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APPENDIX B

Service Experience and Educational Growth

Donald J. Eberly

What the Establishment can't grasp is that you can get a better education from two years with VISTA or the Peace Corps than from four years in your major universities.¹

AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES have been slow to recognize the relevance of service activities to the educational process. Almost universally, they commend the service activities of their students but seldom take the extra logical steps of awarding academic credit for and funding such activities (See Table IA). Because of the increasing numbers of young people participating in government and private sponsored service programs—many of them student-initiated—higher education will soon have to face the issue of its stance on the relationship between service and the academic curriculum.

The rationale for developing a service curriculum can be identified in the philosophical statements of William James and John Dewey. James stressed the dependence of cognition on feeling and experience.

¹ Joanne Palmisano, Letter to the Editor, *Look*, November 28, 1967 (31), p. 16.

Without them, one can do little more than acquire a bundle of facts; he can know *about* something, but he cannot *know* it.² Dewey went beyond this theory to noting its practical application, pointing to the enormous amount of learning acquired by the pre-school child in undirected play activities. He advocated the provision of increased opportunity for similar kinds of learning situations in school.³

These philosophies have not existed in a void but have inspired colleges, notably Antioch, to introduce work-study programs. The purpose of Antioch's program, begun in 1921, is "to equip students to live effectively in a complex world."⁴ Well over half of the organizations in which Antioch students obtain their work experience involve the fields of health, education, and other forms of community and public service. Among the handful of institutions that have

² Gay Wilson Allen, *William James* (New York: The Viking Press, 1967), pp. 266-67.

³ John Dewey, "Interest and Effort in Education," *Intelligence In the Modern World*, ed. Joseph Ratner (New York: The Modern Library, 1939), pp. 607-14.

⁴ "The Cooperative Plan," *Antioch College Bulletin*, October 1965 (62).

TABLE 1: *Institutional Support for the Service Curriculum*

Early in 1968, the Commission on Academic Affairs of the American Council on Education and the National Service Secretariat conducted a postcard survey of 2,106 colleges and universities to determine the nature and the extent of their support for off-campus service activities. Service activities were defined in the survey as those "(a) which contribute to the welfare of others; (b) whose rate of compensation, if any, is facilitative only; and (c) which, unlike work experiences, are not designed basically as apprentice programs."

Survey Statement	Percent Affirmative Replies *	Affirmative Replies to Survey Statements (A)	Number of Institutions Replying
(A) Kind of Support		To all five.....	25
"We give moral support to the value of service experiences."....	93	To any four.....	68
"Our faculty assists with training and orientation of students for service experiences.".....	63	To any three.....	127
"We pay one or more persons to coordinate service activities of students.".....	28	To any two.....	207
"We award academic credit for qualifying service experiences."..	13	To any one.....	177
"We offer financial support to permit students to undertake service experiences.".....	23	No statement.....	19
		Total.....	623
(B) Campuses with Identifiable Person in Charge.....	87		
Position of Person in Charge	Percent		
Dean.....	43		
Other administrator.....	19		
Chaplain/religious affairs.....	9		
Faculty member.....	9		
Director of student activities.....	9		
Service coordinator.....	5		
President.....	4		
Student.....	1		
Title not given.....	1		

* Replies received by the end of February, breakdown as shown above.

developed programs which place service experiences clearly within the framework of the educational process are Anderson College (Indiana), California State College at Los Angeles, Dartmouth College, Franconia College (New Hampshire), Harvard College, Idaho State University, Iowa Wesleyan College, Lewis and Clark College, Lincoln University, Marymount College (New

York), Mercer County Community College (New Jersey), Northeastern Junior College (Colorado), Radcliffe College, University of Washington, and Wilmington College (Ohio). The State University College at Old Westbury, New York, has not yet opened its doors to students, but administrators are already planning a service curriculum with the help of youthful advisers.

IN RESPONSE to a growing demand by students for the accreditation of learning experiences beyond the campus, colleges and universities—both individually and collec-

tively—are developing various types of service-oriented curricula. Donald J. Eberly, Executive Director of the National Service Secretariat, describes four programs that wed the notion of community service to accepted academic goals, and suggests guidelines for institutions planning such expansion of their curriculum.

