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The “Net Worth” of Applied Learning: How Holocaust Survivors Counter Educational Consumerism

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Shrinking financial support for higher education has renewed interest in market-based approaches that define education as a consumer transaction. This model fails to acknowledge many character-based dimensions of experiential learning. Testimonies from Holocaust survivors reveal three habits of character not captured by educational models that focus primarily on efficiency: embracing personal agency, readiness to act in the face of uncertainty, and creative adaptability that builds resilience to setbacks.

In *Dialogic Civility in a Cynical Age*, Ronald Arnett and Pat Arneson (1999) portray the future of respectful but substantive human communication in terms that translate easily to the prognosis for applied learning pedagogies. Arnett and Arneson observe the need to combine hope and cynicism into a guiding metaphor of hope within limits, not blind optimism or jaded nihilism (1999, pp. 25-26). Discussions of applied learning could profit from this advice. Amid ongoing fiscal straits that threaten to straitjacket or strangle many academic and co-curricular programs, experiential learning can survive and prosper only by proving its relevance and clearly articulating its benefits without overreaching to impersonate a panacea for all educational woes. Cynicism and hope can harmonize to produce “a voice of both caution and possibility” (Arnett & Arneson, 1999, p. 28), a tone that resonates well in an economic environment that seems to call for pedagogical minimalism under the banner of accountability. To be accountable as a prudent steward of educational investment supposedly requires maximizing

efficiencies, increasing class sizes, spending less per student, and scaling back plans that might require labor-intensive extensions of learning beyond traditional classrooms. This essay takes a different approach to the position applied learning can and should occupy in a time of economic uncertainty and frugality. Instead of retreating to a “back-to-basics” mentality of retrenchment that treats unfamiliar or more labor-intensive disciplines and pedagogies as threats, the following analysis contends that applied learning, *properly applied*, can form an essential part of the core knowledge and skill sets required to thrive in turbulent times.

The first step in assessing what applied learning can offer to stem the tide of educational minimalism is to change the philosophical and discursive landscape. The initial section of this piece questions the value—cognitively, morally, and economically—of framing education primarily as a consumer-driven, capitalistic enterprise. The extension of a market-based frame to higher education, despite its aggressive resurgence when economic challenges are foregrounded, inadequately accounts for the social responsibilities incumbent on all members of the educational community.

Second, the potential educational dividends of applied learning receive attention. The route that leads through this intellectual territory might seem circuitous, as it intertwines applied learning pedagogies with Holocaust survival testimonies. This path, although unconventional, has ample justification. My research on identity formation after the Holocaust involves gathering and scrutinizing first-person testimonies from Holocaust survivors. This process of narrative collection and analysis reveals some important qualities of firsthand experience that escape the customary modes of discussing and assessing applied learning. Close attention to these testimonies can reveal far more than one person’s perspective on historical events. Each survivor has been faced with disruptive, traumatic personal experiences that played an important role in shaping his or her life. If anyone can teach lessons about how to learn experientially, it would be Holocaust survivors.

The survivors, however, were not passively undergoing experiences and reacting to them. Although often labeled Holocaust “victims,” survivors have faced an enduring challenge of crafting their selfhood

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after their lives had been jarred, damaged, and interrupted. The continuing task—indeed, for many survivors, imperative—of rebuilding their world that had been ruptured is summarized by the rabbinic concept of *tikkun olam*, usually translated as “repairing the world” (Lee, 1990). The process of rebuilding society, modernized as the struggle toward social justice by recognizing, responding to, and rectifying injustice, directly connects the experience of Holocaust survivors to the mission of any socially conscious employment of applied learning. If one goal of applied learning is to equip students to engage more deeply in social action and to participate more fully in democratic processes, then we might well listen to the words of Holocaust survivors.

REFRAMING CONSUMERISM AS RESPONSIBLE CITIZENSHIP

Higher education stands astride two competing forces and voices that articulate divergent values: the voice of efficiency and the voice of effectiveness. When funding shrinks, the voice of efficiency gains ascendancy. Calls for efficiency often occur within a broader framework that depicts higher education as a consumer-driven endeavor. Institutions tout their concern for students, who are labeled the “customers” of higher education. Brandishing the verbiage of global economic struggle to dominate the marketplace, colleges and universities arm students for cutthroat competition in the job market.

The calls to “get close to the customer” seem to embrace an empowering notion of students as the drivers of higher education. What could be objectionable about placing students at the center of educational endeavors? Furthermore, what concerns could arise from increasing efficiency? Why should efficiency pose any problems? The simple answer to these questions is that deepening the educational commitment to students clashes with the imperative of efficiency. Movements toward intensifying educational experiences, such as using “high-impact educational practices” (Kuh, 2008) that carry substantial experiential components, run against the current of efficiency. In fact, most educational practices acquire their status as high-impact precisely because they require dedicating more energy, time, and resources than required for other educational endeavors. Raising impact may lower efficiency. Phrased more euphoniously, embracing efficiency can sacrifice effectiveness. The reason lies in the very definition of efficiency. Assuming the definition of efficiency as the ratio of input to output, one quick way to raise efficiency is to deliver the same results while reducing investment in resources such as personnel, facilities, and equipment. While outcomes might resist improvement, input in the form of time, money, or other resources can be cut quickly. Doing the

same with less earns a higher grade for efficiency. In the realm of experiential learning, however, precisely what kinds of experiences deserve reduction for the sake of efficiency? Consider some examples from the pedagogies identified as high-impact practices. Student research by its nature concentrates faculty attention and institutional facilities on fewer students at a time, a far less efficient practice than convening a large lecture class. Writing-intensive and speaking-intensive coursework requires higher time investment per student (usually expressed as lower enrollment caps) due to reviewing several cycles of drafts and practicing presentations.

A deeper inconsistency lies at the heart of consumerism as a model for education. Customer satisfaction easily becomes reducible to an ethic of “please the customer.” Catering to the consumer can generate customer satisfaction, but how and to what extent does it expand student capability for thought and action? If pleasure serves as the measure for educational success, then students bear minimal responsibility. Their primary task lies in expressing what they want, and educational institutions respond by fulfilling those desires. A consumerist educational model includes no provisions for developing critical awareness, and students incur no obligations to anyone or anything not served by the pursuit of their personal desires (Schwartzman, 2001; Schwartzman & Phelps, 2002). By failing to account for how the sphere of students’ desires might expand, alter, or be challenged, educational consumerism provides at best an illusory version of consumer empowerment that never coaxes them to expand their intellectual, emotional, or spiritual frontiers. Genuine empowerment consists of far more than demanding to be served; it also embraces the capacity to serve others. While the marketplace measures success by what one can get, one important measure of a person’s value in a democratic society consists of what one is willing to give.

COUNTERACTING CONSUMERISM

Even the Rolling Stones recognized that “You Can’t Always Get What You Want.” Despite that revelation, the consumerist approach attempts to maximize student satisfaction by (a) uncritically validating desires by striving to fulfill them, (b) incorporating no mechanism to distinguish momentary whims from genuine needs, (c) reducing educators to instruments for fulfilling desires. The fundamental drawback of this approach lies in its utter amorality, since the acquisition of whatever is wanted—equivalent to producing the goods—takes precedence over how desires are shaped or what value they have. In short, each individual’s ability to acquire the goods outweighs the collective pursuit of the good. Adopting terminology from *The Good Society*, there remains a pressing need to rethink education, to transform (or reclaim)

it from “infrastructure for competition” and treat it “more as an invaluable resource in the search for the common good” (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1992, p. 175).

Many types of applied learning deliberately place students in situations where outcomes are underdetermined. If students face the challenge of an environment less structured than their traditional class format, they may embrace the opportunity to exercise leadership by setting goals and developing procedures (Crutsinger, Pookulangara, & Tran, 2004). For example, how does a student conduct conversations with people who speak a different language? How does a student cope with a community partner who has no access to social networking tools or clients whose availability does not match the student’s schedule? Contrary to the consumer model, the educational value of these situations is proportionate to the degree they *do not* satisfy student desires for ease and convenience. Violating expectations can have a positive effect by encouraging students to develop flexibility and to become focused on desires other than their own. Instead of confirming existent expectations, novel forms of experience challenge expectations. Fitting within the known comfort zone satisfies consumers. Education begins by cracking the carapace that ensconces students in the familiar.

Applied learning, if carefully practiced, can refine the processes students employ to gain knowledge. As subsequent discussion will reveal, Holocaust survivors exemplify some modes of appropriating experiences that equip them with moral and intellectual habits. Here a “habit” designates a value-infused commitment to act in certain ways. Approached in the context of social responsibility, habits remind each social actor that personal choices carry implications for others. This value-laden component of action falls beyond the purview of educational consumerism. The terminology of “habits” intentionally departs from the more familiar approach to measuring “learning outcomes,” usually defined as quantifiable improvements in performing specific tasks. Much like Aristotle sought to build character (*ēthos*) through virtue—the disposition to act ethically—rather than through encouragement of individual ethical acts, the greatest value of applied learning may lie in the cultivation of habits crucially important in fostering peaceful, collaborative, and innovative human communities (Bellah et al., 1985).

BUILDING RESPONSIBLE GLOBAL CITIZENS

The ability to navigate a multicultural environment, including increasingly diverse workplaces and educational institutions, qualifies as a vital skill whose importance will only increase throughout the 21st century. The American Association of Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) encourages study abroad as a means for developing global

citizens, which requires the ability to cooperate—rather than simply compete—across cultural divides to cope with issues that transcend national boundaries (Lewin, 2009). These pressing matters include poverty, hunger, environmental degradation, terrorism, oppression, and threats of genocide. Yet, sheer geographic mobility, with its attendant exposure to different nations and cultures, may provide an insufficiently robust experience to cultivate global citizenship.

Exposure to unfamiliar experiences provides a necessary but not a sufficient condition for reaping the rewards attendant to intercultural competence (Leung & Chiu, 2008). Creative problem-solving skills would seem to increase as students gain exposure to different perspectives and ways of life. This expansion of one's perception of possibilities should encourage approaching challenges in novel ways as a student broadens the perspectives of potential responses beyond familiar, culturally bound repertoires. Recent and emerging research on international experiences reveals that mere exposure to new cultures, while helpful, does not in itself trigger the benefit of increased creativity. Presumably, any contact with another culture would lead to at least an incremental improvement in open-mindedness and a concomitant reduction in ethnocentrism. Apparently the experience of interfacing two or more cultures through actively comparing them yields greater cognitive dividends than passive observation (Maddux, Leung, Chiu, & Galinsky, 2009). This point may explain why traveling abroad does not seem to stimulate the same kinds of creative thinking observed in research on students who have lived abroad (Leung, Maddux, Galinsky, & Chi-yue, 2008; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). The tourist is less likely to encounter situations that require adopting a native culture's perspective and departing from one's own cultural comfort zone. As a result, the more students are in positions that require them to adapt to unfamiliar cultural surroundings, the more facility they tend to exhibit on tasks that require creative thinking. Specifically, three conditions must be fulfilled for intercultural experiences to generate an expansion of creative capacity: "(a) whether the experience allows for juxtaposition and integration of cultural differences, (b) whether the individual is open to new ideas, and (c) whether the multicultural context encourages learning and minimizes the need for firm answers and existential anxiety" (Leung et al., 2008, p. 179).

These findings raise important and as yet unresolved challenges for various means of internationalizing college life or improving intercultural competencies. First, what threshold level of intercultural experiences can yield substantial, long-term educational benefits? The answer to this question requires confronting how to judge the depth and breadth of intercultural immersion. Tools such as those provided by Rodenberg (in this issue) can assist in institution-wide assessments.

Such matrices also hold significant promise for micro-level analyses of specific co-curricular programs and academic courses.

Second, how can the benefits of study abroad and other international experiences be replicated domestically, either in local communities or within campuses? At stake in this challenge is the potential to extend the reach of deep immersion in other cultures while reducing the financial and logistical demands these experiences place on students and educational institutions. Answering this question becomes more pressing in an economic and political environment that increasingly treats foreign travel as a luxury. Evaluated by standards of efficiency, crudely summarized in terms of resources expended per student or credit hour, travel abroad seems an expensive investment. What techniques, however, can engage students deeply enough in intercultural experiences to disrupt their frames of reference, stimulating them to explore other cultures in order to “find their feet” on unfamiliar cultural territory (Philipsen, 2010)? Schwartzman and Henry (2009), for example, proposed exploring the role that simulations and other technologies might play in instigating or deepening intercultural experiences. Other, “lower tech” methods could include altering the sites of coursework or other student activities to engage directly with domestic cultural diversity, such as different ethnic groups residing in surrounding communities. Campus-community collaborations might germinate “study away” programs that highlight the cultural diversity—racial, class, ethnic, or otherwise—in the immediate environs of the campus. Overall, intercultural experiences need to occur with sufficient intensity and duration to exert lasting influence on student attitudes and behaviors. Intercultural projects of longer duration enhance the formation of long-term, close relationships with community partners and peers (Pettigrew, 1998).

Sheer exposure to diverse populations does not suffice as a reliable stimulus for engaging with diverse ideas. Appreciation of another culture does not necessarily translate into directly confronting the systemic social structures and practices that affect a culture’s status and acceptance in a different cultural environment. Put simply, intercultural appreciation differs from deep immersion into the dynamics of how different cultures function relative to each other. That deeper level of engagement implicates power structures that merit critical examination if the relationships between cultures are to be understood. By fostering direct intercultural experiences, applied learning can foster critical intercultural consciousness, which probes beneath and beyond aesthetic intercultural appreciation. The difference between these orientations has profound consequences.

Aesthetic intercultural appreciation relies on a premise of accepting the inherent value of all cultures. This presumption provides a necessary (albeit not sufficient) foundation for navigating one’s way

across various cultures. Critical intercultural consciousness rests on more of a political than an aesthetic foundation. Critical intercultural consciousness focuses primarily on the conditions that foreground cultural identity issues, particularly concrete situations that amplify or diminish the power of one culture vis-à-vis another. Applied learning offers especially fertile—one might even contend, the only—ground for recognizing how these power discrepancies play out “on the ground”: by directly observing or participating in the lived practice of specific cultural groups. For example, the aesthetic intercultural appreciation that operates in principle throughout the United States—as expressed in idealistic endorsements of universal respect for people of all heritages—may fracture in the face of suspicions that arise with the arrival of refugees from unfamiliar places with practices that distinguish them from “mainstream” Americans. While aesthetic intercultural appreciation may gloss over cultural migration as a process of “blending in,” a more critical approach would investigate the ways that cultures negotiate their identities relative to one another (Kinefuchi, 2010).

Applied learning can foment critical intercultural consciousness by locating educational experiences squarely amid the often messy, continually renegotiated interfaces between cultures, thereby stimulating the cultural comparisons that maximize educational benefits. A basic principle to move toward this critical edge of applied learning would be to cultivate experiences that lie at sites of cultural disruptions and the adjustments they instigate. Too often, the immersion metaphor invites portraying cultural encounters as one culture enveloping another. The turbidity of intercultural waters may expose immersion as far too simple a master metaphor for this realm of applied learning. Immersion by itself does not equip students to plot a course through the rapids and eddies that characterize many intercultural encounters.

The critical aspects of intercultural applied learning carry special importance in the current economic and social climate. The growing popularity of right-wing, anti-immigrant political sentiment in the United States and Europe makes the need for conceiving groups in non-mutually exclusive terms particularly urgent. Research on study abroad notes that these programs stimulate creativity only if the participants maintain a high level of openness to altering their cognitive patterns (Leung & Chiu, 2008). Thinking in novel ways presumes openness to change, the willingness to risk the uncertainty involved in questioning and potentially departing from familiar cultural and intellectual territory. This openness to opportunities that might arise captures one aspect of how some survivors reclaimed life after the Holocaust.

WHAT CAN HOLOCAUST SURVIVORS TEACH ABOUT APPLIED LEARNING?

The personal testimonies of Holocaust survivors furnish an unexpected source of insight regarding applied learning. My research involves gathering first-person narratives from people who directly experienced some aspect of the Holocaust, such as concentration camps, forced labor, hiding, fleeing, resisting, or rescuing. These interviews, augmented by archived audiovisual and written first-person testimonies, provide important cases for the study of applied learning. In addition to shedding light on individual experiences of trauma, the narratives demonstrate crucial characteristics of how to learn from experience. Witnesses to events of the Holocaust testify not only about what they underwent but also about what they made of their experiences. Besides triggering reflection on what happened in the past, the testimonies illuminate what resources these experiences can provide. More broadly, what lessons do the coping mechanisms of Holocaust survivors hold for understanding how to learn from even the most undesirable experiences? Far beyond serving as living lessons about the Holocaust, personal testimonies perform a more generalizable service: revealing the capacity of experience to build character.

ACTIVATING AGENCY

The testimonies of Holocaust survivors suggest that experiential learning can instill a greater sense of agency among participants. Rather than lament the toughness of the times, applied learning can activate the capacity to craft what the times can offer. Shelly W. eluded the Nazis by hiding on a farm where she stayed amid pig sties and other refuges her pursuers might overlook. She emphasizes the reclamation of personal agency after her experience of being hunted as prey:

We can all have the power to affect the people around us and that was my way of dealing with it. Is that I can do something. I can do a little something. So that's what I do with my life. That's what I've done with my life. That's how I deal with it.

Shelly recounts no epiphanies from her humiliation, nor does she expect or demand a comprehensive resolution to the question of what she and others can do to prevent future genocides. She can offer, however, a resource available to everyone: a constant readiness to take action.

Shelly's assertion of agency embodies an approach to learning that differs from, and perhaps challenges, more familiar attitudes toward

education. That difference can be captured with images from the animal realm. Imagine the learner as a wild animal in unfamiliar surroundings. The learner who maximizes personal agency could be envisioned as always in a state of readiness, poised to act when the opportunity arises. More passive models of learning would employ phrasing such as “receptiveness” or “openness to new ideas” to describe an enthusiastic learner. Active learning describes more than a pedagogical approach; it highlights the conjunction between thinking and doing. Too often the receptive learner becomes the received knower who waits to get instructions—a faithful follower but an impotent initiator. Furthermore, mere openness provides insufficient resources for rendering decisions, especially deciding to intervene on moral grounds. Open minds can yield empty heads unless the moral grounds for constructive intervention are cultivated. Jack V., whose family hid Jews and other refugees in Holland during the Holocaust, states that they felt the moral imperative to help neighbors in need. Jack’s simple statement, “This is what I was always taught,” makes moral commitments and the obligation to perform them inseparable.

