed with a high level of mutual respect. Re-engaging with these teachers was not that unlike interacting with them as a student. The teachers also expressed confidence in my abilities as a student and now as a researcher. I was not as self-assured in my abilities as researcher and innovator of an educational programme. I recognized, that as was the case when I was a student, I was seeking their approval (4.4.2.1). Without formal education training I was concerned with how the Nobis Project would be received by educators and if it would work.

The headteacher and pilot teachers received the programme description with enthusiasm. My concerns with the capabilities of the programme were not alleviated until the close of the pilot. At that time I recognized a change in my identity as well, I changed from ‘former student’ to ‘researcher’ and actively tried to be present as researcher first, and former student second.

Immediately before the second case study at S1 began, I was asked by S1 to be the guest speaker at their staff retreat. The topic was Quakerism. Once again I was challenged in my identity. I, a former student, was now seen as an authority on a subject of great importance to

the school and the focus of the retreat. I was hired to teach my teachers. This opportunity was useful in again separating my identity from former student to researcher.

At the close of all the case studies at S1, when I was expressing my gratitude for the privilege of being able to test the programme, I was struck by how the teachers and community at large viewed my work at the school not as fieldwork, but rather a contribution and expansion to their curriculum. In the year following the completion of the final case study, the school has mandated school wide global citizenship curriculum be developed and the new upper school GCE curriculum utilizes the Nobis Project design. As mentioned earlier, my introduction to global citizenship came after the case studies were completed. Interestingly, S1 independently began to explore the idea of including global citizenship and recognized the compatible relationship between the Nobis Project and GCE.

### ***Summary***

The frequent questioning of my observations while considering the perspective of case study participants was an important element in assuring the validity of my research. This reflexivity, through journal writing and discussions with my supervisor and peers, specifically aided my management of the biases I brought to this research.

## **4.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter examined the methodological design, implementation and analysis decisions made during this research. Beginning with the research question and how research criteria were selected and measured, then discussing the initially selected research style, action

research, and how the pilot results dictated changing to a collective case study approach.

Details on selection of schools, process of gaining access, and relationships with teachers and students were then considered. Data collection and analysis methods were each reviewed.

The chapter concluded with reflexivity on the impact of personal experience and its influence on why I selected this study and how I conducted this research, with special attention to how I managed my biases.

As the novice researcher I was overzealous in the quantity of information I collected. It was my aim to follow Kidder's (1981) (cited in Denzin and Lincoln 1998a, 88) proposal of countering findings with multiple tests or methods for collecting data, however my use of statistical analysis failed to provide significant results and the case studies were unsuccessful in completing the journal writing assignments. This narrowed my data collection to interviews and class recordings. The limited class recordings, although helpful in understanding or confirming sequence of events, did not provide information helpful in assessing whether or how students experienced civic engagement. A significant weakness to the methodology of this research is its nearly sole reliance on interviews due to the abandonment of the survey and the incomplete collection of journals and class recordings. Other errors to my method involved how I conducted interviews; limited probing of students for fuller explanations, and improper wording. Improvement on methods for creating a comfortable environment for students to share with an adult was another area in need of attention if this research was to be repeated. A final observation on my methods refers to the lack of longitudinal evidence. Serow (1997, 18) heeds, 'If the societal consequences of a program are in some sense the aggregated effects of changes in individual lives, does it not also hold that long periods of time must pass before we can truly claim to understand how a

person changes as a result of a particular experience?’ A future longitudinal study would certainly add to the validity of the results presented in this thesis.

The next chapter provides summaries of each study including contextual differences between studies and long-term results of the Nobis Project.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: CASE STUDY DESCRIPTIONS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter summarizes each case study and provides necessary information for understanding contextual differences between studies. Long-term results of each case study and other consequences of the case studies are also included. These summaries were compiled from class recordings and interviews with students and teachers. This chapter concludes with a summary of contextual differences between case studies.

### **5.2 S1 Pilot: Malawi**

#### ***Introduction of Class and Project***

The co-teachers, Scott and Beth, introduced the topic of the course, ‘Global Health: The Role of Water’, to the students by presenting information, statistical, biological and philosophical, on the extensive topic of water. The teachers assigned reading on the subject, yet struggled to get students to independently collect information or complete their assigned readings. This case study did not include the use of an ‘inspiring presentation’ and the lack of student engagement, as displayed by their incomplete assignments, may be attributable to this absence. At this stage in the case studies I had intended the ‘Instigating Social Change’ PowerPoint to serve as the inspiring presentation; it was not until the third case study, S2-Fall that I realized the inspiring presentation needed to directly relate to the topic under

investigation. Another possible contributor to the lack of student engagement early on in the project was the unclear expectations (4.4.2.2).

At the start of the third week the teachers introduced the project component of the class along with a discussion on ways to take action. The students were told to identify an element of the global health crisis, as related to ‘water’, to focus on and then find a way to respond to that focus. I had intended to introduce the project to the class myself after they had completed a large portion of information gathering. As a result I had not adequately prepared the teachers with information about how to explain the project concept and criteria. During the interviews, many students expressed confusion about the project expectations. Listening to the class recordings I also found that the teachers did not clearly explain the expectations or criteria of the project. During my visit, a week after the project was introduced, I presented the three criteria for the project: be creative, inform, and directly respond. Additionally, I outlined the steps of the creative-process by presenting the PowerPoint presentation on socially conscious art. The Action Steps were provided to teachers in their information packet, and to students in a similar packet.

Both the teachers and students emphasized the need to introduce the project, to future classes, with a clear set of expectations soon after the term began. This strategy was implemented in each of the following studies.

### ***Selecting the Action***

The students decided to raise funds to build a well in order to offer a clean water supply to the village of Dzama in Malawi. The class selected this action after one student shared that

her father worked in Malawi through his job at the local university and he knew of a specific village in need of a well to supply water to their AIDS orphans. He sent photos of the village and, upon the students' request, quotes from two drilling companies. The goal for the project was to raise \$3,000, the approximate amount needed to install a well.

### ***The Action***

The students decided to hold a bike-a-thon titled 'The Water Cycle' where the student cyclists collected pledges from donors to sponsor their ride and local cyclists were invited to bike for a \$25 charge. The length of the course, approximately ten miles, represented the average mileage people around the world travel daily to retrieve water. The event was planned for a Saturday late in the term. At the event students creatively displayed information at the start/finish point, a local ice cream shop, about the global water crisis and information about the village where the well was to be built. They provided signage, photographs, handouts and a large sign that calculated how many people died from lack of clean water between the start and finish of the cycle. It was a manual sign where a student flipped the increasing number as every couple of minutes past. The students also designed a logo that they screen printed on t-shirts: worn by cyclists and sold to on-lookers.

Over all, the students and teachers felt that the project was a success. One student commented, 'A group of teenagers with no previous experience in advertising or publicity were able to put on a really huge event and then having it be really successful was pretty impressive'. Below is a letter from the teachers to participants and donors:

We raised \$3,950.00!!!!!! This is enough to build a well in Dzama, to fix a well in a neighboring village, and to pay the teacher's salary for one year at the Dzama Orphanage. We thank [PARENT'S NAME] for putting us in touch with this community and for taking the responsibility for the follow through of our donation. Thank you to all the students in the class for their tireless work and thank you to all of you -- whether you rode and raised funds during the Cycle or if you sponsored a student rider. It is a terrific testimony to the wonderful work we can do when many hands and hearts come together toward a common purpose. This was outstanding community service.

### ***Other Consequences***

The teachers and students expressed interest in holding an annual water cycle.

## **5.3 S1-Fall: Iraq**

### ***Introduction of Class and Project***

Learning from the pilot study, I attended the second day of the 'History of the Middle East' course and introduced the project component with a revised PowerPoint presentation. I then reviewed the Action Steps with the class and supplied a copy in poster form to hang in the classroom. I did not go into detail on how the project would integrate with coursework, as the teacher, Jacob, had not determined the method at that time.

Jacob selected the country of Iraq for the students to study. During the third week Jacob began discussing the goals for the class project. He handed out maps of Iraq and website sources and answered questions about the current conflict. He asked the class to decide which aspect of the current conflict in Iraq they would like to research. He then explained that the class would take the information they collected and present it to a group of people outside of



the class, the method of disseminating the message and the selection of audience would be determined at a later time. The class brainstormed areas of interest. The students later broke into small groups arranged by areas of interest.

### ***Selecting the Action***

Over the course of the term the students collected information on various aspects of the current situation in Iraq. Most groups divided their specific area into sub-categories and collected the information independently. The class determined a date to hold the presentation by selecting a day when the majority of class members would be able to attend. They held the event on campus and at the close of the school day. Their hope was by holding the event in the evening they would attract individuals beyond the school community. The format of the event consisted of arranging tables in the school meeting hall. Each group determined how they would visually present the information they had gathered.

I learned of the event design only two weeks before the set date. At that juncture I recognized that the students had not identified a shared aspect of the current situation in Iraq and consequently they had not selected a means to directly respond. The Nobis Project criteria were not being met and I intervened by discussing the situation with the teacher and then sent a letter to the students reminding them of the three criteria their presentations should meet:

- (1) How do you plan to directly respond to the information you have collected?
- (2) Is the presentation creative?
- (3) Does the presentation inform the audience?

I closed the letter offering for students to contact me with questions, or to brainstorm.

Jacob stated in his correspondence that he read the letter to the students and that he would work with the students to come up with a 'next step' idea. Shortly thereafter he e-mailed, 'It looks like one of the student groups will take on putting together a "where do we go from here" component (a place to write one's congressman was mentioned)'.

### ***Group Process***

Unlike the other case studies, the students broke into groups of their choosing, yet never collaborated as a unified class. Two of the eight groups even consisted of single students presenting alone. It was the intention, under the Nobis Project, that the class work as a singular group to design a unified project. It was not until this study that I recognized that I had not made that expectation clear to the teacher. Due to this miscommunication, the final project for this course was not unlike final projects assigned for other classes not using the Nobis Project, where students present information on a triptych. Consequently, the students did not readily recognize a student-led component to the course.

### ***The Action***

The event, a round robin where guests moved from one table to the next learning about present day Iraq, was an impressive display of information. The eight groups presented their research on current issues facing Iraq. The issues included: 'American soldier experience in Iraq', 'the Iraqi civilian experience', 'the media', 'Sunni - Shiite history', 'American army engineers', 'American special forces', 'corporate hires (Halliburton, Blackwater, etc.)', and 'economic effects of the war in Iraq'. The female groups were the only groups to research the emotional effects of the situation on the people involved. One group provided food from the

region to lure in visitors, a successful tactic. All groups prepared a visual aid: posters, models, or video clips, where the information was displayed.

I carried a video camera with me as I visited each group. I asked the students to share what they had learned and to explain the different elements to their visual presentations. On the whole, the students were articulate about the areas they researched. They had insightful comments and could answer a wide range of questions. The visual presentations ranged in creativity.

Ultimately, the students did not add a 'where we go from here' component or any other means of directly responding to the current conflicts in Iraq. Some students felt that informing others was a valuable and important service. Others felt that this class was no different than any other class with a final project. In the group reflection, and during the presentation evening, a couple of students commented that they would have like to had questionnaires for attendees to fill out, so that students could confirm what visitors learned from the experience. Other students reflected that they wanted to develop a group element that would have tied the presentations together. One student shared that during her research she found a website that listed items Iraqi schools needed. When asked why a 'where we go from here' component or a unifying design element was not added the students reported that there was not sufficient time to put it together.

The student presentation was held on a rainy Friday from 4:30-7:00 p.m. This odd time demonstrates that the students did not follow the Action Step: 'Determine effective means to communication with audience' (3.2.3, 3.4), as little thought was given towards what time

would be optimal for their peers, teachers or community members. When reflecting as a group on the low attendance, the students recognized that timing of an event is important factor for attendance. When I prompted the students during the interviews for more information on attendance and how they advertised, one student shared that the class had decided to ‘invite people by word of mouth’. I also learned that eight students only invited their parents; two students did not invite anyone; and one student invited friends. A couple students commented on the lack of advertising and repeated comments on there being too little time left for advertising. The teacher did send out an e-mail to the entire school staff.

This is an example of how something ‘not happening’ contributed to learning how to make changes for future projects. This was my first indication that I needed to better communicate expectations to the teachers in future case studies, including the method and goals of the design. If the teachers are not confident in the method then the design will not be carried out. The second thing I took from this case study was awareness that students in this case study came away with a tremendous international understanding of Iraq; a more in-depth and more complex understanding than what was displayed by the pilot study. This awareness called into question whether information was sacrificed, as in the case of the pilot, for learning about the process of providing service and building a project as a team.

### ***Other Consequences***

Projects are not often included in Jacob’s classes and infrequently do students in his classes work in groups. Jacob did share in his interview that he liked adding the project component and plans to continue it in future classes. He commented, ‘As hard as it is to work on collaboration, I still think it is a very valuable experience’. He also shared his reflection on

dividing the class into two terms, in order to give ample time for both content and a project. Students also made this suggestion.

#### **5.4 S2-Fall: Uganda**

##### ***Introduction of Class and Project***

S2 operates on fifteen-week semester as compared to the ten-week trimester at S1. This additional time allowance provided more time for content development. The teacher of the course, 'Peace, Non-Violence and Social Justice', chose to introduce content for the first four weeks of the term before introducing the project. The focus of the content was on the life and work of Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King Jr., and Thich Nacht Hahn. After approximately five weeks into the term, I visited the class and introduced the Nobis Project programme with the PowerPoint presentation and Action Steps poster. Unlike S1 case studies, the S2 teacher's classes were given the freedom to choose the international focus they wanted to investigate and support. Rachel, the S2 teacher, and the students also negotiated the amount of class time to be set aside for working on the project and set deadlines for reaching an end goal.

##### ***Selecting the Action***

When the class brainstormed about the various world crises to address, one student discussed a video titled 'Invisible Children' that she had seen over the summer. The student purchased a copy of the video for the class to watch. The video was a documentary on the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) of Uganda. This group kidnaps young boys and forces them to

service in the LRA. Rachel encouraged the students to investigate other international concerns before confirming their selection. After researching a few other possibilities, the group agreed that Uganda was the area they wanted to further explore. The students were then assigned to research ‘broader societal issues in Uganda and try to connect with an individual/organisation on the ground so that they have a partner in discovering what action they can take on behalf of the children’. It should be noted that students referenced in their interviews how the video, an inspiring presentation, significantly influenced the group’s selection of Uganda.

### ***The Action***

The students, on their own initiative, broke the project criteria into three components: ‘social sculpture’, ‘education’, and ‘action’. Each is described in turn.

Social Sculpture: For their social sculpture, or creative action, the class found twelve upper school student volunteers, from various grades, to wear camouflage t-shirt with images of Ugandan children on the front and statistical quotes on the back. The students implemented their social sculpture prior to ‘Collection’ (school assembly) in an attempt to force students to encounter the concepts and ideas that had emerged through the project. The volunteer students wore the t-shirts with striking images and alarming facts for the first part of the day. As they encountered other students’ questions they were instructed to answer that more information would be revealed during Collection. The students from the case study then used the Collection time as a way to bring greater clarity and focus to the issue.

Education: 'Collection' is a once a week time when the entire upper school meets for announcements and a short presentation. The topic varies and students must pre-register for a time slot. For this class' Education, they organized a visual presentation for the entire upper school that they exhibited during Collection. It included slides, a clip from the video, and a well organized and well rehearsed script.

Action: The students organized a walk-a-thon. The goal was to raise \$1800 for six Ugandan children to go to school for a semester. Rachel reflected on the event via e-mail stating, 'The walk was fabulous: 53 humans and 3 dogs participated. They took in nearly \$1500 yesterday with more coming this week. They will easily make their goal and have decided to extend the fundraising through the end of the month ... The girls were thrilled by this outcome!' In the end, the class raised over \$2,800. The funds were donated to the Invisible Children organisation.<sup>13</sup>

### ***Other Consequences***

Rachel repeated the course in the spring semester.

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<sup>13</sup> Invisible Children is a non-profit organisation whose mission is to improve the quality of life for war-affected children by providing access to quality education, enhance learning environments, and innovative economic opportunities for the community (Invisible Children n.d.).

## **5.5 S1-Spring: Sudan/Darfur**

### ***Introduction of Class and Project***

For the final two classes, the teachers conducted the introduction of the projects in my absence. I supplied them with the ‘Instigating Social Change’ PowerPoint and script and an Action Steps poster. More time was spent preparing the teachers for the project introduction and facilitation. For S1-Spring, the ‘Literature of War’ class, the teacher selected the Darfur conflict in Sudan as the class topic. During the first week, she introduced the class project, broke the students into four groups and assigned them various aspects of the topic to research. During the third week the teacher, Debora, showed the class the PowerPoint presentation and reviewed the Action Steps poster with the class. The class then watched two inspirational documentaries. ‘War Dance’, a film about Uganda’s National Music Competition for school children, shows the story of an unlikely group from the war zone. The second documentary, ‘The Devil Came on Horseback’, depicts the violence and tragedy of the genocide in Darfur as seen through the eyes of a lone American witness.

Debora prepared multiple class packets and a syllabus, which is uncommon at the high school level. This attention to detail enabled Debora to present a large amount of information about the topic in the limited ten-week session. Some students expressed concern over the time demands of the project. One claimed, ‘Debora was trying to do a little too much for a class, the service project became big at one point. More work than I had ever done in one class’.



### ***Selecting the Action***

The fourth and fifth weeks were dedicated to determining the focus of the service component. The class broke into groups to brainstorm possibilities. The class decided to combine all the ideas and designed an information and activity booth. The booth included a video on Darfur, a petition to sign, a place for children to draw cards to send to the state senator, student designed t-shirts and bracelets available for a donation, printed literature, posters and an inactive installation with images of children and families in Darfur. The portability of the booth allowed the class to schedule showings at multiple locations. The class installed the booth at three events during the term. The first was at a parent's night on campus. The second was at a well foot-trafficked street in town on a Saturday afternoon. At this event the students also sold baked goods to raise money to pay for the t-shirts and bracelets. The final event was at a monthly street fair. The primary function of the booth was to raise awareness. The funds that were collected were donated to the International Rescue Committee.<sup>14</sup>

### ***Group Process***

Debora was able to solicit from students a strong investment in the project. One strategy that worked well was to have students take turns convening the class. This encouraged leadership and required students to have an understanding of all the aspects of the project planning. Debora was also very active in the planning process, which kept students on track with deadlines. Debora's involvement in the planning may have come at the detriment of learning opportunities for students. However, the data are inconclusive.

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<sup>14</sup> International Rescue Committee (IRC) is a non-profit organisation whose mission is to serve refugees and communities victimized by oppression or violent conflict worldwide. Founded in 1933, the IRC is committed to freedom, human dignity, and self-reliance. This commitment is expressed in emergency relief, protection of human rights, post-conflict development, resettlement assistance, and advocacy. (International Rescue Committee n.d.).

### ***The Action***

Below are excerpts from the class prepared mission statement of their project:

As students of S1, we realize that we have the tools and the motivation to help end the genocide in Darfur. As privileged Americans, we recognize that it is our responsibility to use our power and resources to bring about change. And as citizens of the world, we feel a need to reach out to our neighbors in Sudan.

Our project has three main goals: to raise awareness, to raise money, and to raise political will. We wish to educate the public about the atrocities happening in Darfur today: the over 400,000 innocent civilians murdered, the 2,500,000 displaced, and the countless number of lives disrupted. We also want to raise money for the people of Darfur to provide them the basic human rights of food, water, and shelter. Finally, we need to raise the level of commitment by our government, on both the state and national level, to take action and show the world that we care.

We hope that you will join us by asking yourself what *you* can do to end the genocide in Darfur. Together, we can make a difference now.

The class also completed a press release that was sent out before their last event.

The single disappointment the class faced occurred when the t-shirt order did not arrive in time to be sold at the final event. This obstacle created a learning opportunity for the class and the students pledged to sell them throughout the summer.

### ***Long Term Results***

A few students from this course sold their t-shirts on campus. The students ultimately raised \$765 for the International Rescue Committee. The students started a club in the following year to continue the project.

### ***Other Consequences***

Debora repeated the 'Literature of War' course the following year and developed two other courses using the Nobis Project approach.

## 5.6 S2-Spring: Afghanistan

### *Introduction of Class and Project*

Rachel repeated the same course she led in the fall, 'Peace, Non-Violence, and Social Justice', with the inclusion of the Nobis Project method for the spring term. As in the fall course, she introduced content for the first four weeks before introducing the project. For this course I did not meet the students until the end of the term and Rachel presented the Action Steps and the 'Instigating Social Change' PowerPoint presentation. At this time, she included the students in creating a master calendar for the term that outlined deadlines.

### *Selecting the Action*

The class chose to look at the current situation in Afghanistan. They felt it was a country that was being overlooked with all the daily coverage of Iraq. This group of students, similar to at least some aspect of each case study, chose children as the beneficiaries. They worked with a group called 'Mobile Mini Circus for Children'.<sup>15</sup> This group works to improve schooling conditions and opportunities for both boys and girls as a way to structurally impact the society from the ground up. One of the students heard about the organisation on National Public Radio. After selecting the focus, the class found a number of inspiring presentations: the film 'Osama', meeting and listening to the stories of someone who travelled and worked in Afghanistan, and reading personal accounts of the daily struggles facing Afghans.

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<sup>15</sup> Mobile Mini Circus for Children (MMCC) is an international non profit NGO that has been working in Afghanistan since June 2002. The main objective of MMCC is providing educational and informative entertainment for children. This aim is achieved by identifying, training, and applying the Afghan talents and potentials (Mobile Mini Circus for Children n.d.).

During the interviews the students talked in detail about why they chose schools. They had given careful thought to what service would have a lasting effect on the country's future. After they presented information to the whole school, a student came up to the group and shared that her brother worked for the organisation they had been researching and that her grandfather had spent a great deal of time in Afghanistan doing service work. They arranged for both the brother and grandfather to come and meet with the class. This was one of the highlights for the students. It served as an affirmation that the project they had chosen was valuable and meaningful.

The two primary frustrations expressed by students were the lack of reply from organisations and the difficulty faced when trying to work with the faculty. For the 'social sculpture' component of the project one student devised an in-class activity. The students went to the faculty to share their idea. They invited the faculty to take thirty minutes of an hour-long class and carry out one of the following simulations. (1) Sitting on the floor instead of at desks, (2) separating the boys and girls, (3) working with limited materials, such as sharing books and pencils, and (4) ignoring the female students. The students would not receive any information on why the change was occurring, instead, immediately following the class at the end of the Nobis Project class would explain that the experience students had undergone was an attempt to show them what a classroom might feel like in Afghanistan. They would then share information on the current situation and how to help.

When the students presented the idea to the faculty, the teachers responded with resistance, stating numerous reasons why they could not participate. The students were disappointed by this unexpected response. Rachel helped the students process their disappointment and re-

contact the faculty via e-mail to answer some of the concerns that were brought up. In the end only one teacher, out of thirty, ran a simulation in her class.

This was a learning experience for the students and for my research as it speaks to the resistance the Nobis Project may face if integrated into a more traditional school structure. I received feedback from the principal and vice principal and in their perception it was more an issue of timing than teachers' willingness to participate. It was the end of the school year and then end of grading period and the teachers were only given one-week notice.

### ***The Action***

This class, like the other class led by Rachel, broke the project into three components, 'education', 'social sculpture' and 'action'. For the education, the class led a Collection, where they informed the school about the condition in Afghanistan. This presentation included viewing a clip from the film 'Osama'. For the social sculpture, as described above, the student encouraged faculty to lead their classes through a simulation of an Afghani class experience. Only one class participated.

For the action, the students scheduled multiple events. These included a screening of the film 'Osama'; donation of proceeds from the Middle Eastern Dance Club performance; and a percentage of sales from a retail store, 'Ten Thousand Villages'<sup>16</sup> where the students worked for one Sunday afternoon. The students took full responsibility for initiating and negotiating the collaborations with the Dance Club and Ten Thousand Villages. One student's parent

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<sup>16</sup> Ten Thousand Villages is a volunteer-staffed store where the proceeds go back to the villagers who make the crafts.

worked with Ten Thousand Villages, which may have accounted for the ease in gaining access.