What differentiates a service experience from another kind of work experience? Because service for one person is a job for another, the experience must be defined primarily as a relationship between the activity and the person performing it. A service experience, as used in this paper, combines the following characteristics, to a greater or lesser degree:

1. The accomplishment of the activity contributes to the welfare of others.
2. The psychic income associated with the activity is sufficient to overcome its low level of financial reward.
3. The activity provides the performer with a basis for balancing materialistic and humanitarian considerations when he chooses a direction for his career.

A three-legged stool

Like the three-legged stool, a trio of forces gives shape, support, and stability to a service curriculum. One leg is the community's need for service. This need is most visibly expressed in the educational and medical deprivation of residents of the inner city. It also reaches out to the suburban ghettos where affluent youths are ignorant of the feelings of hunger, hopelessness, and discrimination of their fellow man on the other side of the beltway. It continues to the poor rural youth, to Indian reservations, and overseas to the multitudes in need of health and educational assistance. A common characteristic of many of these needs is that they can be effectively attacked by teenagers and young adults who do not yet possess a handful of certificates and diplomas.

The second leg is the students' desire for personal commitment and societal involvement. Brought up in front of a TV set, identified by a bewildering array of numbers, and tested by machines, today's youth wants to do things that are real. He wants experience. He wants to live. His emotional

needs will not be met in the offices of government or business, but in a direct personal link with someone in need.

The third leg is in place when the faculty recognizes the educational value of the service experience. First-hand experience has long been considered essential to the study of the physical and biological sciences. Educators have deemed experimentation in these areas sufficiently important to allocate time to them even in the elementary school. Yet, aspiring teachers are generally not allowed to try out teaching until they have nearly completed their formal education; and the same is true for social workers. At last, however, the pros are recognizing that, so long as there is a will to serve and an appropriate assignment, young people in high school and college can derive significant educational value from the service experience.

The merging of the community's service needs, the young people's desire to become involved, and the faculty's recognition of the service experience as academically valuable yields a service curriculum. Peace Corps and VISTA Volunteers returning to campuses after their period of service are forcing colleges to face the question of whether to grant academic credit for their experience. The Peace Corps has found that many institutions give credit for particular aspects of the three-month training period, but only a small fraction give credit for the actual service.⁵ Even more surprising, most educational institutions had not considered their stance on service credits until some students sought such recognition.

Before dealing directly with the issue of academic credit for service experiences, it may be instructive to examine four different kinds of institutions, observing the role

⁵ Eleanor F. Liebman, "Report on Academic Credit and the Peace Corps" (Unpublished document, Washington: Peace Corps, May 8, 1967).

played by each of the forces in the evolution of the service curriculum and noting the magnitude of funding needed for these different approaches to the service curriculum.

An Ivy League approach

Harvard and Radcliffe students have long gone off campus to serve their fellow man. Phillips Brooks House, at the corner of Harvard Yard, has been the symbol of Harvard's moral support of student-initiated service activities. Accompanying this institutional blessing, however, has gone the implicit feeling that to reward service with academic or financial credit would be to tarnish its value.

These attitudes are now changing, and, in 1966, the beginnings of a service curriculum were introduced through the initiative of Radcliffe's President Mary I. Bunting. The Harvard-Radcliffe service curriculum, Education for Action (E.A) has all the necessary ingredients for providing educationally meaningful service opportunities for students.

As well as moral support from the administration, E.A receives help from faculty members in conducting seminars and teaching in orientation programs. E.A also has a full-time director, Susan Bartholemew, and it has money—two \$25,000 grants from the Ford Foundation. Eighty percent of the first grant was allocated for the direct support of summer service experience for 24 students. The balance of the grant covered administration and instruction costs.

Significantly, E.A carries academic credit for one of its seminars. Begun as a seminar on "Teaching in Urban Areas" last year, the course, which requires field experience of the E.A variety, was translated into "educationese" and now appears in the official Harvard register as "Social Sciences 121. Studies in Education: The Changing Function of American Education in the City." There were 75 qualified applicants for the 15 openings in the course last autumn.