Barnett Pearce (2007) contrasts spectator knowledge with participatory knowledge. The spectator concept of knowledge positions the knower as an observer who reports but does not (and, epistemologically speaking, cannot) alter what is being observed. A proper observer maintains detachment from observed phenomena, which are classified as objects of study. Participatory knowledge, more akin to the type of learning that would accompany activities that foster social justice, places the knower as a co-creator of knowledge. Participatory knowers incur an obligation to interact with their subjects of study, and this direct involvement opens the knower to being influenced. The different terminology describing the spectator’s “objects” of study and the participant’s “subjects” of study encapsulates the relational nature of participatory knowledge. These epistemological positions also implicate divergent views of the relationship between the knower and the known. Unlike spectators, participants acknowledge and embrace the opportunity to interact with the conditions they study.

From a social perspective, applied learning qualifies as fundamentally participatory. The type of participation suggested here goes beyond merely taking action. It implies assuming the moral responsibility to contribute to the rectification of manifest social ills. Experiential learning mandates some degree of activism. Jola Schulsinger Hoffman, who endured the Warsaw ghetto and subsequent slave labor in Breslau, testifies to how her experiences have cultivated an activist imperative.

The meaning is that you make your life worthwhile. You do what you can. ... Maybe that's why I wanted to work in the city, because I wanted to see what it's like to be in there, to be an activist. Not just to sit back and say, "It's there, but there's nothing I can do about it." (Preil, 2001)

Many students and instructors seem to expect drastic attitudinal or behavioral changes from applied learning. They rationalize that the intensity of direct experience amplifies educational results. Customary modes of assessment may tend to reinforce this expectation. The greater the amplitude of change, the greater the presumed effect of the experience. As if experiencing a Pauline conversion, the ethnocentric student who studies abroad returns internationalized; the effete socialite becomes a community activist after undergoing service-learning; the apathetic laggard engages in undergraduate research and becomes an academic. While these hypotheticals qualify as wishful fantasies, they illustrate a point about assessments of quality that measure only *what* students believe or do. Just as the literary classics "are worth studying as examples of *how* to think, not of *what* to think" (Barzun, 1959, p. 275), applied learning might prove its mettle by equipping students with the knowledge of navigating processes for taking action. For example, research collaborations between students and faculty do generate knowledge about the topic being studied, but the transferable skills from this activity extend beyond field-specific knowledge. Students become familiar not only with methods of inquiry, but also with navigating processes such as the bureaucratic procedures of getting approval for research involving human subjects or the mechanisms of applying for grants. The willingness to act couples with the ability to implement actions.

OPENNESS TO POSSIBILITIES

George K., a Hungarian Jew who served for a year in a forced labor camp, walked more than 360 miles—often barefoot—to find loved ones in Budapest after liberation. He observes that he and his wife (the primary focus of his journey) "have a good life now," and his wife interjects mid-sentence, "the foundation, the foundation from the beginning—hard work." Her comment refers to the willingness to work for the sake of the relationship, and it contrasts sharply with the involuntary labor performed by George as a sheer instrument to execute orders. George and his wife Susanna note his voluntary work ethic as a way to activate opportunities to make a future for the couple. Susanna notes: "He, wherever he went in life, he... went to work right away, the next day. The next day in America." In contrast to forced labor as an imposi-

tion of work, voluntary labor provided a means for George and Susanna to remake their identities and certify their status as genuine Americans. Susanna narrates:

We were here two weeks in America, just we went to an empty apartment and [George] said, "Susie, I am taking a second job. I don't want to wear any more European clothing. The first money is going to you. The second money, I dress up."

For George and others in the labor camps, compulsory labor had no purpose other than to mark them as instruments of someone else's will. If work has any potential for personal enrichment, it should offer creative opportunities to make meaning, to explore possibilities rather than passively follow instructions. Similarly, learning through experience activates the quest for knowledge that opens lines of inquiry, fueling curiosity instead of quelling it. Applied learning operates less as a pursuit of definitive answers than as an ongoing prospect for making meaning (Mortimer & Scott, 2003). Recast in literary terms, the uncertainties of learning in underdetermined conditions beyond the safety nets of explicitly codified course policies and student-centered guidelines preserve an open-ended plot line to enact the story of learning.

The desire to keep the story of learning alive, to avoid premature narrative closure, preserves hope. Morris Bergen, a veteran of the Tarnów ghetto in Poland as well as six concentration camps, points to the open-ended texture of experience as crucial to enduring even the worst conditions.

I guess, I had hope, only because I was curious to know what's going to happen. This...partially kept me alive, I am sure. Just, the curiosity. And I think a lot of people...if you ask them, you will find they feel the same way. Curiosity made you stay. (Preil, 2001)

Morris identifies the potential to explore where his story might go as a central factor in his survival instinct. The capacity not only to witness but to influence the course of events transformed Morris from a victimized object to an active participant in his own life story.

Morris' testimony furnishes a microcosmic version of the spirit pragmatists hope to cultivate in higher education. Richard Rorty (1999) articulates the vision "that the social function of American colleges is to help the students see that the national narrative around which their socialization has centered is an open-ended one" (p. 124). Rather than treat social conditions as ineluctable, immutable "givens," creative

meaning-making enlists students as authors of their own future. The perspectives of Holocaust survivors again offer insight. Walter Z., who lived through seven slave labor and death camps, instructively titled his unpublished memoir *In Search of God*. The title refers not simply to the challenge to theology posed by the horrors of the Holocaust, but more generally to Walter's lifelong dedication to inquiry and commitment to the ongoing creation of meaning.

Students who get involved in experiences beyond the classroom recognize that they partake of something larger than themselves. Class sessions and coursework are bounded by academic calendars and daily time slots, reaching closure by sealing the record with final grades. Many students recognize, however, that the clientele a community organization serves will still have unmet needs after a service-learning project concludes. The questions addressed by an undergraduate research project will persist, inviting new intellectual explorations. It is not unusual to find students extending and deepening the experiences that they embarked on beyond their formal forays into applied learning. For example, several service-learning project participants in my courses have gone on to work with AmeriCorps and other service organizations.

RESILIENCE AND CREATIVE ADAPTABILITY

Ample scholarly and clinical attention has been devoted to the resilience of Holocaust survivors. Although the term's meaning fluctuates somewhat in the literature, resilience generally refers to the ability to withstand and creatively cope with disruptive change (Greene, 2010b). Rather than focus on pathologizing Holocaust survivors by casting them solely as victims of trauma, resilience calls attention to the resources survivors bring to bear in coming to terms with the challenges they have faced. One aspect of resilience involves adapting to uncertainty and recovering from setbacks.

Many educators express surprise at how readily students become stymied or discouraged when they must fend for themselves beyond the nurturing walls of academia. In service-learning projects, for instance, students who may perform admirably on traditional tests or papers may encounter difficulties with practical tasks such as leaving coherent telephone messages, confirming appointments, or responding promptly to community partners. The gap between student expectations and the reality of many applied learning environments highlights deficits in important life skills for navigating uncertainty.

A major impediment to successful student involvement in applied learning lies in student unfamiliarity with underdetermined educational environments (Schwartzman, 2009). Students who study abroad must

find their way amid unfamiliar cultural practices and outlooks. Living abroad or amid unfamiliar surroundings can call into question some of the taken-for-granted truisms of a student's native culture. Service-learning often requires placing the needs of community partners first, such as recognizing that scheduling generally does not obey academic calendars. Students who engage in original research projects quickly find that they must depart from the familiar territory of recapitulating the textbook. Such forays into unexplored intellectual ground form the hallmarks of applied learning, yet they fly in the face of the pedagogical practices encouraged and rewarded by consumerist approaches to education. Many students recoil from encounters with values that do not conform to those they already hold, believing that the function of education is to confirm pre-existing beliefs instead of question, expand, or otherwise scrutinize them. This form of withdrawal qualifies as a type of resilience, albeit an unhealthy one, as it simply minimizes risk instead of enriching the repertoire of responses to the unknown (Fos-sion, Rejas, Pelc, Linkowski, & Hirsch, 2006).

The turtle-like withdrawal into the shell of familiarity parallels the emotional numbing that some Holocaust survivors experience. Lisbeth Brodie-Judelowitsch, a laborer at Pawiak Prison in Warsaw, developed an emotional detachment that offered resiliency through insensitivity to the inmate agonies she witnessed.

You get so numbed that, up until now, I know that I am missing one quality. I cannot mourn. I cannot, I cannot feel the sadness that other people feel. ... There's a certain impossibility of feeling. I see and I don't see. I feel and I don't feel. As if a glass partition were between me and what was happening. (Preil, 2001)

While Lisbeth's numbing serves as a way to avoid reliving her pain, students may develop a pre-emptive emotional detachment that prevents them from deeply connecting with disadvantaged populations or unpleasant social conditions.

In many service-learning projects, for example, students may confront their own complicity in perpetuating social inequalities. Identifying oneself as part of a systematically discriminatory or oppressive social structure calls for uncomfortable confrontations with one's own values and practices. Faced with this prospect, students may implement "ego-defensive strategies" to resist the responsibility to rectify undesirable conditions (Erickson & O'Connor, 2000, p. 68). One such strategy in service-learning is to "blame the victim" by attributing the need for social services to the flawed character of service recipients, such as the need for welfare arising from supposed laziness (Hollis, 2004). This

attitude enacts a form of resiliency insofar as it protects the service provider from acknowledging any connection to the conditions that created the need for service. In this case, resilience degenerates into insensitivity to the social forces that perpetuate the need for service. The role of the service volunteer contracts to that of a provider of goods in the marketplace: meet the demand without examining why the demand exists. Like the manufacturer who relentlessly fuels consumer desire, uncritical service remains too detached from the needs of clientele to “analyze the structural inequities that create unjust and oppressive conditions,” thereby “providing what Freire called ‘false generosity’—acts of service that simply perpetuate the status quo and thus preserve the need for service” (Rosenberger, 2000, p. 33). An important social mission of service-learning, for example, lies in remediating social conditions to reduce the demand for services the students might provide. “The learning component should include not just career-oriented skills-building but critique of the social, economic, and ideological forces that generate the recurrent need for voluntary labor” (Schwartzman, 2002, p. 56).

Some Holocaust survivors describe a novel foundation for developing resilience to subsequent disruptions. This disposition, which qualifies as a habit in the sense described earlier in this essay, might bear the label “inventive audacity.” Paul G., a member of the French Foreign Legion who served in a forced labor camp during the war, relates how he obtained his first job at age 14. Paul boldly entered the fanciest hair styling salon he saw on the streets of Vienna. The boss said, “What do you want from me?” Paul responded, “I want nothing. I want to tell you one thing: you have a beautiful place here.” The boss said, “Well, thank you for the compliment.” Paul then asserted, “I would like to be an apprentice for you.” Paul continues in his own words:

So help me God that’s what I said to him. He said, “I don’t usually talk to children.” I said, “Well, I only can tell you I would love to work for you.”...“This guy,” he says, “is a little smart ass. I like him.” And off we went. That’s how I got my job.

For Paul, opportunity was not something given or found, but rather something created by having the audacity to take initiative and intervene.

The activism advocated by Holocaust survivors extends beyond simply taking initiative. They often dedicate themselves to community service as one way to resist or prevent the kinds of cruelty they witnessed and experienced (Greene, 2010a). Instead of serving as a means for fulfilling expectations or meeting requirements, action acquires a moral imperative. Lucie Pressburg Jacobson escaped from Austria on

the Kindertransport. Her mother successfully petitioned the Gestapo in Berlin to release Lucie's father from Dachau. Lucie explains that experiences are not simply events one undergoes and reflects upon. "And the whole thrust of my existence now is to let people know not only what took place but also how important it is not to be a bystander" (Preil, 2001). John Milton (2008), therefore, expressed an utterly misguided view when he concluded his sonnet "On His Blindness" with the line: "They also serve who only stand and wait" (p. 101).

CRAFTING THE CULTURE OF APPLIED LEARNING

This study has used the first-person testimony of Holocaust survivors as an entry point to fulfill Janet Eyler's (2002) charge "to look more closely at how and under what conditions service-learning may contribute to expected outcomes" (p. 11). Returning to concrete pedagogical practices, how might the conduct of applied learning develop a productive form of resilience, manifested as persistence in the face of adversity and inventiveness when confronting obstacles?

One unintended consequence of highly structured guidelines and explicit evaluation rubrics is to focus more attention on obeying instructions and meeting requirements than on exploring possibilities that the instructor has not articulated and the student has not yet recognized. Students expect/demand, and "best practices" in teaching often recommend, exercises and activities that minimize ambiguity, offer explicit instructions, and lay out concrete evaluative criteria. Such clarifications of expectations form vital parts of the educational process, but they should not limit consideration of what lies beyond the horizon of established standards. Two examples illustrate the stakes in potentially underestimating what experiential learning can offer: diversity exercises and service-learning projects.

Laudable attempts to foster tolerance of different cultures and alternative social practices may fall short of engaging diverse populations on an equal footing. In the context of attitudes related to sexual orientation, the Riddle Homophobia Scale classifies tolerance as one of the "homophobic levels of attitude." Tolerance for homosexuals translates to grudging acceptance under the assumption that homosexuality is simply a passing phase or a chimera (Wall, 1995). On the Riddle Homophobia Scale, tolerance carries patronizing connotations. By aiming only for tolerance, participants in diversity-based activities may not move toward the deeper, sustained direct engagement with diverse populations that can challenge stereotypical attitudes (Schwartzman, 2010).

Some research on service-learning expresses concern that framing experiential projects as exercises in helping unfortunate populations

may make little process toward social justice. To the contrary, these experiences can reinforce rather than rectify social privilege. This backlash may stem from beneficent motives, such as a genuine desire to leverage the advantages of whiteness to direct attention or resources toward marginalized non-white populations (Endres & Gould, 2009). One problem with this approach (aside from its elitist patronization of the populations served) lies in its symptomatic rather than systemic orientation. For example, many students who participate in service-learning become personally concerned with particular individuals among the clientele they have served. A typical case is the student who befriends elderly residents of an assisted living facility. A symptomatic orientation confines students to focusing on the individuals who have benefitted from the student's intervention. A systemic critique would investigate the socioeconomic and ethical rationales that underlie placement of elderly in such facilities.

A decade ago, Robert Putnam (2000) noted that many educational activities framed as curricular enhancements—and he specifically identified service-learning—are often seen as add-on “frills” and are some of the first to suffer cuts in economic crunches. This vulnerability can become amplified when experiential learning gets segregated from the educational core as additive requirements rather than as constitutive of what counts as education.

From a pragmatist perspective, all education begins as applied learning in the sense that it constitutes the empirical foundation as well as application of knowledge. The descriptor “applied” is not an add-on or enhancement to some sacrosanct “basics.” Special course identifiers, such as designators for service-learning versions of courses, should not be misinterpreted to position application as a removable accoutrement to “regular” coursework. Rather than designate applied learning pedagogies as “enhancements” identifiable by additional responsibilities (such as study abroad, time requirements for service, site visits, etc.), why not point out the deficiencies of curricula that lack an applied component? Such a discursive and cultural shift places the burden of proving practical relevance onto those who refrain from applied learning pedagogies. Restoring applied learning to the essence of education requires more than administrative prestidigitation with curricular requirements. A fundamental expectation of a learned person should include the demonstrable ability to practice the principles that have been taught. This expectation introduces a kind of performative requirement, to move beyond the observation of phenomena and toward enacting ways to more deeply understand, alter, or react to what has been observed.

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Assessment of Student Learning Through Journalism and Mass Communication Internships

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Under accreditation standards, journalism and mass communication programs are required to regularly assess student learning and utilize results to improve curriculum and instruction. This case study examined how an accredited journalism program utilized internships in outcomes assessment. The study revealed that the program used internships as an indirect assessment measure among its multiple assessment tools. Significantly, the study found that assessment data from internships proved to be instrumental in taking steps to improve student learning. A key challenge, however, was the complexity of measuring discipline-specific values versus competencies through the program's worksite evaluation forms.

The Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (ACEJMC) requires journalism and mass communication programs to regularly assess student learning and to use the results to improve curricula and instruction (ACEJMC, 2010a). To assess learning outcomes, the council suggests that programs use a combination of direct and indirect measurement tools (ACEJMC, 2001). Among the indirect measures that the council suggests are internships and placement data (ACEJMC, 2001).

During the academic year 2009-2010, 113 journalism and mass communication programs in the United States, and one in Chile, were accredited by the ACEJMC (2010a). Most journalism and mass communication programs highly value student participation in internships and encourage students to take them (Grady, 2006). An internship is a structured and supervised professional experience within an approved agency for which a student earns academic credit (Inkster & Ross, 1995). Nearly all journalism programs assist students in obtaining

internships because they realize that employers view internships as good markers of career readiness (Basow & Bryne, 1993). The ACEJMC (2004) also strongly encourages internships and allows programs to grant academic credit when programs supervise and evaluate these work experiences.

Getz (2001) found that not only do students hold positive perceptions about the value of internships, but students believe internships help to validate career choices. Basow and Byrne (1993) reported that students participate in internships for a variety of reasons, including “to practice what they have learned, to acquire new skills, to sample potential careers, to assess their employability, to seek mentoring, and to make contacts, as well as to earn academic credit or payment” (p. 52). Likewise, Grady (2006) reported that the benefits of internships include résumé building, enhanced practical knowledge, improvement in writing and production skills, and access to professional-level equipment.

Inkster and Ross’s (1995) work, *The Internship as Partnership: A Handbook for Campus-Based Coordinators and Advisors*, asserts that the academic internship coordinator, the worksite supervisor, and the intern represent a “three-person partnership” (p. 12). The agreement should address learning goals, resources, activities, responsibilities of the intern, and criteria for assessing and monitoring the intern’s work (Inkster & Ross, 1995, p. 12).