Like the Spring class at S1, the funds raised were much lower than the large scale events, but the multiple events were able to inform a greater number of people. The class raised a total of \$860 in donations for the Mobile Mini Circus for Children.

### ***Other Consequences***

Rachel implemented the Peace, Non-Violence, and Social Justice course, including the Nobis Project approach, in the following year.

## **5.7 Chapter Summary**

As stated in 4.3 these case studies were analysed through a collective case study approach, where the individual cases are of secondary importance to the issue or interest being researched (Berg 1998, 216). This chapter highlights important contextual differences between the case studies. These significant differences, relevant to this research, included

- (1) The absence of the inspiring presentation in S1-Pilot and S1-Fall
- (2) The absence of a unified project in S1-Fall
- (3) The absence of a direct response, or service, in S1-Fall
- (4) The increase in information collected by S1-Fall

A summary of results of each case study is also found in table 5-1. Common to each case study, was the expressed interest by each teacher to use the Nobis Project approach in future

classes. Following the advocacy of participating S1 teachers, the school included the Nobis Project method in their new GCE curriculum design.

The next chapter examines relevant findings across all five case studies.

Course Title	Teacher	Course Credit	Enrolment	Age Level	Class Time Dedicated to Project	Long Term Results	Method Repeated
Global Health: The Role of Water	Scott and Beth	Social Studies or Non-Western History	12 students	Upper	Final five weeks of class		Yes
History of the Middle East	Jacob	Non-Western History or Social Studies	18 students	Intermediate	Two classes		Yes
Peace, Non-Violence, and Social Justice	Rachel	History or English Elective	6 students	Upper	One class per six day cycle, more during weeks before event		Yes
Literature of War	Deborah	Literature or Social Studies	13 students	Intermediate	One class per week, more during week of event	Students formed Darfur club	Yes
Peace, Non-Violence, and Social Justice	Rachel	History or English Elective	6 students	Upper	One class per six week cycle, more during weeks before event		Yes

Table 5-1: Case Study Summaries

## **CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter examines whether the Nobis Project realizes the civic engagement goals of service-learning and GCE by analyzing data collected from a series of five case studies each with an international focus. The civic engagement criteria shared by service-learning and GCE include ‘knowledge’, ‘skills’, ‘values’, ‘efficacy’, ‘commitment’, and ‘empathy’ (2.4.1). As described in 4.5.2, students’ interview responses, across all five case studies, that referenced these criteria were grouped together and then sorted under common sub-categories. The number of references made by students under each criterion and each of the sub-category were then tallied. Counting references follows the recommendation of Miles and Huberman (1994, 253) who claim that isolating the number of times something happens and checking the predictability of it transpiring in a particular way aids in the reorganisation of patterns. The practices of counting also highlights the areas where little to no response occurred. The following sections describe the findings of each criterion in turn. See table 6-2 for a quantitative breakdown of responses under each category.

### **6.2 Values**

As presented in 2.4.1.1, researchers argue that values taught through service-learning or experiential learning include ‘valuing social justice’, ‘political responsibility’, ‘increase in tolerance for diversity’, ‘concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development’, ‘role and responsibility to society’, and ‘care and concern for a common and



shared life'. Nearly all students, fifty-four out of fifty-six, made a comment that fell under the category of values. The quantity of responses under the value sub-categories, however, varied greatly. Detailed findings under each sub-category are discussed in turn including an analysis of additional contributors to the low responses in certain sub-categories. This section goes on to argue that these sub-categories of values appear in different levels.

### **6.2.1 Valuing Social Justice**

Forty-three students, the largest number, referenced valuing social justice. The variety of themes that appeared, 'concern over social injustices', 'value of informing others', 'appreciation of non-violent practice', and 'learning how to help and how relief organisations work' are discussed in turn.

#### ***Concern Over Social Injustices***

The majority of students, thirty-two out of the forty-three who responded to the category of valuing social justice, expressed a concern over social injustices. The concern ranged from frustrations with lack of American government involvement, lack of developed world's involvement, counterproductive involvement of government in conflict, surprise at the horrific conditions and lack of resources, and awareness of inequalities. Below is a quote typical of students expressing frustrations over social injustice. Referring to a lack of clean water: 'An astounding percent of people die everyday from something that people in the developed world don't even think about. ... Learning that it's not that difficult to treat or do something about but nobody is doing anything. Why is it so difficult for them to get help?' Many students' descriptions of their concern towards social injustices verged on outrage. The

appearance of elevated concern, or outrage, was identified from students' word choice, which included words and phrases such as, 'senseless', 'They don't have the power to fight back and they are being brutally attacked', 'The thing that really horrifies and is appalling to me is ...', and 'brainwashing children and making them killers'.

A few students recognized the dilemma over selecting a particular issue to serve. One student summarized, 'You don't know what makes this cause better than this one'. Another elaborated,

When we were making the list of things that we came up with there was so much on the list and one of the things that I felt bad crossing out was any disease, education is so important but disease is too! So the question was, do we go with something that is really immediate, which is disease or do we go with something that will affect the long term, which is education. And we decided that the long term was going to be important, especially because there are a lot of huge organizations dealing with disease and that wouldn't have been as personal for us.

This quote demonstrates the quality of thought this student placed in the selection process.

She recognized the sequence of events related to improving quality of life for Afghanis while also emphasizing the selfish need of selecting a project that offers a personal or meaningful connection with the project recipients. Other students also reference the recognition of service as a personal process (6.2.5, 6.3.3, 6.3.4, 7.2.3).

Concern over social injustices reported by students during the interviews can mostly be attributed to their work with the Nobis Project because the majority of comments directly referred to information gathered as part of the project. Only one student referenced being previously aware of the conditions related to the class topic as she suggested the topic.

### ***Value of Informing Others***

Ten students commented on a second theme, the value of informing others about a situation. One commented on how she felt the people she spoke with ‘really listened’. She had not expected that an adult would be receptive to receiving information from a teenager. A second student identified informing others as a means of service and acknowledged the personal satisfaction she drew from the experience of informing. Student identification of informing others as service also appears under 6.2.5, 6.4.6 and 6.5.

Consistent with the above ten students who expressed valuing informing others, an additional four students commented on a desire to be more aware of what is going on around the world as a result of the information learned for the Nobis Project.

### ***Appreciation of Non-Violent Practice***

The theme of gaining appreciation of non-violence as a social justice practice was mentioned by six students, all from S2 classes where the course content focused on the non-violent life and work of Gandhi, King, and Hahn. One student repeated a quote that stuck with her throughout the class, ‘peace is not only the absence of violence, but also the presence of justice’. Another commented on how the course made her think about peace and non-violence in a new way. A third student reflected on the timeliness of learning about peace and non-violence. There were four students who did not refer to this understanding as a result of the project; they instead referenced course content as the contributor to their learning of an appreciation of non-violent practice. This reveals the potential for course content to lead to a valuing of social justice without the introduction of the service component (6.2.5, 6.3.2, 6.3.4, 6.6, 6.7.2, 7.2.1, 7.5). The other two students who described an appreciation of non-violent

practice acknowledged the link between the content and service project. One student summarized,

You really have to understand what the roots of the conflict are and you have to fix that before you can expect larger issues to be fixed. I think that was really important in our project too, you have to fix the education system before these people can find better ways to live.

In this statement the student displayed a comprehensive understanding of the process of creating change. A discussion on the process of effecting change is also found in 6.2.5. This is the second example of students referring to service as a process (6.2.5, 7.2.3).

### ***Learning How to Help and How Relief Organisations Work***

Four students reflected on their increased knowledge about how to help and how relief organisations work, including ‘the enormity of the resources that they need that often times they are not getting’. One student described how she learned of the dangers and conflicting responsibilities of participating in relief work. Another student, in the quote below, reflected on her preconceived notions of relief work, recognizing the element of sacrifice and the need for commitment.

It made me realize that [relief work] is more difficult. I always figured that I would live my upper-middle class life style and I’ll get to college and all of a sudden be able to go all this activism stuff and automatically change stuff. ... this class has made me realize that this is a process and there is more to it than, here’s your money. ... The sacrifice element, I’ve always wanted to ignore that piece, but I think it’s a very real aspect of relief work and you have to acknowledge it, because you can’t half ass it, you have to really get yourself emotional invested. There were times during our project when I was less enthusiastic and got nothing done, it’s an all or nothing thing ... you don’t have to go to Africa and work, but you have to be really passionate about it or nothing is going to get done.

For this student she anticipated participating in relief work when she reached adulthood.

From her experience with the Nobis Project she has learned about the dedication and sacrifice needed to effect change. Unlike responses from other students who are pleased with learning

how to act and that their actions are beneficial, this student sees beyond the initial excitement of recognizing ability and begins to evaluate the process and necessary commitment needed to achieve social justice. A further discussion on commitment is found in 6.6.

### ***Summary***

Valuing social justice received the highest response rate out of all the value sub-categories, with over three quarters of the students responding in this area. A larger number of students expressed a concern over social injustices through their descriptions of what they learned about the class designated international issue. As described above, the reported concerns can mostly be attributed to their work with the Nobis Project because the greater part of remarks directly referred to information learned as part of the project. The data does not indicate whether students previously held concerns over other social injustices, it only shows student concern over the issue researched for their project. Student comprehension of non-violent practice did demonstrate the potential for course content to lead to an appreciation of social justice without the inclusion of a service component. This brings into question what a service component adds, if anything, to teaching students to value social justice.

#### **6.2.2 Political Responsibility**

The Nobis Project led to student identification of political responsibility for a moderate twenty students, out of the fifty-six interviewed. Students who identified their political responsibility or a need for political change commented on ‘lack of government priority’, ‘interest in implementing relief work at government level’, ‘disenchantment with government’, ‘concern over foreign policy’, ‘recognition of international government’s role

in their home conflicts’, and ‘striving to raise political will’. The following are highlights of these themes.

One student described how she believed influencing the government, although difficult, could create a greater impact than what her class was able to achieve.

I think that if we were to do this program again we should try to tackle the government and the bigger issues. ... if we were to focus on trying to get the government [involved] by bringing attention to the issue to enough people... I know the government is a lot of red tape, and would be a lot harder than the bike-a-thon, but it is sort of hard to feel satisfied when know that there are a lot of people who still need help. I would like to try to change it for everyone.

This statement also acknowledged the potential disappointment for students to learn about an international issue, respond in a limited way, and feel dissatisfied with the results. It is unclear whether this dissatisfaction would motivate students to continue involvement or would discourage students from wanting to participate in future projects. This concern is discussed further under commitment (6.6) and efficacy (6.5).

The context of the interview data suggests that the Nobis Project influenced student awareness of foreign policy. One student discusses how she used the content learned from the class and the project when lobbying her congressman for changes in the United States’ policy towards Afghanistan. The primary suggestion by students of how to achieve government involvement was through petitioning and letter writing. For the S1-Spring class, one element of their project mission statement was to raise political will, which took the form of letter writing and collecting petition signatures. The two classes, S1-Fall and S1-Spring, which dominated the responses given to this category, were also the two classes whose projects explicitly explored the governments’ roles in the conflict. This relationship between course

content on political factors and student identification of a need for political responsibility again indicates the how course content influences student learning of civic engagement criteria.

Four students expressed disenchantment with government. Typical of these references was to the corruption of government and lack of interest, 'You can write letters but they don't really care'. One student commented how she viewed relief organisations as essential because they offer needed services that governments fail to provide. The data does not indicate whether students were disenchantment with government prior to the study or if the study instigated or dismantled students' feelings of disenchantment. Due to the low number of students who mentioned experiencing disenchantment, it can be concluded that it is not a likely result of the Nobis Project. If the study were repeated, additional methods to measure this topic would be recommended.

### *Summary*

Receiving the second highest response, less than one half of the students interviewed identified a need for political change. The results from this section also indicate that the moderate response may be a result of the nature of international issue and whether students researched the United States' government involvement or ways in which the selected country's government was responding to the crisis. If it is true that the nature of the issue determines students' exposure to political influence, and political awareness is agreed to be a valuable asset to civic engagement in general and the Nobis Project in particular, future Nobis Project users may consider adding a requirement for students to investigate how various governments have responded to the issue.

Wilson argues that students who participate in political or social service become more open-minded as compared with students participating on other types of service (Alt and Medrich 1994). None of the case studies solely involved political service, only S1-Spring collected signatures that were sent to a state senator. For future classes that select political projects an investigation of whether students report a high level of open-mindedness should be considered.

### **6.2.3 Increasing Tolerance for Diversity**

Seventeen students, a little over a quarter, described an increase in tolerance for diversity.

Themes under this category included, ‘trying to see someone else’s perspective’, ‘a desire to learn more about the recipients of service’, and ‘awareness of a cultural difference’.

#### ***Trying to See Someone Else’s Perspective***

Trying to understand someone else’s perspective was the most significant theme, with eleven students mentioning this theme. One student talked about a new perspective on war, ‘Now when I think about war I think more about each person who is in it and what they have to go through’. Another student reflected on the human condition, especially when faced with war. Some comments referenced holding media accountable for presenting the whole truth. Other students commented on the role of media in the Nobis Project. For further discussion on the role of media in the Nobis Project case studies, see 6.3.1, 6.4.4, 7.2.3.



### ***Desire to Learn More About the Recipients of Service***

Five students expressed a desire to learn more about the recipients of service. One student stated, ‘we should have learned a lot more about the people in general, I think that would definitely help the students connect with the people we were learning about’. This student went on to describe what she learned from watching a movie about a country neighbouring the country the class selected. She reported learning about the country’s culture and values and that the movie left her with a personal sense of connection to the people there. Another student confirmed the ability of video to create a sense of connection, ‘When we saw the picture of the village and the children. Brings a whole feeling of personalization to see the people you are helping’. This data suggests that video and photographs can aid students’ sense of connection with recipients of service. The interview data, where students express a desire to learn more about recipients, highlights a potential deficiency in the Nobis Project’s ability to emotionally connect students with international service recipients. Section 6.7, which focuses on empathy, examines this topic in more detail.

### ***Awareness of a Cultural Difference***

Five students described an awareness of a cultural difference. The majority of these comments were from the S1-Fall class and the cultural differences between Iraqi Shiite and Sunni beliefs, which was a central focus to course content. Another student compared what she learned from the Nobis Project to what others reported experiencing when travelling to another country, describing the difficulty of understanding other cultures.

We learned that it is ...really hard for us to understand what is going on because we’re looking through it with these western eyes, and as Americans we are really judgmental of what the situation is. So what I realize is that people in Afghanistan aren’t just angry or sad, they are happy – liking seeing the girl skipping rope, that was really meaningful.

In this statement, the use of photography as a tool in creating connection once again appears, suggesting again that imagery can be a powerful tool in teaching about other cultures. The student comments on the usefulness and ability of a film to produce a sense of connection confirm the importance of the inspiring introduction as part of the Nobis Project design.

### *Summary*

Eyler and Giles' (1999, 29) argue that service-learning research consistently reveals an increase in acceptance of diversity and decrease of negative stereotypes. For the Nobis Project programme, the findings for the category of increase in tolerance for diversity was not as significant as Eyler and Giles suggest typical service-learning programmes achieve. Ranking third among the values sub-categories, a little over a quarter of students described an increase in tolerance for diversity. The request from students to learn more about the recipients of service suggests an interest from students to better understand other cultures. It is recommended that future Nobis Project users investigate ways to better incorporate learning about other cultures.

#### **6.2.4 Concern for the Environment and Commitment to Sustainable Development**

No students shared specific comments for a concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development. Data under this category may appear in instances where Nobis Projects focus on an environmental concern or sustainable development. Further research is needed to determine if this hypothesis is correct.

### **6.2.5 Role and Responsibility to Society**

Researchers argue an important element students learn from service-learning experiences is an educated perspective on how they relate to the world, which leads to the first step in participatory citizenship, feeling a sense of social responsibility (Shumer 1997, 35; Eyler and Giles 1999, 157). A minimal eleven students out of fifty-six, mentioned an awareness of this value sub-category. The various ways these few students described their role and responsibility to society are discussed below.

Two students mentioned the merit of collecting and distributing information. One shared that her experience with the Nobis Project has taught her ‘that it is much more important to be aware of what is going on and be able to talk intelligently about it’. Both of these students considered ‘spreading awareness’ as a form of service and therefore they see it as their responsibility to keep themselves informed and share accurate information with others. Reference to awareness as service is also found in 6.2.1.

Five students discussed ways that their role and responsibility affects choices they make with money or career paths. One student commented on how her experience helped her internalize the value of money and consequently leading to a change in behaviour. ‘I realize now that the money I spend on stupid things could be used to save someone’s life’. Another student recognized the variety of ways to offer financial support, even without a job, such as fundraising. This illustrates a pre-existing understanding that giving money can be a form of service. It also shows a new awareness that she does not have to wait until she is older to participate in financial service; there are different ways she can act now. Reference to student choices regarding money and career path are also mentioned in 6.7.2 and 6.6 (7.2.3).

Another student commented on changes in her perception regarding money and relief work, stating,

At first I just thought that relief work was something that you could do around town, go to your local shelter and help out for the day and then it was done, and that was your relief work. But now, it kind of shows you that it is an ongoing process, it's not just a one-time thing, if you want to actually help a situation you can't just be like, 'here's your money' and go. You have to establish a relationship out of the effort and then you go on from there, and it is forever essentially.

For this student, her understanding of relief work changed after the Nobis Project and she now recognizes that social problems cannot be solved by one financial donation or serving one meal at a soup kitchen. She now understands that a commitment to a particular issue is needed (6.2.1, 7.2.3). The use of the word, 'forever,' leaves room to question if she feels that a resolution to social issues will ever manifest. For a student to come away from the process thinking that the possibility of change is hopeless would not be a beneficial result for the Nobis Project.

Other students commented on how their choice of career path was influenced by their commitment to helping the underprivileged. Their comments did not indicate whether their experience with the Nobis Project led to the identification of a career path, rather they highlighted how their experiences with the Nobis Project confirmed their commitment to working in the social sector. Waterman's (1997, 4) research suggests that service-learning experiences may aid students in choosing a career path. He argues that some students' exposure to a range of work settings may confirm or disprove interest in career goals, specifically social service careers (Waterman 1997, 4). Although the Nobis Project does not necessarily expose students to diverse work places like traditional service-learning programmes, the findings indicate that the Nobis Project can, although minimally referenced,

offer opportunities for students to recognize their strengths and interests as related to career choice. The low response regarding career choice may be related to a lack of interview questions about career choice, or may only be applicable for a minority of students who have career interests in the social sector.

Another topic that arose was ‘connection between learning and service’. One student stated how the class readings of Gandhi and Hahn led to feeling ‘more committed to non-violence’. This occurrence again illustrates the relevance of quality course content that complements the nature of the service project (6.2.1, 6.3.2, 6.3.4, 6.6, 6.7.2, 7.2.1, 7.5).

A repeated query examined when analyzing the interview data was accounting for pre-existing values or beliefs and how to determine whether the Nobis Project affected students’ perspectives directly. It was the original intention of this research design to account for previous values through the survey (4.5.3). Once the use of surveys was abandoned, the measurement for previous values was lost. Under the category of role and responsibility I anticipated that students would bring to the case study an understanding that relief work was ‘a good thing to do’, but not necessarily feel inclined to participate on their own accord or feel that their participation actually impacted the lives of others. One student shared that ‘you should be active in your society’. The context of this statement did not clarify if this was a pre-existing understanding or a new awareness. Another student voiced her recognition of the importance of community service. She noted that she knew ‘it’s important to do’ but now understands that her involvement can be helpful in saving the lives of others. For this student the Nobis Project programme elevated her understanding of and valuing of relief work. Other students’ feelings of efficacy are discussed in 6.5.

## *Summary*

Fewer students, ranking fourth, mentioned an awareness of their role and responsibility to society. The low response rate in this category and the possibility that one student felt social problems were impossible to resolve indicate two areas of weakness for the Nobis Project method. There are no clear indicators that account for the low response rate. Poor or incomplete interview questions could be a contributing factor. For example, when students identified their value of social justice or need for political change, they were not asked to confirm whether they felt a sense of responsibility to respond to social injustices or participate in the political process. It is also possible that the absence of community participation in the service-learning process, where students witnessed firsthand the social conditions of local community members, led to fewer students reporting a sense of social responsibility. This view depends on students restricting their sense of social responsibility to their immediate community rather than the global community. Eyler and Giles' (1999, 158) findings claim that those actively involved in community service build a connection to the community and this connection becomes a motivator for future involvement, thus altering students' view on their role in their community. The absence of student response on their role in society may be attributed to the short duration of their experience, where students have not become 'actively' or regularly involved in service. Although the Nobis Project's internationally focused programmes may limit students' sense of social responsibility, when students elect to inform and engage the local community as part of the Nobis Project, the students do participate in their community in a way that may add to an understanding of their role in the community.

The student comment that the service process was ‘forever’ could be interpreted two ways; that the student believed change is unlikely or that persistence and commitment are necessary elements to impacting social change. Further investigation is required to confirm whether students leave the programme feeling that change is not possible and what factors may contribute to such a response.

Oxfam’s Great Britain (n.d.) website addresses the idea of questioning why someone should participate in relief work when the resolution to the conflict or the issue feels overwhelming. Oxfam answers the question, ‘why fight poverty’, with, ‘The answer is basic ... Belief that in a wealthy world poverty is unjustifiable, and can be prevented. Belief that injustice must be challenged. And belief that with the right help, poor people themselves can change their lives for the better, for good’ (Oxfam Great Britain n.d.). Oxfam Great Britain (n.d.) asserts that, although a great deal of effort is needed, the efforts of many can make a large impact. In this view, understanding that the process is extensive is a practical observation.

#### **6.2.6 Care and Concern for Common and Shared Life**

One student referenced the category of care and concern for a common and shared life, thus ranking this sub-category fifth. This student stated, ‘Whenever I looked at the news I focused on international issues, and just understanding that we have a privilege, I feel that we have a duty to help those who don’t have that privilege’. Further research is needed to understand why this category did not produce significant results. There was potential for teaching care and concern for others with the group project component. Findings in this area are discussed in under the skills civic engagement category (6.4).

In Dewey's view, learning how to work towards the betterment of a 'common and shared life' does not occur in traditional education, which encourages competition over cooperation and self-interest over concern for others (Archambault 1964, 11-12). Dewey argues that students should be taught how to actively use skills for the betterment of all (Archambault 1964, 11-12). Section 6.4 discusses how students employed previously learned and newly acquired skills, including collaboration, during the Nobis Project. Student ability to work collaboratively indicates that some students learned skills necessary to participate selflessly in society.

This category can be interpreted differently when considering it on a global level, which aims for students to acquire an understanding of the interconnectedness of humans (Ibrahim 2005, 178). Findings on this level appeared in the single student comment.

### ***Values Summary***

Under the civic engagement category, values, the six sub-categories of measurement revealed that although nearly all students made a comment that fell under the category of values, how students experienced values differed greatly. The findings overall for student reference to values was substantial. For some it was a reaffirmation, for others a new awareness.

I argue that the value sub-categories measured for this study occur at different levels. That is, students must first identify a value of social justice. As a result of recognizing social injustices, students can then identify any or all of the following; 'political responsibility', 'an increasing tolerance for diversity', or 'concern for the environment and commitment to



sustainable development'. The two final sub-categories, 'role and responsibility to society' and 'care and concern for common and shared life' are more advanced values, as they require students to recognize, deplore, and consequentially express a desire to respond to injustices. Following this claim, the research indicates that the lower level values occurred more frequently than the more advanced levels.

### **6.3 Knowledge**

In the civic engagement category, knowledge, was broken into five sub-categories for measurement. These categories correspond with five of the six levels of learning defined by Bloom (1984) (2.4.1.2); 'knowledge acquisition', 'comprehension', 'analysis', 'synthesis', and 'evaluation'. The third level of learning, 'application', was measured under the civic engagement category, 'skills' (2.4.1.3, 6.4). Although GCE and service-learning share the category of knowledge, each approach implements the category differently (2.4.1.2). Bloom's levels of learning were selected as the measurement tool for this research in order to offer a scale by which student application of knowledge can be measured against. Other researchers defend various elements of this scale (Kendall *et al.* 1986, 38) (2.4.1.2). For service-learning the emphasis is on building critical thinking and decision-making skills in order to teach students how to apply knowledge to social problems, as represented in Bloom's levels. For GCE the focus is on particular areas of knowledge related to global awareness. These differences, however, are compatible and can exist simultaneously (2.4.1.2). Findings under the Bloom categories, including reference to knowledge related to global awareness, are discussed in turn.

