1996

Service-Learning and School-to-Work: Making the Connections

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were Dudley Dawson of Antioch College and Roy Wooldridge of North-eastern University. Dudley I already knew and I may have met Roy at the 1961 Princeton conference. Seven years later I moved from the Rochester Institute of Technology to Northeastern University and Roy became my boss. He continued so for the next twenty years.

Because of his effective management of the largest co-op program in the country Roy quickly became a credible, sought-after and highly respected spokesperson for cooperative education. He, and Probst, and Dawson traveled throughout the country articulating the virtues of cooperative education and providing counsel to college personnel on how best to design and implement programs. Roy created the first center for cooperative education, the purpose of which was to provide consultancy to institutions interested in starting programs, and he appointed a Northeastern coordinator, Charles Seavrens, to design and conduct workshops for persons wanting to know more about co-op. These were the first training programs for co-op offered and became the model for Title VIII programs to follow. He also wrote a proposal to the Ford Foundation for a grant to endow a research professorship in cooperative education. My move to Northeastern attests to his success.

During my first year at Northeastern and with the encouragement of Roy Wooldridge, I had the opportunity to become involved with the then small but growing co-op community. I met and became friends with other practitioners and advocates who by their commitment, energy, and wisdom served the advancement of cooperative education throughout North America. The persons who come to mind include George Miller of the University of South Florida who for many years conducted very popular training programs and was CEA's only two-term president, Wanda Mossbacker of the University of Cincinnati, Frank Vandergrift of Auburn University, Ed Lewis of the Borough of Manhattan Community College, and Al Barber of the University of Waterloo who started and directed the first co-op program in Canada.

By mentioning these people by name I do not mean to suggest that they alone advanced co-op. There were others, many others. But, when thinking of Dudley Dawson and the remarkable contributions he made these are the others who come to my mind.

James W. Wilson
Editor

SERVICE-LEARNING AND SCHOOL-TO-WORK: MAKING THE CONNECTIONS

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Recently, much attention has been focused on two federal initiatives that encourage students to explore learning opportunities outside the classroom. The National and Community Service Trust Act and the School to Work Opportunities Act provide states with assistance to develop and implement school programs in which elementary, secondary, and post-secondary students are engaged in learning experiences that are hands-on, meaningful, and connected to the real world. Although the acts differ on their intended educational purposes, both are based on similar educational philosophies, principles, and pedagogies. These fundamental similarities suggest that the two reforms can work synergistically to establish powerful and exciting school programs. This paper describes the tenets of each reform act, lists the ways the two acts are complementary, and provides examples of how school sites and districts have found ways to connect the two reforms in effective and creative ways.

School to Work Opportunities Act

Over the past decade, career development programs (e.g., through the Job Training Partnership Act, the Carl Perkins Acts, etc.) have sought to remove the long-standing "lower track" stigma vocational education programs have had to endure. This stigma significantly impacted schools in that many college bound students avoided enrolling in vocational education programs (Stern et. al, 1994). The 1987 Carl D. Perkins Applied Technology Education Act (Perkins I made great strides in de-tracking many vocational education programs by supporting programs that more fully integrated academic and vocational technical education and more closely aligned secondary and post-secondary education. However, Perkins's primary focus on "at-risk students" created complications for the de-tracking process.

The recently passed School to Work Opportunities Act (STWOA), however, supports educational systems that provide all students, regardless of their post-high school intentions, with a common core of academic and technical skills that prepares them for employment and future education (American Vocational Association, 1994). This new act, passed by Congress in

September 1994, provides states with federal assistance to assist schools (K-16) in developing and implementing educational programs that prepare all students for meaningful, high quality employment. The act is designed to assist schools in assessing which combination of the existing 154 federally sponsored job related training programs (e.g., Tech Prep, apprenticeships, school-based enterprises, career academies, etc.) can best provide students with maximum career entry and exit options for productive and rewarding careers. STWOA encourages states and local entities to create school-to-work initiatives that meet the specific needs of the regional economic and labor markets. Whatever their individual local designs, all school-to-work systems consist of three basic program components: school-based learning, work-based learning, and connecting activities.