In journalism and mass communication programs, Basow and Byrne (1993) reported academic internship advisers play a key role in the success of internships. These internship advisers often develop contacts with professionals willing to work with student interns, act as coordinators between internship applicants and worksite supervisors, oversee the completion of requirements, and counsel students about career issues (Basow & Byrne, 1993). Grady (2006) suggested that a number of internship work requirements could be utilized for evaluative purposes, including the following:

- Daily or weekly diary, journal, or calendar of events
- Description or discussion of formal and informal tasks completed
- Reports on books or readings pertinent to employer or type of work

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- Portfolio of work completed during internship
- Papers based on interviews with significant personnel in the company or organization
- Final report or reflection paper
- Debriefing session with academic supervisor
- Worksite supervisor evaluation
- Student evaluation of the worksite and internship experience (p. 356)

During the 2005-2006 academic year, the ACEJMC (2005) began to apply the assessment requirement to its accreditation reviews. *Assessment of student learning*, as defined by Walvoord (2004), is “the systematic collection of information about student learning, using the time, knowledge, expertise, and resources available, in order to inform decisions about how to improve learning” (p. 2). Astin (1991) further framed it as follows:

The role of assessment is to enhance the feedback available to faculty and staff in order to assist them in becoming more effective practitioners. Assessment, in other words, is a technology that educational practitioners can use to enhance the feedback concerning the impact of their educational practices and policies. (p. 130)

As noted, the ACEJMC (2001) recommends that programs apply multiple assessment measures, including indirect and direct measures of student learning. Internship supervisor surveys are among the indirect measures that a journalism and mass communication program could utilize to measure student learning (ACEJMC, 2001). In regard to internships as an indirect measure, the council encourages programs to perform “regular compilation, comparison and analysis over time” (ACEJMC, 2001, p. 4) of the numbers and proportions of students who seek and find internships. The council also recommends that programs systematically analyze evaluations by worksite supervisors and utilize results to improve curriculum and instruction (ACEJMC, 2001, p. 4). Other indirect assessment measures for program assessment include grade distribution; student retention and graduation rates; probation and dismissal data; student performance in local, regional, and national contests; alumni and student surveys, and student exit interviews (ACEJMC, 2001). By comparison, direct measures of student learning include student performance in capstone courses; pretest/posttest evaluations; sectional and department exams; and portfolio evaluations, including student work from professional internships (ACEJMC, 2001). Highlighting how internships also could be utilized as a direct measure

of assessment, Foote (2006) pointed out that employers “are in a position to rate directly the competence of the student and their prospect in the marketplace” (p. 486), and thus “the rating of individual students’ professional performance in a systematic way provides a valuable, direct measure of assessment” (p. 486).

Even prior to the creation of the ACEJMC’s assessment standard, however, some journalism and mass communication programs had utilized internships as a tool for assessment (Graham, Bourland-Davis, & Fulmer, 1997; Vicker, 2002). In a study utilizing narrative accounts by interns, Graham et al. (1997) found, for example, that internships were useful in identifying strengths and weaknesses of a public relations program, and that internship feedback provided empirically driven justification for program changes (p. 203). Vicker (2002) found that worksite supervisor evaluations assisted in identifying strengths and weaknesses of a program.

In the present study, the four research questions were: (a) What specific learning outcomes are measured through the internship experience in journalism and mass communication? (b) In what ways does the program collect data from internship experiences for learning outcomes assessment? (c) In what ways does the program use results from internship assessments to improve the academic experience? and (d) What are the challenges to successful implementation of assessment when internships are utilized to measure student learning?

METHOD

This study employed a qualitative, case study design and was conducted at a comprehensive institution that offers more than 40 undergraduate fields of study, including a journalism and mass communication program that is accredited by the ACEJMC. Data were collected through institutional documents (e.g., internship evaluation forms, assessment reports) and 16 face-to-face participant interviews, including interviews with three administrators, three faculty, six students, two worksite supervisors, and two staff members—the program’s internship director and the university career center experiential education director. Administrator and faculty study participants had worked on assessment issues in the course of their departmental activities; student participants had completed internship experiences; worksite supervisors had supervised interns from the program; the internship director had responsibility for implementing the internship program; and the experiential education director’s office had conducted an attitudinal survey of student interns.

In data collection and analysis, the study utilized an interview strategy that allowed for open-ended questioning and a conversational

style, but centered on a core group of four specific interview questions. Those interview questions were: a) Identify and describe specific learning outcomes assessed in internships; b) Identify and describe methods for assessing student learning outcomes during internships; c) Identify and describe ways internship data are used to improve curriculum, instruction, and student learning; and d) Identify and describe challenges to implementation of assessment using internship data. The interviews were conducted on the campus. Participants were requested to sign an informed consent statement that indicated that they understood the purpose of the research, the voluntary nature of their participation, their right to terminate participation at any time during the study, and assurance of confidentiality related to their participation. Interviews were the primary source of data, but supplemental sources of data included a course handbook, assessment report, program self-study report, and internship evaluation and registration forms. In data analysis, the study employed the constant comparative method, an analytical method frequently used in case study educational research (Merriam, 1998). Unites of data were sorted and coded into groupings. Patterns that surfaced became categories, or themes of the study, which were compared for relationships and differences.

RESULTS

SPECIFIC LEARNING OUTCOMES MEASURED THROUGH INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCES

Two dominant findings emerged in regard to the specific learning outcomes measured through internship data. First, the program adopted nine of 11 values and competencies cited in accrediting standards as the specific learning outcomes measured through internships. Following this study, in the Fall of 2009, the ACEJMC (2009) amended its standards, and added to the list of professional values and competencies that students should learn and programs should measure. In addition to the values and competencies recommended by the accrediting body, the program also measured general workplace behavioral skills, such as punctuality and reliability. All learning outcomes were measured through worksite supervisor surveys.

This study finding—highlighting the impact of accreditation standards on assessment—was corroborated in other research that demonstrates the growing influence of disciplinary accrediting organizations over assessment of student learning (Whittlesey, 2005). In the case under study, faculty held discussions in which they decided that the ACEJMC recommended learning outcomes aligned with key values and competencies advocated by the faculty.

The specific learning outcomes measured during assessment were: (a) applying ethical ways of thinking, (b) knowing history and roles of media, (c) communicating to diverse audiences, (d) writing clearly and accurately, (e) using technology, (f) applying concepts in presenting information, (g) conducting research and evaluating information, (h) interpreting data and statistics, (i) being creative, and (j) thinking analytically.

Faculty and staff participants particularly stressed that general workplace skills, such as reliability and punctuality, contribute to success and failure in the workplace and should be assessed, in addition to the discipline-specific values and competencies recommended by the ACEJMC. This finding is in alignment with literature recommending the measurement of general workplace behavior skills, in addition to the discipline-specific competencies (Hurd & Schlatter, 2007). The nine general workplace competencies assessed through internships in this program were (a) works independently, (b) evaluates work of self and others, (c) understands law and issues in the workplace, (d) clear presentation skills, (e) good interpersonal skills, (f) reliability and punctuality, (g) appropriate appearance, (h) takes constructive criticism, and (i) completes work on time.

DATA FROM INTERNSHIPS

The second research question examined the ways in which the program collects data from internship experiences for learning outcomes assessment. The study revealed that data were collected through five means: worksite supervisor evaluations of interns, university visits to work sites, direct student feedback, descriptive records, and a survey of interns. The following discussion offers more detail concerning this finding.

Worksite supervisor evaluations. Administrators, faculty, and staff agreed that worksite supervisor evaluations were the most crucial means of gathering data for assessment through internship experiences. Worksite supervisor evaluations offer a reality check by an important, external stakeholder group. As one administrator put it, “We have some internal ways of doing assessment, but this is a nice external way. It involves someone who is not on our payroll.” The importance of feedback from worksite supervisors is reflected in assessment literature suggesting that such measurements by employer supervisors offer an opportunity “for feedback and curricular change with a cycle time that can address rapidly changing employer needs and expectations” (Brumm, Hanneman, & Mickelson, 2006, p.127).

Direct student feedback. Though all study participants acknowledged the importance of employer feedback, faculty study participants

repeatedly underscored the value of another type of feedback—the direct feedback to faculty from students returning from their internships. This finding is in alignment with assessment literature (Beard, 2007), which suggests that post-internship discussions with students with regard to outcomes can impact both curricular, and teaching and learning strategies. In the present study, faculty felt that direct conversations with students allowed them to pose follow-up questions about internship experiences and to confirm or disaffirm classroom teaching/learning tactics. Faculty also found that this direct student feedback opened the gateway for worksite supervisors to interact even further with students and faculty, in the form of speaking engagements and other activities. A faculty participant illustrated this finding:

I will debrief all of my students about their internships because I want to know what's going on in the business. What are news directors saying? What reinforces what I'm saying in the classroom? What counters what I'm saying in the classroom? What's new in the business? You thought your news director was brilliant. Do you think she'll come and talk to our class?

Worksite visits. Inkster and Ross (1995) reported that visits to internship work sites offer an excellent opportunity to see interns in action and to observe their interactions with others. At the program under study, visits to internship work sites were another way that the program collected data for assessment purposes. Although site visits by the program were sporadic during the assessment cycle under study, participants reported that these visits allowed the program to observe internship performance and reactions to performance at the work site. Study participants reported that these observations helped the program to affirm firsthand how skills and competencies are demonstrated at the work sites.

Intern survey. Students reported that a confidential online survey administered by the college offered them yet another way to give feedback about their internship experiences. The survey queried students about career and learning-related issues, including connections they perceive between knowledge gained in the classroom and worksite expectations. One student described the benefits of such a survey: "Doing an internship, you're not in the classroom. So, the survey was helpful, as far as getting that information about our internships out to everyone. It was a good idea."

The literature reveals that student surveys are appropriate to utilize as indirect sources of information about factors that may "contribute to or detract from student learning" (Lopez, 2002, p. 361) but should not be substituted for direct measurements of student learning. As Lopez

(2002) explained, student surveys “provide only participants’ opinions on how much they have learned” (p. 361), though such information could be useful when triangulated with data from other measures of learning.

Descriptive records. In the program under study, descriptive records, such as the types and numbers of internships, were systematically analyzed and maintained in assessment records (see Tables 1 and 2).

Table 1. Internships/Work Experiences/Credit Hours for School of Communications, 2004-2005

	Summer 2004	Fall 2004	Winter 2005	Spring 2005	Year totals
Internships	63	11	26	33	133
Noncredit work experiences	7	0	1	1	9
Credit hour experiences					
0	7	0	1	1	9
1	17	4	15	10	46
2	25	5	11	15	56
3	1	1	0	0	2
4	20	1	0	8	29

Source: 2005 Program Assessment Report

Table 2. Internship/Work Experiences by Site Category for Winter/Spring 2005

Internship/work experience	Percentage
Television station or network	28%
Nonprofit organization (PR/advertising, media relations/marketing)	15%
For-profit company (PR/advertising, media relations/marketing)	13%
Newspaper	11%
Sports team or conference (PR/advertising, media relations/marketing)	11%
Video/TV production/distribution	7%
Radio station or network	4%
Magazine	4%
Book publishing company	4%
Audio/music production/distribution	4%

Source: 2005 Program Assessment Report

Administrators described descriptive records as another method by which the program collects data for assessment purposes. According to administrators, these data provide an opportunity to observe trend lines reflecting student access to internship opportunities and changes in the journalism and mass communications employment fields.

The assessment literature acknowledges that academic programs gather such descriptive data, but the literature (Lopez, 1997) also describes these data as "non-measures" (p. 15) that do not offer evidence of student learning. Administrators of this program also recognize that descriptive data do not offer evidence of student learning, but they believe these descriptive data are useful for spotting trend lines in internship opportunities and employment.

WAYS THE PROGRAM USES ASSESSMENT RESULTS

The third research question examined the ways that the program utilized results from internship assessments to improve the academic experience. Assessment research (Nichols, 1995) has argued that to "close the loop" (p. 50), or to use the results of the assessment to take action to improve the program, is the bottom line of assessment. This research showed that the program under study utilized internship assessment data to make changes designed to improve the academic experience. In summary, the program utilized internship assessment results in the following specific ways: to strengthen ties with worksite supervisors, to contribute to discussions leading to a new course, to update weekly journal assignments, to stimulate conversations about student learning, and to validate teaching and learning strategies. The following discussion offers more detail concerning this finding.

Strengthen ties with internship worksite supervisors. The study found that programs made a decision to strengthen ties with internship worksite supervisors, rather than restrict access to internships, after examining survey data from internships. A survey, administered by the college, found that only 60% of interns said they felt prepared for their internships. Administrators speculated that students might naturally feel intimidated in a new work setting. Or, as an alternate explanation, sophomore-level interns who responded to the survey might feel inadequate because they had not yet taken upper-level courses. Because the program encourages students to do multiple internships, program administrators decided to continue the practice of access to internships for sophomore-level students too, but to work more closely with worksite supervisors to match students to appropriate internships.

Contribute to discussions about a new writing course. In another action stemming from assessment, a new writing course was created for corporate communications students. The research reveals that this

action came after two events: First, a faculty member heard from interns that some students felt unprepared for writing assignments at their internship worksites; and second, during a series of meetings about assessment, the faculty uncovered a gap in writing instruction. As a result, the faculty decided to create a new writing course for one of its concentrations.

Update weekly journal writing assignments. The study showed that another action resulting from assessment was the decision to key questions on internship journal-writing assignments to the professional values and competencies cited in the assessment plan. During discussions about assessment data, administrators noticed that discipline-specific values and competencies were being measured through worksite supervisor evaluations, but they were not being examined through questions in the journal-writing assignments for interns. As a result of assessment, the program began to include questions about discipline-specific values and competencies in the internship writing assignments.

Stimulate conversations about student learning. The program utilized assessment results to stimulate conversations about student learning. Administrators and faculty believed that an important outgrowth of assessment through internships, as well as through other assessment measures, is the conversation it stimulates about student learning. Study participants believe that assessment has spurred important discussions about student learning. Offering an example, the internship director recalled conversations at one work site in which an employer suggested additional learning outcomes that the program should address. Upon returning to the institution, the internship director passed along this feedback to an individual faculty member. The internship coordinator also decided to address this and other internship feedback with faculty at an appointed time each year, either at the annual faculty retreat or another appropriate venue.

Validate classroom instructional approaches. Finally, this study revealed that faculty participants utilized assessment results to validate classroom instructional approaches. In other words, faculty participants reported that assessment results helped them to reflect on teaching/learning strategies. The assessment literature (Beard, 2007) also argues that faculty and students benefit from the integration of internship feedback into classroom activities. In the present study, faculty participants reported that they compared feedback about intern experiences with their teaching/learning goals. As one faculty member put it, "I look at what I am doing in my classes, my organizational communication, my television production, or whatever it is I am doing, and how it is in line with what they were expected to do."

CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED WITH ASSESSMENT

The fourth research question in this study investigated the challenges to successful implementation of assessment when internships are utilized to measure student learning. Three key challenges surfaced: (a) complexity involved in measuring values versus competencies through worksite supervisor evaluation forms; (b) wide variance of internships in location, nature, and type; and (c) absence of timely feedback during internships. The following discussion offers more detail concerning these findings.

Complexity of Measuring Values. A key challenge encountered in assessment was the complexity of measuring professional values versus competencies through worksite supervisor evaluation forms. The program defined *professional values* as ways of thinking about issues such as truth, accuracy and fairness, and ethical habits of thinking. Professional competencies included such issues as the ability to write clearly and accurately and the use of technology. Perplexingly, nearly one-third of the worksite supervisors in the assessment cycle under study responded that two of three values questions on the internship evaluation form were not applicable to their interns. Even prior to the assessment cycle under study, the academic program had already experienced similar difficulties with responses to the internship evaluation form and, as a result, had deleted two other values questions from the evaluation form for interns. Said one administrator, "It seemed reasonable to conclude that many supervisors did not feel comfortable evaluating or thought questions about these values were not applicable to their work environment."

A worksite supervisor and another administrator study participant pondered yet another explanation: Perhaps the questions on the evaluation form needed to be clarified. As the administrator put it,

We hope that the instrument is clear in the way that it's formulated. I don't know that we know that completely, but I think the questions on the evaluation instrument are fairly straightforward and clear. It could be that we could do a better job of describing for each employer what those questions really mean.

The complexity of measuring values is cited in psychology literature, which argues that values cannot be measured directly, but rather can only be inferred from what a person says or does (Domino & Domino, 2006, p. 141). One worksite supervisor in the present study explained the difficulty in measuring values, saying, "Obviously it's easier for me to see that this person can write or spell," but harder to

evaluate that person's values. That sentiment was echoed by an administrator participant as well. "So, it's not a perfect match," the administrator study participant concluded, adding,

It seemed to actually work better with competencies because supervisors know if that intern was a good writer or not, or if the intern understands technology or not, or seems to show that they can think critically or creatively. So, we found that our instrument feedback on internships fit the competencies better than the values.

Wide Variety of Internships. Program administrators considered yet another challenge of utilizing internships in assessment: the difficulty of collectively analyzing assessment results from such a wide variety of journalism and mass communications internships. In the program under study, all students were required to participate in either an internship for credit, or a non-credit professional work experience. Internship experiences in the program under study varied extensively in location, nature, and type. The type of work sites ranged, for example, from newspapers and television stations to book publishing and music production. As one administrator put it,

[Internships are] difficult to compare. Therefore, the kinds of questions, and the kinds of assignments that we create in an attempt to get at [student learning], must be very general in nature. The best we can do is generalize about the experiences overall, and that's what we're trying to do.

Administrator participants in this study, however, concluded that they gleaned valuable information for assessment purposes from internships. They decided that information from these diverse work settings—collected and analyzed over time—could help to detect trend lines in internship opportunities and the employment field.

Lack of Timely Feedback. A third challenge the study revealed was the lack of real-time feedback from interns at their work sites. This study showed that results of internship experiences are reported mainly through a variety of written reports, surveys, and debriefings, following an internship. Real-time feedback from students during their internships, however, occurred much less frequently. An administrator study participant believed that the program could better help interns if the program had a way to easily communicate with students during their internships. The administrator believed that a valuable opportunity to hear about student internship experiences, as well as to encourage a connection between classroom learning and work experiences, was be-

ing missed, saying, "I think I could keep bridging them back [to] things like, yeah, diversity is a real problem in the newsroom. Why don't you talk to someone from a different race and ask them about their career path?" Similarly, this administrator also believed that a mechanism to facilitate peer-to-peer conversations among students during the course of their internships would be beneficial.