### **6.3.1 Knowledge Acquisition**

Bloom (1984) defines the first level of learning as ‘observation and recall of information, knowledge of dates, events, places, knowledge of major ideas, and mastery of subject matter’. Nearly all students, fifty-four out of fifty-five asked, were able to recall at least one fact about the topic of their Nobis Project. This section reviews the results of the Nobis Project’s ability to teach the knowledge goals of GCE. It goes on to discuss student comments on frustration regarding the collection of knowledge and the role of media literacy.

#### ***GCE Knowledge***

GCE, according to Oxfam (2006, 4), calls for student knowledge of social justice and equity, diversity, globalisation and interdependence, sustainable development, and peace and conflict. As mentioned in 6.2.1, over three quarters of students reported learning about social injustices and inequity. The students described having limited knowledge of diversity (6.2.3, 6.3.2). Peace and conflict were mentioned in all case studies. More substantial discussion was found in case studies that focused on countries affected by war, for instance S1-Pilot made fewer references because the focus of the class was not specific to a country at war, as compared to S1-Fall, which studied a country currently in conflict, Iraq.

Globalisation, interdependence, and sustainable development were rarely, if at all, mentioned by students during interviews, except when students identified the need for political involvement. As mentioned under 6.2.2, nearly one half of students interviewed identified a need for political change. Eight students identified political involvement as an alternative way to respond to the class topic (6.3.4). The student reference to political involvement was undeveloped and typically consisted of recommending letter writing. To remedy this

deficiency, lessons on how students can influence political processes of decision-making at different levels, a key element of GCE (Ibrahim 2005, 181), would be an advisable addition to the Nobis Project.

The Nobis Project clearly informed students about conditions and situations in other parts of the world but did not successfully teach students about how these issues relate to globalisation, interdependence, and sustainable development. The Nobis Project should investigate how the model can be altered to generate learning in these areas (7.2.1). Requiring a lesson that reviews the Universal Declaration of Human Rights or the Convention on the Rights of the Child would be a beneficial addition.

### ***Not Enough Research/Hard to find information***

One obstacle faced by students was the difficulty of finding information. Four students mentioned this obstacle. Five students, all from S1-Pilot, expressed an interest in learning more on the topic under investigation. One student referred to the class as, ‘A class where we do some shallow research on some global issue’. The lack of information presented during the pilot was addressed during the planning between researcher and teachers for each of the subsequent case studies. The absence of future comments indicates the changes were effective.

### ***Media Literacy***

Another aspect of knowledge collection that just over a third of students mentioned was their use of and the role of the media. A small number of students expressed distrust towards the media. Others expressed concern over the lack of media coverage on the country on which

their project focused. Students also commented on an improved vocabulary and better understanding of the players in the conflict, when listening to the news, and a general interest in current events.

The use of the Nobis Project as a tool for teaching media literacy is a valuable addition to the programme's benefits. Seeing that only a third of the students referenced media, investigation into ways to better integrate media literacy is recommended (6.2.3, 6.4.4, 7.2.3).

### **6.3.2 Comprehension**

The category of comprehension, as defined by Bloom (1984), encompasses the ability to understand information, grasp meaning, translate knowledge into new context, interpret facts, compare, contrast, order, group, infer causes, and predict consequences. Under GCE, Oxfam (2006, 5) recommends teaching for an understanding of 'diversity' and open-mindedness in order for students to make informed decisions. To analyse students' level of comprehension, an inquiry of the degree students were able to understand another culture was considered. A moderate number of students, nineteen out of the fifty-six, were able to describe what they learned about the culture they were studying.

None of the students from S1-Pilot, S2-Fall or S1-Spring made any mention of cultural awareness. Thirteen out of the eighteen S1-Fall students were able to describe cultural differences of Iraqis. Students described learning about the struggles of deployed American soldiers, belief differences between Sunni and Shiite, and the life experiences of Iraqi men, women, and children. Not related to understanding cultural differences, S1-Fall students

described an increased vocabulary and a new familiarity with the situation, which allowed them to understand what they heard on the news, or the historical background of the conflict. The nature of how S1-Fall students were assigned to collect information directly reflects the high number of references to understanding another culture. Consequently, the lack of responses from other classes was a result of how students were instructed to collect information. Adjustments to the Nobis Project design should incorporate these findings.

All six students from S2-Spring were able to describe information about another culture. Two mentioned the inequitable conditions for women and children in Afghanistan such as the difficulty for girls to attain an education. The other four students mentioned a general awareness of learning about someone else's perspective. One student identified that trying to understand a world issue from someone else's perspective was an initial goal for the class and this goal 'gave us the opportunity to look outside of this bubble that we live in'. Another student recognized the difficulty of understanding another culture because her initial response was to superimpose her own cultural context. One student stated that the most significant thing she will take from the class is awareness. She went on to say,

Especially of a different life style and all the issues that come with addressing a differently lifestyle and how to honor that lifestyle while thinking about what human rights are. I've never been to another country, so anything that has to do with international affairs, I don't know what it would be like to be in another country, so that was an eye opener for me.

Seeing that the majority of students in two case studies reported learning about another culture, and the complete absence of responses from the other three case studies, indicates that content specific to the course affected students' collection of information on another culture. The data provided from the two case studies that did offer results indicate that understanding another culture is a possible outcome of the Nobis Project method when the

programme is conducted in a way that encourages collecting culturally specific information. If students are not required to collect information on the culture of the people they are serving, these students are not likely to learn about the culture. The same principle can be applied to learning of globalisation and interdependence; future Nobis Projects users should require students to investigate these areas.

### **6.3.3 Analysis**

Only a little over a quarter of students, sixteen out of fifty-six, exhibited an ability to analyse knowledge learned from the Nobis Project. Bloom's (1984) fourth level of learning, analysis, involves seeing patterns, organisation of parts, recognition of hidden meanings, and identification of components. The case studies revealed an array of comments that explored analysis of the situation under investigation. One student described his recognition of the need to look 'into things further instead of assuming stuff and researching on my own and seeing if the facts I initially heard are actually true or if there is more to it'. Another student contemplated how to communicate the information she had learned, 'When the mom said, how would you explain this to a seven year old, and that just made me think how do you explain it to anyone?' Another student described an awareness of the history of the situation and how the Sudan Divestment Act would affect the current situation.

I see this [the petition] as something that can be done that's pretty big right now, the Sudan Divestment Act, and how the government needs some sort of incentive, without the Sudanese government to have some reason to want this to stop it's going to be really hard to stop it. Even if it is making them realize what wrongs they have been doing by putting an economic [action in place], we're not going to invest any money in you if you keep this up, something has to be done to give them and incentive to stop it.

Another student questioned the American role in the conflict in Sudan, ‘It definitely raises the questions of should we be there, is it our duty to police the world?’ Students from the S2-Spring class discuss their new knowledge on the peace process and the need to solve social problems from the root of the conflict (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 7.2.3),

You have to understand what’s happening before you can have peace and social justice, ... you have to understand the conflict, you can’t just be like I want peace, you have to understand what the roots of the conflict are and you have to fix that before you can expect larger issues to be fixed.

The interview questions were limited in their ability to collect information on how students’ analysed knowledge learned from the Nobis Project. Students were only asked to describe the situations in other countries, not explain why those situations existed. The data presented here is from students who offered analytical explanations without being prompted. The results indicate that student analysis is possible, further research is needed to determine how teachers and the use of reflection influences student analysis of content and experience (7.2.1).

#### **6.3.4 Synthesis**

Bloom’s (1984) learning level, synthesis, is defined as the ability to use old ideas to create new ones, generalize from given facts, relate knowledge from several areas, predict, and draw conclusions. Student ability to synthesize knowledge as a result of the Nobis Project was measured by asking students to describe another way to respond to the class topic. Kendall *et al.* (1986, 38) claim that students who display an ability to imagine alternative solutions demonstrate a level of knowledge that prepares them to actively contribute to society. The majority of students from the five case studies, forty-nine out of the fifty-five asked, were able to describe an alternative way to respond to the conflict. Suggestions offered by students

from all case studies ranged from collection or donation of supplies, methods of creating awareness, work with relief organisations, political activism, fundraising, local service work, travel internationally to help, educate children through interactive activities, or start at school a club that focuses on relief work. Two students referenced previous Nobis Projects as a different means to respond. Many of the examples given were ideas that the class considered using for their project but did not ultimately select.

In addition to S2-Fall students' ability to describe another way to respond, three students were also able to describe how their learning of King, Gandhi and Hahn affected their work on their project. One student stated, 'it helped me process my views towards pacifism and ... has also helped me understand the process of relief work organizations'. The ability for the Nobis Project to contribute to student learning about the peace process indicates that the programme is capable of imparting the final knowledge component of Oxfam's (2006, 5) GCE requirements (2.4, 6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.3.3, 7.2.3). The possibility for peace and conflict to be understood and for course content to be significantly influential to the service process is a valuable benefit to the Nobis Project. Both should be considered further in order to isolate how each area could be continually manifested.

S2-Spring students' answers differed from the other case studies. When asked the identical interview question these students described other relief needs of Afghanistan in addition to describing how to assist. These needs included building libraries, build wells, educating women, children's literacy and education, health aid, eliminating landmines, and farmer assistance. One student did mention travelling to Afghanistan to participate in relief work and another described alternative fundraising ideas. One rationale to account for the different



response of S2-Spring was the fact that the class worked with an organisation, the Mobile Mini Circus for Children, that helped a variety of needs rather than working for a specific need as was the case for the other classes. Another possibility is that this class gathered more data on the variety of needs Afghans face. This class took the time to consider different issues that the country and citizens of Afghanistan face and then discussed, as a group, the impact of selecting one issue over another. This group discussion engaged the students on a more advanced contemplation of how social change is achieved, through immediate action versus long-term results (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 7.2.3).

### **6.3.5 Evaluation**

Under Bloom's (1984) evaluation level of learning, students demonstrate the ability to compare and discriminate between ideas, assess value of theories, presentations, make choices based on reasoned argument, verify value of evidence, and recognize subjectivity.

Three students provided advanced explanations of another way to respond, which demonstrated an ability to evaluate what they learned from the Nobis Project process. An S1-Pilot student described in detail further steps needed to completely rid the Malawian village from water related diseases. Another advanced explanation came from an S2-Fall student who summarized what she learned from the project,

I also think it has shown me how difficult relief work can be, even how you help the problem because these problems are so complex and you can't fix them by giving out food to people or even providing education to someone they're still going to be emotional scared. So it's helped me learn how multi-faceted relief work has to be to be successful.

A student from S2-Spring also shared an advanced reflection on what a guest speaker had shared with the class, ‘if you educate women they have worth in society and stop being second-class citizens’.

Wringe (1999, 6) claims that GCE’s social justice component teaches students to understand and act on the contributory political, cultural and economic factors that led to the situation (2.4.1.2). Although the interview results indicate high number of students reporting a value of social justice, and whilst students in four of the five of the Nobis Projects did offer international service, the findings showed only a few students who were able to describe an understanding of the underlying political, cultural and economic factors that led to the situation. This indicates an area of weakness for the Nobis Project, and an inquiry into what contributed to this occurrence in only a limited number of students is recommended (7.2.1).

### ***Knowledge Summary***

In this section the case study findings regarding knowledge were discussed using five of Bloom’s (1984) levels of learning and GCE’s call for knowledge to include awareness of social justice and equity, diversity, globalisation and interdependence, sustainable development, and peace and conflict (Oxfam 2006, 4). Table 6-1 illustrates the stronger and weaker areas of response for service-learning and GCE’s knowledge criteria. The Nobis Project was more successful in teaching Bloom’s learning levels than the GCE criteria. This was due in part to the selection of course topic, but more substantially related to lack of course focus on the role of globalisation and interdependence or sustainable development. If the Nobis Project desires to reach GCE’s knowledge goals, the programme design must encompass lessons on these lacking areas.

		Response Rates for Knowledge		
<b>76-100%</b>		Knowledge Overall	<b>55/56</b>	<b>98%</b>
	<b>Bloom – L1</b>	Knowledge Acquisition	<b>54/55</b>	<b>98%</b>
	<b>Bloom – L4</b>	Synthesis	<b>49/55</b>	<b>89%</b>
	<b>GCE</b>	Social Justice and Equity (as measured under values)	<b>43/56</b>	<b>77%</b>
<b>51-75%</b>	<b>GCE</b>	Peace and Conflict	<b>35/56</b>	<b>63%</b>
<b>26-50%</b>	<b>Bloom – L2</b>	Comprehension	<b>19/56</b>	<b>34%</b>
	<b>GCE</b>	Diversity (as measured under values)	<b>17/56</b>	<b>30%</b>
	<b>Bloom – L3</b>	Analysis	<b>16/56</b>	<b>29%</b>
<b>0-25%</b>	<b>Bloom – L5</b>	Evaluation	<b>3/56</b>	<b>5%</b>
	<b>GCE</b>	Globalisation and Interdependence (as measured under values)	<b>1/56</b>	<b>2%</b>
	<b>GCE</b>	Sustainable Development (as measured under values)	<b>0/56</b>	<b>0%</b>

Table 6-1: Response Rates for Knowledge

## 6.4 Skills

All fifty-six students identified skills used during the programme. The skills students reported using are broken into the following six skills sets, ‘interpersonal skills’, ‘planning and organisational skills’, ‘presentation skills’, ‘research skills’, ‘leadership skills’, and ‘experience working with adults’. Each skill set is discussed in turn.

### 6.4.1 Interpersonal Skills

Over one half of students, thirty-six out of fifty-six, mentioned using or learning interpersonal skills. Under this category students described working as a team, practicing patience, listening and communication skills. Typical of comments that referred to teamwork, one student stated, ‘I think we all worked together well, we all cared a lot and we all used our different skills’. Another student added, ‘It’s a group effort, that’s a big part of it, I don’t

think that one person could have done [what we did]’. Two students expressed frustrations with working in the group. A discrepancy between case studies appeared in S1-Fall where students were permitted to work independently, a practice which does not follow the set Nobis Project method of group work.

Comments regarding tolerance, as previously mentioned in 6.2.3, included reference to using patience and listening skills such as listening to different points of view, ‘Everyone had their different point of views, so we had that to work with, but we were all working towards a common goal so we were willing to work with each other and work through our differences in order to reach what we wanted to achieve’. Communication skills used and learned included ‘talking to adults’, and ‘interacting with [event attendees] and telling them about what we learned’. One student summarized, ‘having to talk about it so much, you gain a lot of knowledge on one subject’.

#### **6.4.2 Planning and Organisational Skills**

Nearly half of students, twenty-seven out of fifty-six, mentioned using or learning planning and organisational skills. Students described using checklists, creating deadlines or setting goals, delegating tasks, and promoting the event. Three students categorized their planning skills as learning how to fundraise. One student stated, ‘I’ve been exposed to a lot of non-profit stuff, but I’ve never taken initiative to fundraise or change something and I think it let me understand the process behind that a little better. It’s a lot of work and that’s something that I know better now’. Other simple tasks listed included learning how to use a fax machine and using math to place a t-shirt order.

### **6.4.3 Presentation Skills**

Over three quarters of students, forty-four out of fifty-six, mentioned using or learning presentation skills, including the creative and visual presentation techniques as well as writing and public speaking. The creative skills employed by students included learning how to create a logo, screen print t-shirts, design layout, using the computer for poster display, and ‘figuring out a way to get people to notice us and do something about it’. The use of writing included sending e-mails, creating PowerPoint presentations, and writing information about the project for display at the event. One student commented on the role of public speaking ‘we had to be able to get our message across clearly and concisely cause being able to get everything that we want to tell people down to a five minute or one minute thing, that was definitely really important’.

### **6.4.4. Research Skills**

A little over a quarter of the students, sixteen out of fifty-six, mentioned using or learning research skills. Students referenced information-gathering including media literacy (6.3.1, 7.2.3), ‘knowing where to look and know what to look for and fact checking’. Others mentioned, ‘How to search the Internet effectively’. One student added, ‘A lot of what was on the Internet needed to be deciphered for what was good or what was bad’. Additional research skills mentioned included analyzing collected data including ‘being bi-partisan [in order to understand] different points of view. You sometimes have to learn about something in detail in order to appreciate how difficult and complicated they actually are’. One student added that he was challenged by the assignments that ‘took into account your opinion on things’.

#### **6.4.5 Leadership Skills**

Over a quarter of students, eighteen out of fifty-six, mentioned using or learning leadership skills. One student noted, ‘some people took more of an active role because they are more naturally leaders’. Students described group or shared leadership where students knew ‘when to take leadership and when to step back’. Similarly, another student reported, ‘Even though I like being one of the leaders, it really gives you satisfaction when everyone was participating, and I think that was when I was most excited, when everyone was really excited for this project’. In the S1-Spring class each student was required to facilitate a class discussion, which a number of students described as meaningful.

#### **6.4.6 Experience of Working with Adults**

Less than one half of students, twenty-one out of fifty-six, discussed experiences of working with adults during the Nobis Project. Ten students reported initiating contact with adults, even though they were not comfortable working with unfamiliar adults. Typical interactions with adults consisted of calling businesses, e-mailing organisations, and talking with attendees at events. One student reported that once she overcame her fears, ‘It was nice to know that I could call somebody and that they would listen to us’.

Twelve students reported being comfortable when working with adults. Of those already comfortable, one shared that this project added to her experience. Others advised that ‘the more specific information I had the easier it was to talk’ and ‘dealing with the frustrating people helped us overall’. Other students expressed the value of being able to communicate information to others (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.5). One commented, ‘I know a lot the parents that came to the presentation learned a lot of new things they didn’t know. If they had searched for it

they could have found it too. I haven't really taught something to someone older than me so that was pretty cool'.

Out of the students who reported having no interactions with unfamiliar adults, four attempted to contact individuals or agencies but received no response. One elaborated, 'The most frustrating thing was trying to find an organization who would respond. We sent out e-mails and I looked up some organization that I found on this one website, but they didn't respond'.

### ***Skills Summary***

Payne (2000, 11-12) argues that service-learning's participatory requisite provides students with physical opportunities to learn and apply new skills. The findings in this category confirm that the Nobis Project created the opportunity for all students to learn new and use previously acquired skills. On the whole students reported that they used pre-existing skills more than learning new skills. One student referred to the process as, 'an accumulation of pre-known skills' where she learned how to put together multiple skills. Another reflected, 'I feel like the skills I used were ones I don't usually use in high school. It wasn't like "if I don't organize the paper right", it was like "if I don't organize than this whole bike-a-thon – that we have all these people coming to – will fall flat on its face" '.

Eyler and Giles' research identifies interpersonal skills as one of the most recurrent skills students develop during service-learning programmes (Eyler and Giles 1997, 70-71). Moore (1981) reports that the use of interpersonal skills often take the form of working as a team and building greater confidence working with adults (Eyler and Giles 1999, 63). Findings

from this study, where the categories of interpersonal and working with adults are combined, totals nearly three quarters of students, forty-one out of fifty-six. This corresponds with Waterman's argument and indicates that the Nobis Project shares traditional service-learning programmes' ability to teach interpersonal skills. Ibrahim (2005, 191) argues that GCE's goal for students to learn skills includes developing skills of communication. The Nobis Project students' use of interpersonal skills and working with adults demonstrates how the Nobis Project engages the GCE requirement of learning communication skills.

Eyler and Giles (1999, 41) argue that one benefit of service-learning results from students applying skills that mirror tasks and responsibilities students will employ in adult life, including the workplace and local community. The type and abundance of skills used and learned by students in the Nobis Project verifies that Nobis Project can prepare students for the workplace environment, through the practice of skills necessary to successfully negotiate adult life, without requiring students to perform onsite service in local workplaces.

## **6.5 Efficacy**

Efficacy was measured by asking students if their experience in the Nobis Project 'altered their perception of their ability to effect change?' Answers to this potentially leading question (4.5.2) revealed that over three quarters of students, forty-two out of the fifty-five asked, agreed that the Nobis Project altered their perception of their ability to effect change and the class showed them that they have the 'potential of actually making an impact'. A response typical of student reaction is the following: '[this class] brought into light for me how possible it is to change things and how little actions do count'. The ways that students



experienced efficacy included, ‘efficacy of the individual’, ‘overcoming doubt’, ‘learning how to organize an event’, ‘efficacy of a group’, ‘reaffirmation of efficacy’, ‘creating awareness as service’, and ‘doubts over impact of actions’. Highlights and areas with high response rates are discussed in turn. This is followed by comments from students who reported that they did not experience efficacy. This section is concluded with a discussion on a second area explored under the category of efficacy, the differences between community service and international service.

### ***Efficacy of the Individual***

Over a quarter of students, seventeen out of fifty-five asked, referred to the common cliché, ‘one person can make a difference’. One student recalled a quote she learned in class, ‘ “Don’t doubt that one person can change the world because it’s the only thing that ever has” ... ‘I think that quote sums up how I was feeling and sums up our whole project in what we are trying to do. It makes people realize that they can make a difference’. Another stated a change in perspective, ‘[I started the class thinking] I’m one person in six billion I can’t do anything, and now I’m like, I just did do something’. Two students added that their experience with the Nobis Project verified that effecting change was easier than they anticipated.

We’re a bunch of high schoolers that in a month and a half raised enough money to build a well that’s actually going to give a 1000 orphans a chance to live. One out of five die before they reach age 20 and now those kids will be saved. ...You can do pretty cool stuff in a short amount of time if you just put in a good amount of effort.

The other student added, ‘every little bit helps and you have just as much ability as everyone else to take action’.

### ***Overcoming Doubt***

One theme shared by twelve students was overcoming doubt in their abilities and the ability of the group to effect change and complete the project. One student summarized his initial doubts, ‘When she first told us about the project I was like how are we going to take on an international issue? We’re six high school kids, we’re not changing the world, [but] we would be affecting certain individuals and at least we are affecting someone’. Another shared, ‘It’s made me think that I’m not going to know unless I try. I feel at least I’ll try to make a difference’.

With regards to completing the project, one student commented, ‘There were definitely times when I was second-guessing if it was going to happen’. Others felt that the class goals were too ambitious, ‘I definitely thought that we were trying to achieve more than we could at first’. Two students mentioned comments made by their parents doubting whether the class would reach its goal or complete the project. One stated, ‘Even my father said, “you’ll never be able to do that”’.

Other students expressed concern over working through charity organisations, ‘It seems a little bit hard to feel like my contributions are really helping [because] I have no idea if it’s going to help pay for someone’s medication or a nurses salary or going to the corporation’. This student went on to say her experience with the class ‘has definitely encouraged me to keep doing these things because a lot of times you think that thousands of people are dying every day and it’s so overwhelming but if you can see that in the series of three months you can help maybe 100 people live past the age of five it’s worthwhile’. Students who shared doubt left the experience feeling that their actions did effect change. The student concern

over working with charity organisations is a valuable concern. Future Nobis Project users should consider encouraging students to research the fiscal responsibility of various organisations as part of their selection process in order to aid students in understanding how financial contributions impact the recipients. This concern, over working through charity organisations, also relates to how S1-Pilot students reported an increase in a sense of empowerment due in part to knowing exactly how their donation was helping (7.2.1).

### ***Learning How to Organize an Event***

Eleven students also mentioned learning how to organize an event, or simply, ‘how to take action’. This student continued, ‘at the beginning, what usually happens is we come up with a big idea but don’t know where to start. I learned how find a good starting place in a project like this’. Other students supported this view, stating, it has ‘shown me some stepping-stones on how to get stuff started’, we ‘managed to pull it off with the things we already knew’, and ‘this experience was good because it gave everyone in the class a little bit of confidence ... they [now] know that they can help and pull something like this off’. This theme demonstrates the relationship between efficacy and skills (6.4.2), where using and learning the skill of how to organize an event led to students’ feelings of efficacy.