The brief existence of E.A has already led to the institutionalization of two aspects

of the service curriculum. Providing information on summer service opportunities for students brought such a deluge of requests to E.A that Radcliffe, with its own funds, has added a half-time staff member to cope with the demand. Deciding on financial awards to needy students proved both awkward and time-consuming for the student selection committee, so at its request, these decisions have been assumed by Radcliffe's Financial Aid Office.

In her first annual report on E.A, Mrs. Bunting identified the major results:

Summer service offered opportunities for students to develop capabilities not ordinarily called into play in the academic year or in summer jobs.

Students expressed tremendous satisfaction in the fact that through E.A the College seemed interested in giving them assistance to do things that seemed worthwhile to them.

The college was made aware that summer service experience was available only to students from relatively well-to-do families, apart from those who benefited from E.A financial support.

Many students in E.A summer service discovered problems and interests that helped to resolve their career decisions. This resolution generally led to academic improvement.

Students who worked overseas and in new situations in this country emphasized the advantages of involvement in service projects for the person eager to acquaint himself with unfamiliar cultures.

Faculty members noted distinct contributions to student theses and classroom discussions as an outcome of E.A summer service.

An urban approach

The service curriculum of the California State College at Los Angeles began as an answer to a management problem. Two years ago, this urban institution, which enrolls about 20,000 students, had small student-run community service projects that were rather unsatisfactory because students spent more time on administrative chores than on actually helping in the community. Also, more students were volunteering to serve the community than could be effectively placed by the student organizations.

At the same time as the surplus of volunteers existed, various college offices were receiving more requests for student volunteers than could be filled in the staff's spare time.

Educational Participation in Communities (EPIC) was thus launched in mid-1966 with a goal of recruiting and training 500 students to participate in various community projects. The key to the EPIC program is its full-time professional staff who, with student coordinators, provide a kind of "infrastructure" which makes possible a large-scale student service project. In its first year, the staff worked with 82 community agencies—probation departments, medical and mental hospitals, schools, recreation centers—to identify areas of need that could be served through student help. The staff then assumed the responsibility of recruiting and training the volunteers, following up when volunteer problems arose, and assisting in evaluating the volunteer's role within the agency.

Every student who wants to serve is welcome to join EPIC. The EPIC staff coordinates training programs which are conducted by members of the faculty and community. After the volunteer is placed with a project on the basis of his interests and abilities, he attends periodic meetings and seminars to discuss both the service and the educational aspects of his EPIC participation.

So far, there is no campus-wide policy on the granting of credit for service with EPIC. It is currently worked out on an individual basis among the faculty member, the student, and a member of the EPIC staff. Sometimes, EPIC service is recognized in lieu of term papers or other classroom assignments. Other times, it may form the basis for a term paper, or the service experience may earn the students one or two college credits of independent study.

In addition to academic credit for the student, the Cal State administration perceives EPIC as contributing to the overall quality of education. "By bringing his ex-

periences into the classroom," reports Dean of Students Edmond C. Hallberg, "the EPIC volunteer keeps the curricula relevant and susceptible to change." An institution that seeks out this kind of student feedback may find themselves quite able to maintain academic standards and contemporary relevance without having to pass through the cathartic but chaotic stage of a confrontation with student power advocates.

Three-quarters of the funding for EPIC, whose budgets were \$87,000 the first year and \$112,000 the second, has come from Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. The remainder of the budgets were raised from the California State Colleges and the campus student association. The combination of money, professional staff, student interest, community need, and faculty involvement resulted in more than 1,000 students serving with EPIC during its first year—twice the original target.

Critics of EPIC say it's a whitewash: "after it's over you can't see any difference in the EPIC volunteer or the persons he served." They see the need for a more total experience. They predict negligible impact unless the volunteer eats, sleeps, works, laughs, cries, suffers, and exults with the small group of persons he professes to serve.