DISCUSSION

Although a single case study alone cannot provide the basis for practice and policy, this study provides insights that could be valuable across disciplines as well as in applied learning pedagogies such as service-learning, study abroad, and undergraduate research. As argued by Ash and Clayton (2009), students in experiential learning environments need structure and guidance during the critical reflection process in order to maximize the learning experience. Otherwise, reflection becomes "little more than descriptive accounts of experiences or venting of personal feelings" (Ash & Clayton, 2009, p. 28). In the program under study, data collected from internship experiences for assessment purposes led to steps taken to strengthen the reflection process. While analyzing assessment data from internships, administrators realized that the reflective writing assignments for interns could be strengthened to focus on key journalistic values and competencies rather than on general workplace issues. As a result, interns now write reflections about targeted journalistic outcomes such as applying ethical ways of thinking, communicating to diverse audiences, utilizing technology, and applying concepts to present information. This insight, however, has implications across disciplines, as most experiential learning programs have—or should have—a critical reflection component. That reflection could focus on values and competencies deemed most important by the program, and help to document student learning.

Second, most applied learning programs seek feedback from the experiential learning sites about the quality of student work. One way to collect that information is through employer surveys, such as internship evaluation forms. In the program under study, administrators reported a concern that internship worksite supervisors were checking "not applicable" for survey questions concerning journalistic values. As suggested by one administrator, perhaps the wording of those questions was unclear. Subtle differences in question wording are known to yield different responses (Suskie, 1992). Rewriting those questions could make them more transparent and lead to a higher rate of response. In addition, a program could include brief definitions of key values and competencies on internship evaluation forms. Also, a program might consider performing a simple pilot test of questionnaires or convening

a small group of worksite supervisors to offer their perspectives on issues of clarity concerning evaluation forms.

In another finding of this study, the program found that interns need more real-time feedback from the college while at the worksite. That feedback would allow college liaisons to discuss workplace issues in a timelier manner, and also could provide an opportunity for peer-to-peer intern conversations. As one administrator suggested, and I concur, the program should take advantage of today's communication technologies to stay in touch with interns at their work places. Since the study, the program has established such virtual conversation spaces. The internship director, for example, now communicates with students on a regular basis via Blackboard, Skype, and e-mail. Assignments are submitted electronically in increments rather than waiting until students have completed their internships.

DESCRIPTIVE DATA IN ASSESSMENT PORTFOLIO

Lastly, the program under study systematically collects and regularly analyzes internship descriptive data, including the location, nature, and types of internships in which students participate. All applied learning programs similarly should compile and analyze worksite descriptive data. Such descriptive data does not represent student learning. However, as an administrator in this study strongly argued, descriptive data point to trends in experiential learning opportunities and the employment industry. The systematic collection and analysis of descriptive data also could be utilized to provide information to prospective interns and other stakeholders, including grantors and accreditors.

CONCLUSION

Despite some challenges, assessment data collected through internships proved to be a useful tool for improving curriculum and instruction in this case. The program under study utilized internship assessment results to strengthen ties to worksite supervisors, contribute to discussions leading to a new course, update internship journal-writing assignments, stimulate conversations about student learning, and validate teaching and learning strategies. Of note, the program employed internships as merely one of multiple assessment tools, an approach recommended in the literature (Peterson, Augustine, Einarson, & Vaughan, 1999). As the demand for assessment in higher education continues to grow, internships can be a valuable ally in the assessment of student learning.

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Measuring Commitment to Internationalizing the Campus: An Institutional Fingerprint

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The idea of internationalizing our educational institutions is now commonplace around the world, and is now considered part of an institution's role in educating its students. Typically this is seen as the infusion of an international perspective into teaching, research, and service and for many institutions has become a key component of administrative goals, policies, and mission. However, there remains a significant difference between simply talking about internationalization and actually taking concrete steps in implementing this across a campus. In an effort to address this gap, an instrument is introduced to assess concretely what an institution is actually doing to internationalize its campus. These questions were developed from personal observation, literature from the field of international education, and through a survey with international educators from across the country. This information can be used to assess what is being done well on a campus and what needs to be improved. It may provide added impetus for change by international educators and their administration.

Over the past 20 years educational institutions around the world have made efforts to “internationalize” their campuses, and this continues to be a significant goal for a wide range of very different kinds of institutions in any number of countries. Often defined as the infusion of an international perspective into our teaching, research and service, the idea of internalization has transitioned from the periphery of our agendas to becoming a core value of our educational missions. University administrators, whether they are Presidents, Chancellors, Vice Rectors, or Provosts, frequently make internationalization a key part of their

rhetoric as the idea has reached the educational mainstream. In fact, in today's global environment few administrators would omit this from their own personal agendas or from that of their institutions.

Having entered the mainstream, we face the possibility that words like internationalization or globalization have become so commonplace that the terms have begun to lose their meaning. For those of us faced with the daily realities of working in an international office, this administrative rhetoric is nice to hear but is sometimes difficult to document in any substantive manner. All too often a gap exists between the bold declarations made by our institution's administrators, mission statements and/or strategic plans, and the realities of our daily challenges. The question becomes one of tangible, measurable support of our international efforts that moves beyond the language of institutional proclamations to actual commitment through behavior.

Part of our current problem is that the educational impact of international education upon participating students remains difficult to measure despite the fact that there is a general acceptance that students change for the better. Despite the efforts of researchers over the years, quantitative data supporting student learning and developmental outcomes resulting from an international experience remains elusive, making it easier to be ignored by hard-pressed administrators. Consequently, we must ask ourselves: "Are we moving from the rhetoric of internationalization to the actual implementation of these ideas on our campuses"?

This question is nothing new to educational researchers as this has been investigated for a number of years in a variety of institutions and countries. To take this research to another level, however, we must increase our sophistication in measuring the current status of our international efforts as well as in developing hands-on instruments that enable practitioners to determine the degree of internationalization on their campuses.

Fortunately we have a long history of educational research that considers the relationship of resources and performance outcomes. The 1970's and beyond was marked by a push for greater assessment and accountability throughout our educational system, including higher education, and culminated in a series of "performance indicators" designed to accurately measure the success or failure of our institutional efforts. Often tied to funding initiatives, the focus shifted from

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educational inputs (more dollars) to the measurement of educational outcomes based upon performance. Researchers from around the world have addressed such questions (e.g., Bottani & Walberg, 1992; Nuttall, 1992; Knight & de Wit, 1999; & Paige, 2005). Paige (2005) also includes a summary of several other studies.

By far, the most extensive effort to measure institutional internationalization efforts involves the work of Madeleine Green and others from the American Council on Education (ACE). The "Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses" studies (Green & Olson, 2003; Green, Luu, & Burris, 2008) provide us with information about the policies and practices of American educational institutions and offers a detailed look at "high activity" campuses as well as "less active" institutions. This research will continue on a longitudinal basis and in the future will continue to offer insights about the ongoing process of the internationalization of American campuses. Published accounts have been supported by on-line webinars offered by the ACE in conjunction with NAESA (the Association of International Educators), and provide international educators an opportunity to learn more about internationalization efforts across the country.

For the purposes of this article, it is important to acknowledge that Green summarizes this work by stating: "This survey isn't about the talk, it is about the walk. I think there is still a very big gap between the rhetoric and what actually happens on campuses" (Green, as quoted in Fischer, 2008). Green goes on to say that

we found that significantly more institutions stated a commitment to internationalization in their recruitment literature than did their mission statements and strategic plans or their policies and practices. The presence of internationalization in recruiting materials suggests that institutions realize its importance as a component of institutional quality and attractiveness, but that a gap exists between the image institutions seek to project and the implementation of internationalization. (Green et al., 2008, p. 82)

The idea of a gap between institutional rhetoric and measurable commitment to internationalization has been previously established, as is evidenced by Jack Van de Water's (1997) classic article entitled "Gaps in the Bridge to the Twenty-First Century" that was published in the *International Educator*. In this article, he offers the perspective that there is a considerable gap between the rhetoric behind internationalization, the agendas that result, and the lag in the budgets that then limits any real progress. Given the likelihood of a further reduction in financial support within American institutions for the immediate future,

the gap between the rhetoric for internationalization and the funding required to support it will probably broaden.

Green's work represents a culmination of the efforts of international education scholars over the past 20 years, as we have moved from merely discussing the need for internationalization to actually measuring what we are doing. Representative of these earlier efforts and a clear transition to our current efforts is that of R. Michael Paige (2005) of the University of Minnesota, who discusses the link between researchers who first focused upon the identification of "internationalization concepts" to later efforts to develop specific performance indicators designed to assess an institution's international efforts. As discussed by Paige, researchers in many different institutions and countries have identified "internationalization concepts" that form the basis for the development of specific performance indicators designed to assess international efforts. Internationalization concepts were described by Ellingboe (1998), Knight and de Wit (1999), Paige and Mestenhauser (1999), Mestenhauser (2002), Green and colleagues (Green & Olson, 2003; Green et al., 2008), and at such diverse institutions as the University of British Columbia, the University of Minnesota, the University of Ballarat in Australia, the University of Regina, and Malmö University in Sweden (Nilsson, 2003). Although each is unique in their own right, they address such common themes as leadership/administration, research policies, international and study abroad students, internationalized curriculum/degrees, and strategic plans and policy.

Based upon these generic internationalization concepts, Paige (2005) goes on to present a set of international education indicators that can be used in assessing a campus' efforts in international education. He offers ten such performance indicators comprised of the following: (1) University Leadership for Internationalization; (2) Internationalizing Strategic Plan; (3) Institutionalization of International Education; (4) Infrastructure-Professional Interaction Units and Staff; (5) Internationalized Curriculum; (6) International Students and Scholars; (7) Study Abroad; (8) Faculty Involvement in International Activities; (9) Campus Life/Co-Curricular Programs; and (10) Monitoring the Process. Within each category, Paige includes a series of specific statements or questions that reflect the main goals for the performance indicator, resulting in an overall assessment of an institution's internationalization efforts.

For the purposes of the instrument developed for this article, many of Paige's (2005) basic ideas have been expanded in scope and specificity. Additional information was added from Green et al.'s (2008) efforts on evaluating U.S. campuses, plus two more clearly defined dimensions have been added. Reflecting the changes now occurring within the field of international education, additional dimensions for marketing and alumni relations have been developed consistent with

the increasing significance of these areas in internationalizing a campus.

Although our ability to measure the role of internationalizing a campus has improved, there remains a basic issue with the use of this information. There exists a divide between the theoretical basis of this research and the actual application of this information into the day to day activities of many international offices. Many international education professionals are so overwhelmed with meeting their daily challenges that they are unaware of this information or how this might impact their daily operations. Consequently, in an effort to address this need, we have developed an instrument that reflects realistic issues on today's campuses and that will assist international educators in evaluating where they and their institution stand in the internationalization process. This "institutional fingerprint"—suggesting that each campus is unique—establishes a greater awareness of where an institution is concerning internationalization, promotes an increased understanding of what other options are available, and helps move the institution forward in addressing their shortcomings by acting as a catalyst for change.

The idea of moving beyond the rhetoric to actually measuring educational activity can also be adapted within other areas such as applied or service learning, with the shared long-term goal moving the agenda forward. As there is no attempt at comparison to other programs or institutions other than indirect ones, a realistic assessment of an institution's efforts can be made relatively safely without the fear of being portrayed in a negative light.

MEASURING INTERNATIONAL COMMITMENT

The "institutional fingerprint" instrument is comprised of 125 questions divided among eight components or dimensions representing various aspects of a campus' institutional efforts toward internationalization. These components are similar to those used in previous research models with the exception of the addition of two dimensions that focus upon recent developments in the internationalization of a campus—international alumni relations and marketing/communications. Each of the eight dimensions includes a series of specific questions that a respondent considers about his/her campus and answers as never (0), seldom (1), sometimes (2) and always (3). These in turn are summarized into totals for each dimension and scored on a graph that displays areas of strength and weakness concerning the internationalization of the institution. In an effort to determine if some questions reflect a greater importance in internationalizing a campus than do others, 50 international educators from 12 states responded to a survey

in which they were asked for their opinions concerning the significance of these questions. As a result of this feedback, several questions were considered of greater importance to the internationalization of a campus and these are weighted differently than are the other questions. Those that are weighted differently are then multiplied times the number representing the response provided for each question and added for an overall score for the dimension, which is then plotted on the graph. This information for weighted questions is included at the conclusion of the survey's eight dimensions.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE INSTITUTIONAL FINGERPRINT MEASURE

The series of questions below are designed to help you determine your institution's level of commitment to the internationalization of your campus. The questions are divided into eight different dimensions related to internationalization, and the total scores for each dimension will be tabulated to determine your "institutional fingerprint." Some questions will be "weighted" differently than others based upon their significance for internationalization. Do not calculate sum totals for each section until you have completed the entire scale and have read and followed the instructions for weighting at the end of the scale.

Please respond to each item on each of the eight dimensions based upon the scale below:

Never=0 Seldom=1 Sometimes=2 Always=3

RESOURCES DIMENSION:

1. Adequate, attractive, and up-to-date facilities are available to house the offices working within international education on your campus.
2. Adequate staff is available to meet the needs of faculty, international students, and study abroad students.
3. Assistance is available on campus for writing internationally-oriented grants.
4. Your institution has a number of active international partner institutions
5. Endowed chairs have been established for professors from internationally-oriented disciplines.
6. Your institution has its own study abroad and/or research facilities abroad.
7. Long-term housing for international guests (a semester or longer) is available and provided by the institution.
8. Financial support exists to support faculty international travel, research, and/or teaching opportunities.

9. Resources and individuals are available to provide support for obtaining internally-based grants for students and faculty. (such as Fulbright grants)
10. Short-term housing for international guests is available on your campus. (less than a semester)
11. Resources are provided to support on-campus organizations such as Phi Beta Delta. (honorary international fraternity)
12. Staff is provided with opportunities and support for international involvement.
13. Adequate resources are available for the expansion of international activities on your campus.
14. Your institution provides resources to provide study abroad scholarships.
15. The international office's budget is adequate to meet your needs.

Sum total: _____

ADMINISTRATION DIMENSION:

1. Upper-level administrators actively involve themselves in international activities on campus.
2. Upper-level administrators actively involve themselves in overseas international activities designed to promote the institution.
3. The principal international officer on campus has direct and consistent access to upper-level administrators.
4. The chief international officer holds an upper administrative rank of director or above.
5. The chief international officer also holds faculty status.
6. Administrators regularly acknowledge the importance of international students on the campus and within the community.
7. The administration requires an institutional review process that links student outcomes to the goals of internationalization.
8. Upper-level administration supports the role of the international office in promoting widespread communication, cooperation, and coordination with other units across campus.
9. Administration is responsive to new staffing and resource needs that arise within the international programs. (e.g., SEVIS)
10. Upper-level administrators attend regional, national, or international meetings that focus in part on international education.
11. Upper-level administration understands and supports the role of the intensive English program on the campus.
12. Upper-level administration supports and assists in the efforts of the alumni and/or development offices in forging and maintaining links with international alumni.
13. International topics are included in the chief administrator's public comments to the faculty, campus, and community.

14. International topics are included in the regular discussions among institutional governance groups like the Board of Trustees or Regents.
15. Chief administrators are willing to meet with international guests.
16. International initiatives from across campus are typically coordinated through the international office.

Sum Total: _____

INSTITUTIONAL PHILOSOPHY DIMENSION:

1. The institutional mission statement offers a specific endorsement of the role and importance of international education for the campus.
2. Concrete, measurable actions follow up public statements from administrators who claim to support international education.
3. The institution plays an active role in interacting with local, regional, or state-wide agencies involved in supporting or attracting international businesses.
4. There is a strong communication link between the international office and various constituencies across the campus.
5. The provision of resources is done in anticipation of need rather than in reaction to it.
6. The institution has implemented a study abroad scholarship fund with all students contributing on a semester or yearly fee basis.
7. International activities on the campus are regularly discussed as an agenda item by the governing board of the institution.
8. Scholarships are available for study abroad students as well as incoming international students.
9. The importance of international education is reflected in the use of international symbols on campus. (flags, within school materials, etc.)
10. Information about international opportunities for prospective students is part of the institution's recruiting materials.
11. Specific materials exist for recruiting international students.
12. Your institution has membership in international education organizations at the state, regional, and/or national level.
13. During graduation ceremonies international activity/involvement by the students is acknowledged. (through wearing country-specific sashes, verbal recognition, international medallions, etc.)
14. Concerning international matters, your institution has cooperative links with other institutions or organizations within the state or region.

15. Campus culture strongly supports the presence of international students at your campus.

Sum Total: _____

FACULTY DIMENSION:

1. International involvement (presenting abroad, teaching abroad, grant-writing, and/or publishing on international topics) is viewed positively in meeting the promotion/tenure criteria for faculty.
2. Funding is available to support faculty interested/involved in cross-national research.
3. Funding is available for faculty interested in presenting at conferences abroad.
4. Funding is available for faculty to attend conferences abroad.
5. Funding and programs are available that support teaching abroad opportunities.
6. Funding is available to support in-coming international guest professors.
7. Colleges/departments have identified one or more individuals to lead the internationalization efforts for their unit.
8. The institution provides recognition to faculty for achievements/efforts in promoting international education.
9. Opportunities are provided for faculty and administrators to make site visits for international program development.
10. Faculty are involved in establishing programs or forums that regularly address international topics or issues on the campus.
11. Faculty are represented on various committees that address international topics/issues on the campus.
12. Departments of colleges have established international committees that help guide/promote the international agenda.
13. Faculty with international expertise are actively recruited by academic departments.
14. Release time is made possible for faculty interested in writing grants with an international focus, teaching abroad, etc.
15. International activity by faculty is encouraged by upper-level administration, institutional policies, the department chair, and/or departmental colleagues.
16. Your institution seeks international opportunities for its faculty by supporting such things as the Fulbright program or regular teaching opportunities abroad.