### ***Efficacy of a Group***

An additional theme, shared by five students, was the ability to affect more with more people. Two of these students doubted what they as individuals could accomplish, one stated, ‘An important thing I learned was how you can actually get something done. It feels very daunting if you’re just one or two people working on something that not many people care

about, but when a big group is working – everyone doing their own part – and then they all come together’. This theme shows another example of a skill, teamwork, leading to efficacy.

### ***Reaffirmation of Efficacy***

Conducting research in schools that identify service as part of the school mission, I expected more students would have reported an affirmation of their ability to effect change. Only five students mentioned a reaffirmation of their ability to effect change. One stated, ‘I’ve been raised to believe that you can make a difference and your recycling bits of trash can make a big impact, so I think that [this class] reaffirmed the things that I grew up with’. Another student described how this project differs from other charity projects, ‘I feel like our school is overwhelmed by charity projects, but I think that people really liked this project cause it was more “this is what we are trying to do to help this problem”’. The low response rate in this category, and the high rate of students reporting feelings of empowerment provide evidence that the Nobis Project was effective in fostering a sense of efficacy in students.

### ***Creating Awareness as Service***

Thirteen students claimed to discover the benefit of creating awareness as a form of service in the Nobis Project experience. Typical of responses, ‘I definitely think that I can get people thinking, which is kind of what matters’. The idea of informing others as a form of service also appears under 6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.4.6.

### ***Doubts over Impact of Actions***

Only two students expressed doubts over the impact of their actions. One expressed doubt over the impact of informing others.

There's always the thing about do you really affect people and I don't know how much what I'm doing is affecting people and I think that's a little disappointing. Yes you can raise awareness but does it really go anywhere, does it really get those people to do stuff to raise money themselves and spread it to other people?

This expression of doubt brings into question whether creating an advocacy service project, where informing others is central to the service design, may not lead to feelings of efficacy.

However there were thirteen students who did report an experience of efficacy from creating awareness, and only two who denied it.

The other voice of doubt came from a student who previously participated in relief work in international settings. She adds to the discussion of doubt over efficacy when she commented on the complexity of service work, 'I have to realize that it's more of a process than I would like to think, it is more work than I would like to think'. This student later confirmed that she still plans to continue participating in service work.

### ***Did Not Experience Efficacy***

Five students, all from S1-Fall, commented that they do not feel they have the ability to effect change. One stated, 'Once I'm eighteen maybe I can make change, but I'll still be one person in a trillion'. Another felt their project had the potential to effect change but did not because it reached so few people. Similarly, another student shared his desire to partake in service projects in the future but feels 'it is very difficult for an individual to change things'. The S1-Fall class did not follow the Nobis Project criterion, 'find a direct way to respond', and the findings described above highlight how the absence of this criterion contributes to a reduced rate of students who experienced efficacy. Interestingly, one half of students did report a feeling of efficacy, which brings into question what other elements of the Nobis Project

contribute to feelings of efficacy without the service component. A number of students reported that they thought informing others was a form of service. This may be the attributing factor.

### ***Community Service versus International Service***

A second area explored under the category of efficacy was the differences between community service and international service. Three students referenced the possibility of having meaningful service experiences without meeting the recipients. One stated, 'It just made me realize how much we could affect something happening in Africa. Before I thought that I could only really affect it by going there and helping, but I realize that I could really help by doing work here'. The student who previously participated in relief work in other countries shared how her perspective changed, 'It's difficult for me because I keep thinking, "you can't do as much without being there", but I think that it ended up working a lot better than I thought'. This same student elaborated on the differences between community and international service when asked if she thought the work done in her class should count towards the required fifty hours of community service.

[The Nobis Project] teaches you valuable lessons, but from being overseas and doing community service, you learn a lot more interacting with people. After being in Africa this summer, I'm very critical of people who just throw money at problems. I think that this project was good because you had to get investing in the fundraising and understand where the money is going. But I think that there isn't really any substitute for emotionally connecting with someone you're serving.

For this student, efficacy is possible through the Nobis Project but she questioned the programme's ability to foster a sense of empathy. A further discussion on the role of empathy is found in 6.7. Another student shared her thoughts on the required hours of community service and why she thought the class should not count towards the hours, but then she

stopped herself and said, ‘I was going to say that I got more out of my community service at a recreation center working with children than this project, but I didn’t’.

Two students stated that they saw the community service experience and the Nobis Project experience as offering distinctively different benefits. The first claimed, ‘I think that this is a great learning experience and that all the students should go through it, but there is something else that you can take from community service from actually going somewhere every morning and working with people. They have different type of value’. The other student agreed stating,

I don’t [think this should count towards the required hours], because it’s not really service, it is service but I think of community serve more as going out and planting a tree or working with kids, so this is more like fundraising, you are learning about the event and informing other people but mainly you are just raising money. Community service is more going out and working with the people, and in this you are working with the people but more indirectly.

The student distinction that the service experienced with the Nobis Project, in the form of advocacy and/or fundraising, is different from community service raises the question of whether students will connect the learning from the Nobis Project to community service opportunities. Eyler and Giles (1999, 157) assert that service work has the ability to teach students to value giving, and consequentially aids students’ in developing a philanthropic identity. However, it is evident from the number of responses given by students, forty-two out of the fifty-five asked, that the Nobis Project did have a positive impact on their perception of their ability to effect change.

Four students mentioned the debate over helping locally versus internationally. One student commented, ‘I feel that it is better to help someone else than doing nothing’. Two students expressed initial concern over focusing on an international cause rather than a local need.

One stated, ‘At first I was hesitant because there are a lot of problems in the [United States] that we need to deal with, so why are we going outside of the country? But as the project went on, of course that changed’. Three students mentioned not knowing how to respond when adults questioned why the class was focusing on an international cause when ‘we have plenty of problems in our country’. One of these students reflected, ‘I didn’t really have an answer, but I think now I would say: there are problems here and there are problems there, it’s just one problem that we identified where we could really help’. This student eloquently defended the programme, and did so because she reported feeling a sense of efficacy as a result of the Nobis Project.

### ***Efficacy Summary***

As Dewey (1990, 187) claims, the goal of experiential learning is self-realization. This section explored Waterman’s (1997, 4-5) claims that efficacy is likely to occur in service-learning experiences as a result of students witnessing how their actions and contributions aid others, as this type of learning seldom occurs in the traditional classroom setting. The majority of students reported experiencing a sense of efficacy as a result of the Nobis Project. Shumer (1997, 35) asserts that one significant lesson service-learning offers students is the opportunity to accomplish tasks through collaboration with others. For the Nobis Project the social setting is the classroom and required group work. This alternative method to traditional service-learning also proved to be successful in instilling a sense of efficacy.



## **6.6 Commitment**

The category of commitment was measured in terms of the ‘creation of a desire to continue work’. Seventeen students, slightly more than a quarter of students interviewed, mentioned a commitment to future service work. Student comments, presented in previous sections, that relate to the category of commitment included: ‘a new understanding that service is a process and requires commitment’ (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 7.2.3); ‘a confirmation of interest in career paths as a result of the Nobis Project experience’ (6.2.5, 7.2.3); and ‘course content led to feeling more committed to non-violence’ (6.2.5). General comments shared by students committed to participating in relief work included, ‘[this class] motivates you to want to help other people’ and ‘it has definitely encouraged me to keep doing these things’. For these students efficacy was a motivating factor leading to their commitment to relief work. The student attention to efficacy demonstrates how the Nobis Project displays Eyler and Giles’ (1999, 132) claim that service-learning empowers students to take action. Empowering students to act is the component missing from GCE that the Nobis Project claims to address.

Other comments regarded ‘interest in taking a hands-on approach’; ‘recognizing ability to serve and expressing interest in implementing future projects on a “bigger scale” ’; ‘interest in continuing the class project’; and ‘a desire to apply the Nobis Project service approach in other school settings’. One student only attended S1 temporarily and was to return to her previous school at the end of the year. She commented, ‘It definitely inspired me to do more when I go home, my school is so big, and there are restrictions to getting people involved, but at the same time it’s a lot more people to be reached’. Four students shared that this experience reinforced their interest in participating in relief work.

Six students remarked that they would take advantage of an opportunity if it presented itself. Offering a different perspective, one student reflected on how he was not passionate for the cause supported by the class project, however he added, 'I feel that later in life there will be something that I feel really strong about and this experience has shown me some stepping-stones on how to get stuff started'. This statement reveals the potential for the Nobis Project to instigate commitment to relief work from participants even when students do not feel connected to the service project.

Two students expressed a commitment to become more aware. One stated, 'Instead of being wrapped up in my own world I need to start being aware of what's going on everywhere else'. The other elaborated on what she would take from the experience,

An understanding of what is happening and I hope that I will be able to spread it to other people and just continue to do that. The most important thing is just knowing about it and trying to do something. I think that's all you really can do. Not everyone can go change it, they have to do what they can do with the resources they have.

Ibrahim (2005, 184) interprets GCE's emphasis on action as a means to educate citizens on social policy and inspire individuals to participate in social change at a range of political levels. The student quote above embodies Ibrahim's interpretation, as the student above verbalizes her interest in engaging in action at all levels.

The low response rate under the category of commitment may be attributed to the lack of questions targeted to solicit information on students' attitudes towards commitment and the need for a longitudinal study to confirm results. As Eyler and Giles (1999, 162-163) argue, the basic goal of service-learning is to influence students to define their civic attitudes and

partake in civic actions. A longitudinal study would be necessary to collect an accurate measurement of the Nobis Project's impact on behavioural citizenship.

## **6.7 Empathy**

Eyler and Giles (1999, 15) argue that students' investment in their service-learning projects originates from a personal connection with someone whose life experiences vary considerably from their own. Fitch (2004, 110) claims that empathy is a marker for behavioural changes (2.4.1.6). As argued in 2.4.1.6, these changes should be constructive and empathetic. Taking these perspectives under advisement, I measured student experiences of empathy by searching student interview responses for descriptions of 'a sense of connection' or reports of 'empathetic changes in behaviour'. Over three quarters of students, forty-three out of fifty-six, reported experiencing empathy as defined by the above categories. Corresponding findings are discussed below.

### **6.7.1 Sense of Connection**

Nearly three quarters of students, forty out of fifty-six, reported experiencing a sense of connection with the service recipients. This connection manifested in three primary themes, 'understanding others' perspective', 'care or concern for others', and 'actions helped others'. Each theme is discussed in turn.

### ***Understanding Others' Perspective***

A little over a quarter of students, fifteen, commented on their ability to see someone else's perspective as a result of the Nobis Project. Students from the S1-Fall class discussed the information they collected on the life of American soldiers in Iraq and the daily life of Iraqis. A student from S2-Spring stated how the information she collected on the current situation for Afghani citizens affected her, 'I had found all these quotes and personal accounts of their struggles. That's what really affected me, learning how they actually deal with this everyday'. A student from S1-Pilot grappled with the choices mothers face when they do not have access to clean water, 'they have to make conscious decisions – do I give my kid breast milk and possibly infect them with AIDS? – or do I give them water and formula that may kill them from other diseases like dysentery?' An S1-Fall student summarized her new view of war, 'Now when I think about war I think more about each person who's in it and what they have to go through'. The sample of comments listed here showcase how the research collected for their Nobis Project led to an awareness of personal experiences of people around the world. The comments did not indicate an understanding of commonality between others and self, but rather an awareness and contemplation about how conflict or crisis affect people in general and the people they researched in specific.

One finding of interest was the type of people the students selected to serve (7.2.3). Four of the five case studies selected children or a country where children are central to the conflict. S1-Fall did not focus on a conflict specific to children, however one student group selected to explore the life of Iraqis including experiences of children. Students from the other case studies commented on their groups' choice to support the needs of children. One stated, 'We selected children because it felt more personal, because we are kids'. Another remarked, 'I

can help these kids, and they're not that different from me'. This finding suggests that children feel more akin to other children. If the Nobis Project was to provide teaching resources, then it should consider selecting or even creating resources that focus on issues affecting children in order to accentuate students' ability to connect with recipients.

### ***Care or Concern for Others***

Under the second theme, twenty-two students, less than half, expressed care or concern for another person's well-being. One student stated, 'I want to help Uganda ... because I'm worried about them, concerned about their well-being now that I've been involved with them'. The students from S1-Spring demonstrated their concern for the well-being of the people of Darfur through their descriptions of the conditions. The choice of words reflected their concern; a comment typical of responses was 'The thing that really horrifies and is appalling to me is the fact that the government is behind this. I feel like the government is something that should be helping these people not helping to kill or murder'. Three students expressed how their concern for the people of Darfur has led them to want to find a way to respond. One student articulated, 'I don't even know how they are surviving these conditions. So this is what is going on and the entire world practically knows nothing of it. We're going to raise money and see what we can do [to help]'.

Twelve students who expressed concern for the well-being of others referenced experiencing a connection that took the form of seeing images of the recipients of their service, either in photographs or in film, or knowing that the product of their service was a tangible object (6.7.2, 7.2.3). Out of the twelve students, one half were S1-Pilot students. These numbers suggest a further look into what made the S1-Pilot stand out from the other case studies. For

the S1-Pilot, photos of the orphans from the village in need of the well were provided early in the term. Three students commented on how having the photographs personalized the experience.

It was really rewarding to see pictures of the people we were going to help. It was just a lot more personal than normal fundraising. And I hope that all the people who contributed donations kind of got that same feeling too. Because it's more rewarding for everybody if they know what's happening with their money.

Other S1-Pilot students commented on the value of working on a project with a tangible outcome. 'What we did was really good because it was a specific task, so concrete – you could go there and take pictures'. Another student remarked how having a direct connection to the village was a strong motivational factor. It appears that the significant differences between S1-Pilot and the other case studies was the personal connection to how the money was to be spent, and receiving photos of the recipients.

For the S2-Spring class a guest speaker brought photographs of children in Afghanistan. One student recalled,

When the grandfather came to speak he had this one photograph that actually I'll remember. It was a school and there was a bunch of boys and the school had been bombed but there were still four girls outside of the school peaking their heads through a window, they were eager to learn but they couldn't get in.

Two other students reported feeling a sense of connection after watching a movie. 'I felt a lot more attached and I could relate to the characters in the movie and felt that it was a real issue'. Another student reported experiencing a sense of connection and efficacy when she was informed that the class could send a letter to the children they were raising money and that it would be likely that the children would respond back. This student reflected,

That makes me know that the project was definitely successful because one of the first things that we said was that we wanted personal connection with whoever we worked

with and we didn't think that we were going to get once we realized that the kids were in Afghanistan and don't speak English.

This statement confirms how a personal connection is a desirable inclusion to the Nobis Project.

Students from S1-Spring also referenced watching a movie, 'When we saw the movie, even though we had done a lot before then, that was when it really got to my heart'. Another S1-Spring student shared how he was affected by one of his peers' visual interpretation of the number of deaths in the Darfur conflict. The artistic interpretation is a tray of approximately 400,000 seeds; below the seeds are photographs from Darfur of women, children and families. The student reflected,

I used to watch the news and just look at it as a series of depressing events, that's still what the news is, and it's probably not going to change much, now I see it in a different way, it's a lot easier to hear something and take it if you don't know much about it. But to hear 400,000 deaths – outside of class I went into [our] classroom and picked up a handful of seeds and just tried to guess how many were in there. It's hard to imagine how many 400,000 is. Now I guess I try to pay more attention to the news and realize what it is that's actually happening.

The impact of a visual presentation of the people killed in the Darfur conflict demonstrates another way students can experience a sense of connection to service recipients without actually meeting recipients and supports the Nobis Project inclusion of a creative-process approach as part of its design.

### ***Actions Helped Others***

Under the third category, less than a quarter of students, nine in all, expressed a belief that their actions made a difference to the life of another. Out of the nine students, six were S1-Pilot students. These numbers once again encourage a further look into what made the S1-

Pilot stand out from the other case studies. One indication is found in this statement, ‘I think the best thing was to know that we actually got a well built and that people actually have access to clean water’. Another student commented that the most significant thing she would take from this class was ‘The fact that I know that my contribution could have saved somebody’s life’.

Four students, from S1-Pilot, mentioned feeling a sense of comfort knowing that one hundred percent of the money they collected would go directly towards building the well. This was accomplished because one student’s father worked in Malawi and was able to pay the contractor directly. One of these students elaborated on how donating to causes typically leaves her questioning whether her contributions are ‘really helping’, but with this project ‘I could go there and see the well and know that we helped make it happen’. This rarity of having one hundred percent of funds distributed to a project is unlikely to be frequently reproducible. What can be drawn from student comments on concern over how contributions are delegated, as also mentioned in 6.5, is to show students how to find out what percentage of funds organisations send to projects and discuss with students how the remaining percent is used. This process teaches students how to hold relief organisations accountable.

Students suggested that future classes include more learning about the people and country they were helping. One student affirmed this suggestion and added, ‘getting feedback from the community afterwards will be an important element to make the project feel successful’. In this statement the student identified a personal connection as a necessary link to experiencing efficacy.



For students from case studies other than S1-Pilot, the absence of a direct connection was somewhat evident. One student asserted that she learned valuable lessons from her participation in the Nobis Project, but maintains that there is no substitute for emotionally connecting with the service recipient. Another student countered that for her, having the guest speaker offered the necessary human connection and personal insight on the situation in Afghanistan, 'Being able to talk to [the guest speaker] and his grandson, that was really important, because yeah you can give money but you also need the human interaction, really learning about what was going on'. For this student, the guest speaker filled the need of a direct connection. The idea of establishing a meaningful connection was also discussed by students when they described the process of selecting an organisation to work with. One student reflected on the process, 'I think that at the very beginning, we all wanted to do something that was more than just sending money over. We wanted to develop a relationship with someone who was over there and do something that we could physically see'. Another student discussed why her class selected the organisation they worked with,

I think that the Mobile Mini Circus for Children and this project are both trying to think outside of the box in different ways. [The Mobile Mini Circus for Children] is helping children keep their lives more normal and also educating them about the dangers that they have to be able to face. They do skits about what a landmine looks like and about malaria and stuff like that, really important health issues.

This comment again illustrates how students in case study S2-Spring did implement discretion when selecting an organisation to work with (6.3.4), an experience that the S1-Pilot students did not encounter.

The students who described why they did not feel a connection with the recipients of their service recognized the limitations of feeling connected to strangers who live in other countries and speak other languages. Despite these obstacles those students maintained that they felt good about what they contributed to the project.

I still feel disconnected because no matter how much footage, or pictures I see or how much I hear about it on the news, there's a sense of it, but there's still not a very strong connection. If there was a way to be closer to the situation without actually being there in the middle of a war zone I would definitely do that in order to feel more passionately connected to it. I feel disconnected to just about everything, like the war in Iraq ... I feel good being part of this.

On the whole, the majority of students reported feeling a sense of connection to the recipients of their service. This connection, manifested in three primary themes described above, was experienced most significantly by S1-Pilot who received photos of the recipients of their service. Selecting a project that benefited children appeared to be important to students. Understanding someone else's perspective was primarily a result of student-collected research. The findings did not demonstrate an understanding of similarities between others and self, but rather knowledge about the emotional and daily realities of people living in a country afflicted by conflict or crisis.

### **6.7.2 Empathic Changes in Behaviour**

Nearly half of students, twenty-five out of fifty-six, reported a constructive and empathetic change in behaviour as a result of their experience with the Nobis Project. Eight students from S1-Pilot reported a change in behaviour. All of the changes reported can be categorized as constructive and involved water conservation, such as taking shorter showers. Two students from other case studies reported change in views towards money. The Nobis Project experience led to an active consciousness, 'I have been trying to do little things, like I went to buy chap stick and one of them gave money to breast cancer, so I got the one that supported breast cancer. And I've started saving my change so if I ever see a donation box'. Other students described a new desire to act. One student stated, 'I never really had taken that much

action before, mostly I didn't think I had the time or resources, but now ... I feel that I could create something instead of just joining something'. For this student, the Nobis Project experience not only confirmed her ability but inspired interest in taking a leadership over future relief projects.

Three students from S2-Spring described how the class readings of King, Gandhi and Hahn influenced their behaviours. One student reflected,

After reading Hahn and all them, [I realized] that you have to be calm and you have to understand your enemy's point of view. And I always get in a fight with my mom all the time, so after reading I tried to implement the ideas that Hahn used and I found that it worked.

The other comments from these three students again reveal the potential for course content to lead to a change in behaviour without the introduction of the service component (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.3.2, 6.3.4, 6.6, 7.2.1, 7.5).

### ***Empathy Summary***

In summary, more than a third of students reported experiencing empathy through either describing a sense of connection or empathetic change in behaviour. This strong display of empathy indicates the Nobis Project is successful in teaching or facilitating student experiences of empathy.

Suggestions for future Nobis Project users include providing teachers with materials, resources, and lists of organisations who focus on projects that benefit children. These resources should include films or images of recipients and organisations that can pinpoint how the donated funds will be used. For students who did not have a direct connection to the

recipients, the process of selecting an organisation to work with was a meaningful connection. Another element that can be added to future Nobis Projects is to encourage students how find out what percentage of funds organisations send to projects and discuss with students how the remaining percent is used. This process teaches students how to hold relief organisations accountable.

A final student recommendation was for future classes to learn more about the culture and individual recipients as well as finding ways to offer students feedback or results of the contribution they provide. Finding ways to offer students direct feedback from recipients should be a goal of teachers and the Nobis Project. In this age of technology, specifically with the Internet, the potential for developing innovative ways to build global connections is unlimited.

## **6.8 Chapter Summary**

This chapter examined whether the Nobis Project realizes the civic engagement goals of service-learning and GCE. The criteria skills, knowledge, values, empathy, and efficacy each carried an overall response rate of over three-quarters of respondents (table 6- 2). The criterion, commitment, was the lowest ranking criteria, with just over a quarter of responses.

The next chapter analyses the findings presented in this chapter and discusses the implications of these findings on the practice and study of service-learning and GCE.

	Civic Engagement Criteria Response Rates		
<b>76-100%</b>	<b>Skills Overall</b>	<b>56/56</b>	<b>100%</b>
	<b>Knowledge Overall</b>	<b>55/56</b>	<b>98%</b>
	Knowledge – Knowledge Acquisition	<b>54/55</b>	<b>98%</b>
	<b>Values Overall</b>	<b>54/56</b>	<b>96%</b>
	Knowledge - Synthesis	<b>49/55</b>	<b>89%</b>
	Skills - Presentation Skills	<b>44/56</b>	<b>79%</b>
	Value - Value Social Justice	<b>43/56</b>	<b>77%</b>
	<b>Empathy Overall</b>	<b>43/56</b>	<b>77%</b>
	<b>Efficacy Overall</b>	<b>42/55</b>	<b>76%</b>
<b>51-75%</b>	Empathy - Sense of Connection	<b>40/56</b>	<b>71%</b>
	Skills - Interpersonal Skills	<b>36/56</b>	<b>64%</b>
	Knowledge – Peace and Conflict	<b>35/56</b>	<b>63%</b>
<b>26-50%</b>	Empathy - Change in Behaviour	<b>25/56</b>	<b>45%</b>
	Skills - Planning and Organisational Skills	<b>27/56</b>	<b>48%</b>
	Skills - Experience Working with Adults	<b>21/56</b>	<b>38%</b>
	Values - Political Responsibility	<b>20/56</b>	<b>36%</b>
	Knowledge - Comprehension	<b>19/56</b>	<b>34%</b>
	Skills - Leadership Skills	<b>18/56</b>	<b>32%</b>
	Values - Increasing Tolerance for Diversity	<b>17/56</b>	<b>30%</b>
	<b>Commitment Overall</b>	<b>17/56</b>	<b>30%</b>
	Skills - Research Skills	<b>16/56</b>	<b>29%</b>
	Knowledge - Analysis	<b>16/56</b>	<b>29%</b>
<b>0-25%</b>	Values - Role and Responsibility to Society	<b>11/56</b>	<b>20%</b>
	Knowledge - Evaluation	<b>3/56</b>	<b>5%</b>
	Values - Care and Concern for Common and Shared Life	<b>1/56</b>	<b>2%</b>
	Values - Concern for the Environment and Commitment to Sustainable Development	<b>0/56</b>	<b>0%</b>

Table 6-2: Civic Engagement Criteria Response Rates

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION**

### **7.1 Summary of Previous Chapters**

As outlined in chapter one, the Nobis Project is designed as an innovative creative-process approach to service-learning and global citizenship education to teach secondary school students six dimensions of civic engagement: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, and empathy (1.2). It claims to guide students to comprehend current affairs and to devise ways to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients.