National and Community Service Trust Act

The National and Community Service Act was first passed by Congress in 1990 and was reauthorized in 1993 to become the National and Community Service Trust Act (NACSTA). The Act seeks to reinvigorate a public service ethic in America by supporting programs that promote and encourage service to one's community. Subtitle B of NACSTA gives states federal assistance to develop and support school-based programs that use service-learning as a pedagogical strategy. Service-learning is a teaching strategy that formally and fully integrates community service endeavors into students' academic curricula. Service learning provides students the opportunity to contextualize academic learning by applying the knowledge gained in their academic course(s) to address real issues in their local communities. Because service-learning gives students opportunities to think critically and expansively about key social issues related to course content, students can make connections between what is learned in school and real life (Kendall, 1990). Like STWOA, NACTSA targets all students, regardless of ability, age, or ambition. In elementary, secondary, and post-secondary institutions, students who engage in service-learning are provided opportunities to apply their academics to real-life situations to help improve situations in their communities, enhance learning, build citizenship and develop critical thinking skills (Kendall, 1990).

Like the school-to-work act, NACTSA encourages local schools and communities to develop programs that meet local needs. As a result, service learning efforts are idiosyncratic, characterized by the nature of the service activities, the particular communities involved, the students who participate, and the courses into which the service is integrated. Despite their individual program designs, all service-learning efforts consist of three basic program components: school-based learning, community-based learning, and connecting activities.

The Differences

Although both school-to-work and service-learning efforts attempt to give students exciting learning opportunities beyond the classroom walls, the nature of these opportunities differ significantly in both educational purpose and intended benefit.

As figure 1 shows, service-learning partnerships are built on collaborations between *the school* and *the community*. These partnerships are fostered by engaging students in service activities that intentionally benefit both the students and the community. Students gain a better understanding of their academics by applying their course content to real situations in the community. The community benefits by having an important local issue addressed (e.g., homelessness, AIDS awareness, etc.). In contrast, school-to-

Figure 1
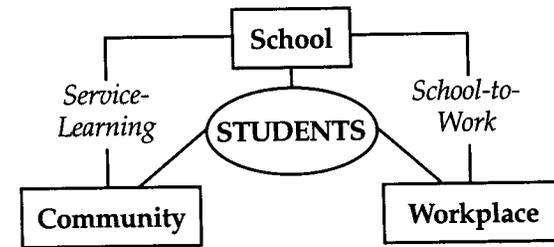
work programs are based on partnerships between schools and the workplace (e.g. businesses, labor, industry). School-to-work partnerships are fostered by engaging students in work activities that give students opportunities to explore the world of work. Although businesses do receive some benefit from the students' work activities, the intended emphasis and focus of school-to-work programs tends to be on students' academic learning and career development (Furco, 1994).

According to NACTSA, service-learning activities are primarily intended to enhance students' academic development and civic responsibility. Service-learning helps students become productive, civic minded citizens who will actively contribute to the betterment of society (Conrad & Hedin, 1989). School-to-work, on the other hand, is concerned with preparing students to be productive workers ready to meet the challenges of a changing, technologically advancing work force (American Vocational Association, 1994). Given these distinct goals, work activities and service activities connote different educational purposes and outcomes for students.

For many, the term *service* conjures up notions of altruism, giving, and selflessness. *Work*, on the other hand, brings to mind terms such as labor, selflessness.

difficulty, and skill-related action. However, the distinction between a *service* activity and a *work* activity is not always obvious. A student who helps a lab technician in an understaffed health clinic as part of a health career academy program would typically be considered as conducting *work* as part of his/her internship assignment. Nevertheless, another student, who is assisting the same lab technician and performing the same activities as the health career student, would be considered as performing *service* if the activity were part of a *service-learning biology course*. Ultimately, which hands-on activities constitute *work* and which constitute *service* are defined by both the intended purposes of the field activities and the types of partnerships formed between the school and the external agencies. Often, this distinction is not clear.