Sum Total: _____

CURRICULUM DIMENSION:

1. Specific courses with an international content are required in the general education program, and every student must have at least a minimal exposure to these.
2. Academic majors and minors with a clear-cut international focus exist for students. (international business, area-studies programs, international studies)
3. Joint or shared degree programs have been established with partner institutions in other countries.
4. A study abroad experience is required in specific degree programs or within an institution's honors program.
5. Faculty from different parts of the world are brought to campus on a regular basis to teach in different disciplines.
6. General education requirements include specific categories for multicultural or global issues courses.
7. International internships are offered by your campus on a regular basis.
8. Departmental chairs/advisors are flexible in evaluating transfer credit for courses taken abroad by study abroad students.
9. Students may earn certificates that recognize international study or activity on campus.
10. There are foreign language requirements for all students as part of their general education requirements.
11. Languages other than French, Spanish, and German are available as regular offerings in your curriculum.
12. Options are in place that would allow your education students to student teach abroad.
13. Study abroad options are available for virtually all majors on campus.
14. Your campus offers a variety of faculty-led, short-term study abroad programs every year.
15. The campus curriculum strongly supports student participation in study abroad.

Sum Total: _____

MARKETING DIMENSION

1. Information on international admissions, programs, and activities can be found easily from the main page of your institution's website.
2. The alumni/development office website includes a specific international component.
3. Individual departments/colleges have information for prospective

and current international students on their website.

4. Resources (money, materials and personnel) are dedicated toward active international recruiting efforts abroad.
5. Your institution uses study abroad as a key component of its recruiting strategies for domestic student recruitment.
6. International events/activities on campus are included in school and local newspapers.
7. Specific recruiting materials for international students are used to attract additional international students.
8. The brochures of the admissions office include specific information about international opportunities such as study abroad.
9. Study abroad information is available as part of an institution's regular recruiting fairs and as part of the summer orientation.
10. International enrollments are considered as part of the overall enrollment management strategy.
11. Portions of the international office website for your campus are available in languages other than English.
12. An interactive "chat room" is part of your international admissions website.
13. Your campus makes use of the "social media" (MySpace, Twitter, Facebook) in recruiting international students and in promoting study abroad.
14. Information about study abroad participants is shared with the students' hometown newspapers.
15. Your institution has as one of its major identities a reputation for providing international opportunities for its students.

Sum Total: _____

ALUMNI RELATIONS DIMENSION:

1. International fundraising initiatives are established by your institution's alumni/foundation office.
2. An outstanding international alumni award is given each year by your alumni office.
3. An alumni newsletter exists that includes regular information about international graduates or a specific international newsletter is available on-line for international graduates.
4. International alumni assist in providing opportunities for current students in such as international internships.
5. International alumni are systematically tracked as are any other graduates of your institution. (addresses, employment, etc.)
6. Alumni associations are established abroad and are tied directly to the alumni office at your institution.
7. International alumni assist in institutional recruiting efforts.

8. During graduation ceremonies upper-level administrators make an effort to recognize international graduates, meet parents, have pictures taken, etc.
9. Graduation ceremonies are available on-line and are accessible for parents/families abroad.
10. Homecoming celebrations include specific activities/recognition for international graduates.
11. An international component is part of your alumni/foundation office strategic plan.
12. Your institution receives regular donations from international graduates and study abroad alumni.
13. Upper-level administrators assist the alumni office in making and maintaining links with international alumni or donors.
14. Scholarships for international students are supported in part by international alumni.
15. International trips for alumni are sponsored by your alumni office.
16. Your institution's chief international officer meets regularly with the head of the alumni office and/or foundation office.

Sum Total: _____

STUDENT/FACULTY SUPPORT DIMENSION

1. Unique needs of international students are recognized and addressed on campus. (provision of housing during breaks, food options, places of worship available, pre-registration available, satellite availability for watching TV)
2. Scholarships/graduate assistantships are available for international students.
3. Specific scholarships are available only for international students.
4. Programs using international students as campus or community resources exist and are conducted regularly.
5. Job opportunities exist on campus for international students.
6. Assistance is provided for international students interested in serving as resources for the campus, community, or region.
7. Friendship or host-family programs are available for international students.
8. Community organizations (service organizations, church groups, etc.) provide international students with opportunities to interact with them off campus.
9. Your institution provides new international students with an orientation program.
10. Your institution provides assistance for international faculty when they transition to your campus and community.

11. Information/programs on working with international students are offered on campus for support personnel from various offices.
12. International clubs/organizations exist on campus and are coordinated/supported through institutional resources.
13. When necessary, the institution's infrastructure will make adjustments in their policies in order to address the needs of international students.
14. International student health insurance policies may, under certain provisions, be accepted in place of the regular institutional health insurance policy.
15. Policies friendly to students wishing to study abroad are in place, such as shortened housing contracts.
16. Opportunities are available for staff to participate internationally through such things as site visits, short-term visits with counterparts, or recruiting activities.

Sum Total: _____

Weighting Instructions

For the following items on each of the eight dimensions, please weight the designated items by multiplying your response to the item with the weight indicated in parentheses below before calculating your sum total score for that dimension.

Resources: Question #2 (2 points), Question #8 (3 points)

Administration: Question #3 (2 points), Question #8 (2 points)

Institutional Philosophy: Question #1 (3 Points), Question #8 (2 points)

Faculty: Question #1 (2 points), Question #14 (2 points)

Curriculum: Question # 1 (2 points), Question #13 (3 points)

Marketing: Question # 1 (2 points), Question #4 (2 points), Question #5 (2 points)

Alumni Relations: Question #5 (2 points), Question #6 (2 points)

Student/Faculty Support: Question #1 (3 points)

CONCLUSIONS: USING THE INSTITUTIONAL FINGERPRINT

As is suggested by the use of the term institutional fingerprint, the assessment of a campus needs to be viewed through the unique circumstances found at any individual institution. The widespread diversity of American campuses in terms of academic mission and resources makes inter-institutional comparisons essentially meaningless, and one should

instead focus upon an assessment that is designed to provide information for the improvement of that campus' internationalization efforts. While one can argue that historically there has been slow but steady progress toward meeting the international goals of our institutions, the recent financial challenges facing many campuses will place additional pressures on determining where we are internationally, where we would like to be in the future, and how we might get there.

With any measurement instrument, there is a tendency to wonder how one compares to others who have taken the same evaluation. Yet the value of measuring one's own institution is in the use of this information for future planning and in obtaining the financial commitments it will take to attain those desiderata. The questions offered in this survey represent practices that are being used somewhere in the country by at least one institution, and provide a framework of ideas that may be used in promoting change in the internationalization of a campus.

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Deepening Applied Learning: An Enhanced Case Study Approach Using Critical Reflection

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Conducted in a nursing curriculum, this study explores the potential role of integrating critical reflection and case studies within professional practice degree programs. Forty-six students read a book-length case study, participated in a professional development event related to the book, questioned the book's author in face-to-face interaction, and used the DEAL (Describe, Examine, Articulate Learning) Model for Critical Reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2009a; Ash & Clayton, 2009b). Feedback using the DEAL Model Critical Thinking Table was given to students after the first critical reflection essay, and students used that feedback to deepen their thinking in the second critical reflection essay. Analysis of the critical thinking scores on the first and second essays confirmed increases in the quality of student reasoning. Reflections also provided evidence of improved understanding of palliative care and student ownership of their own learning. Results suggested the value of enhancing the applied learning pedagogy of case studies through critical reflection.

Traditionally within practice disciplines, the “read it, observe it, and do it” model is frequently used in clinical settings. Students learn about a technique through lecture and readings, watch others use the technique, and then implement it themselves. Often students practice the technique in a laboratory situation and then have their mastery of it confirmed before performing it in an actual healthcare setting. This approach has been successful over the years in that students are generally able to perform specific techniques and undertake particular tasks competently (Desanto-Madeya, 2007); however, their higher order reasoning skills and critical thinking abilities are not necessarily well developed through this process (Ironside, Tagliareni, McLaughlin, King, & Mengel, 2010; McDade, 1995; Shea, Grossman, Wallace, & Lange, 2010).

Increasingly the “read it” phase of this core model in professional practice disciplines is accomplished through the use of case studies. Shenker (2010) notes that case studies enhance learning and assist students in generalizing learning to other situations. Case studies have been integrated into lecture courses in a wide range of disciplines, including biology (Chaplin, 2009); business (Pariseau & Kezim, 2007); engineering (Prince & Felder, 2004); ethics (Whitehouse & McPherson, 2002); genetics (Styer, 2009); medicine (Thomas, 1993); nursing (Harcjai & Tiwari, 2009); psychology (McDade, 1995); science (Yadav et al. 2007); and social work (Greenwood, & Lowenthal, 2005). Case studies provide a set of facts or a scenario for student analysis and response. Instructors direct examination of the case so that students have a concrete context for learning specific concepts and practicing analytical and problem-solving skills. DeSanto-Madeya (2007) claims that case-based pedagogy is a creative learning strategy that not only enhances critical thinking and problem-solving but also decision-making skills.

Using case studies as applied learning pedagogy is similar to but distinct from problem-based learning (PBL). While the case study is designed to guide critical thinking and reflection, the related pedagogy of problem-based learning (PBL) focuses on dilemmas or problems within particular cases. In problem-based learning, students are given the facts of a case and asked to identify and pursue the relevant learning goals; they are often assigned to cooperative learning groups to enable such student self-directedness (Yadav et al., 2007). Williamson and

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Chang (2009) define the difference between case-based and problem-based learning in terms of how information is presented to students: the case-based approach presents the entire case up front while the problem-based approach presents some information initially and then invites the students to determine what else they need to know and how they can go about learning it. Herreid (2003) asserts that PBL's uniqueness has "eroded" over the past 30 years and that the term has come to be used more broadly to encompass all forms of case-based teaching. In addition, Kirschner, Sweller, & Clark (2006) assert that even though PBL is popular, empirical evidence indicates that it is less effective than pedagogical approaches that provide more guidance to students throughout the learning process.

The pedagogies traditionally associated with practice disciplines have been grounded in the conviction that the instructor plays an active role in the learning process. For example, when students participate in an internship, a practicum, or clinical experience outside the classroom, student learning is guided under academic or practitioner mentorship. Students experience professional tasks and settings, but they have little role in determining their own learning outcomes. The project under discussion here emerged in part from a desire to experiment in the classroom with an alternative balance of instructor guidance and student self-direction.

This project was intentionally designed to guide students through critically examining their learning experiences and articulating their own individualized learning. These experiences, derived from past clinical or classroom situations, combine with their emerging understanding as developed through the case study. The intention was to pilot and investigate an approach to developing critical thinking and deeper understanding of palliative care (a core set of concepts in the discipline) that enhanced "read it, observe it, do it" with a multi-faceted case study that was further enhanced through critical reflection. Goals for the students were to assume more responsibility for their own learning through the choice of which aspects of the case study and of palliative care they determined as most important; and to develop the critical reflection skills needed by self-directed learners and practitioners.

Most educators have among their goals that students retain previously covered content, link it to current material, and understand why certain skills, techniques, or theories are relevant in particular circumstances. The case study approach, enhanced by a guided, formal, critical reflection process, is an especially promising pedagogy in this context. Reflection guides students in making connections between previous and current learning. The case study helps students relate that integrated learning to concrete situations—just as service, work, travel, or other experiences do in other approaches to applied learning. Ash

and Clayton (2009a; 2009b) note that well-designed critical reflection generates, deepens, and documents learning in applied learning pedagogies and helps build students' capacity to understand and direct their own learning process. In addition, critical reflection involves examination of experiences or cases in light of learning objectives, facilitates making connections between theory and practice and between previous and new knowledge. In addition, critical reflection helps students develop higher-order reasoning and critical thinking skills. Their DEAL Model for Critical Reflection was used as a framework to enhance the case study approach in the current study. The learning goals for the students included academic enhancement (e.g., better understanding of the concepts associated with palliative care) and critical thinking. The investigators also had a particular interest in the role of critical reflection in establishing a balance between instructor guidance and student self-directedness.

CASE STUDIES AS APPLIED LEARNING PEDAGOGY

The case study approach is used as a method of applied learning in many fields, including professional practice and liberal arts (Harjai & Tiwari, 2009; Pariseau & Kezim, 2007; Prince & Felder, 2004; Whitehouse & McPherson, 2002). Although McCarthy and McCarthy (2006) argue that the case study method does not meet the criterion for experiential learning because it does not involve real-life decision making, others (e.g., Kreber, 2001) suggest that if case studies are well defined they provide an effective opportunity to experience learning and apply decision making in "life-like" situations. The case study provides an opportunity to connect critical thinking, problem solving, and decision-making in the context of application. Baumberger-Henry (2003) states that case studies are an effective teaching strategy in that students are given the opportunity to use critical thinking in situations that may occur later in their professional practice. Using the case study approach is one way to add meaning and relevance to the learning process. Case studies bring actual examples to the classroom, which can be significant because theory and reality do not always align, and reality itself is not always quite as it is imagined to be (Shenker, 2010). The investigators suggest that case studies can become even more effective when critical reflection is used to enhance the learning process and deepen its associated learning outcomes.

The potential benefits of using case studies as a teaching methodology include: improved grades, enhanced capacity to apply information from multiple perspectives, and increased critical thinking (Yadav et al., 2007). Pariseau and Kezim (2007) studied the effect of using case studies on learning in business statistics. Students were divided into a control group, a group completing one case study, and a group complet-

ing three case studies. The authors found that groups using at least one case study scored significantly higher on the final comprehensive examination than the control group. Grossman, Krom, and O'Connor (2010) similarly report significantly higher final grades for students when case studies were used in every critical care nursing class as compared to students with less exposure to case studies; they also found improved communication skills resulting from simulated family situations. Grossman et al. (2010) further assert that students' decision-making abilities and capacity to provide patient care independently of their instructors improved. Although the benefits of using case studies are clear, this approach to applied learning is not widespread. In a survey of 101 college science faculty, Yadav et al. (2007) report that 79% of faculty respondents indicated that lack of preparation time was a barrier to using case studies and 68% reported challenges associated with assessing learning from case studies.

The literature extensively discusses principles of good practice in the use of case studies. McDade (1995), for example, notes that certain discussion and reflection methods increase learning from case studies. She suggests that to achieve advanced critical thinking, discussion of the case should build on concepts previously mastered and progress logically to the next level of learning. McDade offers several rationales for using case study pedagogy to advance critical thinking. Case study pedagogy provides

- a laboratory to practice skills;
- an emphasis on analysis;
- a contextual bases for analysis;
- a challenge to students' assumptions and beliefs;
- alternative choices including strengths and weaknesses;
- a learning experience that integrates "theory into practice and practice into theory";
- opportunities to develop enhanced listening skills and sensitivity to diversity;
- a way to test theories based on organizational functions;
- an opportunity to develop teamwork and collaboration;
- a way to "experience, explore, and test alternative ways of thinking"; and
- an experience to consider others' ideas, analyses, and solutions that are different than the students (McDade, 1995, p.10).

This list points fundamentally to the capacity of case studies to increase engagement of students in their own learning process; this capacity could be enhanced by incorporating critical reflection. The lessons learned from this pedagogy reach well beyond the classroom.

Students may recognize actual situations they encounter in practice as similar to the case study and be able to use the same steps to analyze and problem solve as they did with the case study in the classroom (Harjai & Tiwari, 2009; Yadav et al., 2007). Pariseau and Kim (2007) clearly state that students who are active in their education have improved learning outcomes and retention. Dunlap (1998) and Williamson and Chang (2009) assert that, along with active learning, critical reflection is important for helping students make connections between theory and practice, ultimately preparing them for their professional lives.

CRITICAL REFLECTION IN APPLIED LEARNING

The reasoning skills associated with critical reflection enable connecting classroom learning with professional experience, and this connection is key in applied learning. Schwartzman and Henry (2009) suggest that “theoretical knowledge without practical application creates the Ivory Tower intellectual incompetent to face the everyday challenges of life” (p. 5). Practical application, or any other form of experiencing theory alone, however, is insufficient. Ash and Clayton (2009a; 2009b) and Clayton (2009) use T. S. Eliot’s (1943) language of “[having] the experience, but miss[ing] the meaning” to warn of the limitations of experiential education that does not include well-integrated and effectively designed critical reflection.

Educators in professional practice disciplines are familiar with the all-too-common dynamics of less-than-maximized applied learning. Too frequently, students respond to a clinical or practicum experience with the comment that they did not learn anything. McAllister, Tower, and Walker (2007) report a student commenting that “it was interesting...[but] I don’t see why we need to learn it.” (p. 304). Faculty and students are, not surprisingly, frustrated when this occurs. Faculty may design applied learning experiences with myriad educational opportunities, but if students do not get to “do it” they may think they did not have the chance to learn. Clinical paperwork is often submitted with descriptions of experiences students had in the field that lack any connection to ideas beyond the experiences themselves or any indication of their broader significance or meaning. Without effectively guided critical reflection students often fail to connect their previous learning to the current experience. DeSanto-Madeya (2007) indicates that students are often unable to connect theory and practice in medical-surgical nursing, suggesting that although they are able to memorize facts, they lack the ability to understand how to apply or connect knowledge to practice. Further, the thought processes related to the experience are often not evident in written assignments (McAllister, Tower, & Walker, 2007; DeSanto-Madeya, 2007).

The associated consequences are also familiar. Shenker (2010) wrote that if there is no connection between previous and current learning and experiences, then the learning and the other values associated with the experience will be forgotten and lost. Students can achieve high scores on exams but be unable to connect the theory they were tested on with clinical experience or use it to inform future practice. If an abstract concept is presented in the classroom, but the experience reveals a concrete and somewhat different reality, the student may not connect the two but rather view the theory and the experience as two distinct instances of two different and unrelated ideas. As summarized by Ash and Clayton (2009a), students may “not be fully aware of the nature of their own learning, its sources, or its significance” if applied learning does not include well-designed critical reflection (p. 26).

Ash and Clayton (2009a; 2009b) build on Dewey's (1910) postulate that learning does not occur simply by having experiences or by applying knowledge, but rather by thinking about that experience or application. Learning occurs by reflecting carefully and critically on what we think we know, why we think we know it, and the consequences associated with it and our use of it (Clayton, 2009). Thus, reflection as a vehicle for learning is best understood not merely as an introspective, touchy-feely stream of consciousness but rather as *critical reflection* — as an intentional, guided, meta-cognitive activity that generates, deepens, and documents learning while also building capacity for critical thinking and enabling improved practice (Ash & Clayton, 2009a, 2009b; Clayton, 2009). The challenge for educators in professional practice disciplines is to implement applied learning pedagogies with effectively designed and well-integrated critical reflection so that the power of these pedagogies is fully tapped.