This thesis has examined the claims of the Nobis Project using data collected from five case studies each with an international focus. It has analysed how far the Nobis Project (1) realized the goals of service-learning, and (2) taught global citizenship.

The definitions of scholarship integral to this research, service-learning (1.3), GCE (1.4), and creative-process theory (1.5) were defined in chapter one. The two original contributions of this research were then briefly outlined: ‘the use of a creative-process model in service-learning’ and ‘the combination of service-learning and GCE’. Chapter one concluded with a summary of the organisation of this thesis (1.7).

Previous scholarship of service-learning and GCE were reviewed in chapter two. That chapter examined the origins (2.2, 2.3), criticisms (2.2, 2.3), goals (2.4), and commonalities between the two approaches (2.4.1). Detailed descriptions of the shared service-learning and

GCE civic engagement goals were provided (2.4). This chapter also discussed how the commonalities between the two approaches provide an optimal opportunity for each approach to learn from the other by incorporating new practices (2.6).

Chapter three outlined the five influences to the Nobis Project design: ‘the service-learning process’ (3.2.1); ‘Dewey’s experiential education theory’ (3.2.2); ‘socially conscious art methodology’ (3.2.3); ‘creative-process theory’ (3.2.4) and ‘global citizenship’ (3.2). The design objectives and outcomes were discussed (3.3), followed by an explanation of how the Nobis Project incorporates a creative-process theory (3.4). The chapter concluded with an overview of the defining elements of the Nobis Project design (3.5): ‘inspiring introduction’ (3.5.1); ‘student responsibility’ (3.5.2); ‘research’ (3.5.3); ‘Action Steps’ (3.5.4); and ‘reflection’ (3.5.5).

The methodology of this research was considered in chapter four. The chapter stated the research question (4.2) and how research criteria were selected (4.2.1) and measured (4.2.2). It discussed the pilot case study results influenced changing from an action research approach to a collective case study approach (4.3). Details of the selection of schools, process of gaining access (4.4.1), and relationships with teachers (4.4.2.1) and students (4.4.2.2) were then reviewed. Data collection and analysis methods (4.5), interviews (4.5.2), surveys (4.5.3), and class recordings (4.5.1), were each considered. The chapter concluded with a discussion on reflexivity, specifically how I managed my commitments throughout the research process so that my judgments remained objective (4.6).

Chapter five summarized each case study and supplied essential information for comprehending contextual differences between studies. Long-term results of each case study and other consequences of the case studies were listed. Chapter six examined whether the Nobis Project realized the civic engagement goals of service-learning and GCE by analyzing data collected from the series of five case studies.

This chapter analyses the findings presented in chapter six (7.2), reviews the original contributions of this research (7.3), discusses the implication for the practice of service-learning (7.4.1) and GCE (7.4.2), implications for scholars of civic engagement (7.5.1), service-learning (7.5.2), experiential learning (7.5.3), GCE (7.5.4), and creative-process theory (7.5.5), and concludes with recommendations for future research (7.6).

## **7.2 Analysis of Findings**

The overall findings presented in chapter six indicate that the Nobis Project is successful in meeting all of the civic engagement objectives, with the exception of commitment, which requires a longitudinal study to verify. Summaries of significant findings under each civic engagement category are highlighted below.



### **7.2.1 Civic Engagement Outcomes**

#### ***Values***

Nearly all students made a comment that fell under the civic engagement category of values (6.2), however students more frequently described values that are found in the lower level values than in the upper level values (table 7-1). For some it was a confirmation, for others a new recognition. This research was limited in its ability to identify existing values, the strength of student values and the hierarchy of student values prior to and following the Nobis Project. Therefore this research is unable to present quantitative data to show the impact of the Nobis Project on student values in quantitative terms. Future research should consider implementing methods to amend the aforementioned deficiencies.

The low level sub-category, ‘valuing social justice’ received the highest response rate out of all the value sub-categories (6.2.1). The findings regarding student reports of concern over social injustices can primarily be attributed to students’ work with the Nobis Project because the majority of comments directly referred to information collected as part of the project. The data does not specify whether students concerns over other social injustices existed previous to the project, it only indicates concern over the issue researched for their project. The results also revealed the potential for course content to lead to a valuing of social justice without the addition of the service component (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.3.2, 6.3.4, 6.6, 6.7.2, 7.5). This brings into question whether the service component adds anything to students valuing social justice.

The intermediate sub-category, ‘political responsibility’ received the second highest response rate (6.2.2). The results indicate that the moderate response may be a result of contextual

differences between case studies, where the nature of international issue influenced students' consideration of political involvement. That is, the students who researched the government involvement in the issue were more likely to respond to this sub-category. This finding suggests that the nature of the issue determines students' exposure to political influence, and if political awareness is agreed to be a valuable asset to the Nobis Project, those using the Nobis Project should consider adding a requirement for students to investigate how various governments, national and abroad, have responded to the issue.

Another recommended evolution of the Nobis Project includes refining how students engage with political change. The primary suggestion of how to achieve government involvement was through petitioning and letter writing. Teachers using the Nobis Project should take a closer look into how to teach students other ways to engage at the political level.

The findings for 'increase in tolerance for diversity' were not as significant as traditional service-learning programmes as suggested by Eyler and Giles (6.2.3). The request from students to learn more about the recipients of service represents a significant weakness to the Nobis Project. However, findings under empathy (6.7) suggest the Nobis Project does have the ability to emotionally connect students with international service recipients. It is recommended that future users of the Nobis Project investigate ways to better incorporate learning of other cultures.

None of the interviewed students offered a specific comment for a 'concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development' (6.2.4). In instances where Nobis

Projects focus on an environmental concern or sustainable development data under this category may appear. Further research is needed to confirm this theory.

Researchers argue that one benefit of service-learning experiences is its ability to provide students with an informed perspective on how they fit into the world, which leads to participatory citizenship and a feeling of social responsibility (Shumer 1997, 35; Eyler and Giles 1999, 157). No clear indicators account for the low response rate under the high level value ‘role and responsibility to society’ (6.2.5). Poor or incomplete interview questions could be a contributing factor. It is also possible that the absence of community participation in the Nobis Project, where students witness first-hand the social conditions of local community members, led to fewer students reporting a sense of social responsibility. As referenced to in chapter six, this perspective assumes students confine their perception of social responsibility to their local community rather than the global community (6.2.5). The absence of student response on their role in society may also be attributed to the short duration of their experience, where students have not become ‘actively’ or regularly involved in community service.

Only one student referenced the high-level value, ‘care and concern for a common and shared life’ (6.2.6). Further research is needed to understand why this category did not produce results. There was potential for teaching care and concern for others with the group project component. Student ability to work collaboratively (6.4.1) demonstrates that some students displayed the requisite skills needed to participate altruistically in society.

In summary, the Nobis Project was generally successful in exposing students to experiences that compelled them to assess their values and as anticipated (6.2) the lower level values appeared more frequently.

	Level	Values Response Rates		
<b>76-100%</b>		<b>Values Overall</b>	<b>54/56</b>	<b>96%</b>
	<b>Lower</b>	Value Social Justice	<b>43/56</b>	<b>77%</b>
<b>51-75%</b>				
<b>26-50%</b>	<b>Intermediate</b>	Political Responsibility	<b>20/56</b>	<b>36%</b>
	<b>Intermediate</b>	Increasing Tolerance for Diversity	<b>17/56</b>	<b>30%</b>
<b>0-25%</b>	<b>Upper</b>	Role and Responsibility to Society	<b>11/56</b>	<b>20%</b>
	<b>Upper</b>	Care and Concern for Common and Shared Life	<b>1/56</b>	<b>2%</b>
	<b>Intermediate</b>	Concern for the Environment and Commitment to Sustainable Development	<b>0/56</b>	<b>0%</b>

Table 7-1: Values Response Rates

### ***Knowledge***

Although GCE and service-learning share the category of knowledge, each approach defines the category differently (2.4.1.2). The research indicates that the Nobis Project noticeably educated students about conditions and situations around the world, following Bloom's levels of learning and in accord with service-learning methods, but did not successfully teach students about how these issues relate to 'sustainable development' and 'globalisation and interdependence', and, which fall under GCE goals (6.3.1). The programme was successful in teaching the other GCE knowledge areas, 'social justice and equity' (6.2.1), 'diversity' (6.2.3), 'peace and conflict' (6.3.1). Future users of the Nobis Project should investigate how the model can be altered to generate learning in all GCE areas.

Nearly all students demonstrated ‘knowledge acquisition’ through their ability to recall at least one fact about the topic of their Nobis Project (6.3.1, 2.4.1.2). One obstacle faced by students was the difficulty of finding information. Teachers using the Nobis Project should consider supplying students with resources or strategies for finding resources on current issues.

To analyse students’ level of ‘comprehension’, an assessment of the degree students were able to comprehend another culture was considered (6.3.2). A modest number of students were able to describe information gathered about the culture they were studying. These findings exposed contextual differences. For example the majority of students in two case studies collected information on another culture. Whereas there was a complete absence of responses from the other three case studies. This discrepancy signifies that content specific to the course impacted students’ collection of information on another culture. The evidence provided from the two case studies that did produce outcomes revealed that understanding another culture is a possible result of the Nobis Project when the programme requires students to collect information specific to the culture being served. Students are less likely to gather information on the country of focus without explicit instruction. The same argument can be used when teaching about sustainable development and globalisation and interdependence; future Nobis Project teachers who desire that their students learn about these areas should instruct their students to research these topics.

Only a little over a quarter of students exhibited an ability to ‘analyse’ knowledge learned through the Nobis Project (6.3.3). The interview questions were unsuccessful in identifying how students analysed information since students were only asked to describe the situations

in other countries, not explain the causes leading to the situations. The affirmative results indicate that student analysis is possible, further research is needed to determine how teachers and the use of reflection influence student analyses of content and experience.

The majority of students demonstrated their ability to ‘synthesize’ information by describing an alternative way to respond to the conflict (6.3.4). Synthesis, on Bloom’s scale, represents a high level of learning. The significant results under this high-level reaffirms the earlier statement under analysis, that interview questions inadequately collected data in that area, because according to Bloom (1984), students must be able to analyse before they can synthesize.

One area of interest from data collected under synthesis was the ability for the Nobis Project to contribute to student learning about the peace process, as indicated by responses from one case study. This finding signifies that the programme is capable of imparting the final knowledge component of Oxfam’s (2006, 5) GCE requirements, peace and conflict. The potential for peace and conflict to be understood and for course content to be notably influential to the service process is an important benefit to the Nobis Project. Both should be considered further in order to isolate how each area could be consistently produced.

Although the numbers indicate a high quantity of students valuing social justice, and students in four of the five the Nobis Projects did offer international service, the findings under ‘evaluation’, showed only a few students were able to demonstrate an understanding of the core cultural, political, and economic factors that led to the situation (6.3.5). This indicates a

weakness for the Nobis Project, and further inquiry into what caused this result in a limited number of students is recommended.

Overall the Nobis Project was successful in teaching knowledge, more successful following the type of knowledge expected in service-learning programmes and less so with knowledge expected of GCE. The limited knowledge following GCE criteria can be attributed to two primary factors, first the contextual differences and priorities of each case study and secondly, due to the limits of the interview questions which were designed to measure the Bloom levels of learning (2.4.1.2).

### ***Skills***

The findings in this category confirm that the Nobis Project created the opportunity for all students to learn new and use previously acquired skills (6.4). Eyler and Giles (1999, 41) argue that an important element to the service-learning experience is how the activities and learning environment emulates the actions and responsibilities typically found in adult life. The profusion and type of skill sets used and learned by students in the Nobis Project confirms that the Nobis Project can prepare students for the workplace, through the application of skills necessary to affectively negotiate adulthood, without requiring students to participate in local service workplaces.

### ***Efficacy***

Waterman (1997, 4-5) argues that service-learning experiences allow students to experience efficacy as a result of being able to witness the actual the impact of their contributions. Waterman asserts that this aspect of service-learning is not typically available from

traditional classroom settings. The findings of this research suggest that the Nobis Project can lead to student feelings of efficacy from experiences within a classroom setting. The majority of students reported feeling efficacious as a result of the Nobis Project (6.5). The low response rate under ‘reaffirmation of efficacy’ and the high rate of students reporting efficacy implies that the Nobis Project can be isolated as the primary contributor of students’ experience of efficacy.

Furco’s (2002, 47-48) research claims that efficacy is not exclusive to service-learning, rather it is connected to the service element of service-learning (2.4.1.4). Furco’s (2002, 47-48) study on the difference between service-learning, community service, and service-based internships revealed that all three forms of service contributed to students feeling of empowerment and created a sense of ownership (Furco 2002, 47-48). These themes did not appear in the ‘no service’ case studies (Furco 2002, 47-48). Without the inclusion of a control group in this research it is undeterminable whether the service component, alone, led to student feelings of efficacy. If this research were to be repeated, the use of a control group would be critically important.

One concern, expressed by a few students, was ignorance of how relief organisations distribute collected contributions. In response to this concern, teachers using the Nobis Project should consider encouraging students to research the fiscal responsibility of various organisations as part of their selection process in order to aid students in understanding how financial contributions impact the recipients. This process teaches students to hold relief organisations accountable.



A minimal number of students, all from one case study, commented that they did not experience efficacy. This case study did not follow the Nobis Project criteria to ‘find a direct way to respond’. This finding highlights how the absence of this criterion might contribute to a reduced rate of students who experienced efficacy. Further testing is necessary to understand how the absence of this criterion affects efficacy. Interestingly, one half of students from the case study mentioned above did report a feeling of efficacy, which brings into question what other elements of the Nobis Project contribute to feelings of efficacy without the service component. One contributing factor reported by students was their belief that informing others was a form of service.

### ***Commitment***

The inclusion of more and better worded interview questions regarding the category of commitment would have been helpful in collecting a more accurate account of student attitudes towards commitment. However without a longitudinal study there is no clear way to determine how the Nobis Project experience effects future commitment (6.6). As Eyler and Giles (1999, 162-163) argue, the ultimate measurement of a successful service-learning programme is its impact on students’ citizenship behaviour, and a longitudinal study would be necessary to collect a precise assessment of the Nobis Project’s influence on committed citizenship.

### ***Empathy***

The large quantity of descriptions from students of ‘a sense of connection’ or reported ‘empathic changes in behaviour’ indicates the Nobis Project is successful in facilitating student experiences of empathy (6.7). Understanding someone else’s point of view was

largely a result of student-collected research. The findings did not indicate an understanding of common experiences or values between others and self, but rather awareness about how living through conflict or crisis affects people. The data repeatedly revealed that video, photographs or a personal connection aid in students' sense of connection with recipients of service. This finding reiterates the importance of the inspiring introduction as part of the Nobis Project design.

One contextual difference was S1-Pilot project's tangible outcome and direct connection. Students recommended future classes find ways to offer students feedback or results of the contribution they provide in order to aid students' experience of empathy. With the capabilities of technology, specifically with the Internet, there is significant potential for developing innovative ways to build global connections. Further research of the Nobis Project would benefit from investigating how the programme can assist students and teachers in building these types of connections.

### **7.2.2 Global Citizenship Education Findings**

The inconsistency and variance of quality between each case studies' in teaching the GCE goals of 'culture' (6.2.3), 'diversity' (6.2.3), 'peace and conflict' (6.3.1), 'globalisation and interdependence', 'sustainable development' (6.2.4), and 'common and shared fate' (6.2.6), is a significant weakness of the Nobis Project's ability to teach GCE. It appears that case studies that incorporated GCE goals produced successful results, specifically in the areas of 'social justice and equity' (6.2.1), 'diversity' (6.2.3), 'peace and conflict' (6.3.1). However, if users of the Nobis Project aim to consistently teach GCE, they will need to modify its design to

assure all of these elements are given attention. It should be noted that the Nobis Project was successful in teaching the civic engagement criteria that both service-learning and GCE share and similarly define, values (2.4.1.1), skills (2.4.1.3), efficacy (2.4.1.4), and empathy (2.4.1.6).

### **7.2.3 Other Findings**

Other than the civic engagement criteria, an additional four themes appeared; ‘influence in career choice’, ‘media literacy’, ‘service as process’, and ‘selecting to work with children’. Each is discussed in turn.

#### ***Influence in Career Choice***

Waterman’s (1997, 4) research suggests that service-learning experiences may aid students in career selection (2.4.1.3). He argues exposure to a range of work settings may instigate, confirm or negate decisions about career goals, especially careers in the social sector (Waterman 1997, 4). Although the Nobis Project does not necessarily expose students to a variety of work environments like conventional service-learning programmes, this research demonstrates that the Nobis Project provides, although minimally referenced, students the opportunity to identify their strengths and interests as related to career selection (6.2.5, 6.6). There are three potential rationales to account for the low response regarding career choice. The first cause may be related to a lack of interview questions, which occurred because the theme of career choice was not originally identified as an area to measure, rather it arose out of interviewee responses. An alternative reason may be the minority of students who have interests in the social service careers. The third rationale may be that the Nobis Project is

generally unsuccessful in influencing career choice because the majority of the project is carried out in the classroom rather than workplace sites. The students who did comment on career influence highlighted how their experiences with the Nobis Project confirmed their commitment to working in the social sector rather than indicating the Nobis Project as the leading contributor.

### ***Media Literacy***

Student mention of media literacy appeared under values and knowledge (6.2.3, 6.3.1, 6.4.4). The use of the Nobis Project as a tool for teaching media literacy is a valuable addition to the programme's benefits. Seeing that only a third of students referenced media, investigation into ways to better integrate media literacy is recommended.

### ***Service as a Process***

Students frequently mentioned the realization of service as a process, appearing under values and knowledge (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.3.3, 6.3.4). A few students displayed a comprehensive understanding of the process of creating change and reported a new understanding that 'service is a process and requires commitment'. This type of understanding reveals an elevated understanding where students see beyond the initial enthusiasm over recognizing their efficacy and begin to evaluate the method and necessary commitment needed to achieve social justice.

### ***Selecting to Work with Children***

One finding of interest was the type of people the students selected to serve (6.7.1). Each case study focused some aspect of their work on benefiting children. Three case study projects

solely aided children (5.2, 5.4, 5.6) and aspects of the other two case studies focused on children (5.3, 5.5). A number of students reported that they selected children as recipients because, as children, they felt more akin to other children. Teachers using the Nobis Project should consider selecting or creating resources that focus on issues affecting children in order to accentuate students' ability to connect with recipients.

The next section describes what changes to the Nobis Project would be necessary for widespread implementation.

#### **7.2.4 Widespread Implementation**

The Nobis Project design argues that the model would be suitable in any school setting that welcomes experiential learning (3.2). The case study teachers speculated that a slightly revised Nobis Project would also work well at the elementary level and with domestically focused projects. Although further research is needed to confirm these arguments, the success of the model in teaching civic engagement through a service-learning method enables the programme to be used in schools interested in expanding their service-learning opportunities. The Nobis Project, unlike typical service-learning programmes, does not require coordination with an outside organisation or transportation to a service site, thereby eliminating two steps seen by teachers and schools as burdensome to facilitate (2.5.1).

It is my intention as Nobis Project designer to aid teachers further by providing a website-based resource for teachers and students where they can collect information on various domestic and international issues as well as communicate with others at participating schools.

These resources could include information on teaching media literacy, a list of documentary film publishers, and examples of previous projects developed by students. The website resources should also include information regarding relief organisations who work with children, as well as information on areas that this research identified as lacking, such as the environment, sustainable development, interdependence and globalisation.

There are two areas that could hold the programme back from broad implementation in the United States. These are meeting the state standard course of study goals and designing assessment tools. In its current format the Nobis Project functions only as an implementation model, not as a curriculum or set body of course content. Each case study teacher paired the model with corresponding content of his or her choosing. If accompanying materials were created they should provide teachers with content and assessment methods that are compatible with the Nobis Project implementation method. These materials should also correspond with the state standard course of study goals for various subjects. This inclusion would make the materials more desirable, as it assures the school of the course's accountability. State standard courses of study goals are developed by each of the states in the USA and are specific to grade level and subject matter. Student achievement is measured against the state set goals. An example goal from the Georgia mandate for 11<sup>th</sup> grade subject of English / Language Arts: World Literature is listed below,

Goal 5: The student understands and acquires new vocabulary and uses it correctly in reading and writing. The student:

- (a) Identifies and correctly uses idioms, cognates, words with literal and figurative meanings, and patterns of word changes that indicate different meanings or functions.
- (b) Uses knowledge of world mythologies to understand the meanings of new words.
- (c) Identifies and understands foreign terms that appear in works originally written in a language other than English.
- (d) Uses general dictionaries, specialized dictionaries, thesauruses, or related references as needed to increase learning (Georgia Standards n.d.).

In addition to aligning a domestic or international focused curriculum with state standards, the Nobis Project would need to include an assessment method. In its current form the Nobis Project does not provide teachers with a clear assessment strategy. The students are asked to complete a group project as the majority of their course work. At S1, assessment was not a great concern for teachers or students as the school grades on a pass-fail system with written evaluations. At S2, some students expressed concern over how the group project would be graded. Their teacher did not report concern. With the small class size it was easy for the S2 teacher to monitor each student's contributions. However, in order to appeal to the majority of teachers it would be advisable for the Nobis Project to develop an assessment rubric to assist teachers in grading the project and meeting corresponding state standard course of study goals. This rubric would include state standard course of study required goals, table 7-2 demonstrates a sample rubric for the goals of Georgia's 11<sup>th</sup> grade English / Language Arts: World Literature listed above.

Under the approach proposed above, no modifications to the Nobis Project need to be made. However creating course content materials that correspond with all fifty state standard courses of study goals and in subjects such as social studies, science, literature, and history –

to name a few, would be labour intensive to produce. Without this inclusion it would be unlikely that the Nobis Project method could be implemented in American public schools.

On a broader scale, another way to assist with a widespread implementation of the Nobis Project would be to include the method as part of teacher education and encourage pre-service teachers to implement the approach. The desirability of a widespread approach to teaching global citizenship, in an experiential method, is discussed further in 7.3.2 and 7.4.2.

<b>Assignment: Create News Advertisement Informing Viewers About Darfur</b>	<b>Point Value</b>
Does it respond to the identified audience?	60 points
Is it attractive in an advertising sense?	20 points
Neatness / Artistic ability	20 points
<b>Assignment: Write Paper About Darfur</b>	
Does it analyse the identified topic?	70 points
Is it organized in an understandable format?	20 points
12 pt / decent font / double-spaced	10 points
Punctuation / mechanics	Less 1 point for every error

Table 7-2: Assessment Rubric

### 7.2.5 Recommended Changes to Nobis Project

As a result of this research, changes to the Nobis Project are recommended. These changes are grouped into two themes: ‘implementation of programme’ and ‘collection of information’. Each theme is discussed in turn.



### ***Collection of Information***

This research shows that when students were not required to collect information on, for example, the culture of the people they were serving, they were also not able to describe information learned about the culture (6.3.2). The Nobis Project should restructure how students gather information on a world issue and corresponding service recipient. It is clear from this research that it is essential for students to be instructed to collect specific content areas in order for the civic engagement objectives of service-learning and GCE to be met. Objectives that were not well understood by the students who were not instructed to research specific content areas include:

- (a) Culture of service recipients (6.3.2);
- (b) How sustainable development and concern for the environment relates to the issue or country selected for the project (6.2.4, 6.3.1);
- (c) How globalisation and interdependence relates to the issue or country selected for the project (6.3.1);
- (d) How various governments have responded to the selected issue (6.2.2);
- (e) Possible strategies for and examples of peaceful conflict resolution (6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.3.3);
- (f) Contributory political, cultural and economic factors that led to the situation (6.3.5); and
- (g) Fiscal responsibility of organisation selected for proceeds of student organised project (6.5).