A small college approach

The Outreach program of Franconia College in New Hampshire is designed to do just that. The college was opened in 1963 with the idea that the service experience should be an integral part of its curriculum. Robert G. Greenway, Franconia's first Director of Program Development, says that the rationale for a service experience was derived from "carefully thought-out assumptions about social values and their relationship to liberal arts, rather than as a response to anomie and alienation."⁶ "The

⁶ Robert G. Greenway, "A Role for Colleges and Universities in a National Service Program," *A Profile of National Service*, ed. Donald J. Eberly (Washington: National Service Secretariat, 1966), p. 44.

concept of liberal arts," he said, "must encourage development of skills to preserve, utilize and enhance personal freedom, must provide opportunities to test these skills, and must recognize actions as values-made-visible."⁷ Franconia's President Richard R. Ruopp goes on to suggest that a service curriculum helps the student to differentiate between real education and superficial symbols:

A student needs clearly to confront his choice of education and its consequences. Preferably before, certainly soon after he enters college, he must face the meaning of real study and the pursuit of knowledge. Only thus can he accept the responsibility that his activities must meet the needs of his growing person rather than the external criteria of grades, degrees, financial success, and status.⁸

This theory is put into practice at two stages of a student's career at Franconia. He may spend one quarter during his first two years off campus in a study-research-service project, and, again in his last two years, he may spend as much as three quarters on such a project. In either case, the student must first formulate his project and submit it to the faculty for approval. Then he undertakes the project, keeping in touch, meanwhile, with his faculty advisors. Upon return to campus, the student prepares the results for faculty validation and considers how he may use his Outreach experience as the basis for further study. Finally, he submits the report on his project to the faculty for validation, which is tantamount to the awarding of academic credit. The experience of a student in sociology offers an example of the educational significance of Franconia's Outreach.

For his senior Outreach experience, William Sumner became a VISTA Volunteer with a plan to make a sociological survey in the traditional manner. His VISTA assignment was to help organize a Headstart Project in Del Norte, Colorado. The VISTA assignment upset his plans in two ways. First, he found himself so involved in the nascent Headstart program that he

had little time to work on his research project. Second, as he did put his assignment into shape and take time to reflect on his proposed academic work, he found that the experience had changed his whole outlook on the proper conduct of his survey.

While Sumner was learning through involvement, he decided to conduct a survey that would directly involve the subjects and, at the same time, allow him to utilize his hobby of photography. He hit upon the idea of teaching the poor people with whom he was working to take pictures as the first steps in a series of photographic essays. He followed up with informal interviews in which the photographer-subjects explained the meaning of the pictures. Upon completion of his year with VISTA, Sumner turned down a VISTA offer to supervise a regional project and he is now back at Franconia preparing his project for its validation test.

As a result of his Outreach experience, Sumner, concluded that formal education was not enough. He sees education as a process which cannot properly be carried on if confined to the campus limits; it must fully embrace the world of experience as well as the world of academe.

Colleges whose concept of education stops at the walls of ivy give little but the option of dropout to students seeking participation in the real world. In contrast, a college that combines the opportunity for off-campus service experiences with the opportunity for on-campus academic reflection on the experiences, can engender in their students a thirst for educational involvement complementary to their thirst for societal involvement.

A regional approach

The organizational base for a service curriculum does not have to be a single campus. The Resource Development Internship Program, of the Southern Regional

⁷ Greenway, pp. 43-44.

⁸ Richard R. Ruopp, *Franconia College Proceedings*, 1966 (3), p. 4.

Education Board provided service-learning experiences for 96 students from 47 southern campuses in the summer of 1967. Begun in 1966, under the aegis of Oak Ridge Associated Universities—a non-profit corporation of 41 Southern universities and colleges—the internship program grew from a civic association's need for more manpower than was available from non-paid volunteers and the nuclear science internship program financed by the Atomic Energy Commission.

The civic body, the Clinch-Powell River Association, obtained financial support from the Tennessee Valley Authority and a foundation grant, and used their own funds as well to launch a program having four students in the summer of 1964, and seven students the following summer. Impressed with the performance of the interns, TVA encouraged the Oak Ridge group in early 1966 to extend the program to other development agencies and to invite participation by additional sponsors.

The member institutions of the Oak Ridge group formed a basic constituency from which to draw interns and professional guidance. The 1965 TVA interns had identified service needs that could be tackled by summer interns, and the internship program in nuclear science provided an administrative model.

All that was needed to launch the program was, as usual, money, and this was obtained in roughly equal parts from the Department of Commerce, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Office of Economic Opportunity. These sponsoring agencies were joined in 1967 by the Department of Labor and the Appalachian Regional Commission of Tennessee. Last summer, the interns were widely dispersed, serving with 79 local and state organizations.