INTEGRATING CASE STUDIES WITH CRITICAL REFLECTION IN A NURSING CURRICULUM

The project under discussion here attempted to enhance the traditional “read it, observe it, and do it” model with a case study approach that incorporated critical reflection. The nursing curriculum is based on American Association of Colleges of Nursing (AACN) Essentials (AACN, 2008), which clearly state the importance of critical thinking, effective communication, and integration of knowledge from the sciences and humanities to solve problems in nursing practice. The implementation of this pilot project in that curricular context began by reviewing the range of academic concepts the investigators sought to teach in order to identify one that especially needed further clarification. Schreiner, Pimple, and Bordonaro (2009) note that nursing education needs to emphasize the many complicated physical, emotional,

legal, ethical, and spiritual issues involved in supporting children and families facing life-limiting illnesses.

Palliative care involves dealing with children and families facing life-limiting illnesses, and is, therefore, of great importance in professional nursing, but it is not a well-defined concept for nursing students (Kavanaugh et al., 2009; Schreiner, Pimple, & Bordonaro, 2009; Spence et al., 2009). Although the goal of palliative care is to maintain quality of life through symptom management rather than to prolong life, recent studies show that many nurses view palliative care as having the same goals as end-of-life care such as hospice programs (Shea et al., 2010). In recent years, the investigators' academic department had adopted a standardized testing service to evaluate areas of strength and weakness within the curriculum. Palliative care had been identified as an area particularly needing enhancement. Additionally, senior nursing students had questions about palliative care, including how it was different from hospice care designed for the terminally ill patient. Thus, palliative care was chosen as the focus for the study. This project was designed to enhance students' learning regarding palliative care and their critical thinking abilities through the use of the DEAL Model to guide their critical reflection.

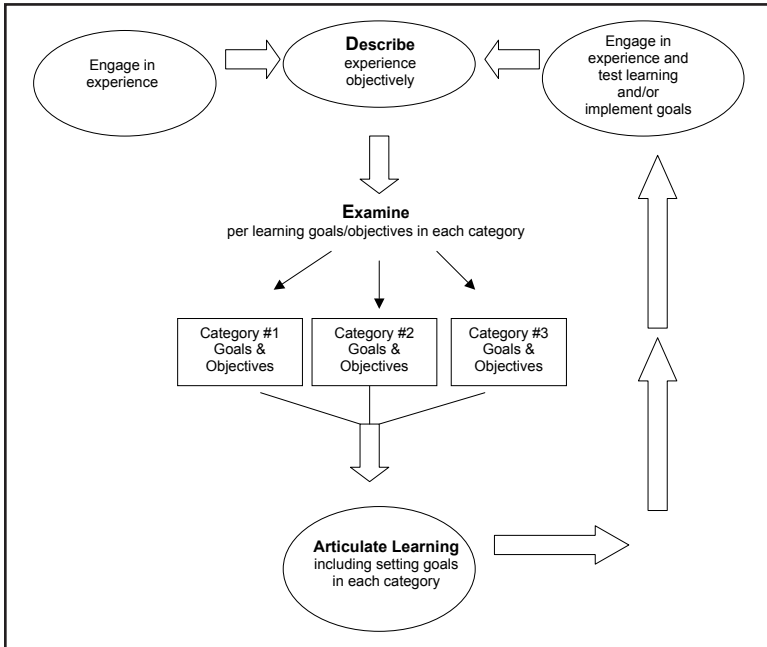
PROCEDURE FOR IMPLEMENTING CRITICAL REFLECTION

Each senior nursing student enrolled in community health (N = 46 students) was assigned to read the book *Hotpants: A Memoir* (Cathcart, 2009) before the semester began. The book tells the story of a middle school adolescent male who struggled for acceptance among his peers while battling with the life-limiting illness of brain cancer. Each student was asked to identify passages in the book that struck a personal note, made them think twice, raised questions, or catalyzed an "aha" moment. The students would later use these marked passages when they critically examined the book in their first reflection essay during the first week of class.

The DEAL Model was introduced during the community health course orientation at the beginning of the semester, in the context of an activity designed to help new nurses in the job market make strong, professional first impressions. Two guest lecturers spoke about the importance of professionalism in community health. After the presentations, the faculty presented a graphic overview of the DEAL Model (see Figure 1) and instructed students to work in small groups to critically reflect on the presentation using this structure. This activity was designed to introduce the students to the process of critical reflection they would be using later in the semester.

Figure 1: Schematic Overview of the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection

From Ash & Clayton (2009a, p. 41). ©2009 by Missouri Western State University. Reprinted with permission.



The first step of DEAL is to *Describe* an experience (in this case, the interaction with the guest lecturers) by answering such questions as: What happened? Where did it happen? Who was and was not involved? When did it happen? During the orientation, the entire class worked together to describe the experience with the two guest lectures. Then Bloom's taxonomy (1956; Clayton 2009) was reviewed with the students to emphasize the necessary thinking needed in the critical reflection activity. In the next step of the DEAL model, students *Examine* the experience in light of the intended learning goals and objectives, in this case related to preparing professional nurses. Given the focus here on academic enhancement and the intention that students play a greater-than-usual role in directing their own learning, students were asked to identify the range of academic concepts that emerged in their interaction with the guest lecturers. Students discussed their identified concepts in small groups and then narrowed the list to one concept that would be a priority in making professional first impressions in the community. The next step is to *Articulate Learning*, which is prompted by

four key questions: (a) What did I learn? (b) How did I learn it? (c) Why is it important? and (d) What will I do because of it? Students practiced each step of the DEAL Model in this activity while also having the opportunity to discuss with one another important learning achieved through reflection on the time with the guest lecturers. At the end of the orientation exercise students were told that their first critical reflection essay would follow the same steps and would be focused on their pre-semester reading of *Hotpants: A Memoir*.

Specific directions for the critical reflection essay included its format, content, and length as well as criteria and guiding prompts. Students were given a week to write the essay, which was not to exceed three pages. The page limitation was given to help students prioritize their thoughts, rather than relying on their instructor to identify the important points in their writing. The structure of the assignment followed the steps of the DEAL Model, with prompts for *describing* the experience (e.g., Who? What? When?) followed by prompts for examining the experience from the academic perspective (e.g., What elements of current nursing curriculum relate to this experience? Does this experience challenge or reinforce my prior understanding of this material?). From this step, students selected one key idea that they would develop further into an articulation of their learning, thereby summarizing their central learning about course material, explaining the sources and significance of that learning, and considering implications for their future learning and practice. Students were also given the DEAL Model Critical Thinking Standards Table and the DEAL Model Critical Thinking Rubric (Ash & Clayton, 2009a; Ash & Clayton, 2009b; Clayton 2009), which would be used as an assessment tool (see Table 1 for excerpts from the rubric). These tools gave students a guide to high quality reasoning and clear expectations for the essay as well as grading criteria; they also allowed faculty to quantify each student's thinking and learning. Based on the work of Paul and Elder (2001), the table explains to students and supports them in applying to their own work eleven standards of critical thinking. The rubric expresses four levels of mastery for each standard.

Paul and Elder (2001) provide practical ideas for improving student learning, including: designing instruction so that students can practice thinking about a new concept, making visible to them how ideas may be interconnected, clarifying what is expected, and giving students grading profiles so they can assess their own work. The DEAL Model and its associated tools for critical thinking and assessment operationalize these principles of good practice and emerge from the same commitment to continuous improvement in the quality of thinking. They also explicitly create the opportunity for students to identify, develop, articulate, and refine their own ideas. DEAL can support students in

Table 1. DEAL Model Critical Thinking Standards Rubric (excerpts)

From Ash & Clayton (2009a, p. 40). ©2009 by Missouri Western State University.
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	completely lacking (1)	under-developed (2)	good (3)	excellent (4)
Accuracy	Consistently makes inaccurate statements and/or fails to provide supporting evidence for claims	Makes several inaccurate statements and/or supports few statements with evidence	Usually but not always makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence	Consistently makes statements that are accurate and well-supported with evidence
Clarity	Consistently fails to provide examples, to illustrate points, to define terms, and/or to express ideas in other ways	Only occasionally provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways	Usually but not always provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways	Consistently provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways
Depth	Fails to address salient questions that arise from statements being made; consistently over-simplifies when making connections; fails to consider any of the complexities of the issue	Addresses few of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; often over-simplifies when making connections; considers little of the complexity of the issue	Addresses some but not all of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; rarely over-simplifies when making connections; considers some but not all of the full complexity of the issue	Thoroughly addresses salient questions that arise from statements being made; avoids over-simplifying when making connections; considers the full complexity of the issue
Breadth	Ignores or superficially considers alternative points of view and/or interpretations	Gives minimal consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes very limited use of them in shaping the learning being articulated	Gives some consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes some use of them in shaping the learning being articulated	Gives meaningful consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes very good use of them in shaping the learning being articulated
Fairness	Consistently represents others' perspectives in a biased or distorted way	Occasionally represents others' perspectives in a biased or distorted way	Often but not always represents others' perspectives with integrity	Consistently represents others' perspectives with integrity (without bias or distortion)

[Modified source: Paul, R., & Elder, L. (2001). The miniature guide to critical thinking. Santa Rosa, CA: Foundation for Critical Thinking.]

identifying their own most relevant concepts for reflection or guide students toward a focus on particular academic concepts. In either case the learning achieved through critical reflection is not a regurgitation of others' ideas but a self-articulation of one's own ideas.

The two instructors for the course independently scored the first critical reflection essays. Written feedback using the DEAL Model Critical Thinking Standards Table and the DEAL Model Critical Thinking Rubric was given to each student on the returned essay, and general feedback was given to the entire class orally. Students were not asked to rewrite these essays but rather to use the written feedback to improve their thinking in the next essay which, unlike the first, would be graded. The instructors' scoring of the first essay focused on providing feedback per the critical thinking standards to deepen students' learning and on evaluating the clarity of the essay. After securing consent, short excerpts from two students' essays were read to the class as samples of how to give a specific example and integrate that example with the book and with past clinical experiences.

At this point the class moved into the case study, drawing on the students' earlier reading of *Hotpants: A Memoir*. The author (now a 24 year-old college graduate) personally spoke to the class about his experience as an adolescent patient with brain cancer. Prior to the presentation, students submitted questions to the author. It was explained to the students that the author would be present to answer questions and clarify points, but because of hearing difficulties (due to the cancer treatment) all questions needed to be written and submitted in advance. After the presentation faculty led the students in a discussion of the effects a life-limiting illness had in this case.

Following the speaker's presentation students attended a departmentally required professional development event on palliative care that emphasized a holistic approach to patient care that is designed to improve the quality of life for family and patients facing a life-limiting illness. This event included presentations from palliative care team members including a physician, nurse, social workers, and a chaplain. One speaker used video clips of a patient receiving palliative care. The professional development event was a supplemental experience to the case study.

The second critical reflection essay was then assigned. Again the students were asked to use the DEAL Model—guided by the same handouts and prompts as in the first essay—to not only describe and examine the case study but to articulate their learning guided by the four key questions: What did I learn? How did I learn it? Why is it important? and What will I do because of it? The essay was designed to integrate their learning about the book, the author's presentation, the professional development event, and clinical experiences they had during their undergraduate careers. The instructors intended that the essays would demonstrate a deeper understanding of palliative care concepts that the students individually selected as important and that they would be good examples of DEAL-based case study reflections. In other words, students should demonstrate a deeper understanding of palliative care and discuss appropriate nursing interventions to improve the quality of life for patients with limiting illness. As with the first essay, the two instructors independently graded the essays using the DEAL Model Critical Thinking Rubric.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

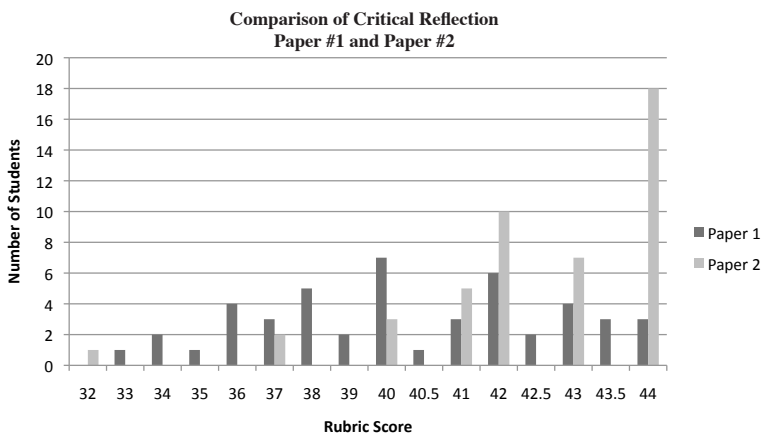
Each reflection essay was scored independently by two raters (the course instructors) for each of the 11 critical thinking standards on a scale of 1-4 and then the total score was added, for a maximum score of 44. For the first critical reflection assignment, the two raters scored 21 out of 46 essays (45.65%) in agreement, with agreement defined as the

summative scores of the raters having variance of two points (4.54%) or less. Essays with individual scores outside the range of agreement were re-read, the two instructors discussed each, and agreement was reached for all essays as each rater shared with the other the basis for her judgment in the search for consensus. With the second independent scoring, of the second round of essays, 30 out of 46 essays (65.22%) were initially scored in agreement; again, essays were reread and consensual agreement was reached. The two sets of essays were each scored upon submission, with the students' identities blinded. Given the different content of the two essay assignments, each set of essays was scored as a group. First and second scores were not compared until all 92 essays were graded. Table 2 summarizes the scores on the two sets of critical reflection essays.

Scores on the first critical reflection essay basically follow a normal distribution, while the distribution of scores on the second critical reflection essay was skewed toward the higher end of the range. A dependent t-test was used to analyze the differences in the scores on the two assignments. There was a statistically significant increase in scores from the first critical reflection essay ($M = 39.9$) to the second ($M = 42.3$), $t(45) = 5.16$, $p < .001$.

In the first set of essays, some students' work exemplified the critical reflection process with specific examples and clear connections to earlier clinical and course content, while many others included generalities and lacked depth and integration between the case and their learning. The majority of the students' essays in the second set clearly demonstrated improvement on all 11 standards, including the use of specific examples connecting past clinical, classroom, and personal experiences.

Table 2. Distribution of Critical Thinking Rubric Scores from Essay #1 and Essay #2.



During the grading process, the instructors identified academic learning about palliative care through content analysis of the essays. The two major themes that emerged included the importance of listening and the integration of earlier content learned (e.g., ages and stages of development; scope and standards of practice) with palliative care. Students demonstrated a more nuanced understanding of palliative care than in the first essays. For instance, awareness of the importance of listening in palliative care increased, as reflected in the following student quote:

...as Johnny [the book's author] arrived a respectful quiet fell over the room as a small, unassuming man entered in. He greeted us and dived into our questions. Slowly a theme emerged. As he recounted the fear and pain of cancer, we heard one thing, listen. Listen to me, was the message when he spoke passionately in response to the question, "What one thing could a nurse have done differently?"

One student demonstrated an integration of the concept of palliative care with content covered earlier in the nursing curriculum—ages and stages of development—when he reflected on his own assumptions about the speaker:

I assumed it [his greatest fear] was death, but death was the farthest thing from his mind. Instead, what he feared the most was what every adolescent fears. How was he going to establish his own identity? ...Would he ever get a girlfriend? What did his future hold and was he going to be "cool." If nurses would have just listened to him they could've altered his care to help him cope with these common issues/conflicts most adolescents have instead of just focusing mainly on his cancer.

Students also evaluated their previous tendencies in light of their emerging understanding of palliative care and identified alternate potential responses:

How often do we as nurses take for granted the requests of our patient? How often do we get in too much of a hurry to 'get everything done' and forget that the patient has feelings, too? A very important part of holistic health care is caring for the spiritual side of the patient...we need to give our patients an underlying capacity for hope...this can make a huge difference in the hope (and recovery) of each and every patient.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Ash and Clayton (2009a) as well as Clayton (2009) clearly consider the DEAL Model relevant for guiding critical reflection across the range of applied learning opportunities such as practica, service-learning, research, and study abroad programs. Although this study involved nursing students, the integration of critical reflection with case studies could be applied across many disciplines and student populations. Literature from other disciplines supports the reflective use of case studies to enhance learning and critical thinking. Whitehouse and McPherson (2002) state that case studies are effective in media ethics courses only if students can actually make connections between what they are learning in class and their future jobs. This point shows the importance of selecting cases that include issues that entry-level media professionals encounter and helping students see the relevance of these issues in their own potential careers. Burian (2001) discusses the importance of reflection when using case studies in courses on the philosophy of science and indicates that reflective use of a case study allows students to reach agreement on what the issues are despite their differing assumptions and beliefs regarding the theory and behavior involved. Faculty take on the role of a coach or facilitator when they use case studies, rather than traditional lectures, to enhance learning and critical thinking. Pariseau and Kezim (2007) note that in business statistics the case study approach enhances students' ability to be more responsible for their own learning, increases critical thinking, and teaches competitiveness, while helping faculty move beyond traditional lectures and become more effective "coaches."

In the study under discussion here, most students made clear connections between the concept of palliative care and earlier course and clinical content and experiences, including ages and stages of development, pediatric nursing, and economic and social issues. The students' preconceived notions about palliative care were challenged, and many students changed their understanding of this central concept in the profession. As they were exposed to new content and asked to integrate past experiences, the students' abilities to think critically were enhanced.

A critical reflection process such as that implemented in this study may be counter-normative to many students and faculty (Clayton & Ash, 2004). Traditionally, many students want to know what they need to do to get an "A" on an assignment or to pass a course. They often believe that the teacher has the "right" answer and that if they try hard enough they will eventually arrive at the pre-determined conclusions and thus receive a high grade. Adding critical reflection to case study assignments involved asking students to develop their own learning and their higher order reasoning skills (e.g., thinking at the levels of

application and analysis). Critical reflection is designed to help build students' capacity for thinking and working in situations where there is not just one "right" answer and for valuing their own well-grounded judgments and their own experiences as well as those of teachers or peers. With its emphasis on critical thinking, integration, and individualized articulation of learning, the DEAL Model in particular encourages students to take ownership of their learning in this manner.