Some experts argue that the distinction between *service* and *work* is best defined by whether or not a student is paid (Kendall, 1990). In fact, STWOA encourages pay for students' work-based activities, while NACSTA discourages paying students for service. NACSTA's per hour minimum wage compensation to the National Service AmeriCorps members, for example, is officially called a *living allowance*; the word pay is deliberately avoided. This debate, however, is complicated by the fact that, for some, pay may not necessarily mean monetary compensation, but may also include other forms of compensation, such as receiving academic units or fulfilling a graduation requirement. For example, if students receive an extra unit of compensation for their biology *service-learning* activities, are they receiving some form of pay? Looked at in another way, can an extra unit of credit for students' *work* in a hospital, as part of a health career academy school-to-work program, be considered their pay? The results of this terminology debate, while it may appear semantical, ultimately determines funding streams for programs, defines the nature of school collaborations, and characterizes the types of educational meanings students derive from their field experiences.

Along with differences in connotations between work and service activities, the two reform efforts differ significantly in the *focus* of their activities. School-to-work activities are typically focused around industry-related issues such as manufacturing, finance, technology, or the media. Conversely, service-learning students engage in activities centered around *causes* such as providing food and shelter to the homeless, reducing crime, or addressing global warming. Therefore, the student assisting the lab technician in the health lab would theoretically be doing *work* if (s)he was there to learn about the health industry (e.g., What do lab technicians do?). In contrast, (s)he would be performing *service* if the student were at the lab to learn

how the concepts of biology play a crucial role in meeting the needs of persons who come to the clinic's lab for medical advice and assistance.

The Similarities

Despite their distinct intended purposes, the two acts are founded upon similar educational philosophies, principles, and pedagogies (see Figure 2). Both reforms are based on the experiential education philosophy that purports that learners learn best when they are actively engaged in hands-on meaningful activities. Both service-learning and school-to-work involve students in hands-on activities that bring context and meaning.

Figure 2
Similarities Between School-to-Work and Service-Learning

	School-to-Work & Service Learning
Philosophy	Both reforms are based on the experiential education philosophy that we tend to remember 10% of what we read, 20% of what we hear, 30% of what we see, 50% of what se see and hear, 70% of what we say, and 90% of what we both say and do.
Paradigm	Both reforms see students as providers of resources, active learners, producers of knowledge, providers of help, and people who make things happen.
Pedagogy	Both reforms utilize the same pedagogical strategies such as contextual learning, application of knowledge to real situations, expansion of teaching beyond the classroom, multidisciplinary teaching, and cooperative learning. Both reforms require teachers to re-examine the way they teach.
Partnerships	Both reforms require schools to establish formal partnerships with outside entities.
Programmatic Issues	Both reforms must grapple with similar programmatic issues such as transportation of students to and from work/service sites, liability concerns when students are off campus, and how students external experiences are coordinated and integrated with what goes on at school.

ing to what they are learning in the classroom. Both reforms see students as providers of resources and producers of knowledge. Students are no longer passive learners who sit behind their desks and listen to teachers deliver lessons. Instead, these reforms see students as active learners who can make things happen by using their talents and capabilities to help and work with others. With this paradigm as a foundation, both reforms rely on the same pedagogical strategies by expanding teaching and learning beyond the classroom. Both school-to-work and service-learning use contextual learning, the application of knowledge to real situations, multidisciplinary teaching, and cooperative learning as the primary approaches to teaching and learning.

To be effective, both reforms similarly require collaborative and inclusive partnerships with agencies outside the school that help define and establish appropriate learning experiences for students. These partnerships help establish the nature of the learning experiences for the students. Because the two reforms engage students in activities away from school, they must address similar programmatic issues such as providing safe student transportation to and from field sites, ensuring liability issues are properly addressed, and developing effective classroom reflection strategies for linking students' field experiences with their class work. But, perhaps most important, as "educational reforms," both efforts require teachers to reexamine the way they teach.

Connecting School-to-Work and Service-Learning

The fundamental similarities between the two reforms have encouraged a number of schools and school districts across the country to combine the two reform efforts. What has resulted, in many cases, is powerful and enriching innovative educational programs in which the two reform efforts mutually strengthen each other. Because the programs are based on the needs of the local students and communities, the ways in which the two reform efforts have been linked vary from school to school.