Multiple agency sponsorship is notorious for the headaches it produces. While contending with separate bookkeeping and reporting arrangements for the different contracts, the leaders of the SREB Resource Development Project, Michael Hart, William Ramsay, and Robert Lee Sigmon, have

devised a system which provides for equal treatment for all interns and for positive exploitation of their manifold support base. They have introduced the notion of coupled internships to demonstrate to the interns and their colleagues the mutuality of interests that exist regardless of bureaucratic boundaries. Last summer, for instance, three interns subjected a multi-county area near Athens, Georgia, to close scrutiny; the OEO intern explored characteristics of the unemployed, the Labor intern made an inventory of labor needs, and the Commerce intern analyzed industrial opportunities. As part of the educational tie-in of the program, the university counselors for the three interns brought them together for periodic discussions.

Two-day seminars were held in the summer of 1967 to further the educational benefits of the program. In these seminars, whose optimal size was found to be in the range of 15-20 students, interns were deliberately mixed by project sponsorship, age, sex, and academic background, and they were given responsibility for making presentations at the seminars. University counselors and development staff played a minimal role, serving primarily as resource personnel.

Academic credit is awarded for some internships. On occasion, it has been treated as independent study; other times, it has counted as part of a seminar course; and some candidates for higher degrees have translated their service experience into thesis research.

To ensure meaningful projects, a staff member of SREB normally visits the local organization and assists in the development of a project outline. Upon assuming his assignment, the intern is asked to prepare a more precise project plan. For each project, a committee of three—usually an agency employee with whom the intern will be working daily, the intern's university counselor, and a third person in the field of the intern's assignment—is appointed. The first allowance check is sent to the commit-

tee chairman to pass on to the intern; subsequent checks follow the submission of the intern's biweekly performance and expense statement, certified by the chairman. The final check is not sent until the intern submits an acceptable final report.

Overall costs of the program total approximately \$2500 per intern. This sum covers a basic allowance of \$65 per week for undergraduates or \$75 per week for graduates (the same range of allowances as received by VISTA Volunteers), costs of transportation and administration, and the cost of publishing each intern's final report. (This publication is a source of pride to the interns and helps to ensure agency follow-through on the projects of the interns.) Confronted with over 600 requests for summer interns in 1968, the program is beginning to decentralize. For the 12-week program this summer, the University of Georgia and several other southern universities will initiate internship-seminar programs in which they will assume most program functions in addition to providing educational counseling.

In the intern project, the motivation to join appears to be pegged more to the prospect of an interesting summer job than to an urge to serve others. But a well-structured summer experience with a public service agency has an undeniable impact. One intern decided to shift his career in accounting toward a more social emphasis on economic opportunities for the underprivileged. The counselor of an intern in law reported

My impression is that he was quite deeply affected by what he saw, heard, and did . . . He has volunteered to do research work on the legal problems of the poor.⁹

And another intern said at the end of his project, for which he worked a month beyond his last pay check,

Above everything else I got out of this project, I have learned that there are civic responsibilities, part of which I must accept as I enter my profession.¹⁰

Financial hurdles

The main financial hurdles to making service experiences universally available to students are of two heights. The low hurdle is the administrative one. Judging by present programs, a sum of \$10 per enrolled student per year would be sufficient to cover the salaries of professional staff together with normal overhead, which is frequently absorbed by general funds. Eventually, administrative costs of the service curriculum would probably be built into the overall college budget;¹¹ in the interim period, outside support appears necessary.¹²

The high hurdle takes the form of economic discrimination as a determinant of who may serve. Scholarship students are often required to work during the school year and the summers in order to maintain their scholarships. If tutoring could be substituted for washing dishes, many more students would be enabled to derive the benefits of a service experience. The Work-Study program under Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 makes this possible. To date, it appears that very limited use is being made of this resource. Only 35 of the 623 respondents to the service curriculum survey (Table 1) reported the use of Work-Study funds to support students undertaking off-campus service activities. With an appropriation of \$140 million in fiscal year 1968 and expected participation in excess of 200,000 students, Work-Study funds are clearly a major resource for getting over the financial hurdle to a service experience.