The inclusion of these seven content areas should increase students' ability to meet all of the civic engagement objectives measured in this study, thereby making the Nobis Project a more comprehensive program for teaching content.

### ***Implementation of Programme***

The second area of recommendations, implementation of programme, involves recommended additions rather than changes. These additions support the strategies for widespread implementation found in the previous section (7.2.4). The key areas include creating teacher resources for teaching media literacy (6.2.3, 6.3.1, 6.4.4), for presenting students with the necessary information and strategies for influencing the political processes of decision making at different levels (6.3.1), as well as general resource development in specific content areas relevant to global issues and the civic engagement objectives covered in this research (6.2.1, 6.3.2, 6.3.4, 6.6, 6.7.2). Offering teachers the resources to capitalize better on the learning potential of the Nobis Project should increase the usability of the programme as well as its ability to meet the civic engagement objectives.

The next section reviews, in the light of the above findings, this thesis' original contribution to the scholarship of service-learning, global citizenship education and creative-process theory.

### **7.3 Original Contributions**

There are two original contributions presented in this research. First is the Nobis Project's mode of delivery, a creative-process approach. The second is the Nobis Project's pedagogical method of combining service-learning and GCE in order for students to participate in international service, from a domestic location, while learning civic engagement. Each innovation is discussed in turn.

### **7.3.1 Mode of Delivery**

The Nobis Project's innovative mode of delivery, with the inclusion of a creative-process approach, is a method not found in the practice of service-learning (1.6.1). This creative-process approach, the Action Steps (3.4), follows the parameters of Dewey's experiential education theory (3.2.2) and socially conscious art methodology (3.2.3) in order to enable students to respond to knowledge on global issues in a constructive, creative and meaningful way.

A high-quality project, according to Dewey, should provoke a variety of responses, be adequately complex, and allow students to participate in a way that highlights his or her strengths (Archambault 1964, 177-178). Additionally, the project should acknowledge problems relevant to community life, be it local or global, with the intention of developing social insight and interest (Archambault 1964, 372-373). The Nobis Project addresses these criteria through the Action Steps. It presents students with the opportunity to design and implement a project that responds to a social injustice that students identify as meaningful and in need of immediate attention. Students are challenged and empowered to take on a high level of responsibility in both decision-making and project execution.

For socially conscious artists, communication with their selected audience is integral to their design and provides an interactive dimension to their work (3.2.3). The two primary techniques artists use to communicate the social issues explored in their work are 'compassion' and 'confrontation' (3.2.3). Other contributing aspects of socially conscious art methodology used in the Action Steps are audience and site selection, knowing how to

capture audience attention, and understanding the details of the topic being creatively represented (3.4).

The common and supporting themes of creative-process theorists and the Action Steps models, as described in chapter three (3.2.4), include: ‘identification of problem’; ‘purposeful analysis’; ‘imaginative idea generation’; ‘critical evaluation and implementation’. What the Action Steps offer, that Dewey, creative-process theorists and socially conscious art methodology lack is the requirement that the culminating action both informs and serves others. This service, unlike traditional service-learning programmes, does not involve the students having direct contact with the service recipients (1.3). Through this advocacy or fundraising service students learn how to conceive, plan and implement a project as a group. The students utilize their communication, organisation and interpersonal skills. Providing students with the autonomy to create a project from start to finish generates for students a sense of accomplishment (2.4.1.4). At the completion of their project students experience a sense of empowerment from reaching their goal and knowing their actions benefited someone else.

The current use of the creative-process within service-learning appears infrequently and is limited to using art for reflection or as service contribution (Pennsylvania Service-Learning Alliance n.d.) (1.6.1). An example of using art as a service contribution might involve students designing a brochure advertising services for a local shelter. Using art as reflection might involve students designing a poster or collage at the close of their experience that visually represents their experiences at a service site. Additionally, I have found no examples of service-learning projects that use art or the creative-process to provide service to

international recipients. In summary, the Nobis Project's creative-process model, Action Steps, is used as a method to further explore subject-matter and as a guide for students on how to conceive and implement social action (3.4).

### **7.3.2 Pedagogical Method**

The innovation of combining the practice of service-learning and GCE is central to the Nobis Project (1.6.2, 3.2), which claims that an international dimension can be incorporated to service-learning by guiding students to perform service for local or global communities from a domestic location. Teachers report feeling that students receive greater benefits when a tangible connection is made between the giver and receiver (3.2). Consequently, teachers preferred projects in which the students physically participated. This preference, however, limits the schools' service activities to their local communities. Accordingly, the existing work in domestic, school-based service-learning lacks international focus (1.6.2). Through my extensive review of scholarship and practitioner resources I found no mention of any domestic, school-based service-learning programmes that focus on international service (Global Education through Dance n.d.; Institute for Global Education and Service Learning n.d.; Global Service Institute Network n.d.; International Partnership for Service Learning and Leadership n.d.; Volunteer Abroad n.d.). Current practices of international service-learning involve students travelling to international locations (International Service-learning n.d.; The International Partnership for Service-Learning and Leadership n.d.; Amizade n.d.). The required travel limits widespread practice with factors such as expense, logistics, and safety. The Nobis Project addresses these limitations by providing students with a way to learn about and help people from around the world in a direct way without travelling to an

international location. The findings presented in this thesis demonstrate that the Nobis Project pedagogical method, with its international dimension, leads to student experiences of empathy and efficacy without face-to face encounters with recipients, along with meeting the other civic engagement objectives.

The current definition of service-learning infers that service occurs in the local community where physical participation takes place. The Nobis Project defines community to include the global community (1.3) and is based upon the idea that service-learning does not need to be limited to local communities. Recommendations from Harkavy (2004, 17) support this view and call for the future of service-learning to include ‘a focus on global problems’. By focusing on international service and incorporating the practices of GCE, The Nobis Project includes a focus on global problems and therefore incorporates Harkavy’s view of the potential of service-learning. This research argues, that the Nobis Project is successful in teaching five of the six civic engagement criteria shared by service-learning and GCE and follows the service-learning process with the inclusion of two innovations, the use of a creative-process method, as described above (7.3.1), and the inclusion of a global dimension.

The benefit of including an international dimension in the Nobis Project design is also supported by Davies’ (2006, 6, 12) claim that our increasingly globalized world needs to prepare students to be responsible global citizens. GCE aims to foster students’ global responsibility. Osler and Starkey (2003, 253) propose GCE’s aim should include teaching students to accept a shared responsibility for our common future, while preparing students with the necessary skills to work together to find solutions for our common problems (2.3.3).

The Nobis Project accomplishes this aim by including a creative-process model that guides students to collaboratively respond and inform others of a current global issue.

This thesis argues for joining service-learning and GCE, where action is integrated into the practice of GCE and international service experiences are incorporated in service-learning programmes. The Nobis Project provides a format for this merger by offering GCE a system for incorporating action to the curriculum and broadening the definition of service-learning to include an international dimension.

### *Summary*

The innovative claims of the Nobis Project include uniting service-learning and GCE, incorporating a creative-process approach, and provide international service, while meeting the civic engagement objectives. The results of the programme, supported by this research, include offering students the dual benefit of gaining insight on the cultural and political influences of current international issues while fostering the skills needed to directly and creatively respond to international realities.

Eyler and Giles (1999, 132) argue that successful service-learning experiences leads to committed citizenship. Service-learning introduces students to fundamental questions about social issues and empowers students to respond (Eyler and Giles 1999, 132). The practice of GCE has not identified a method for incorporating global social action. Davies (2006, 6, 10, 11, 13) argues that the lack of action in GCE programmes prevents students from learning, first-hand, the key objectives of GCE. She adds that finding a method that enables all students to participate is crucial (Davies 2006, 17). The success of the Nobis Project, once

refined in the light of this research, offers a potential method to meet Davies' call for reaching the majority of students rather than a select few.

## **7.4 Implications for Practice**

The consequences of this scholarship on practice appear under three areas, 'service-learning', 'GCE', and 'creative-process theory'. Each is discussed in turn.

### **7.4.1 Service-Learning**

The implications for the practice of service-learning as a result of the success of the Nobis Project are four-fold: the international dimension teaches a variety of skills; the programme design allows more students to participate in international service; the programme can reach more students, and; the programme teaches student empowerment through student-led learning. Each is discussed in turn.

The expansion of service-learning to include an international dimension allows it to teach a wider variety of skills and knowledge related to global issues, such as the impact of globalisation, foreign policy, cultural diversity, and responsibility as a global citizen. The DfID (2003, 3) calls for an education that prepares students for today's globalized society. To foster knowledge and understanding of global problems, Ibrahim (2005, 181) supports educating students to be 'politically literate global citizens' who know how to participate in political policy at various levels. The Nobis Project incorporates these fundamentals of GCE into a service-learning approach, which expands the scope of both fields by offering students



the practical experience of responding to current global issues. A further discussion on how the Nobis Project's experiential approach impacts GCE is found under 7.4.2.

The second implication for service-learning demonstrated in this research is the ability to offer international service without international travel, thereby allowing more students to participate. As mentioned earlier (1.6.2, 7.3.2), current practices of international service-learning involve students travelling to international locations, which limits widespread practice (International Service-learning n.d.; The International Partnership for Service-Learning and Leadership n.d.; Amizade n.d.). The Nobis Project addresses this limitation, while meeting five of the six service-learning's civic engagement objectives and teaching in an experiential approach.

Similarly, the third implication of the Nobis Project is its ability to reach more students by the elimination of certain logistics of operating service-learning programmes that are typically burdensome for schools, teachers, students and their families. Examples include scheduling, transportation, and collaborating with outside agencies (2.5.1). These logistical challenges limit the widespread practice of service-learning and potentially have a negative influence on programme design (Eby 1998). Widespread practice at the secondary school level is also limited by schedule mandates, available transportation and safety and liability considerations, which specifically affect coordination when designing programmes for minors. The Nobis Project eliminates these logistical challenges by integrating the service experience into the classroom learning. Certain outside of class work is inevitably necessary and is determined by the student-designed project, but these requirements are far less burdensome than experienced in traditional service-learning programmes.

The fourth implication for service-learning is the Nobis Project's focus on student empowerment through its broad use of student-led learning (2.4.1.4, 3.5.2). The Nobis Project requires students to identify, analyse, participate, and construct social change. The requirement for the Nobis Project to contribute to social change and the Nobis Project's level of student responsibility are not guaranteed elements in traditional service-learning programmes where, as Eyler and Giles (1999) claim, the learner-constructed activity is dependent on placement quality. They define placement quality as,

the extent that students in their community placements are challenged, are active rather than observers, do a variety of tasks, feel that they are making a positive contribution, have important levels of responsibility; and receive input and appreciation from supervisors in the field (Eyler and Giles 1999, 32-33).

The Nobis Project controls these factors and accordingly should produce more consistent results than typically found in service-learning programmes. This claim, however, would need to be tested further.

The inclusion of international service and a programme's ability to teach civic engagement does not, by itself, equate to a service-learning experience. The Nobis Project, however, closely follows the service-learning process of 'preparation', 'action', 'reflection' and 'celebration' (3.2.1), while meeting the definition of service-learning given by the United States Commission on National and Community Service (1.3). For the Nobis Project's objective to expand the practice of service-learning to include an international dimension, the Nobis Project defines the term 'community' as 'global community' and claims that all other components of the definition are carried out without amendment. There are two anticipated criticisms for the argument over whether the Nobis Project follows the service-learning definition. First is the lack of interaction between students and recipients. Second, and in

relation to the first, are the forms of service students produce, which could be classified as indirect, such as advocacy or fundraising. This research argues that whether or not theorists or practitioners of service-learning view the Nobis Project as a form of service-learning, the programme meets five of the six the civic engagement objectives and follows the service-learning process described above.

#### **7.4.2 Global Citizenship Education**

A significant contribution to the practice of GCE is the incorporation of an experiential service dimension where students explore, first-hand, global civic engagement. Empowering students to act is the component missing from GCE that the Nobis Project, according to this research, is effective in integrating (2.3.2, 2.4.1.5). Various GCE sources endorse the preparation, encouragement, involvement in and the learning from ‘action’ (2.4.1.5). For example, the QCA (1999, 15) expects students to be able to identify opportunities to participate and bring about social change, locally and abroad. Ibrahim (2005, 184) adds to this expectation by suggesting students be taught the fundamentals of how to participate politically at a local, national and global levels. Brownlie (2001) concurs with the above proposals by recommending that students should actively respond to the global dimension presented in citizenship education. Although each asserts that action is a desired outcome, there is an absence of active participation in current GCE methods of instruction, specifically ways that teach both knowledge and efficacy through actions that serve international needs.

One method for teaching students about other cultures is the use of correspondence programmes. Such programmes usually consist of letter writing between students in two

countries at the same level in school. These experiences educate students on the perspectives of communities very different from their own, however they are limited in offering opportunities for participation in social action. Davies (2006, 17) acknowledges the limitations of providing students with international service experiences. The Nobis Project, however, creates opportunities for students to participate actively in social change experiences that, as Yates and Youniss (1999) (cited in Davies 2006, 17-18) argue, must go beyond global awareness and enable students to build their self-identity of someone who can make a positive impact in the lives of others. Davies (2006, 15) argues that an essential element of active global citizenship is student identity as someone capable of making a difference at an international level. Student development of knowledge and skills are essential for building students' sense of efficacy (Davies 2006, 15). This research demonstrates how the Nobis Project unites the fields of service-learning and GCE and offers GCE a method for integrating opportunities for action into the programme design where students learn knowledge, skills and efficacy.

## **7.5 Implications for Scholars**

The implications of this research for scholars appear under four areas: 'civic engagement'; 'service-learning'; 'GCE'; and 'creative-process theory'. Each is discussed in turn.

### **7.5.1 Civic Engagement**

Five categories of civic engagement appear repeatedly in literature: 'values'; 'knowledge'; 'skills'; 'efficacy' and; 'commitment' (2.4.1). For this research a sixth dimension, 'empathy',

was added because the Nobis Project design creates experiences where students do not have direct contact with service recipients. Measuring empathy separately from the other civic engagement criteria allows for the collection of an explicit account of students experiences with empathy without a tangible connection. Empathy can appear as a component to other civic engagement categories including, values (2.4.1.1), skills (2.4.1.3) and commitment (2.4.1.5). Accordingly, it could be argued that empathy does not need to be measured separately. The positive results from this research indicate there is warrant in measuring empathy as a separate civic engagement category. The results show that a large number of students experienced a sense of connection as well as empathetic changes in behaviour. These two manifestations of empathy are not included in how empathy is defined under values, skills or commitment. Therefore I argue that categorizing empathy as an independent category permits the full potential of empathy to be realized in implementation, practice and measurement in future research. That is, if researchers and practitioners only consider the current five civic engagement criteria, they may overlook opportunities to measure or foster empathetic experiences.

Empathy, as it appears under values, occurs under ‘increase in tolerance for diversity’ (2.4.1.1) and ‘care and concern for a common and shared life’ (2.4.1.6). Neither of these sub-categories requires a sense of connection or empathetic change in behaviour as a precursor. Eyler and Giles (1999, 17, 29) argue that service-learning experiences can challenge previous assumptions and breakdown negative stereotypes, which builds an increase in tolerance for diversity. The process of reducing stereotypes may involve student experiences of empathy, but it may also be a result of gaining knowledge on social factors. Without measuring for empathy, knowing precisely what causes stereotype reduction is unknown. Dewey claims

when students are taught how to use their knowledge and skills for the benefit of others they begin to understand the value of working towards the betterment of a 'common and shared life' (Archambault 1964, 11-12). Brownlie (2001) argues that one goal of GCE is the importance of understanding and empathizing with people from all walks of life. Although GCE emphasizes the inclusion of empathy as a contributor to teaching students 'care and concern for a common and shared life', GCE neglects to define how these empathetic tendencies are to be taught. By including empathy as a separate goal both service-learning and GCE would benefit from knowing how or how well programmes teach empathy.

Under skills, empathy appears in relation to interpersonal skills (2.4.1.6). In practice, according to Levine, empathy is a combination of social skills that include 'high-levels of listening, perspective-taking, decision-making, and helping others' (Education World n.d.). Dewey, as mentioned above, also refers the use of skills. These skills are elements that foster student experiences of empathy, but are not themselves empathetic, nor do they necessarily lead to experiences of empathy. By measuring empathy separately researchers may better understand in what circumstances these skills lead to empathetic experiences.

The experience of empathy is a contributor to student commitment to engage civically, but not a sole factor. Fitch (2004, 110) argues that empathy is an indicator of behavioural changes (2.4.1.6). Eyler and Giles (1999, 15) claim that student encounters with people whose life experiences differ considerably from their own create a strong, initial interest in their service-learning projects. One such behavioural change could be a commitment to civic participation. However, the experience of empathy in a service-learning programme or in GCE is only one possible contributor to student commitment and student commitment can

occur without experiencing empathy. For example, efficacy may lead to student commitment to future service work. An independent measurement of the impact of empathy on commitment could reveal information useful for practitioners and provide more understanding to the category of commitment.

In summary, although empathy can appear under values, skills and commitment, it is not solely defined by these categories. The study of civic engagement would benefit from defining empathy as its own category in order to isolate what variables affect student experiences of empathy and how these manifest and impact values, skills, and commitment. Including empathy as an independent category of civic engagement also expands the practice and research of civic engagement to include a conscious implementation and measurement of students' development of a sense of connection or empathetic change in behaviour as a result of programmes. This inclusion supports Sutherland's (1986, 143) claim that, as stated in 2.4.1.6, 'empathy seems pre eminently an emotion which should be educated if such education is possible': and this research argues that such an education in empathy is possible.

### **7.5.2 Service-Learning**

One distinctive difference between the goals of service-learning and the Nobis Project is civic participation. Service-learning's goal, according to Eyler and Giles (1999, 14), is to lead students to understand and appreciate civic engagement. This includes linking the personal and intellectual in order for students to collect necessary information for understanding and participating in society (Eyler and Giles 1999, 14). Ehrlich's (2000, vi) definition of civic engagement calls for student development of knowledge, skills, values, and motivation to

make a difference. The Carnegie Corporation and CIRCLE (2003) definition of civic engagement calls for action through political involvement or participation in the community through membership or service.

The Nobis Project, in contrast to the above definitions, claims to go beyond participation or being motivated to make a difference and challenges students to take social action and create change. This research shows four of the five case studies' projects created change in the lives of others (5.2, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, 6.5). These findings indicate the potential for service-learning to raise the standard from community participation to social action.

One potential impact to the different approaches presented above is how students experience the civic engagement criteria of efficacy. When students participate in service-learning programmes, efficacy is experienced, according to Waterman (1997, 4-5), when students are able to see first-hand the impact of their actions (2.4.1.4). Waterman (1997, 4-5) adds 'higher levels of efficacy and self-esteem will only result if the students experience themselves as making useful contributions to projects they believe are worth their efforts'. The Nobis Project experience has limited opportunities for students to see, first-hand, the impact of this effort, yet students were impacted by the knowledge that their actions have lasting effects in the lives of others (6.5). Efficacy, according to Eyler and Giles (1999, 161), is a precursor to action and occurs when students are confident that their skills and actions will make an impact. Without this confidence, students are less likely to participate in community action (Eyler and Giles 1999, 161). For the Nobis Project, according to this research, action was a precursor for efficacy (6.5). This reverse sequence was evident by student comments on the role of the team effort, where students' doubts over ability was managed by others in the



group and individuals were pushed to continue beyond what they may have considered possible if undertaken alone (6.5). The consequence was student reports of efficacy as a result of the project rather than a precursor to action.

In summary, I argue that in the light of this research, service-learning's goal to motivate students for community participation should be amended to include a challenge for students to engage in social action. Additionally, the claim that efficacy leads to action, must be amended to, action leads to efficacy, when students engage in group work.

### **7.5.3 Global Citizenship Education**

As discussed in 2.3.3, Davies *et al.* (2005, 74) argue that the practice of global education and citizenship education are both deficient in critical areas. Although they recognize that there is some overlap between the two subjects, they assert that a sound model for GCE, which balances the goals of global citizenship + education and global + citizenship education, does not yet exist (Davies *et al.* 2005, 75-76). This research tested the Nobis Project's ability to meet the civic engagement goals of GCE, which most accurately fit under the global citizenship + education definition (2.3.3). However, the current practice of global + citizenship education focus on teaching skills as preparation for action were also considered (2.3.2). The model tested in this research presents a new approach to GCE where skills, action, shared fate and social rights each contribute to the teaching of global citizenship, and the conflict of teaching under citizenship education is eliminated. Features of this amalgam model include that it:

- (a) Operates separately from a national citizenship education curriculum, therefore diminishing the conflict of patriotism versus global identity;
- (b) Incorporates the idea of cosmopolitan citizenship, with its inclusion of social rights and shared fate concepts, and;
- (c) Maintains global + citizenship education's emphasis on teaching skills and action.

The benefit of the current practice global + citizenship education's call for the development of action and skills, as argued by Holden and Clough (1998, 18), is its ability to generate 'action competent' students capable of critically reflecting on their own values and have the aptitude to use their skills to take action. As mentioned in 2.3.2, GCE objectives maintain that action is a desired result, yet the current practice of GCE has not found a means to integrate active participation into its method of instruction. The Nobis Project incorporates an action component where students actively participate in their own learning and develop the necessary skills to participate successfully in both school and community life.

'Cosmopolitan citizenship' is Osler, Vincent and Starkey's vision of a global citizenship+ education model. This model permits national and international identities to exist without conflict by teaching students to value and recognize the concepts of social rights and shared fate (Osler and Starkey 2006, 445-446; Osler and Starkey 2003, 243-254; Osler and Starkey 2005; Osler and Vincent 2002) (2.3.3). Osler and Starkey (2003, 253) assert that a cosmopolitan citizenship model should challenge students to accept responsibility for solving our common problems. This requires peer collaboration and open channels of communication in order to address diverse points of view. The Nobis Project fosters peer collaboration through its required group work. The programme also challenges students to find a way to

directly respond to international issues, which requires researching and understanding the needs of people and groups in cultures and life circumstances very different from their own (3.4).

As stated earlier, Davies *et al.* (2005, 75-76) argue that an education for global citizenship, separate from global education and citizenship education objectives, does not yet exist. I propose that the model tested for this research offers a needed alternative to current practice by including key elements of global + citizenship education: action and skills, and adding the proposed elements of social rights and shared fate, as proposed in global citizenship + education. The findings from this research were measured under this new model. However the need for detailed investigation on the potential of this model, in relation to implementation, practice, benefit and measurable differences between other proposed models, still needs to be researched.

#### **7.5.4 Creative-Process Theory**

The implications of the Nobis Project's Action Steps for creative-process theory derive from the innovative inclusions of socially conscious art methodology and the requirement that the creative-process culminates in an action that both informs and serves others. Each implication is discussed in turn.

There are two significant elements that socially conscious art methodology contributes to the Nobis Project's creative-process model, the Action Steps. The first is determining an effective means to communicate with a selected audience, which takes the form of either

compassion or confrontation (3.2.3). The second element socially conscious art methodology offers the Action Steps is the importance of audience and site selection. When examining the work of socially conscious artists the important role of audience and site selection repeatedly appears. This involves knowing how to capture audience attention and the value of researching and understanding the details of the topic being creatively represented.

The two elements described above are not found in other creative-process theories (Plsek, 1996). Another element that sets the Action Steps apart from other theories is its focus on how its product will be received by viewers or users. Site and audience selection requires the creator to consider how the creative outcome will be presented and affected by the intended user. By selecting a communication strategy, of compassion or confrontation, the creator must consider what approach best suits the message and intended audience. Some creative-process theories, like Osborn's, test the impact of the creative outcome as a 'closing step' and Koberg and Bagnall (1981) call for revision of the final outcome bases on the information gathered from testing. Koberg and Bagnall's (1981) step three lists a general step that focuses on considering impact. This step, 'define', calls for the main issues and goals to be defined. During the design phase the Action Steps explicitly require that the designer considers the outcome's impact on the user, rather than testing impact at the close of the process or only considering goals or issues related to impact of the action or product rather than impact on user. The Action Steps' original approach of considering impact as part of the design expands the current practice of creative-process theories.