This process was not only new to the students but was also a learning experience for the two instructors. The authors agree with McDade (1995) and Yadav et al. (2007), who suggest that faculty must prepare differently for the case study approach than for traditional pedagogies. Rather than preparing an outline and delivering a lecture, an instructor serves as a facilitator of learning and develops questions that help students unpack the case through discussion. This may increase course preparation time and may result in a less predictable unfolding of the class period. Similarly, the authors agree with Ash, Clayton, and Atkinson (2005) regarding the need to build the capacity of faculty and students for learning how to teach and learn through critical reflection.

Students were made aware at the beginning that faculty were learning the critical reflection process alongside them. For example, the scoring process was an eye-opening experience. Guided by the rubric, the instructors found both presence and absence of explicit evidence that students could think beyond the level of factual recall and connect earlier content to present learning and thus solidify intuitive judgments. Faculty were challenged to hold themselves and their students more accountable for providing evidence. Going through such a process, faculty may come to realize more clearly that some students may be unable—or unwilling—to deepen their learning or apply content. Students may struggle to make connections between experience and course content. Students often do well with learning at the level of basic knowledge—e.g., memorization of facts—but the higher-order reasoning associated with applying and building on previous knowledge takes more effort, skill, and practice. Although the group means in this study showed a statistically significant increase on the second essay, not all students improved, which raises the question of whether the students who could not or did not connect the case study with past learning will be unable to apply content from their courses in their professional practice.

This attempt to integrate a case study approach with critical reflection allowed the two instructors to emphasize important concepts while experimenting with their pedagogical approaches. Faculty may say: "We really don't have time for this. I can't get through the content as it is." This goal of covering content may satisfy faculty needs, but what is happening with the learners—are they really learning? It is much like

the sponge effect: students soak in the faculty member's knowledge and then squeeze the sponge on an exam or during a skill competency check-off and the faculty are pleased with the results. Wiggins and McTighe (1998) contrast "covering" material with "uncovering" it, which "occurs when instructional design focuses on finding problems or questions in what may have first seemed obvious or unproblematic" and which requires students "to see and find problems, gaps, perplexing questions, and inconsistencies" (p. 107). Critical reflection can be an important part of such a learning process, and its effectiveness in that role is deepened when faculty are willing to see themselves as learners and to experimentally revise and refine their established approaches.

The instructors' use of the DEAL Model in this study provided a step-by-step or "scaffolded" approach with a buildup of expectations along with practice and input throughout the process. Giving students feedback and scores on their first critical reflection assignment encouraged them to dig deeper into their own knowledge, experience, and prior learning in their second assignment. Using lectures without cases or critical reflection is a traditional means to disseminate information; however, the approach used here allowed the students to derive their own individualized meaning from exploration of common concepts (e.g., palliative care) and to consider implications for their own future practice.

Some faculty pursuing promotion and tenure might view experimentation with pedagogical approaches with fear due to the possibility of poor student evaluations of the unfamiliar process. Although some disciplines may report that student ratings are often inflated and more positive than faculty deserve, in the experience of the instructors in this study nursing students usually are quite candid on evaluations. In a previous semester when clinical paperwork was assigned to measure learning, one student commented, "I think that the paperwork is ridiculous. It was more of a hindrance and I felt like I was being punished for other people NOT reading. It took a lot of time away from what I usually do to study and prepare for class, I hated it!!!" With the introduction of the critical reflection essays it was encouraging that, on the end of semester evaluations, the students rated the faculty highly and wrote positive responses. There were no negative comments about the critical reflection essays. The authors hypothesize that incorporating collaborative critical reflection in a guided, scaffolded manner helps make the teaching and learning process more transparent to students, which may translate into greater awareness of the complexity and messiness of learning on the students' part. Furthermore, positioning oneself explicitly as a reflective learner alongside students may build a stronger sense of community in the classroom and help students to appreciate their instructors' efforts to facilitate learning and growth. Perhaps most importantly, because of

the capacity building for critical thinking associated with critical reflection, students' judgments on final course evaluations may be grounded more thoroughly with evidence.

The two instructors recognize ways to improve the process in its next iteration, for example by giving clearer instructions that are more explicit and customized to the course. Further refinement of the process would involve examining prompts to guide the students to the desired level of reasoning on Bloom's taxonomy and sharing with the students more examples of strong critical reflection products in which the desired integration of concepts and evidence of critical thinking are clearly present. The fact that neither faculty nor students had previous experience with a written critical reflection assignment accompanied by a grading rubric clearly had implications for the implementation of this project. Although faculty became more comfortable using the rubric on the second essay, their learning continues and they expect to improve their own skills as educators and investigators with each implementation.

There are many potential explanations for the increase in students' critical thinking scores across the two assignments that were controlled in this study. The improvements noted in the second essay may arguably be due to reviewer bias; certainly the high number of "perfect" scores (44 out of 44)—scores rarely achieved in any previous studies using the DEAL Model and its associated rubrics—suggests that the raters may not have held to as rigorous a standard in applying the rubric as they might have. The second essays may have been stronger simply because higher levels of reasoning were expected, more effort went into their development, the students were more comfortable with the process, or the students knew they would be graded. The second reflection may have been better because the students had not only read the extended case study book, but also had a face-to-face discussion with the author of the book and attended a professional event with palliative care experts, giving them more time to think and reflect carefully than they had on the first essay. By the time students produced the second critical reflection essay, they had been provided feedback on the first essay using the DEAL Model's associated critical thinking rubric. Therefore, in line with the working hypothesis of the study, the stronger scores on the critical reflection essays could have been the result of the students learning how to use the DEAL model and developing their critical thinking capacities.

Although the limitations of the study are clear, it was encouraging to the two instructors to observe students engaging with the speakers and activities during the professional development event at a level of thinking that likely would not have occurred without the integration of critical reflection with the case study. Several students commented to faculty during the two events about "getting it" or knowing better how

to connect prior and current understanding of concepts. Most of the students seemed to take the learning process seriously. It seems that the students' first critical reflection exercise and essay helped them learn to pay attention in subsequent experiences and to look for connections between previous learning and current topics.

Future implementation may include a design that more fully takes advantage of the DEAL Model's capacity to link prompts to higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy and to provide feedback on and revision of assignments using both critical thinking and Bloom-based rubrics (Ash & Clayton, 2009a). Future research may include an experimental design comparing pedagogies within the same semester and student population. The authors suggest ongoing investigation of the critical thinking rubric as applied across a range of disciplines and student populations. One question of particular interest involves the relationship between the individual critical thinking standards. Are they too interconnected for the current version of this instrument to serve as a reliable measure, for example, and under what conditions is the rubric best used holistically (as in Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005) or as in this study, separating out each individual critical thinking standard? The authors also suggest that to make a stronger argument for linking case studies with critical reflection as a basis for improved learning, investigators might consider using DEAL-based assessment alongside additional instruments. For example, a standardized professional exam could be used to measure factual learning while critical reflection products could be used to measure critical thinking, higher-order reasoning about core concepts, and student meaning making in terms of integration and potential future application. In addition, follow-up studies in the clinical practicum could be developed to identify differences among students exposed to varying combinations of case studies, critical reflection, and other pedagogical designs.

CONCLUSION

Case studies have been used effectively across several disciplines as an applied learning pedagogy. Case studies can enhance students' abilities to connect theory with practice. The case study approach integrated with critical reflection supports students in taking ownership of their learning while they learn how to think more critically and at higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy. Critical reflection as a meaning-making process is initiated internally from the student's perspective rather than externally from the faculty member's perspective. This study was grounded in the experimental integration of a case study with critical reflection and included use of a critical thinking rubric to measure student learning outcomes. Using the DEAL Model of Critical Reflection

in conjunction with a case study deepened students' understanding of palliative care as well as their critical thinking abilities.

Students who have such opportunities to develop and refine their critical reflection abilities should be well prepared to function as reflective practitioners (Schön, 1983) when they become professionals and thus to engage in lifelong learning and growth. Greenwood and Lowenthal (2005) and McDade (1995) emphasize the importance of understanding how the meaning or "story" drawn from reflection on a case study provides the basis for a generalized, reflective approach in similar situations students face as practitioners. Ultimately, the authors agree with Harjai and Tiwari (2009) that for contemporary professionals (e.g., healthcare providers) to achieve excellence (e.g., expert clinical performance), graduates must be able to translate knowledge and theory into practice. The incorporation of critical reflection into applied learning pedagogies such as case studies not only supports faculty and students through the requisite learning processes but also models for students the reflective practice they will need to enact with future clients and colleagues.

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Critical Consciousness and Critical Service-Learning at the Intersection of the Personal and the Structural

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Critical service-learning is often defined in opposition to a more traditional, “charity” approach that does not necessarily seek fundamental changes. Service-learning courses, however, may not quite follow this dichotomy. In an intercultural communication course, students engaged in service-learning that included some elements of both approaches. In this mixed environment, would students reproduce and perpetuate existing oppressive assumptions and relationships, or would they develop critical consciousness? This paper addresses the question by examining student reflections through a phenomenological approach.

Service-learning courses potentially bring many benefits to students. They encourage interactions between diverse populations and cultivate more interpersonal skills, altruism, and cultural sensitivity (e.g., awareness, tolerance, and acceptance) (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Kezar, 2002). Enhancing these qualities, however, does not necessarily lead to social change. Individuals can, for example, accept cultural differences between themselves and community members but fail to question inequalities that stem from structural limitations. Without addressing the problem of power imbalance, therefore, service-learning may unwittingly perpetuate oppressive social structures (Artz, 2001; Cipolle, 2004; King, 2004). In response to this potential pitfall, recent applied learning scholarship has stressed the increasing need for applied learning to play an active role in examining, articulating, and disrupting

power relations (Schwartzman & Henry, 2009) and in promoting democratic community building in increasingly unequal societies (Saltmarsh, Hartley, & Clayton, 2009).

The advocates of critical service-learning have argued that developing critical consciousness is a key to the creation of a just society (Rosenberger, 2000). To develop such a consciousness, one must engage in "critical" service-learning activities that encourage thought and actions geared toward structural changes. Most critical service-learning literature defines "critical service-learning" against a more traditional, "charity" approach that does not necessarily seek such fundamental changes. However, what happens when a service-learning course includes some elements of both approaches? Can it be still transformative, or does it contribute to the continuation of power inequalities? Are "critical" and "charitable" mutually exclusive? This paper seeks to address these questions by examining student reflections through a phenomenological approach.

Phenomenology sees reality as an experience in the relationship between the perceived and the perceiving or experiencing subject (Merleau-Ponty, 1962) and attempts to describe the lifeworld as it appears to the person who is experiencing it (Moran, 2000). Phenomenological inquiry provides a productive lens for this study for at least two reasons. First, by studying phenomena in an open-ended manner, it privileges "the descriptive lived experience to which the person gives consciousness" (Orbe, 2000, p. 607). For the purpose of this study, it encourages examination of how college students make sense of their service-learning experiences and whether and how their written accounts of the experiences demonstrate emerging critical consciousness.

Second, phenomenology pursues subjective meanings of the lifeworld by examining descriptions of and reflections on experiences (van Manen, 1990). However, it is not primarily interested in subjective experiences from particular vantage points. Rather, it seeks to gather examples of possible experiences to understand the range of meanings in the experiences (van Manen, 1990). Thus, although experiences "captured" through written or oral accounts are not identical to the lived experiences themselves, phenomenological inquiry allows for examining written student reflections as a rich site that reveals various meanings that students find in their service-learning experiences.

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CULTIVATING CRITICAL CONSCIOUSNESS IN SERVICE-LEARNING

Because social problems reside in existing societal practices, cultivation of critical consciousness first requires examination of the practices that are taken for granted. Artz (2001) argued that for service-learning to have potential for triggering social change, students and instructors must "challenge accepted language, discourse, and metaphors that do violence to communities" (p. 241). This means, first of all, recognizing the dominant language and practices that are disempowering to community members even when they appear apolitical or are even meant to be helpful. The realization of potential for change should not be abstractly about societal hegemonic practices but should include reflexivity about our own limited worldviews and privileges and how they situate us differently and often unequally in relation to each other. In short, we must engage in analysis, discussion, and reflection about privileges, assumptions, stereotypes, and prejudices (Mitchell, 2008; Rosenberger, 2000) that affect our relationships with community members.

Second, structural conditions that undergird social problems must be examined. This is a key element that differentiates critical service—itsself learning from more traditional service-learning (Artz, 2001; Eby, 1998; Mitchell, 2008). Students must be encouraged to examine the roles of institutions, individuals, groups, histories and even the service itself in perpetuating or transforming the problems. Based on this examination, students should articulate their visions and course of actions to achieve a just society. Toward this end, faculty, students, and community partners must work together in addressing issues and creating service experience. Classroom learning such as readings, discussion, and writing assignments should be used to reflect on the service in the context of larger issues.

Third, critical consciousness reflects authentic, dialogic relationships based on acknowledgment of power difference, mutuality, and deliberate collaborative effort. This type of relationship sharply contrasts with the assumption that the community is a problem to be solved and that students are problem-solvers—an assumption that pervades more traditional service-learning (Artz, 2001; Pompa, 2002). To build more authentic relationships, several kinds of learning are expected of students: learning about the community and people with whom they work; understanding what similarities and differences exist between themselves and the community members and how they affect their interactions; and examining own biases, identity, histories, and experiences of privilege and oppression (Mitchell, 2008).

INTERCULTURAL PARTNERSHIP PROJECT

Over the course of a semester, students in an upper-division intercultural communication course engaged in a service-learning project, Intercultural Partnership, in which they worked with English language learners who resettled in the local community as refugees or immigrants. In two sections of the course over two semesters, 52 students engaged in the service- experience. Of the 52 students, 40 students assisted free English language classes provided by a resettlement agency, and 12 were matched by the agency with refugees to give private sessions at the refugees' homes.

Critical service-learning literature suggests that working in a particular community agency or program is not transformative or effective toward social change because it does not address fundamental community needs (Eby, 1998, Mitchell, 2008). Although working as tutors may be dismissed under this definition as non-transformative, help with language learning is a pressing need of the local community with increasing numbers of immigrants and refugees. Thus, students engaged in the "traditional" service project, but the course integrated ways to encourage critical reflections throughout the semester. For example, in preparation for service-learning, the class discussed two contrasting approaches to service-learning—"charity" and "advocacy"—and the different relationships that result (provider-receiver versus co-equal partners) (Artz, 2001; Cipolle, 2004, Pompa, 2002). Through readings, internet research, films, and guest speakers, students were also encouraged to understand the structural issues that underlie social challenges that community members face (e.g., Artz, 2001; Cipolle, 2004; King, 2004; Mitchell, 2008). They also discussed their past experiences with refugees and immigrants, their assumptions, general stereotypes of refugees and immigrants, what unearned privileges they may have and how the privileges may help or impede their interactions with refugees and immigrants who serve as their intercultural partners (Rosenberger, 2000) before and during their service.

In addition to reflections, representatives of community organizations visited the class and jointly discussed expectations, challenges, and concerns (Mitchell, 2008). I worked along with the students in a classroom setting and visited other sites so that I could engage in conversations with students about their experiences. Three community members who resettled in the city as refugees visited the classes to discuss their experiences.

In short, the students fulfilled roles that are defined as more traditional service-learning, but their classroom component integrated activities that aimed toward cultivation of critical consciousness. In this mixed environment, do students reproduce and perpetuate the exist-

ing oppressive assumptions and relationships due to the nature of the service role they perform? Or are they able to develop some critical consciousness? This study examines whether and how students demonstrate critical consciousness as they describe their service-learning experiences.

METHODOLOGY

TEXTS

Throughout the semester, students were encouraged in class discussions and personal journals to draw from their service-learning. This way, through the structured, ongoing reflections, a deliberate linkage between service and academic study was established (Frey, Barnett, Pollock, Artz, & Murphy, 1996). Toward the end of the semester, their learning and experience were accumulated into an application and reflection paper, which served as the data for this essay. The paper consisted of two parts: 1) an analysis of their intercultural partnership experience, utilizing a theoretical concept covered in the course; and 2) a reflection on their overall learning about intercultural communication, themselves, and their community through a combination of classroom activities and interactions with community members. My analysis particularly focused on the second part because it allowed students to freely describe and reflect on their experience without theory constraints, which, in turn, allowed me to see if and how students were developing critical consciousness. Because the essay was part of the course assignments, special care was taken to ensure that students did not simply praise their service-learning experiences. It was stressed in both oral and written instructions that the depth of their reflection, not their like or dislike of the experience, determines their grade.

Self-reporting may fall short in assessing academic and social values of applied learning, because it may lack validity due to inconsistency and may not be a reliable method to assess behavioral changes (Schwartzman & Henry, 2009). Nonetheless, to determine the value of service-learning, outcome evaluation must reflect student experiences (Oster-Aaland et al., 2004). Critical service-learning ultimately seeks social change, which requires enduring partnerships and commitments by all parties. Although behavioral transformations may not be assessable through self-reports produced at the end of just one semester, seeking social change first requires self-reflexivity and questioning of the dominant, taken-for-granted assumptions and practices. To this end, student self-reports may reveal emerging (or lack of) critical consciousness about power, privileges, biases, and structural inequalities.

ANALYSIS

Phenomenological analysis aims to explicate experiences from participants' perspectives and elucidate their meanings as fully as possible (Kvale, 1996). This is done by staying close to the participants' words and what the words express about their life world. Thematic analysis is useful toward this end, because it enables researchers to use expressed information "in a systematic manner that increases their accuracy or sensitivity in understanding and interpreting [the subjects'] observations about people, events, situations, and organizations" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 5).

Theme development involved several steps. First, keeping my focus on critical consciousness in mind, I read each essay, noting words and phrases that indicate the student author's learning from the intercultural partnership project. Second, I looked for themes in the words and phrases by using three established criteria: repetition (frequent appearance of particular words and phrases), recurrence (common meanings that are communicated via various articulations), and emphasis (importance communicated through all caps, punctuation, or format such as bold or italics) (Apker, Propp, & Ford, 2005; Kinefuchi & Orbe, 2008; Owen, 1984; Wright & Orbe, 2003).