⁹ *Manpower for Development—Summer 1966* (Oak Ridge, Tennessee: Resource Development Office, Oak Ridge Associated Universities, 1967), p. 25.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ Late last year, the Board of Trustees of Michigan State University established an Office of Volunteer Programs supported by regular University funds to coordinate the services of over 2,000 student volunteers.

¹² Also late last year, Secretary of Labor W. Willard Wirtz announced a policy that would provide advice, assistance, and small grants to college student groups wishing to undertake constructive projects.

A more comprehensive source of funds would be available if financial credit were granted for service experiences, along the lines of the GI Bill. A full year of service experience, for example, might qualify a young person for two years of further education. If such a program could be designed so as not to distort the character of the service-learning experience, it would be worthwhile considering it together with the Zacharias proposal for an Educational Opportunity Bank. It is worth noting that service financial credits would be well suited for the two groups—women and the poor—which, Zacharias notes in his proposal, are most overlooked.

It can be argued that attaching money to voluntary service devalues the concept and the experience. When this argument is examined closely, it boils down to the way in which the money is to be used, not the use of money *per se*. Thus, money may be used to overcome obstacles to a service experience, but not as an incentive to make service more financially attractive than alternative uses of time.

Accreditation

Until the approach to academic credit becomes less rigid and more relevant, the task of defining the service as part of the academic curriculum will be fairly complex. On one hand, academic credit is geared to rather rigid designs and quantifiable performances. On the other hand, the service experience has minimal structure and a learning derivative that does not lend itself to traditional measuring instruments. A brief look at three distinct aspects of the service curriculum will suggest ways of tackling the question of whether to award academic credit for it.

The first is the idea of public service as a value worth passing on to succeeding generations. Transmission of cultural values and customs has been the central purpose of the curriculum since earliest times. Conceivably, credit could be awarded to students who have learned how to serve their

fellow man just as it is awarded for learning a language. More likely, the concept of public service as a heritage belongs closer to the domain of such values as individual rights and minority dissent. Seen in this light, the college is obliged to provide opportunities for service experiences comparable with the obligation to uphold the right of freedom of speech.

The second is the contribution of a service experience to a variety of personal attributes clustering around self-development. Growth in maturity, self-confidence, and discretion in choosing a career do not belong to any one discipline. If academic credit is to be awarded for this set of outcomes, it belongs with credit given for general education courses, or as basic requirements for a degree, although it is debatable whether a service experience should join the line of such benevolent impositions as compulsory chapel and swimming lessons.

The third reflects the Jamesian theory of cognition in that a service experience can illuminate, fortify, and perhaps rearrange a shaky conceptual structure of knowledge. At the same time, the experience can add breadth to a student's grasp of the subject matter by exposing him to topics not covered in the lectures and textbooks. These aspects of education are most closely associated with particular courses of study—e.g. economics, education, psychology, and social work. Because of the design of the credit system, academic credit for service experiences is normally given for the course most closely linked to the service experience. This approach has been followed in each of the service curricula described in this paper.

Common elements

These four examples illustrate the viability of a flexible approach. They reflect fairly wide variations in motivating forces, cost per student, and intensity of the service experience. They also possess common elements that may be formulated as recommendations deserving serious review by an

institution that wishes to develop a service curriculum:

1. The service curriculum should evolve from cooperation among students, faculty, administration, and the community to be served.
2. Service activities should respond to real needs.
3. The student who serves should have a hand in assessing the nature of service required and defining the task to be done.
4. The task assigned to the student should require him to stretch his capacities, although not necessarily in all directions at once.
5. Institutional support should be available as appropriate, with a sequential development along these lines:
 - (a) Moral commitment to the educational value of properly executed service experience.

- (b) Faculty assistance in training and orientation.
- (c) One full-time professional staff person.
- (d) Provision for academic credit for service experience.
- (e) Sufficient financial backing to allow all students to participate.

Service curricula are becoming increasingly available on American campuses. Few institutions, however, have advanced beyond the first two stages—moral support and faculty participation. Subsequent stages—full-time administrators, adequate funding, and provision for academic credit—will be more demanding of campus intellects and exchequers. The important thing is to ensure that all students have an opportunity for involvement with their fellow man in a conceptual framework that permits the greatest amount of learning to occur.

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