The second implication for creative-process theory is the Action Steps' requirement that the creative-process culminates in an action that both informs and serves others. This format

differs from traditional creative-process theories that only aim to identify the process of idea conception, not necessarily specific to conceiving ideas designed to respond to social needs (Plsek, 1996). Dewey's scientific method concludes with, 'Test the hypothesis by explicit or imaginative action' (Archambault 1964, xvi). Osborn's (1963, 86) creative problem-solving process' final step is 'adoption: deciding on and implementing solution'. Koberg and Bagnall's (1981) 'Universal Traveler Model' ends with, 'Implement (to give physical form to the idea)' followed by 'Evaluate (to review and plan again)'. Each culminates in an action, but none are as specific as the Action Steps' requirement that the action both inform and serve.

The requirement for the Action Steps to culminate in a social action may limit the use of the Action Steps as a creative-process theory. For instance, the Action Steps requirement for social action would not be conducive for a creative-process that aims to create a new vaccine. However, the inclusion of a creative-process theory that requires social action in the Nobis Project assists students in idea development and execution by breaking down the steps into manageable and sequential tasks, to clearly define the goals of the project, and to create social change (3.4). The application of this goal-specific creative-process approach could have widespread impact for the numerous organisations and agencies whose mission is to create social change or fight social injustice. Example organisations might include Oxfam, UNICEF, or local homeless shelters or food banks. The Action Steps could be applied for designing new programme initiatives or developing new fundraising or advocacy campaigns. Future researchers should consider testing the viability of using the Action Steps in the type of organisations or agencies referenced above.

The next section describes other areas, in the light of these findings, for researchers to further investigate.

## **7.6 Future Research**

Following the findings presented in this thesis, future research of theory and practice should be considered. Suggested areas for further investigation are organized under six themes, ‘methodology’, ‘Nobis Project’, ‘service-learning’, ‘civic engagement’, ‘GCE’, and ‘creative-process theory’. Each is discussed in turn.

### ***Methodology***

Future researchers who choose to further test the Nobis Project or replicate the research presented in this thesis should take into consideration my methodological choices. Possible enhancements include the use of triangulation, interview wordings and a longitudinal study. Researchers should determine and employ means to guarantee that triangulation data collection methods are successful. Better communication with teachers about the significance of assigning and collecting journal writings from students would be beneficial as well as emphasizing the importance of consistent recording of classes or making arrangements for direct observation. Changes in survey methods that may address the four possible sources of interference with the survey results include; running the pilot with the aim of identifying the idiosyncratic problems with the Likert scale, to conduct the research with a larger and random sample, and to pair the survey with complementary qualitative data collection (4.5.3).

When conducting interviews, those who replicate this research should consider amending the wording of questions used in this study that were leading or double-barrelled. Interviewers should also pace the interviews in order to ensure that incomplete student responses are probed further to assure a fuller collection of information regarding student experiences. A final methodological area for future researchers to embark is a longitudinal inquiry in order to validate the presented findings and give evidence for the civic engagement criterion of commitment.

### ***Nobis Project***

More research is needed to determine whether the Nobis Project would work in a variety of settings, for example public and independent American schools, or British and European schools. Although the majority of students and staff at Quaker schools are not Quaker (Franek 2004), the families that select Quaker schools for their children are not necessarily representative of students and families nationwide (4.4.1). Other factors that may affect application of the Nobis Project include length of term, school and teacher instruction styles, familiarity and comfort with experiential learning as well as the programme's ability to work under various subjects, as the programme was only tested in social studies, literature, and history courses (table 5-1). One of these factors that appeared in this research was the length of term where S1's ten-week term restricted the amount of content the teacher was able to include. In S2, the fifteen-week term provided ample time for teachers to balance content and project development. A second factor is the teacher's ease with the experiential nature of the course and the requirement to allow students to take over their own learning, which also varied from one case study to the next. The two teachers who expressed the most interest in the student-led design also reported struggling with finding a balance between aiding students

in the project in order to assure success of the programme. These teachers also reported concern over the high demand of time the course required. These factors, as well as those discussed in 7.2.4, require further investigation to confirm if widespread implementation is possible.

One area of weakness identified by this research was that the increase in tolerance for diversity was not as significant in the Nobis Project as Eyler and Giles suggest typical service-learning programmes achieve (6.2.3). Researchers should explore what factors contribute to this area of weakness. Another area of weakness shown in this research is the Nobis Programme's ability to teach the underlying political, social and economic factors that influenced the issue being considered by the class. Further research is needed to determine if changes in the Nobis Project implementation could strengthen students' understanding in these areas.

There are two areas of theory, related to the Nobis Project design, which could benefit from further inquiry. The first is student reports that viewing images led to a sense of connection (6.7.1, 6.7.2). Mason *et al.* (2006, 32) report similar results from two studies that demonstrate that an 'understanding of others is qualitatively different when it is communicated in images and words' (Mason *et al.* 2006, 32). The student responses in this research indicate that the use of images was significant in leading to a sense of connection, but a detailed examination would be necessary to determine what type of images or how the images are presented may affect student reports of a sense of connection. Equally, it would be beneficial to explore how this type of connection differs from direct interaction with service recipients. There was some indication from students that the Nobis Project experience offers distinctively different



benefits than community service (6.5). Researchers should investigate how these experiences differ and whether the limitation of the Nobis Project programme in determining the usefulness of the service contribution when a tangible connection between the giver and receiver is not present affects student reports of efficacy or empathy.

The second area of theory to consider is students' perception of 'informing as service'. It is possible that student reports of efficacy are more closely related to the experiential design of the Nobis Project over student feelings that their contributions impacted the lives of others. For example, students' sense of efficacy as related to successfully organizing an event may have superseded efficacy related to their perception that their actions helped others. Evaluating student feelings of efficacy, as related to advocacy versus direct service contributions, would confirm the validity of the findings presented in this thesis under efficacy (6.5). Similarly, one of the limitations of the Nobis Project is determining the usefulness of the service contribution when a tangible connection between the giver and receiver is not present. Research on ways to compensate for this limitation or evaluation of the extent to which this factor affects the programmes' impact would be beneficial.

Researchers should explore whether the Nobis Project meets any of the other claimed benefits of service-learning programmes: 'community benefits'; 'institutional benefits', and; 'academic engagement' (2.4). Because a longitudinal study would be necessary to measure these categories, they were not considered in this research.

One criticism of service-learning is Eby's (1998) claim that students who have an incomplete understanding of service and social issues cannot produce service that undertake real

community problems (2.5.1). Further research is needed to confirm whether or not the Nobis Project perpetuates this criticism. Researchers should consider the effect of the short duration of the Nobis Project and if it is long enough for students to question deeply ingrained beliefs and stereotypes or breakdown the objectification of the other or build a compassionate understanding (Hironimus-Wendt and Larry Lovell-Troy 1999, 367; Philipsen 2003, 236). Additionally, if this study was to be repeated, researchers should implement methods to isolate pre-existing values in order to determine how the Nobis Project affected students' beliefs or values directly (4.5.2, 4.5.3, 7.2.1).

A particularly explored area of this research is the measurement of committed behavioural citizenship as a result of the Nobis Project, which requires a longitudinal study (6.6).

Although labour-some to produce, the results would be beneficial in fully understanding what the programme has to offer.

### ***Service-Learning***

Seeing that this research argues for the definition of service-learning to include an international dimension, the future research on the practice and theory of service-learning should consider adding additional means to measure the impact of this new definition.

Researchers and theorists should determine what a high-quality globally focused service-learning programme should encompass. The National Youth Leadership Council (2008) has recently published research findings outlining eight elements necessary for high quality service-learning experiences. Future research should evaluate the Nobis Project and service-learning programmes conducted with an international focus in order to determine whether these eight standards are sufficient in the operation of high quality international focused

domestic service-learning programmes. The findings from this research suggest that criteria from GCE, such as sustainable development, concern for the environment, and understanding of peace and conflict, to name a few, are essential content areas to include. Practitioners should explore various techniques for implementing a global focus in their service-learning programmes. For example, the service work at a local farm could be paired with course content that examines issues facing farmers in developing countries. This type of model would be more consistent with traditional service-learning programmes, where students physically participate at a service site. The only change would be the content focus.

### ***Civic Engagement***

A few areas arose from this research that may be of interest for academics studying the teaching of civic engagement. The first was student reports that they were not old enough to participate in service (6.2.1). Researchers should investigate whether this is a commonly held belief and what factors contribute to students feeling that they must wait till they are older to participate in service. This study also revealed that a small number of students mentioned disenchantment with government (6.2.2). Research on youth experiences with government disenchantment could reveal information helpful to breakdown student feelings of helplessness and reveal ways strengthen the teaching of civic engagement and efficacy.

Another civic engagement objective of interest is values, where a better understanding the process of student identification of role and responsibility to society is needed. Researchers should investigate if students' witnessing or not witnessing first-hand the social conditions of local community members directly impacts reports of social responsibility. Researchers claim that the service dimension in service-learning teaches students the benefit and value of

giving, which makes philanthropy a part of their identity (Eyler and Giles 1999, 157). Future researchers should investigate whether the Nobis Project's service dimension, which does not involve students participating with service recipients, can also produce this claimed benefit of service-learning. Researchers would need to define and isolate the 'service dimension' in order to produce empirical results. Another angle researchers could approach the civic engagement criteria of values, as well as the criteria of empathy, would be measuring service-learning and GCE courses' against Kohlberg's and Gilligan's theories of moral development (Blum 1988). These psychological perspectives could add useful insight to the scholarship of civic engaging in the fields of service-learning and GCE as well as informing the practice of teaching civic engagement.

A final area of interest this research revealed in a few of the civic engagement categories was the suggestion that content may teach civic engagement without the use of service (6.3.4, 6.6). I hypothesize that the areas more likely to produce civic engagement without service are values and knowledge and areas less likely to be impacted solely by content would be efficacy, skills, and empathy. Influences of content on commitment are unknown.

### ***Global Citizenship Education***

Under GCE, researchers should examine whether the weaker areas of GCE presented in this research, 'environment' (6.2.4), 'sustainable development' (6.2.4), 'globalisation and interdependence', are solely related to contextual differences. Research should also consider whether Arneil's (2007, 301) proposed foundation of global citizenship 'social rights' and 'shared fate' (2.3.3) could be consistently attained if revised content was prepared for the Nobis Project. It may also be possible that traditional service-learning programmes, with

appropriate content pairing and significant reflection, could teach students the values of social rights and shared fate. Researchers and practitioners should consider this possibility. For example, traditional service-learning programmes may benefit from course content that focuses on the interconnected political, social and economic factors that create the need the class is charged to address (Eby 1998).

Researchers should also consider examining the ways in which the Nobis Project resolves the issues facing the practice of GCE, which manifest in both resource limitations and implementation factors (2.5.2). Implementation issues reported by teachers that the Nobis Project may be successful in resolving include ‘a lack of time to develop ideas’, ‘anxiety about dealing with potentially controversial issues’ and a ‘lack of confidence in dealing with unfamiliar material and ideas’ (DfID 2003, 7-8; Holden *et al.* 2003). The proposals for expanding the Nobis Project to include building a website-based resource for teachers and students where they can collect information on various domestic and international issues as well as communicate with others at participating schools (7.2.4). The online access to resource materials would assist teachers who report a lack of time to develop ideas. The ability of teachers and students to network online with one another supports Schweisfurth’s (2006, 48) research that reported how teacher participation in a network of like-minded teachers helped to breakdown their sense of isolation (2.5.2). This type of network could also permit teachers to offer suggestions to one another about dealing with new materials and controversial issues. Research is needed to confirm the effectiveness of such a programme.

A final area to consider in future research, as mentioned by Davies (2006, 18), is what leads youth to take part in rallies, demonstrations or join social movements. And what impact does

a programme, like the Nobis Project, whose focus is on active participation in creating change, have on youth motivation to participate in activism? Eyler and Giles (1999, 183) suggest that requiring service participation may assist students in building personal connections with their communities that may not occur otherwise. If the Nobis Project approach was integrated into curriculum, researchers should investigate how the Nobis Project experience affects long-term student behaviour of students who might not otherwise participated in social action. Managing these variables, longitudinal and pre-existing attitudes and values, would require ample resources but would aid the study of service-learning and GCE in better understanding the process of teaching students about role and responsibility to society.

### ***Creative-Process Theory***

The Nobis Project's creative-process approach, the Action Steps (3.4), was analysed against two creative-process theories, Osborn, and Koberg and Bagnall (3.2.4). Future researchers should examine how the Action Steps compares to other creative-process theories and whether the process, with its requirement of a culminating action, could be used in contexts independent from the Nobis Project. Researchers may also want to explore if a traditional creative-process theory, such as Osborn or Koberg and Bagnall's, would produce the same results if used in the Nobis Project in place of the Action Steps. I hypothesize that the Action Steps are necessary for the success of the Nobis Project in teaching civic engagement as the steps also serve as an informational guide for teachers and students on how to proceed from one step to the next and because of their original inclusion of a requirement for service. Case study S1-Fall provides an example of the consequences of not implementing the service requirement. For this case study, the success of teaching the each civic engagement objective

was hindered due to the project's omission of the Action Steps' requirement to 'directly respond'. Using an alternative creative-process model is likely to produce similar results.

## **7.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter summarized the earlier chapters of this thesis and offered an analysis of the findings presented in chapter six, an overview of original contributions of this research, discussion of the implication for scholars of service-learning, GCE, and creative-process theory, and recommendations for future research.

This thesis examined the claims of the Nobis Project, to teach secondary school students six dimensions of civic engagement: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment, and empathy and guides students to comprehend current affairs and to devise ways to respond to local, national or global issues without direct contact with service recipients. Using data collected from a series of five case studies each with an international focus, this thesis analysed how far the Nobis Project (1) realized the goals of service-learning, and (2) taught global citizenship. The findings demonstrate that the Nobis Project was successful in meeting five of the six civic engagement criteria shared by both service-learning and GCE. The research findings under the commitment criteria were inconclusive as a longitudinal measurement is necessary to produce an accurate measurement. The research also shows that the Nobis Project was more successful in realizing the service-learning definitions of civic engagement and the programme should be modified in order to adequately attain all of the civic goals of GCE.

This thesis argues that the Nobis Project, refined in the light of this research, represents a significant and original contribution to the practice of service-learning and GCE in secondary schools. Its method incorporates an original creative-process model, a practice not usually found in service-learning. This model allows students to gain knowledge, use skills, and collaboratively work towards making a meaningful impact in the lives of people around the world. As a result, students leave the programme with a sense of empowerment and an understanding of their ability to contribute to society.

As a programme, the Nobis Project redefines the scope of both service-learning and GCE. By adding an international dimension, the Nobis Project challenges service-learning to expand its definition to include a global focus. This definition amendment alters the future outlook for service-learning as it expands the scope of practice and creates a need for researching and designing new theory to encompass the expansion. For GCE, the Nobis Project offers a model that fulfils a recognized weakness to the practice of GCE, opportunity for action. The model presented in this research also offers the dual benefit of being self-contained to the classroom. This makes the Nobis Project suitable for wider implementation, which in turn allows for a larger number of students to learn the valuable lessons of civic engagement.



## **APPENDIX I: INRODUCTION LETTER TO TEACHERS**

Dear [Teacher]:

I have attached materials I referred to in our initial conversation about working together.

These materials outline the nature of my research and describe the program design.

Please don't hesitate to contact me with any questions, ideas, or concerns. I'm looking forward to the possibility of working together!

Best wishes,

Christen Higgins Clougherty

### **Research Summary**

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**Draft Title: Teaching International Understanding Through  
Experiential Art Education: A Quaker Case Study**

My research explores the efficacy of teaching international understanding through art-action experiences where high school students in Quaker schools creatively devise ways to act, help or respond to global issues in a direct way thereby allowing them to comprehend current global affairs, not in the abstract, but from a direct linking of subject matter to their 'everyday' reality.

## Program Design

---

### **Introduction of Topic** – *instruction led by teacher; materials supplied by researcher; joint topic selection*

- Introduce topic with an inspiring presentation
  - Format may include:
    - Guest speaker
    - Video
    - Written personal account
    - Other
- Determine what students already know about the topic
- Identify what questions students would like to answer
- Outline steps the class will go through to answer questions and find a direct way to respond

### **Reflection (Ongoing)**

- Introduction of reflection methods
  - Journal
  - Group sharing (ground rules)
  - Informal versus formal

### **Research** – *instruction led by teacher; materials supplied by researcher*

- Review research methods, techniques, strategies
- Discuss media literacy as it relates to current events
- Analyze findings

**Action** – *led by teacher, introduction led by researcher*

Researcher introduces examples of artists who have used their art to instigate social change as well as other activist strategies. Teacher guides class through the creative process to find a direct way to help, act or respond to the issue. The creative process described below was developed by combining principles of the scientific method used in Dewey's experiential education theory, research on socially conscious art methodology and my previous experience as an artist.

- Identify audience (school community, local community, etc.) and negotiate access
  - Determine effective means to communicate with selected audience in a creative way
  - Determine desired impact (reflecting if chosen impact is realistic)
  - Set goals or measures of success
  - Imaginatively design a presentation of newly acquired information for selected audience
  - Implement design
  - Reflect on audience interaction or response to action

**Criteria for Action**

- The action must be creative
- The action must respond to the issue in a direct way
- The action must inform (the selected audience and others)

## **APPENDIX II: TEACHER INFORMATION PACKET**

### **SEQUENCE OF EVENTS**

#### **Before Class**

- Preliminary discussion about research between teacher and researcher
- Review 'Teacher Information Packet'
- Teacher and researcher determine class topic (must be an international issue)
  - Teacher may choose to have students select topic – time constraints with shorter class terms may be prohibitive in allowing students to select topic.
- Teacher sets grading % (when applicable)
- Send researcher (Christen) a tentative schedule/syllable before class begins

#### **During Class**

- Teacher prints, distributes and collects 'Permission Letters' and 'Consent Forms'
- Teacher prints, distributes and collects 'Questionnaires', recommend completing them during class time
- Teacher prints, distributes and reviews 'Study Journal' handout with students
- Teacher presents 'Instigating Social Change' PowerPoint presentation (PowerPoint and script provided by researcher)
- Teacher reviews with class the 'Action Steps' poster (to be displayed in classroom)
- Students will chose topic/issue to research and respond
- Students will set project guidelines/grading criteria (see sample guidelines below)
  - Teacher will approve (include 'communication' as part of grading criteria)
- Students will set deadlines for progress

- Send researcher copy of deadlines
- Researcher will touch base via e-mail to check on progress of project according to deadlines
- Teacher will reinforce deadlines (include ‘how well group meets deadlines’ as part of criteria)
- Deadlines will be posted in classroom
- Class plans, researches and implements project
- Provide researcher with self-evaluation questions, if any
- Researcher will be present for presentation of project
- Researcher will lead group reflection during class that immediately follows project
- Researcher prints, distributes and collects ‘Questionnaires’, recommend completing them during class time
- Researcher will conduct one-on-one interviews with each student and teacher

### **On-going**

- Teacher schedules regular journal assignments
- Teacher or students lead group discussions on selected journal assignments
- Informal classroom reflection

## REFLECTION CYCLE: INSTRUCTIONS FOR TEACHERS

**FOCUS:** Students need to know what they are getting into so they can make responsible choices. A precise course description and detailed introduction on both the potentials and perplexities of the class are methods to provide this information. The teacher conveys a concrete vision of the class by suggesting the course goals and what the students might expect from such an endeavor. The task of creating the curriculum then becomes the concrete focus. The teacher also facilitates the first several weeks of class to give direction and to set a model for future facilitation. Creative, well-organized class sessions set a standard for students to follow when they undertake their own facilitations. ❶

**ACTION:** This stage places the learner in a stressful or jeopardy-like situation where she or he is unable to avoid the problem presented, often in an unfamiliar environment requiring new skills or the use of new knowledge. Action involves the student with the subject, occupying much of the student's attention and energy in sorting, ordering, analyzing, moving, struggling, emoting, embracing, etc. The action phase gives the learner significant responsibility. ❶

Events that go wrong, which might be rated as failures in another school's context, are treated as valuable occasions for learning. ❷ However, increasing student responsibility does not mean leaving a student to struggle with a problem that is beyond his or her capacity or background preparation. The problem must be appropriate to the learner, and it is the teacher's responsibility to design it

accordingly. Students often need someone to point out that the struggles are an important part of growth toward success. In this regard, the teacher can reframe the conflict in a positive light, have faith in the students, and exude a contagious delight with the process. ❶

**SUPPORT and FEEDBACK:** exists throughout the learning experience. Adequate support enables the student to continue to try. Adequate feedback will ensure that the student has the necessary information to be able to move ahead. Support provides security and caring in a manner that stimulates the learner to challenge him or herself and to experiment. Support is demonstrating interest in the learner's situation and letting the student know that help is available if needed. Having the group share frustrations will help each member see that their feelings are not unique. ❶

Feedback can include comments about how the student works, the student's manner of interactions, or the substance of the student's work. The teacher should distinguish between those ideas that the teacher holds as true, and those ideas that the teacher believes most professionals in specific fields hold as true. The areas given to student discretion should be made clear. Feedback is also more easily understood the more specific it is. ❶

**DEBRIEF:** Here, the learning is recognized, articulated, and evaluated. The teacher is responsible for seeing that the actions previously taken do not drift along unquestioned, unrealized, unintegrated, or unorganized. Debrief is a sorting and ordering of information, often involving personal perceptions and beliefs. In

experiential education, debrief needs to be made public. The public nature of debrief also ensures that the learner's conclusions are verified and mirrored against a greater body of perception than his or hers alone. Reflecting on the past often includes decisions about what needs to be done next or how it should have been done initially. Public nature of debrief helps turn these comments into focusing agents for the next five-stage cycle. The teacher assists in this stage by helping the students understand what they have accomplished usually in the form of written and verbal self-evaluations.❶

❶ The Theory of Experiential Education edited by Richard J. Kraft and Mitchell Sakofs

❷ Experience and the Curriculum edited by Bert Horwood



## STUDY JOURNAL: INSTRUCTIONS FOR STUDENTS

### *Hand out to students*

For the purpose of this class, regular journal writing will be required. Weekly topics along with 'free writing' will be assigned. There will be opportunity to share entries in class. The journal is designed to be a tool for both your learning and Christen's research. Your honesty and sincerity will assist Christen in making sure she receives as accurate picture as possible.☺

### **Form and Style**

Do not be concerned about how you write. Do not look for style or literary eloquence, or worry that your writing does not seem to be great stuff. ●

- Record the experiences as soon as possible after they happen, and as fully as possible.●
- Have a regular time to write, and a fixed time each week to reflect back on it.●
- Record notes on what you observe, hear, think, and read.☺
- Record facts and experience.☺
- Re-read often in order to re-reflect and analyse progress.☺ There is a tendency to think that, once it has been written, it is worked through.●
- Process connections and relationships.☺
- Make interpretations, comparisons and contrasts.☺
- Explore cause and effect.☺
- Evaluate and ultimately come to conclusions.☺

## GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE WRITING

Be spontaneous, use your own words, put your own names on things. Say what you feel, and if that makes you feel guilty, record that and work with it further.

- Use tangible nouns and active verbs that shape what you want to convey. ☺
- Write to express, not to impress. ☺
- Put ideas into comfortable, natural language. ☺
- Quote people—tell stories—make connections ('this relates to that'). ☺
- Be frank and honest in your entries. Write it as it is, not as you think it should be. ●
- Four Traditional Modes of Writing: ☺
  - **Description** – to describe, define, delineate, reveal, picture, show, list, trace, outline
  - **Narration** – to narrate, tell a story, give an account, report an action
  - **Exposition** – to analyze, detail, explain, explicate, interpret
  - **Argumentation** – to argue, test, evaluate

### Alternative Forms

Feel free to express yourself in diagrams, pictures, poems, or other means. Sometimes a symbol can express what we are trying to say better than words can. Use your journal to its fullest advantage, and read over it frequently. ● Your journal has the possibility to clarify the shape of your attitudes; your social relationships; and your intellectual, ethical, and spiritual development. ☺ It is not just writing in it that is important, but also the continuing reflection on what has been written.