Several California schools and school districts have successfully linked the two reforms. In Oakland, service-learning is used with ninth graders as a way for students to explore career options. Throughout the year, ninth graders provide community service in a variety of service-related fields such as health, technology, and media. While these opportunities allow students to meet important needs in the community, students are also able to gain insights into the nature of various careers (e.g., What does a medical lab assistant do?, What does a public advertiser do?, etc.). By performing service in a number of community agencies, students can make informed decisions regarding which career academy to select in grade 10.

A full integration of the two reforms has occurred at both John Marshall High School in Los Angeles and a number of high schools in Kern County. In Marshall High's Health Academy, students not only receive a rigorous academic curriculum that focuses on health and health-related issues, but students also engage in work-based activities at local hospitals and health clinics where they work closely with nurses and lab technicians. Students then take the skills learned at work sites and apply them to addressing a need in the community through a service project (e.g., providing health education to elementary school students, assisting health professionals during community fairs, etc.). Students might reflect on their service and work experiences by writing critical papers in English class or exploring the history of health education in public schools. Similarly, in one Kern County high school, students in a drafting vocational education program assess the construction needs of a nonprofit agency. From this assessment, students design and construct the structures for the agency.

Similar programs are operating throughout the country. Pittsburgh's Middle Schools Project Oases involve at-risk middle school students in occupational training where students gain a variety of work skills. Students then identify a community need and use their newly developed work skills to address the issue through community service projects (e.g. building a ramp for the disabled, repairing homes for the elderly, etc.). At the Rindge School of Technical Arts in Cambridge, students are engaged in a series of projects in which they first assess the needs in the community and develop a proposal to improve the city that they present to the city council (Grade 9). In grade 10, the students design and present sophisticated physical models of their proposed plan (e.g. a new fire station) to the city. And then in grades 11 and 12, the students work with the city in instituting their plan. Students are taught through an interdisciplinary approach that uses a variety of technology and media and focuses on developing work skills, such as proposal writing, project planning and designing, and team collaboration.

While many other examples exist, it is important to note that each school program has a unique approach for connecting the two reforms. What makes all these programs successful is that they are developed to meet both the needs of the students and needs of local agencies and businesses in the community.

Conclusion

Given the ongoing budgetary concerns for education, combining service-learning and school-to-work efforts cannot only enhance leverage for school program funding, but it can also help streamline school reform

efforts by bringing together students who otherwise might never interact. Unlike many other school programs that tend to target specific student populations (Gifted and Talented Education, Bilingual Education, Migrant Education), service-learning and school-to-work efforts encourage the involvement of all students regardless of age, ability, or ambition. As a result, students from all sectors of a school's population can unite to work together toward common social, personal, academic, and vocational goals. The tenets of school-to-work and service-learning – integrating curricula, connecting secondary and post-secondary institutions, partnering schools with the community, and developing students' life skills – will become increasingly more important as K-12 education witnesses a merging of school reforms as it moves toward establishing a more holistic approach to teaching and learning.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF ENTRY LEVEL CHARACTERISTICS BETWEEN CO-OP AND NON-CO-OP STUDENTS[1,2]

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Educational professionals involved in the delivery of programs are well aware that changing economic and sociocultural factors can have an impact on the efficacy of their programs. Indirectly, these factors affect the status and demand for the programs. Institutional analysis is now a standard procedure for colleges and universities and tracking of demographic changes in light of trends in the larger society is necessary to respond appropriately and in a timely manner to these changes. As well, a higher level of accountability in post secondary education than in the past is demanded by funding sources seeking to ensure that public funds are used efficiently.

In cooperative education, a form of education delivery, the need for internal analysis is clear. Often cited by traditionalists within universities as anti-intellectual and practice based, the onus has been on cooperative education practitioners to show not only that cooperative education benefits students after graduation but also that it is a valid educational model that produces academic benefits. To survive within institutions in which competition for diminishing resources is quite fierce, cooperative education practitioners must be able to state with confidence that programs operated within this format are effective and support the goals of the institution.

Advocates of cooperative education often refer to positive outcomes associated with involvement in this educational model that Fletcher (1989) categories as career development, career progress, and personal growth. As Rowe