A colleague who teaches service-learning courses and is familiar with service-learning literature assisted me in this process by reviewing several student essays, using the three criteria. The themes were then compared and contrasted across essays for common themes. Theme generation here followed the repeated process of writing themes, returning to the raw data, and rewriting the themes for maximum differentiation of the units of analysis (Boyatzis, 1998). To strengthen the validity of the analysis, students were asked in the following semester whether the emerging themes reflected their experiences and what suggestions for change they might have. Twelve students provided confirmations or some minor changes to the themes. These student comments, along with the colleague's assistance, served as a way to be true to the phenomenological pursuit of possible meanings in the described service-learning experiences.

CULTIVATING CRITICAL CONSCIOUSNESS: SUCSESSES AND CHALLENGES

How did the students make sense of their service-learning in which they fulfilled traditional service roles but were encouraged to ask critical questions about their service, community, and themselves? How did their written reflections indicate the presence (or absence) of critical consciousness? While the course adopted activities to cultivate such consciousness, student reflections varied in demonstrating it.

QUESTIONING DOMINANT ASSUMPTIONS AND POWER RELATIONS

A key to critical consciousness is exploration of assumptions, biases, unearned privileges, and power and the linkage between power, knowledge, and identity (Butin, 2005; Mitchell, 2008). Although these issues were extensively taken up in the classroom throughout the semester, the student essays reflected various degrees of engagement with these issues. The most frequent topic of reflection was stereotype and prejudice. About a half of the students raised them as obstacles that their partners face. However, the depth of reflection varied. Some students discussed the issue as a problem of generalized others as reflected in the statements such as: "Every refugee has experienced prejudice one way or another," "People can be ignorant and rude, and "Others already categorize someone by their physical appearance and inability to speak English." In those statements, students brought up stereotype and prejudice as pervasive problems "others" have and as obstacles that foreigners unfortunately go through rather than something that needs to be critically reflected on as manifestations of racialization of immigrants (a topic we took up in class). In this regard, they were able to identify stereotypes and prejudices as problems but at the same time regarded them as inevitable aspects of transnational resettlement experiences.

Some other students, however, reflected on their own stereotypes that they held about the cultures of their partners. A student, for example, commented that she did not realize how deep her stereotypes about Middle Eastern men were and "If I had not been in this intercultural partnership, I would have probably gone the rest of my life with the same stereotypes I have carried thus far about them." Similar observations were made by a student who worked with a Mexican immigrant. These comments illustrate emerging reflexivity about their own biases about cultural others and a move toward unlearning them. Here, biases are not constructed as inevitable obstacles for immigrants but are things that they themselves can work to change.

While the above two groups of students reflected on biased representations of immigrants and refugees as individual problems, several students articulated the roles of larger contexts and institutions in perpetuating marginalization of immigrants and refugees. Some students questioned the lack of support for refugees in their transition to their new life. For example, having witnessed the difficulty of cultural adaptation, a student questioned the applicability of a reductionist oriented theory of newcomer adaptation—a theory covered in class—that stresses the importance of newcomers to engage in communication with the people of the host culture but that does not explore the role of institutions in this process.

If you were a refugee attending the English Language School, you would be in an English-speaking environment for 15 hours a week top. Many cannot even do a half of that, because they have to work. Then you would return to your housing with all of the other refugees and your jobs that require little interaction. I have been amazed at how slow the language learning process is. It has now been two full months that I've been at the English Language School and they don't have the alphabet down. If the refugees take three months to learn the alphabet, how long will it take them to learn to communicate in English? If successful adaptation is dependent upon host communication, what happens if their means of communication in our culture are highly handicapped? Is adaptation likely? What is the accountability on the part of the host society? For the theory to work, something systemic needs to be done to alleviate the handicap.

A few other students pointed out the relationship between dominant racial representations and institutional practices that marginalize immigrants who are subsumed into the representations. They heard from the ESL teachers they aided that the people from countries in Southeast Asia tend to be more "diligent," "hardworking," and "successful" than their counterparts from other places. The students started to question this assessment upon learning through a translator that several South-east Asians in class were living without basic needs such as hot water, and access to working washing machines, and access to medical care for ill family members. Realizing that these problems were not shared until asked through the translator, one student noted the urgent need for "increased communication between refugees and Americans." Another student wrote:

We discussed a lot in class about stereotypes. Everyone stereotypes, and before this class, I did not really think about how deeply it can affect people's lives.... Because of the widespread attitude that Asians are academically successful, many schools do not monitor or even record the dropout rates among Asian Pacific Americans. Some school districts do not realize that the dropout rate of some Asian groups is as high as 50%.... The South Asian immigrants I interacted with in the last 12 weeks clearly do not support the model minority stereotype.... Our society needs to work on a more widespread understanding of cultural identity and more accurate representation of people in the media.

Here, the student points out the negative material implications that “positive” stereotypes can have on the lives of people who are subjected to the stereotypes and acknowledges that this is a pervasive societal problem to be addressed. The advocates of critical service-learning argued that students must investigate the relationship between institutional structures and service recipients if they are to make their service-learning more than “charity” or part of a “band-aid” solution to the social problem (Artz, 2001; Mitchell, 2008; Walker, 2000). Some students, like the one above, began to identify and problematize dominant assumptions about newcomers and resettlement structures.

TOWARD AUTHENTIC RELATIONSHIPS

An important component of commitment to social justice is building authentic relationships that are based on acknowledgment of power relations, critical reflection on biases that shape our interactions, and articulating ongoing efforts to act themselves and to engage others in the work (McNally, 2004). Students must be able to “name the ways they are both like and unlike the individuals they work within the service setting, and further how those similarities and differences impact their interactions at the service site and away from the service site” (Mitchell, 2008, p. 59). These relational dynamics were explored in class discussions about readings and small group reflections of service experiences.

Similarities are a topic that about one-third of the students discussed in their papers. For example:

Through talking to Tina and then later Peter, it is amazing to me that we are all on this world placed in totally different situations and environments, but we are all searching for similar things in life. To be happy and succeed at what we do. To get an education and to have nice things in life.... The more I met with my partners, the more I realized how much the same we really are.

Other students echoed this observation, emphasizing how commonalities between them and their partners transcended the differences that initially seemed challenging. Differences were also brought up by students most often in terms of cultural differences that they learned and language barriers that they experienced. In their discussion of cultural differences, the overwhelming tone was appreciation of diversity. Celebrating diversity and discovering commonalities is certainly important for relational development. From a critical perspective that was stressed in class, however, realities of social inequalities must be also

recognized in authentic relationships. A handful of students demonstrated this sensibility. One of them noted:

I was severely impacted by September 11 and the effects that it had on my country.... I really had no desire to “get to know” anyone from that part of the world. I was not very thrilled, to say the least, when I found out that I was going to be meeting someone from Saudi Arabia.... He is a Muslim and I am a conservative Southern Baptist who had never knowingly spoken openly with a Muslim before.... After a couple of meetings, however, it became apparent that our two very different religions actually shared common values.... Even though I began to see that he is a human like me and we share some commonalities, I also noticed that he still face prejudices in America because of the negative stereotypes the majority of Americans have about the Middle East and Muslims. I saw this in my community.... Before it did not bother me but now it does.

In this reflection, the student recognizes both similarities and differences that exist between him and his partner. More important, he acknowledges the fact that the differences are not neutral but place him and his partner into unequal categories.

In addition to naming similarities and differences, another topic that appeared in several reflections is labels. Students most frequently discussed the word “refugee” and its common association with such marginalizing terms as “ignorant,” “helpless,” “suck up welfare.” These labels allow “the people in power—citizens of this town and society—to name them such and categorize them so they may easily discuss their status and articulate opinions about them. These labels are powerful.” A few students noted that sometimes community organizations that work with refugees use these labels and inadvertently marginalize refugees. They found these labels to be, to use one student’s words, “farthest from the truth.” Their regular, personal interactions with refugees, coupled with the power of discourse in class, forced them to pay attention to ways in which seemingly unproblematic labels contribute to unequal relationships. Rather than viewing language as a neutral medium of communication, students here began to see through their service-learning the power it has on *systematically* producing unequal identities and relationships (Butin, 2005).

PUTTING REFLECTION INTO ACTION

Critical service-learning emphasizes transformation. At its best, acquired critical consciousness should propel students to take actions

toward creating a more just society. Although student reflections may not be the most effective tool for assessing behavioral changes, they nevertheless illuminate some significant changes occurring to students at different levels. For some students, this shift was primarily happening within themselves. A student who worked with a man from Cuba noted:

It was a very positive experience to meet the people that I held these stereotypes against and learn about how much they differ from those notions. It has truly made a change in my thinking, in that, I am now continuously, consciously attempting to correct myself when my mind tries to revert back to stereotypes as a way to organize my world.

He and several others stressed the importance of continuing reflexivity and consciously unlearning biases. Although their actions may be personal, primary focus has been shifted to the plight of others (Frey et al., 1996)—an important indicator of developing critical consciousness.

Another group of reflections stressed the importance of effecting changes within personal networks of friends and families. A student who served as a classroom assistant realized that there are many prejudices against immigrants among his acquaintances that he did not notice before he began working with refugees. He discussed his response to this realization:

By staying silent, it is as if I am giving that person permission to be disrespectful around me. When I encounter a negative attitude next time, I want to change that.... Encouraging the proper treatment of people can start by ensuring the proper use of terms when those people are not around.

Here, the student admits his own complicity (inaction) in perpetuating the discourse that marginalizes refugees and immigrants and begins to articulate what changes he wants to implement and to see around him. Similarly, other students stressed the importance of affecting immediate networks:

In the culture I grew up in, we learnt that before you open your mouth, you first have to consider whether it is an improvement over silence. People are afraid to speak to fail. But I think it is more important to think in the way that when we fail to speak, the vacuum is filled by the voices of others, others speaking for us.... As Tatum's reading clearly pointed out, to affect racism and other big issues in the society, we must

consciously deal with it.... Talk about it when eating dinner with your family and have the courage to talk when your friend is expressing depreciated opinion about someone from another race. There are many ways to act and react.

I think that we are all personally responsible for what we say, what we believe in, and what we chose to hear and let go. I feel that it is my responsibility as an individual to question people when they talk negative about other races and share my experiences and insights to open their eyes. Each of us can take small steps to address such societal issues around us.

Both reflections underscore the importance everyone's of interpersonal sphere of influence on bringing about social change. They both also point out the everydayness of social change; rather than construing social change as a grandiose event, they articulate it as an accumulation of everyday actions.

Though the two students quoted above focused on transformation in themselves and their social networks, several students wrote about their future service commitment. A number of students expressed their intention to continue their work with refugees. Some of these students indeed continued to work with the same community organizations or the individuals in the following semester. Moreover, a few students started working with community organizations in different capacities; one became a liaison between community organizations that serve immigrants and universities, one joined AmeriCorps, one student continued her commitment of aiding refugee integration into the community by working as an intern for a refugee service organization, and yet another resumed his service with refugees after graduation.

Another way students moved toward action was through providing feedback to their community organizations. For example, two students who worked together in a classroom talked to their volunteer coordinator about ideas to create a social network between college students and new immigrants. A few weeks after the semester, another student wrote to me that he spoke to his church community not simply about providing help to refugees but about the need for unlearning presumptions about them and building relationships.

PROBLEMATIZING AND PROMOTING CRITICAL SERVICE-LEARNING

Adopting a phenomenological lens, this study sought to understand whether and how college students demonstrate critical consciousness

when their service-learning involved components of both critical and traditional approaches. As shown in the preceding section, although critical consciousness emerged in students as a whole, the depth and foci of the consciousness varied. Inaccurate assumptions about immigrants and refugees were variously attributed to others, to themselves, or to the societal structure. In discussing relationships with their partners, some students stressed only similarities, some addressed both similarities and differences, and yet others articulated power and privilege. In translating critical consciousness into action, students wrote about personal change, influencing friends and families, and advocacy in their community. The wide range of learning and meanings revealed in the student essays has implications for the debate about "charity/traditional service-learning" versus "advocacy/critical/social justice service-learning."

First, traditional service activities such as tutoring and working in soup kitchens have been criticized for their inability to challenge the quality of community agencies and thus are non-transformative (Eby, 1998; Mitchell, 2008). Such activities serve student agendas rather than meeting "real community needs" (Eby, 1998, p. 4). According to the advocates of critical service-learning, therefore, the service project must be collaboratively created by community agencies, instructors, and students to tackle the root problems. This may be an ideal partnership for which service-learning courses need to strive. After all, ownership of a problem creates accountability for building a better community (Block, 2008). On the other hand, there are many pre-identified real, immediate community needs with which college students can assist while using the opportunity for a critical reflection. The students in this intercultural communication course engaged in a traditional service activity, English language tutoring, which non-native speakers of English urgently need. Working with immigrants as a tutor may not be merely a "band-aid" solution to a social problem but an important step toward empowerment.

Analysis of student reflections showed that students can still develop critical consciousness toward social change if classroom activities consciously and persistently address the issue of power and challenge them to reflect on the structure, language, and context of the service and to articulate their visions and actions for a better community. Rather than dismissing traditional service activities as "charity" or non-transformative, it is perhaps more productive to find ways to engender advocacy even while meeting immediate community needs. One may even argue that working in a traditional service setting helps to cultivate critical consciousness, because students can observe and critique the working of community agencies and typical ways in which community needs are addressed. In fact, as shown in the previous section, some students

in the class questioned the dominant adaptation assumptions and how representational discourse is related to distribution of resources. Moreover, the idea of tackling root causes championed in critical service-learning may take different forms depending on the problem. For example, in the case of refugee resettlement, the sociopolitical situations that produce refugees are beyond students, but the students can help to create a more inclusive community through personal and interpersonal transformations and commitments.

Second, it may be difficult and problematic to try to fit the wide range of critical consciousness expressed by students into the binary division between “charity” and “advocacy.” From a strictly critical, social change perspective that emphasizes societal transformation through dismantling root problems, only a handful of the students’ reflections may pass as being critically oriented. However, it may be premature to write off personal and interpersonal changes as self-serving and ineffective toward social change. In problematizing the dominant understanding of “charity” and “social justice” as opposite ends of a continuum and the assumption that social justice is better than charity, Morton (1995) and Foos (1998) proposed a more dialogic approach to this debate. Morton argued that the two orientations should be considered as different paradigms and that experiences within each paradigm may vary from “thin” to “thick.” Moreover, “[a]t the thickest, the paradigms seem to intersect, or at least to complement one another” (Morton, 1995, p. 28). Similarly, Foos (1998) observed that “thick charity includes an element of social change. By the same token, thick social change involves an element of charity, of *personal*, not just social, engagement” (p. 18, emphasis original).

These observations, I argue, allow for a more complex and useful reading of the variety of foci that the students indicated in their reflections. Constructing stereotypes and prejudice as pervasive societal problems may appear critical but may be a “thin” reflection if the reflection stops there, whereas examining their own actions and consciously changing them, while being rendered as personal, is more transformative. In fact, some of the students who continued to work with refugee communities after the semester did so because they established personal relationships with their partners and wanted to continue to help them learn English. This commitment may be classified as “charity,” but it is based on “the radical act of recognizing the worth of every person” (Morton, 1995, p. 24) rooted in the Freirean view of humanism that has immensely inspired critical pedagogy and critical service-learning. Thus, building on the point made by Morton (1995) and Foos (1998), I argue that critical service-learning indeed requires efforts at *both* personal and structural levels and examination of how these two levels of practices intersect.

This intersectional view was evident in some reflections such as the ones that problematized dominant perceptions and representations of refugees or the ones that articulated power differences in relationships. Construction and perpetuation of inequality occur discursively as we name and define social and cultural groups publicly, socially, and institutionally. Thus, as one student noted, “seemingly trivial practices such as naming do have an impact on the way we see each other.” This and similar observations reflected emerging critical orientation through examination of both individual and institutional roles in creating a more just, inclusive community for newcomers.

On the other hand, some reflection essays did not suggest clear emergence of critical consciousness. As discussed in the previous section, for example, some students observed the prejudices that refugees and immigrants face as pervasive societal problems that are unfortunate rather than constructed realities in sociohistorical, political, and economic context. Another group of students emphasized how they are similar to their immigrant partners but were unable to articulate very real power differences that situate them and their partners in asymmetrical relationships. A number of factors (e.g., life experience, background, standpoint) may have contributed to the differences in the depth of reflection. Some students may have been already equipped with the capacity and motive to work with immigrants or harbor passion about community building, while others were not. Some students may have been critical in one area (e.g., race) but not in another (e.g., immigration) due to their particular standpoints. A challenge of critical service-learning is, then, to respond to this student heterogeneity while attempting to move students toward “thicker” engagement with the community personally and structurally.

Some pedagogical and research directions may be useful toward this end. Pedagogically, the preparations for service-learning should include discussions about the relative roles of persons and institutions in both creating and improving social and cultural challenges. The discussions may use a variety of societal issues, contemporary and historical, as examples for demonstrating the interconnectedness of personal and structural factors. This activity should be followed by students’ self-examination of their situatedness (Kinefuchi & Orbe, 2008) (e.g., interested, attached, indifferent, uninformed) in relation to cultural and social others relevant to their service-learning courses and why they occupy the particular locations. Part of this exercise is to encourage students to understand their racial, gender, and class standpoints (Wood, 2005) and how their standpoints may serve as privileges and/or disadvantages in society in generally and in their service-learning specifically. The instructors (and perhaps other classmates), then, can provide suggestions for engaging the aspects that are unexplored or avoided.

For example, students who personally enjoy helping refugees integrate into their community but fail to address institutional limitations may be encouraged to explore how such institutions as laws, policies, media, and education pose challenges to newcomer integration. The students, in turn, may respond to the charge in their next round of examination of their situatedness.

Incorporating this type of multi-step dialogic analysis exercise may also help to advance research of critical service-learning by providing several points to measure student progress. By examining student reflections about their learning through the service-learning, this study showed a range of critical consciousness emergent in the course of the semester. Students signaled their learning by referring to their specific serviced-learning experiences, course readings, and class discussions. However, the study did not evaluate the starting point of the learning. The dialogic analysis exercise allows researchers not only to determine the initial heterogeneity of student readiness in developing or deepening critical consciousness but also to understand how students may be transformed through a combination of classroom learning and service experience and what specifically contributed to the change.

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