**WARNING:** One of the great enemies of the journal is procrastination. ●

● Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning edited by David Boud, Rosemary Keogh, and David Walker  
☺ The Whole World Guide to Culture Learning by Daniel J. Hess

## **JOURNAL ASSIGNMENTS**

### **Journaling Criteria for Research:**

- Set regularly scheduled journal writing assignments
- When project is underway, assign journal writing to reflect on how the project links to the readings and/or class learning

### **Suggestions from Previous Teachers:**

#### Journaling Theme

- To tie in the ‘current event’ component of the class, consider ‘current events’ journaling...
  - Students track one issue in the news throughout the term
  - Students follow one media source’s international coverage throughout the term

## ACTION STEPS

*Information listed below can be found on the supplied poster; hang poster on classroom wall; encourage students to refer to poster for how to move to the next step*

As a group, students will complete the following steps:

1. Identify issue of concern (may be selected by teacher)
2. Collect information on issue
3. Select a specific recipient of Action
4. Collect details on recipient
5. Design an Action that meets the following criteria:
  - a. **Be Creative** – in design, in concept, in presentation
  - b. **Directly Respond** to the issue under research
  - c. **Inform** others about the issue

### **Design Process:**

1. Identify audience and negotiate access
2. Determine effective means to creatively communicate with selected audience
3. Determine desired impact (reflecting if chosen impact is realistic)
4. Set goals or measures of success
5. Creatively design a presentation of newly acquired information for selected audience
6. Implement design

## GRADING CRITERIA

As a group, students will determine the grading criteria for the final project (pending teacher approval). Below is sample criterion to serve as a starting point. Underlined items are essential elements that Christen's research requires.

### DOES THE **ACTION** MEET THE ASSIGNMENT?

- Does it respond to the issue the class researched?
- Does it include multiple perspectives?
- Does it discuss the American role within conflict?
- Does it present a rationale for a resolution?

### DOES THE **ACTION** INDICATE DEPTH OF KNOWLEDGE?

- Does it cover a sufficient amount of information?
- Can questions from the audience be answered well?

### DOES THE **ACTION** INDICATE GOOD ORGANIZATION?

- Is the group well-prepared?
- Did all group members participate?
- Does it have a logical beginning, middle and end?
- Did the group meet set deadlines?
- Does the group communicate with one another in and outside class times?

### DOES THE **ACTION** ENGAGE THE AUDIENCE?

- Is it creative?
- Does it use materials wisely?
- Does the group use innovative techniques to engage the audience?
- Does the group use innovative techniques to inform the audience?

### **APPENDIX III: STUDENT CONSENT LETTER**

To be printed on school letterhead

[DATE]

Dear Student:

CC: Parent/Guardian

You have registered for the fall term course, [COURSE TITLE]. This course has been designed in collaboration with Christen Higgins Clougherty's graduate research study on service-learning. Christen is a doctoral candidate at the University of Birmingham, UK and her research explores a new approach to teaching international understanding. She is investigating what is learned from the curriculum.

We are excited about this unique opportunity to partake in Christen's research. The outcome of this research has the potential to change how international understanding is taught in schools. One of the most appealing elements of Christen's design is that the course encourages students to contribute to the course's direction. The purpose of this letter is to request your consent in participating in this exciting research opportunity. For those of you who are under 18, your parent or guardian must also grant permission for you to take part in this research project.

In addition to general course work, all students will participate in focus groups and interviews; complete surveys; keep a reflection journal throughout the duration of the

course; and create a group project to share the information learned during the course. Note that the group project may involve time outside of school. The main benefit of analyzing the collected data is to test a new method of how to teach international understanding. The final product of Christen's research will be a printed, bound dissertation that will be shelved in the University of Birmingham's Library. Christen may also publish or use findings in scholarly ways in the future.

If you choose to participate, your identity will be protected. No real names or identifying characteristics will be used. Your course evaluations will not be affected by analysis of the collected data. All results will be confidential and anonymous.

Please sign and return the attached forms by [DATE]. If you are uncomfortable with the research component, or have any questions please contact me by e-mail at [EMAIL ADDRESS]. Christen also welcomes e-mails at [EMAIL ADDRESS] or phone calls at [PHONE NUMBER] between 9a.m.-11p.m. Thank you for your cooperation and I look forward to an exciting class!

Sincerely,

[TEACHER]

[HEADTEACHER]

## **STUDENT CONSENT FORM**

Dear [TEACHER],

I have received and read your letter about conducting research on international understanding as part of your course, [COURSE TITLE]. I understand that the goal is to explore a new approach to teaching international understanding.

I, \_\_\_\_\_, agree to participate in Christen's graduate research project. I understand that all results will be confidential and anonymous, and that Christen may publish or use findings in scholarly ways in the future.

Signed, \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

(Student) SIGN AND BRING TO CLASS BY [DATE].

## **PARENT/GUARDIAN PERMISSION SLIP**

Dear [TEACHER],

I have received and read your letter about conducting research on international understanding as part of your course, [COURSE TITLE]. I understand that the goal is to explore a new approach to teaching international understanding. I give permission for my child, \_\_\_\_\_,

to participate in Christen's graduate research project. I understand that all results will be confidential and anonymous, and that Christen may publish or use findings in scholarly ways in the future.

Signed, \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

(Parent/Guardian) SIGN AND BRING TO CLASS BY [DATE].



## **APPENDIX IV: INTERVIEW QUESTION PROMPTS**

### **GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTION PROMPTS**

1. How do you feel the group project went? Highlights? Frustrations?
2. How did the group work together?
3. What outside agencies or individuals were contacted? Working with adults?
4. Please share your thoughts on the role of the creative element of the course.
5. What skills did you use or learn as part of the process?
6. What will you do with all this new knowledge about the current situation in  
[COUNTRY OR TOPIC OF FOCUS]?
7. Timing – balancing project and content?
8. Understanding project expectations – suggestions for improvement?

## **TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTION PROMPTS**

1. How was the experience?
2. What areas need improvements?
3. Would you consider working with me again?
4. What do you think would be the most ideal circumstances for this curriculum?
5. How could I (at a distance) be more helpful?
6. How valuable were my visits? / presentations?
7. Go through timeline to outline major events.

## Pre-Class Survey

First Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
 Last Name \_\_\_\_\_

This questionnaire asks about your past experiences, opinions and self-assessments. I will ask you to complete a similar survey at the end of the course.

Please complete the questions fully so that I may have as accurate a picture as possible. Your name is requested so that I may match up this survey with information you provide later in the course; your responses will be confidential, and no one at your school will have access to your individual answers.

This project is being conducted by myself, Christen Higgins Clougherty, as part of my doctoral research at the University of Birmingham, UK. The information I am collecting will help me to understand what students learn as a result of participating in this project.

### Instructions for the Survey

1. Consider each statement carefully, but don't spend a lot of time deliberating about a single item.
2. For each subsection, read the statement at the beginning of the section. Then read each question and decide which response best represents your experience, actions, or opinions. Mark the corresponding number to indicate your selection.

### THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION !

### Your Previous Activities

Indicate your usual level of involvement in these activities.

5 = Always (each week)  
 4 = Often (2-3 times a month)  
 3 = Sometimes (1 time a month)  
 2 = Seldom (1-2 times a term)  
 1 = Never

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. High school clubs/groups                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. Community service (fresh./soph. year)       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. Community service (junior/senior year)      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. High school athletic teams                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. Religious clubs/group                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. Volunteer work                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. Recycle                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. Paid work                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. My parents involvement in community service | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## APPENDIX V : PRE-CLASS SURVEY

### Your Opinions

These are issues that people disagree on; please respond based on your honest reaction to each item. Please answer every item and choose the answer that makes sense to YOU, not what you think others would say.

5 = Strongly agree  
 4 = Agree  
 3 = Uncertain  
 2 = Disagree  
 1 = Strongly disagree

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Having an impact on societal problems is within the reach of most individuals.               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I feel that international problems directly affect the quality of life in my country.        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I feel that violent conflict can be avoided.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. International problems are more difficult to solve than I used to think.                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I feel that the earth's resources should be shared among all nations.                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I think our international problems can be solved by global cooperation.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I feel that I can impact solving the problems, in my community.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. It is important to me personally to volunteer my time to help people in need.                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. It is important to me personally to become a community leader.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. High school students should be required to complete community service in order to graduate. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I feel that violence is sometimes necessary.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. My problems are too large for me to give time to helping others.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. It is important to me personally to have a career that involves helping people.             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. I feel that recycling is a valuable way to help the environment.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

15. Community service will help me develop leadership skills.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Skills and experiences that I gain from community service will be valuable in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I feel comfortable working with people who are different from me in such things as race, wealth, and life experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Skills and Activities</b>					
Below is a list of skills and activities that people do in various situations. Please read each of the following, and rate yourself with respect to how well you do each of these compared to most people.					
5 = Much better than most					
4 = Better than most					
3 = About the same					
2 = Not as good as most					
1 = Much worse than most					
18. Thinking critically	1	2	3	4	5
19. Communicating my ideas to others	1	2	3	4	5
20. Engaging in discussion with others	1	2	3	4	5
21. Ability to compromise	1	2	3	4	5
22. Listening skills	1	2	3	4	5
23. Ability to think creatively	1	2	3	4	5
24. Moral or ethical judgment	1	2	3	4	5
25. Identification of social issues and concerns	1	2	3	4	5
26. Ability to take action	1	2	3	4	5
27. Tolerant of people who are different from me	1	2	3	4	5
28. Effective in accomplishing goals	1	2	3	4	5
29. Ability to see consequences of actions	1	2	3	4	5
30. Empathetic to all points of view	1	2	3	4	5
31. Ability to work with others	1	2	3	4	5
32. Ability to speak in public	1	2	3	4	5
33. Knowing where to find information	1	2	3	4	5
34. Ability to lead a group	1	2	3	4	5
35. Comfortable working with adults	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Describing Yourself</b>					
For each of these phrases, indicate whether they describe you very well or not at all or somewhere in-between.					
5 = Describes me very well					
4 = Somewhat well					
3 = Uncertain					
2 = Not well					
1 = Not at all well					
36. I often discuss political or social issues with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the other person's point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I try to keep up with local, national and international news.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I read a newspaper or watch news shows daily. List sources: _____	1	2	3	4	5
40. I try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I have the courage to ask a friend not to tell a sexist or racist or homophobic joke in my presence.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I often try to persuade others to take my point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in his or her place.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I often change my opinion about social problems when I hear others talk.	1	2	3	4	5
45. I am active in political campaigns.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Once I make up my mind, I fight for what I believe in.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I take the time to listen and learn from other people's experiences, especially people who I might initially disagree.	1	2	3	4	5

### Questions About You

Mark the bubble that corresponds to the correct choice under each item.

48. Gender   ☐ female   ☐ male
49. Age   ☐ 14-16   ☐ 16-18
50. Class   ☐ freshman   ☐ sophomore   ☐ junior   ☐ senior
51. Ethnicity   ☐ African American   ☐ Asian American  
☐ Caucasian   ☐ Hispanic/Latino  
☐ Native American   ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

52. What is the highest level of education reached by your father?

- ☐ Some high school  
☐ High school graduate  
☐ Some college or other postsecondary schooling  
☐ College graduate  
☐ Graduate Degree

53. What is the highest level of education reached by your mother?

- ☐ Some high school  
☐ High school graduate  
☐ Some college or other postsecondary schooling  
☐ College graduate  
☐ Graduate Degree

57. In my high school classes I have been assigned to : (Check off all that apply.)

- ☐ Keep a journal  
☐ Formal discussion where you shared feelings about personal experiences  
☐ Participation in role play  
☐ Oral presentation  
☐ Creative presentation (poetry, performance art, dance, visual art)

58. I have worked closely with adults other than my parents or teachers.

- ☐ Yes   ☐ No

59. What career do you plan to pursue? \_\_\_\_\_

60. Think about the content your course will explore and briefly list any organizations or sources where you might find out more information on this topic:

---



---



---



---



---



---

61. List four things you know about [the course topic] :

1. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

62. Describe two ideas you have about what could be done to change [the course topic].

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

63. List five Human Rights.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

THANK YOU!

## APPENDIX VI : POST-CLASS SURVEY

### Post-Class Survey

**First Name** \_\_\_\_\_ **Date** \_\_\_\_\_  
**Last Name** \_\_\_\_\_

This is a follow-up to the survey you completed at the beginning of term.

Please complete the survey fully so that I may have as accurate a picture as possible. Your name is requested so that I may match up this survey with information you provided previously; your responses will be confidential.

#### Instructions for the Survey

1. Consider each statement carefully, but don't spend a lot of time deliberating about a single item.
2. For each subsection, read the statement at the beginning of the section. Then read each question and decide which response best represents your experience, actions, or opinions. Mark the corresponding number to indicate your selection.

#### THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION !

#### Your Opinion [XXX] class

- a. I would rate my experience in this class as:  
☐ poor   ☐ fair   ☐ good   ☐ excellent
- b. Compared to my other classes I learned \_\_\_\_\_ .  
☐ much less   ☐ less   ☐ the same   ☐ more   ☐ much more
- c. Compared to my other classes I found this class \_\_\_\_\_ intellectually challenging.  
☐ much less   ☐ less   ☐ the same   ☐ more   ☐ much more
- d. Compared to other classes I found myself \_\_\_\_\_ motivated to work hard during the service project.  
☐ much less   ☐ less   ☐ the same   ☐ more   ☐ much more

#### Describe Your Experience

For each item, choose the number that best describes your experience during [XXX] class. If a feature *does not apply* to you, mark 1 for 'never'.

5 = Very often  
4 = Fairly often  
3 = Sometimes  
2 = One is a great while  
1 = Never

During the class, I:

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| e. Had important responsibilities         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. Had challenging tasks                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. Made important decisions               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. What I did was interesting             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. Contacted or worked with professionals | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| j. Professionals took interest in project                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| k. Was appreciated when I did a good job                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| l. Felt I made a real contribution                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| m. Free to develop and use <i>my</i> ideas                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| n. Discussed experiences with faculty                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| o. Discussed experiences with other students                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| p. Discussed experiences with family and friends                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| q. Project met needs of an identified international community      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| r. Experience challenged my previous opinions                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| s. Kept a journal  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| t. Faculty member responded to my journal                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| u. Completed writing assignments about the project                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| v. Faculty led discussions where we shared feelings                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| w. Faculty led discussion where we analyzed international problems | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

#### What You Learned

Students have identified different things they learn from service experiences. Please indicate how important each benefit was to you. Please don't select more than three items as 'Most Important'.

4 = Most important  
3 = Very important  
2 = Somewhat important  
1 = Not important

I learned:

- |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| x. To apply things I have learned in class to real problems | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| y. That the people I served are like me                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| z. How rewarding it is to help others                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| aa. Understand myself better/personal growth                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| bb. How to work with others effectively                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| cc. To appreciate different cultures                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| dd. Spiritual growth  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

ee.	How to identify many organizations/agencies that address social problems	1	2	3	4	7.	I feel that I can impact solving the problems, in my community.	1	2	3	4	5	
ff.	To see social problems in a new way	1	2	3	4	8.	It is important to me personally to volunteer my time to help people in need.	1	2	3	4	5	
<b>How You Learned from Your Experience</b>													
Rate the importance of these activities in your learning; limit 'Most Important' to <u>two</u> or <u>three</u> items.													
4 = Most important													
3 = Very important													
2 = Somewhat important													
1 = Not important													
gg.	Faculty/guest speaker presentations	1	2	3	4	11.	I feel that violence is sometimes necessary.	1	2	3	4	5	
hh.	Providing real service to people	1	2	3	4	12.	My problems are too large for me to give time to helping others.	1	2	3	4	5	
ii.	Reflection in journals or written assignments	1	2	3	4	13.	It is important to me personally to have a career that involves helping people.	1	2	3	4	5	
jj.	Working with professionals in field	1	2	3	4	14.	I feel that recycling is a valuable way to help the environment.	1	2	3	4	5	
kk.	Informal sharing of experiences with other classmates	1	2	3	4	15.	Community service will help me develop leadership skills.	1	2	3	4	5	
ll.	Formal structured debriefing sessions or class discussions	1	2	3	4	16.	Skills and experiences that I gain from community service will be valuable in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	
<b>Your Opinions</b>													
These are issues that people disagree on; please respond based on your honest reaction to each item. Please answer every item and choose the answer that makes sense to YOU, not what you think others would say.													
5 = Strongly agree													
4 = Agree													
3 = Uncertain													
2 = Disagree													
1 = Strongly disagree													
1.	Having an impact on societal problems is within the reach of most individuals.	1	2	3	4	5	17.	I feel comfortable working with people who are different from me in such things as race, wealth, and life experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I feel that international problems directly affect the quality of life in my country.	1	2	3	4	5	<b>Skills and Activities</b> Below is a list of skills and activities that people do in various situations. Please read each of the following, and rate yourself with respect to how well you do each of these compared to most people. 5 = Much better than most 4 = Better than most 3 = About the same 2 = Not as good as most 1 = Much worse than most						
3.	I feel that violent conflict can be avoided.	1	2	3	4	5							
4.	International problems are more difficult to solve than I used to think.	1	2	3	4	5							
5.	I feel that the earth's resources should be shared among all nations.	1	2	3	4	5							
6.	I think our international problems can be solved by global cooperation.	1	2	3	4	5							
18.	Thinking critically	1	2	3	4	5							
19.	Communicating my ideas to others	1	2	3	4	5							
20.	Engaging in discussion with others	1	2	3	4	5							
21.	Ability to compromise	1	2	3	4	5							
22.	Listening skills	1	2	3	4	5							

23. Ability to think creatively	1	2	3	4	5
24. Moral or ethical judgment	1	2	3	4	5
25. Identification of social issues and concerns	1	2	3	4	5
26. Ability to take action	1	2	3	4	5
27. Tolerant of people who are different from me	1	2	3	4	5
28. Effective in accomplishing goals	1	2	3	4	5
29. Ability to see consequences of actions	1	2	3	4	5
30. Empathetic to all points of view	1	2	3	4	5
31. Ability to work with others	1	2	3	4	5
32. Ability to speak in public	1	2	3	4	5
33. Knowing where to find information	1	2	3	4	5
34. Ability to lead a group	1	2	3	4	5
35. Comfortable working with adults	1	2	3	4	5

#### **Describing Yourself**

For each of these phrases, indicate whether they describe you very well or not at all or somewhere in-between.

5 = Describes me very well

4 = Somewhat well

3 = Uncertain

2 = Not well

1 = Not at all well

36. I often discuss political or social issues with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the other person's point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I try to keep up with local, national and international news.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I read a newspaper or watch news shows daily. List sources:_____	1	2	3	4	5

40. I try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

41. I have the courage to ask a friend not to tell a sexist or racist or homophobic joke in my presence.	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

42. I often try to persuade others to take my point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in his or her place.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I often change my opinion about social problems when I hear others talk.	1	2	3	4	5
45. I am active in political campaigns.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Once I make up my mind, I fight for what I believe in.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I take the time to listen and learn from other people's experiences, especially people who I might initially disagree.	1	2	3	4	5

#### **Share What You Have Learned**

Please answer the following questions fully - lists are acceptable.

61. List four things you learned about the current situation in [XXX]:

1. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_





## APPENDIX VII: COMPARISON OF EYLER & GILES 1999 AND NOBIS PROJECT SURVEY

Nobis Project Survey	Eyler and Giles (1999) Survey
<b>Your Previous Activities</b>	
a. High school clubs/groups	1. High school clubs/groups
b. Community service (fresh./soph. year)	
c. Community service (junior/senior year)	2. <u>High school service junior year</u> 3. <u>High school service senior year</u>
d. High school athletic teams	4. High school athletic teams
e. Religious clubs/group	9. Religious clubs/group
f. Volunteer work	
g. Recycle	
h. Paid work	5. <u>Work for pay in high school</u>
i. My parents involvement in community service	11. <u>At home</u> , my parents <u>were active</u> in community service
<b>Your Opinions</b>	
1. Having an impact on societal problems is within the reach of most individuals.	22. Having an impact on <u>community</u> problems is within the reach of most individuals.
2. I feel that international problems directly affect quality of life in my country.	26. I feel that <u>social</u> problems directly affect the quality of life in my <u>community</u> .
3. I feel that violent conflict can be avoided.	
4. International problems are more difficult to solve than I used to think.	27. <u>Social</u> problems are more difficult to solve than I used to think.
5. I feel that the earth's resources should be shared among all nations.	
6. I think our international problems can be solved by global cooperation.	32. I think our <u>social</u> problems can be solved by <u>the community</u> .
7. I feel that I can impact solving the problems, in my community.	35. I feel that I can impact solving the problems, in my community.
8. It is important to me personally to volunteer my time to help people in need.	37. It is important to me personally to volunteer my time to help people in need.
9. It is important to me personally to become a community leader.	39. It is important to me personally to become a community leader.

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 10. High school students should be required to complete community service in order to graduate.                            |  |
| 11. I feel that violence is sometimes necessary.   |  |
| 12. My problems are too large for me to give time to helping others.   | 43. My problems are too large for me to give time to helping others.   |
| 13. It is important to me personally to have a career that involves helping people.  | 44. It is important to me personally to have a career that involves helping people.  |
| 14. I feel that recycling is a valuable way to help the environment.   |  |
| 15. Community service will help me develop leadership skills.  | 47. Community service will help me develop leadership skills.  |
| 16. Skills and experiences that I gain from community service will be valuable in my career.                               | 46. Skills and experiences that I gain from community service will be valuable in my career.                               |
| 17. I feel comfortable working with people who are different from me in such things as race, wealth, and life experiences. | 48. I feel comfortable working with people who are different from me in such things as race, wealth, and life experiences. |

### **Skills and Activities**

---

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 18. Thinking critically                          | 51. Thinking critically                          |
| 19. Communicating my ideas to others             | 52. Communicating my ideas to others             |
| 20. Engaging in discussion with others           | 53. Engaging in discussion with others           |
| 21. Ability to compromise                        | 54. Ability to compromise                        |
| 22. Listening skills                             | 55. Listening skills                             |
| 23. Ability to think creatively                  |  |
| 24. Moral or ethical judgment                    | 56. Moral or ethical judgment                    |
| 25. Identification of social issues and concerns | 57. Identification of social issues and concerns |
| 26. Ability to take action                       | 59. Ability to take action                       |
| 27. Tolerant of people who are different from me | 60. Tolerant of people who are different from me |
| 28. Effective in accomplishing goals             | 61. Effective in accomplishing goals             |
| 29. Ability to see consequences of actions       | 62. Ability to see consequences of actions       |
| 30. Empathetic to all points of view             | 63. Empathetic to all points of view             |
| 31. Ability to work with others                  | 64. Ability to work with others                  |

- 32. Ability to speak in public
- 33. Knowing where to find information
- 34. Ability to lead a group
- 35. Comfortable working with adults

- 66. Ability to speak in public
- 68. Knowing where to find information
- 70. Ability to lead a group

### **Describing Yourself**

---

- 36. I often discuss political or social issues with my friends.
- 37. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the other person's point of view.

- 71. I often discuss political or social issues with my friends.
- 72. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the other person's point of view.

- 38. I try to keep up with local, national and international news.

- 73. I try to keep up with local and national news.

- 39. I read a newspaper or watch news shows daily. List sources: \_\_\_\_\_

- 75. I read a newspaper or watch news shows daily.

- 40. I try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their point of view.

- 76. I try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their point of view.

- 41. I have the courage to ask a friend not to tell a sexist or racist or homophobic joke in my presence.

- 42. I often try to persuade others to take my point of view.

- 79. I often try to persuade others to take my point of view.

- 43. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in his or her place.

- 80. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in his or her place.

- 44. I often change my opinion about social problems when I hear others talk.

- 82. I often change my opinion about social problems when I hear others talk.

- 45. I am active in political campaigns.

- 86. I am active in political campaigns.

- 46. Once I make up my mind, I fight for what I believe in.

- 88. Once I make up my mind, I fight for what I believe in.

- 47. I take the time to listen and learn from other people's experiences, especially people who I might initially disagree.

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